

Your PRINTED name is: _____

Grading

1

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- 1) M 2 2-131 A. Ritter 2-085 2-1192 afr
- 2) M 2 4-149 A. Tievsky 2-492 3-4093 tievsky
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- 9) T 12 26-142 P. Buchak 2-093 3-1198 pmb
- 10) T 1 2-132 B. Lehmann 2-089 3-1195 lehmann
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- 13) T 2 2-132 B. Lehmann 2-089 2-1195 lehmann
- 14) T 2 26-168 P. McNamara 2-314 4-1459 petermc

1 (40 pts.) The (real) matrix A is

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & x & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- (a) What can you tell me about the eigenvectors of A ?
What is the sum of its eigenvalues?
- (b) For which values of x is this matrix A positive definite?
- (c) For which values of x is A^2 positive definite? **Why**?
- (d) If R is any **rectangular** matrix, *prove* from $x^T(R^T R)x$ that $R^T R$ is positive semidefinite (or definite). What condition on R is the test for $R^T R$ to be positive definite?

Solution (10+10+10+10 points)

a) Since A is a symmetric matrix (no matter what x is), its eigenvectors may be chosen orthonormal (5 points). The sum of the eigenvalues is the same as the trace of A , that is, the sum of the diagonal entries: $\text{tr}(A) = 7 + x$.

b) In this case, the easiest tests for positive definiteness are the pivot test and the determinant test. I'll use the determinant test.

A matrix A is positive definite when every one of the top-left determinants is positive (3 points for correct defn.). In this case, the three determinants are 1, $x - 1$, and

$$\det(A) = 1(6x - 9) - (6 - 6) + 2(3 - 2x) = 2x - 3. \tag{1}$$

(6 points). All of these are positive precisely when $x > 3/2$ (1 point).

c) Perhaps the clearest way to think about this is by using the eigenvalues. Suppose A has eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$. (They are all real because A is symmetric.) Then the eigenvalues of A^2 are $\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \lambda_3^2$ (5 points). These are all positive so long as the eigenvalues are non-zero. So, A^2 is positive definite except when A has an eigenvalue of 0, or equivalently, except when A is not invertible (3 points). We found in part that $\det(A) = 0$ only when $x = 3/2$. Thus, the final answer is that A^2 is positive definite except when $x = 3/2$ (2 points).

One could also find A^2 explicitly and use the determinant or pivot test. In practice this turned out to lead to a lot of mistakes. However, you could notice that the top left entry of A^2 is 6, the 2 by 2 determinant is $6(10 + x^2) - (7 + x)^2 = 5x^2 - 14x + 11 > 0$, and the 3 by 3 determinant is $\det(A^2) = \det(A)^2$. The only way that any of these could be non-positive is if $\det(A) = 0$.

A final approach is to follow the steps for part d) below.

d) We use the $x^T Ax$ test for positive (semi)definiteness. We have

$$x^T R^T R x = (Rx)^T R x = Rx \cdot Rx \tag{2}$$

This is just the length of the vector Rx . This length is positive when Rx is not the zero vector and is 0 when Rx is the 0 vector. In particular, since this number is always at least 0, $R^T R$ is definitely positive semidefinite (6 points). It is positive definite when this number is positive for any nonzero x . That is, we need for Rx to only be the 0 vector when x is the 0 vector. This is equivalent to saying that R has trivial nullspace, or R has full column rank (4 points).

- 2 (30 pts.) The **cosine** of a matrix is defined by copying the series for $\cos x$ (which always converges):

$$\cos A = I - \frac{1}{2!}A^2 + \frac{1}{4!}A^4 - \dots$$

- (a) Suppose $Ax = \lambda x$. Show that x is an eigenvector of $\cos A$. Find the eigenvalue.
- (b) Find the eigenvalues of $A = \frac{\pi}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The eigenvectors are $(1, 1)$ and $(1, -1)$. From the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $\cos A$, find that matrix $\cos A$.
- (c) The second derivative of the series for $\cos(At)$ is $-A^2 \cos(At)$. So $u(t) = \mathbf{cos}(At)\mathbf{u}(0)$ is a short formula for the solution of

$$\frac{d^2u}{dt^2} = -A^2u \text{ starting from } u(0) \text{ with } u'(0) = 0.$$

Now construct that $u(t) = \cos(At)u(0)$ by the usual three steps when A is diagonalizable: $Ax_1 = \lambda_1x_1$, $Ax_2 = \lambda_2x_2$, $Ax_3 = \lambda_3x_3$.

1. Expand $u(0) = c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + c_3x_3$ in the eigenvectors.
2. Multiply those eigenvectors by $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$, $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$, $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$.
3. Add up the solution $u(t) = c_1 \underline{\hspace{1cm}} x_1 + c_2 \underline{\hspace{1cm}} x_2 + c_3 \underline{\hspace{1cm}} x_3$.

