

SI
ESSENTIAL

Introduction to Linear Algebra
- Gilbert Strang

2

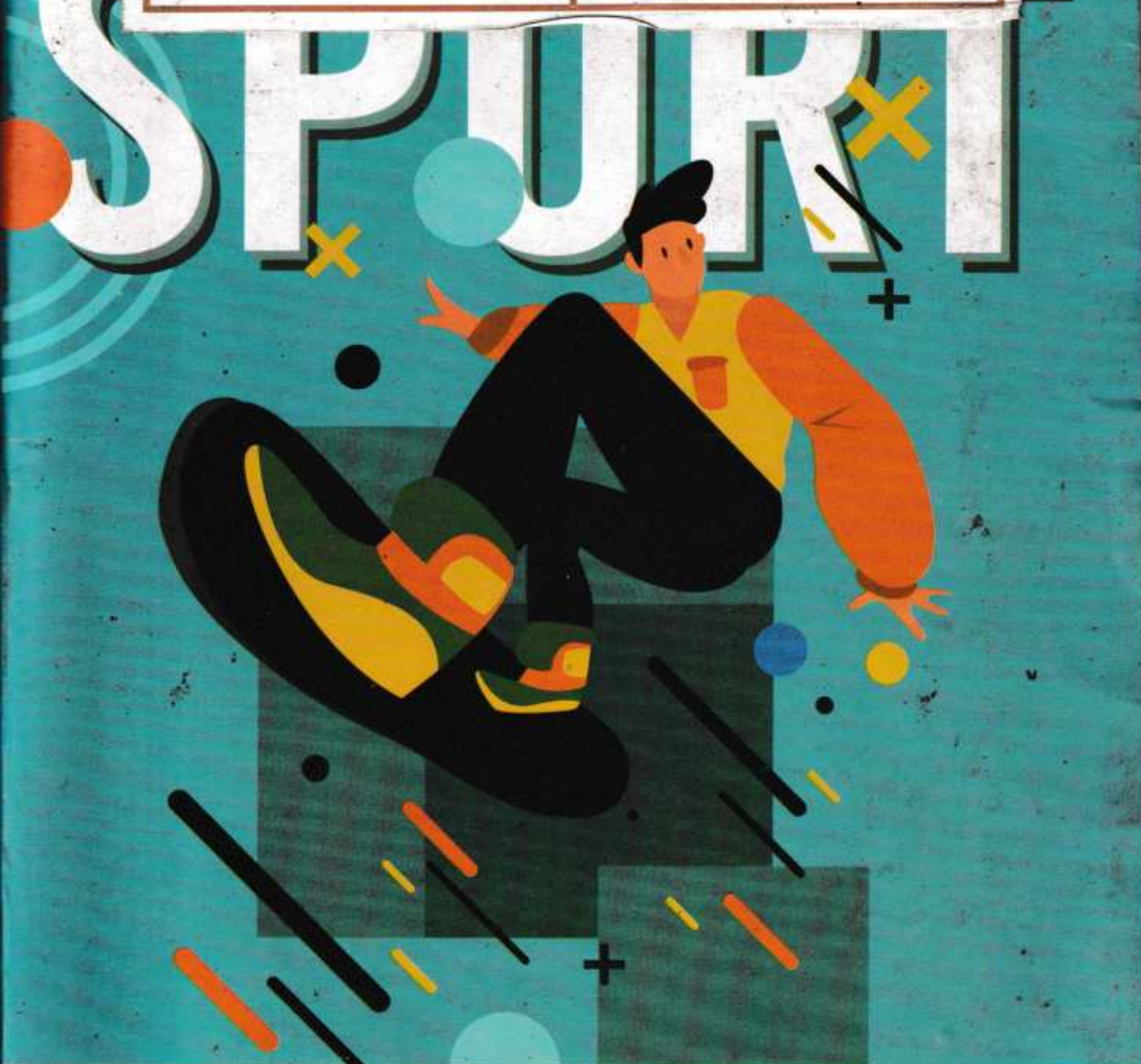
Solving Linear Equations



Markov Matrices, Population
and Economics



Vector Spaces & Subspaces



②

Subject _____

Std. _____ Div. _____ Roll No. _____

[illegible]

2.7(B) Find the symmetric factorization $S = LDL^T$

for $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 5 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 5 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & -14 & -14 \\ 0 & -14 & -22 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & -14 & -14 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix} = U$

$l_{21} = 4, l_{31} = 5$ $l_{32} = 1$

$$S = LDL^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -14 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$|S| = |D| = 1(-14)(-8) = \underline{\underline{112}}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & A \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & I \\ 0 & A \end{bmatrix}$$

2.7(C) For a rectangular 'A' (1) EQ

Block matrix : $S = \begin{bmatrix} I & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{bmatrix} = S^T$ has size $m \times n$.
from least squares

Apply block elimination to find block factorization, $S = LDL^T$. Then test invertibility.