Solution (10+10+10 points)

a) Suppose that $Ax = \lambda x$. Then

$$\cos(A)x = Ix - \frac{1}{2!}A^2x + \frac{1}{4!}A^4x - \dots \tag{3}$$

$$= x - \frac{1}{2!}\lambda^2x + \frac{1}{4!}\lambda^4x - \dots \tag{4}$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2!}\lambda^2 + \frac{1}{4!}\lambda^4 - \dots\right)x \tag{5}$$

$$= \cos(\lambda)x \tag{6}$$

So x is an eigenvector of $\cos(A)$ with eigenvalue $\cos(\lambda)$.

b) We define

$$A = \frac{\pi}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

We know that $(1, 1)$ and $(1, -1)$ are eigenvectors of A . We can find the eigenvalues simply by acting by A :

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\pi}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \pi \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (8)$$

So A has eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = \pi$. Similarly,

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

So A has eigenvalue $\lambda_2 = 0$ (4 points). Just as for any other function $(A^2, e^A, A^{-1}, \dots)$, this means that $\cos(A)$ has eigenvectors $(1, 1)$ with eigenvalue $\cos(\pi) = -1$ and $(1, -1)$ with eigenvalue $\cos(0) = 1$ (3 points). We can put these into the diagonalization formula to find $\cos(A)$:

$$\cos(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (10)$$

(3 points)

c) This problem is modeled after what happens for e^{At} . After expanding $u(0)$, step 2 involves multiplying the eigenvectors by $\cos(\lambda_1 t)$, $\cos(\lambda_2 t)$, and $\cos(\lambda_3 t)$. So the final answer is

$$u(t) = c_1 \cos(\lambda_1 t)x_1 + c_2 \cos(\lambda_2 t)x_2 + c_3 \cos(\lambda_3 t)x_3 \quad (11)$$

(10 points) Some common mistakes were forgetting to include the t , using the function e instead of \cos , or putting in something entirely different for the coefficients.

3 (30 pts.) Suppose the vectors x, y give an orthonormal basis for \mathbf{R}^2 and $A = xy^T$.

(a) Compute the rank of A and the rank of $A^2 = (xy^T)(xy^T)$. Use this information to find the eigenvalues of A .

(b) Explain why this matrix B is **similar** to A (and write down what *similar means*):

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} x^T \\ y^T \end{bmatrix} A \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix}$$

(c) The eigenvalues of Q are $\lambda_1 = e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ and $\lambda_2 = e^{-i\theta} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$:

$$\text{Rotation matrix } Q = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the eigenvectors of Q . Are they perpendicular?

a) Any matrix given by $A = xy^T$ for two non-zero vectors x, y will have rank 1. Every row will be a multiple of y^T , and every column will be a multiple of x , meaning that it must have rank 1. Alternatively, we note that x is in the nullspace of A , and that y is not, so that A must have rank exactly 1. (3 points)

Note that $A^2 = (xy^T)(xy^T) = x(y^T x)y^T$ is the zero matrix, since $y^T x = 0$ (they are perpendicular vectors). So A^2 has rank 0. (3 points)

If the eigenvalues of A are λ_1 and λ_2 , then the eigenvalues of A^2 are λ_1^2 and λ_2^2 . Since A^2 only has the eigenvalue 0, both λ_1 and λ_2 must be 0. (4 points)

b) Two square matrices A and B are similar if there is some invertible matrix M such that $B = MAM^{-1}$ (5 points). Similarity is *not* the same thing as having equal eigenvalues; this only works if both A and B are diagonalizable matrices, and in fact our A is not diagonalizable. To be more precise, similarity implies that A and B have equal eigenvalues, but the converse is not true.

In this case we check that A and B are similar by showing that the other factors are inverses.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x^T \\ y^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x^T x & x^T y \\ y^T x & y^T y \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

The last step is true because x and y are perpendicular, and both of unit length (5 points).

c) Given the eigenvalues of Q , we find the eigenvectors using $N(Q - \lambda I)$. We start with $\lambda_1 = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$:

$$Q - (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)I = \begin{bmatrix} -i \sin \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & -i \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

and this matrix has nullspace generated by $(1, -i)$ or equivalently $(i, 1)$. Similarly, for $\lambda_2 = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$ we find

$$Q - (\cos \theta - i \sin \theta)I = \begin{bmatrix} i \sin \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & i \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

which has nullspace generated by $(1, i)$. (8 points)

Every orthogonal matrix has perpendicular eigenvectors. We check in this specific case:

$$\begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^H \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -i & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} \quad (17)$$

$$= 0 \quad (18)$$

(2 points) Make sure to take $x_1^H x_2$ and not $x_1^T x_2$.