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} I & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} I & A \\ 0 & -A^T A \end{bmatrix}$$

Block factorization, $(2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11) (12) (13) (14) (15) (16) (17) (18) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (28) (29) (30) (31) (32) (33) (34) (35) (36) (37) (38) (39) (40) (41) (42) (43) (44) (45) (46) (47) (48) (49) (50) (51) (52) (53) (54) (55) (56) (57) (58) (59) (60) (61) (62) (63) (64) (65) (66) (67) (68) (69) (70) (71) (72) (73) (74) (75) (76) (77) (78) (79) (80) (81) (82) (83) (84) (85) (86) (87) (88) (89) (90) (91) (92) (93) (94) (95) (96) (97) (98) (99) (100) (101) (102) (103) (104) (105) (106) (107) (108) (109) (110) (111) (112) (113) (114) (115) (116) (117) (118) (119) (120) (121) (122) (123) (124) (125) (126) (127) (128) (129) (130) (131) (132) (133) (134) (135) (136) (137) (138) (139) (140) (141) (142) (143) (144) (145) (146) (147) (148) (149) (150) (151) (152) (153) (154) (155) (156) (157) (158) (159) (160) (161) (162) (163) (164) (165) (166) (167) (168) (169) (170) (171) (172) (173) (174) (175) (176) (177) (178) (179) (180) (181) 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$$S = LDL^T = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ A^T & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -A^T A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & A \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} I & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

L & L^T are invertible.

$$|L| = |L^T| = 1 \neq 0$$

$$|S| = 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -A^T A \end{vmatrix} \cdot 1 = |I| \cdot |-A^T A|$$

$$= |A^T| |A| = |A^T| |A| = |A|^2 = |A|^2$$

□ The Transpose of a Derivative

The matrix changes to a derivative,

$$A = \frac{d}{dt} \quad \text{out} \quad \text{in}$$
$$1b \frac{1b}{1b} (1b) \left[= 1b(t) \frac{1b}{1b} \right] = (1b, 1b A)$$

To find the transpose of this unusual 'A', we need to define the inner product b/w two functions, $x(t)$ and $y(t)$.

Inner product of functions: $x^T y = (x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) y(t) dt$

- * The inner product changes from the sum of $x_k y_k$ to the integral of $x(t) y(t)$.

* The word adjoint is more correct than transpose when we are working with derivatives.

$$(Ax, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dx}{dt} y(t) dt = - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) \frac{dy}{dt} dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) \left(-\frac{dy}{dt} \right) dt = (x, A^T y)$$

$$\text{if } \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) y(t) dt = 0 \quad \text{then } x(t) = 0$$

The inner product of two functions is zero if and only if one of the functions is zero.

orthogonal to orthogonal rows

The transpose of a derivative is minus the derivative

$$A = \frac{d}{dt} \Rightarrow A^T = -\frac{d}{dt}$$

The derivative is antisymmetric.

This antisymmetry of the derivative applies also to centered difference matrices:

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow C^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -C$$

* In differential equations,
 the 2nd derivative (acceleration) is symmetric.
 The 1st derivative (damping proportional to velocity)
 is antisymmetric.

$$\begin{aligned}
 (A x, y) &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} \cdot y(t) dt = \left[y(t) \frac{dx}{dt} \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dx}{dt} dt \\
 &= - \left[\frac{dx}{dt} x(t) \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty} + \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \right) dt \\
 &= (x, A y)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$A = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \implies A^T = \frac{d^2}{dt^2}$$

boundary conditions: both $f(t)$ & $g(t)$ are zero
 at the boundaries.

P.S (2.1)

5. eqⁿ ① + eqⁿ ② = eqⁿ ③

$$x+y+z=2$$

$$x+2y+z=3$$

$$2x+3y+2z=5$$

The 1st 2 planes meet along a line, because if x, y, z satisfy the 1st 2 equations then they also satisfy the 3rd equation.

The eqⁿs have infinitely many solutions (the whole line L). Find 3 solutions on L .

Ques: Plane passing thro' plane ① & plane ②:

$$\vec{r} \cdot (1, 1, 1) = 2 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{r} \cdot \{ \alpha(1, 1, 1) + \beta(1, 2, 1) \} = 2\alpha + 3\beta \end{array} \right.$$

$$\vec{r} \cdot (1, 2, 1) = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{r} \cdot \{ (1, 1, 1) + (1, 2, 1) \} = \vec{r} \cdot (2, 3, 2) = 2+3=5$$

passing thro' intersecting line

$x=t$
 $y=1-t$
 $z=1-t$

The line L of solutions contains

$\alpha = (1, 1, 0)$, $\beta = (2, 1, -1)$ and

all combinations $c\vec{\alpha} + d\vec{\beta}$ with $c+d=1$



6. Move the 3rd plane in [5] to a 1st plane
 $2x + 3y + 2z = 9$. Now the 3 eq's have no
 solutions - why not? ~~The~~

$$x = 5 + 4s + 3t$$

$$y = 5 + 4s + 3t$$

Ans: $eq. 1 + eq. 2 = eq. 3 = 0 \neq -4 + 4s + 6t$

No solution

7. In problem [5], the columns are $(1, 1, 2)$,
 $(1, 2, 3)$, $(1, 1, 2)$. This is a singular case because
 3rd column is the same as 1st

Find 2 combinations of the columns that
 give $b = (2, 3, 5)$. This is only possible

for $b = (4, 6, c)$ if $c =$ _____

column 3 = column 1

Ans: $x + y + z = (1, 1, 1) \cdot \vec{r} = [(1, 2, 1) + (1, 1, 1)] \cdot \vec{r} \leftarrow$
 $(x, y, z) = (1, 1, 0)$



$\vec{b} = (4, 6, c) \rightarrow c = 10$

1 - b + 2b = b

9. Complete each Ax by dot products of the rows with the column vector

Q $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ -2 & 3 & 1 \\ -4 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 18 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

13. (A) matrix with ' m ' rows & ' n ' columns
 (B) multiplies a vector with _____ components to produce a vector with _____ components.

Ans: $A_{m \times n} x_{n \times 1} = b_{m \times 1}$

(B) The planes from the ' m ' equations $Ax=b$ are in n dimensional space.
 The combination of the columns of A is in m dimensional space

Ans:

14. Write $2x + 3y + z + 5t = 8$ as a matrix A .

The solutions $v = (x, y, z, t)$ fill a plane or a hyperplane in 4D space?

Ans: $\boxed{2, 3, 1, 5} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ t \end{bmatrix} = 8$

$A = [2, 3, 1, 5]$

The solutions (x, y, z, t) fill a 3D plane or hyperplane in 4D space.

The plane is 3D with no 4D volume.

17. Find the matrix P that multiplies (x, y, z) to give (y, z, x) . Find the matrix Q that multiplies (y, z, x) to bring back (x, y, z) .

Ans: $P \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ z \\ x \end{bmatrix}$

$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_P$

P is orthogonal $\Rightarrow P^{-1} = P^T$

$Q = P^{-1} = P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

20. What 2×2 matrix P_1 projects vector (x, y) onto the x -axis to produce $(x, 0)$?
 What matrix P_2 projects onto the y -axis to produce $(0, y)$?

~~$P_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = ?$ & $P_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = ?$~~

Ans. $P_1 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$P_2 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix}$

26. Draw the row & column pictures for the eq.
 $x - 2y = 0$, $x + y = 6$

Ans. $x - 2y = 0$
 $x + y = 6$

two lines meeting at $(4, 2)$

Row Picture
 $A \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{r}_1 \\ \vec{r}_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{x} \\ \vec{r}_2 \cdot \vec{x} \end{bmatrix} = \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$

Column Picture:

$4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$

combination of 2 column vectors
 $\vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$

27. For 2 linear equations 3 unknowns x, y, z
the row picture will show (2 or 3) lines / planes
in 2 or 3 -D space. The column picture
is in (2 or 3) -D space. The solution
normally lie on a line.

Ans: row picture: show 2 planes in 3D space.

column picture: is in 2D space

The solutions normally fill a line in
3D space.

28. For 4 linear equations in 2 unknowns x & y ,
the row picture shows four lines.

The column picture is in 2 -D
space. The eqⁿs have no solution unless the
vector on the right side is a combination
of 2 column vectors.

Ans: row picture: shows 4 lines in 2D plane.

column picture: in 2D space

No solution unless the RHS is a linear
combination of the 2 column vectors.

(29) Start with the vector $u_0 = (1, 0)$. Multiply again and again by the same "Markov matrix"
 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$. The next 3 vectors are u_1, u_2, u_3 :

What property do you notice for all 4 vectors $u_0, \dots, u_3$?

Ans:

* (1) n matrix is called a Markov matrix if all entries are non-negative and the sum of each column vector equal to 1 i.e.,

$$\begin{cases} a_{ij} \geq 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i, j \leq n \\ \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} = 1 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n \end{cases}$$

• If $\vec{v}$ is a stochastic vector & A is a stochastic matrix, then $A\vec{v}$ is a stochastic vector.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix} = u_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7 \\ 0.3 \end{bmatrix} = u_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.7 \\ 0.3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.65 \\ 0.35 \end{bmatrix} = u_3$$

Proof

$$A \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \dots & \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = \vec{a}_1 v_1 + \vec{a}_2 v_2 + \dots + \vec{a}_n v_n$$

$$= v_1(a_{11} + a_{21} + \dots + a_{n1}) + \dots + v_n(a_{1n} + \dots + a_{nn})$$

$$= v_1 + \dots + v_n = 1$$

Similarly,

* The product of 2 $n \times n$ stochastic matrices is a stochastic matrix.

* If $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of a stochastic / Markov matrix, then $|\lambda| \leq 1$.

Proof

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of A and $\vec{a} \in V_n(\lambda)$ is a corresp. eigenvector. &

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for all } i=1, \dots, n$$

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}$$

Let k be such that $|x_k| \geq |x_j| \quad \forall j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

i.e., largest entry of $\vec{x}$ is x_k

Equating the k^{th} components

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} x_j = \lambda x_k$$

$$|\lambda x_k| = |\lambda| |x_k| = \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} x_j \right| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} |x_j|$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} |x_k| = |x_k|$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \cancel{a_{kj}} \\ a_{kj} \geq 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{|\lambda| \leq 1}}$$

(OR) ~~A is Markov.~~

~~$$A\vec{x} = \lambda \vec{x}$$~~

~~$$A^2 \vec{x} = \lambda^2 \vec{x}$$~~

~~A^2 is also Markov~~

- A Markov matrix 'A' always has an eigenvalue 1
All other eigenvalues are in absolute value smaller
(or) equal to 1.

$$M^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof

Each column of A sums to 1.

$\therefore$ Each column of $(A-I)$ sums to 0.

i.e., Sum of the rows of $(A-I)$ is zero vector

$\therefore$ Rows of $(A-I)$ are linearly dependent

$\det(A-I) = 0 \rightarrow \lambda = 1$ is an eigenvalue

- The eigenvector α_1 corresp. to $\lambda_1 = 1$ is the steady state

check
ILA-②

$$|x| = |x| \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \geq 0$$

$$|x| = |x| \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \geq 0$$

$$|x| = |x| \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \geq 0$$

10.3 Markov Matrices, Population, and Economics

Positive matrices : every $a_{ij} > 0$

⇒ The largest eigenvalue is real & +ve and so is its eigenvector.

In economics, ecology, population dynamics and random walks, that fact leads a long way:

Markov : $\lambda_{\max} = 1$

Population : $\lambda_{\max} > 1$

Consumption : $\lambda_{\max} < 1$.

Perron-Frobenius theorem

For $A > 0$, i.e.; $a_{ij} > 0 \forall i, j$

All numbers in $Ax = \lambda_{\max} x$ are strictly +ve

Proof

Stack
4/2/21

We'll consider all numbers t such that
 $Ax \geq tx$ for some nonnegative vector x
(other than $x=0$). [we are considering all ^{possible} nonzero x]

We are allowing inequality in $Ax \geq tx$ in order
to have many small +ve candidates t .

If $V \geq W$ is not an equality,

i.e., at least one of the elements of the vector $V - W$ is greater than zero

i.e., at least one row $(v_j - w_j) > 0$

i th row of the vector $A(V - W)$ is: $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}(v_j - w_j) > 0$

since $a_{ij} > 0$ for the positive square matrix A .

$$\implies A(V - W) > 0$$

i.e. every entry of A_v is strictly greater than A_w .

~~A_w~~ $\Rightarrow A_v > A_w$

Using this reasoning,

If $Ax \geq t_{\max} x$ is not an equality,

Since 'A' is positive,

$$A(Ax) > t_{\max}(Ax)$$

$\therefore$ the +ve vector $y = Ax$ satisfies

$$Ay > t_{\max} y$$

$\therefore$ $t_{\max}$ can be increased so that at least one row of Ay and $t_{\max} y$ are equal.

$\therefore t_{\max}$ is not the maximum.

$\Rightarrow Ax = t_{\max} x$, we have an eigenvalue.

Suppose. $Az = \lambda z$ and λ, z may involve ~~can~~ negative or complex numbers, so we take absolute values:

$$|\lambda||z| = |Az| \leq A|z|$$

$|z|$ is a non-negative vector, so this $|\lambda|$ is one of the possible candidates t .

$\therefore |\lambda|$ can not exceed $t_{\max}$, which must be $\lambda_{\max}$.

□ Absolute value of vector & matrices

Given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$$|x| = \begin{bmatrix} |x_1| \\ |x_2| \\ \vdots \\ |x_n| \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad |A| = \begin{bmatrix} |a_{11}| & |a_{12}| & \dots & |a_{1n}| \\ |a_{21}| & |a_{22}| & \dots & |a_{2n}| \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ |a_{m1}| & |a_{m2}| & \dots & |a_{mn}| \end{bmatrix}$$

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$,

$$|AB| \leq |A||B|$$

Proof

Let $C = AB$,

then the (i,j) entry in $|C|$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} |c_{ij}| &= \left| \sum_{p=1}^k \alpha_{ip} \beta_{pj} \right| \leq \sum_{p=1}^k |\alpha_{ip} \beta_{pj}| \\ &= \sum_{p=1}^k |\alpha_{ip}| |\beta_{pj}| \end{aligned}$$

which is equal to the (ij) entry of $|A||B|$

□ Markov Matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u_1 = Au_0$$

$$u_2 = Au_1 = A^2 u_0$$

After k steps we have $A^k u_0$. The vectors $u_1, u_2, \dots$ will approach a "steady state" $u_\infty = (0.6, 0.4)$. This final outcome does not depend on the starting vector u_0 . For every $u_0 (a, 1-a)$ we converge to the same $u_\infty (0.6, 0.4)$.

Why ?

The steady state equation $Au_\infty = u_\infty$ makes u_∞ an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.4 \end{bmatrix} = u_\infty$$

← steady state.

But this does not explain why so many vectors u_0 lead to u_∞ .

Other examples might have a steady state, but it's not necessarily attractive:

Not Markov:

$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ has the unattractive steady state
 $B \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In this case, the starting vector $u_0 = (0, 1)$ will give $u_1 = (0, 2)$ and $u_2 = (0, 4)$.

The 2nd components are doubled.

B has $\lambda = 1$ but also $\lambda = 2$ as eigenvalues.
— this produces instability.

The comp. of u along that unstable eigenvector is multiplied by λ , and $|\lambda| > 1$ means blowup.

Markov

matrices :

① Every entry of 'A' is +ve

$$a_{ij} > 0$$

② Every column of A adds to 1

① → Multiplying $u_0 \geq 0$ by 'A' produces a non-negative $u_1 = Au_0 \geq 0$.

② → If the comp. of u_0 add to 1, so do the components of $u_1 = Au_0$.

Every vector $A^k u_0$ is nonnegative with components adding to 1. These are "probability vectors". The limit u_∞ is also a probability vector.

* u_0 is an eigenvector of 'A' corresp. to $\lambda = 1$

* $\lambda_{\max} = 1$ for a +ve Markov matrix

* The size $|\lambda_2|$ of the 2nd eigenvalue controls the speed of convergence to steady state.

Ex. 1. The fraction of rental cars in Denver starts at $\frac{1}{50} = 0.02$. The fraction outside Denver is 0.98. Every month, 80% of the Denver cars stay in Denver (and 20% leave). Also 5% of the outside cars come in (95% stay outside). This means that the fractions $u_0 = (0.02, 0.98)$ are multiplied by A :

Ans:

1st month: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.80 & 0.05 \\ 0.20 & 0.95 \end{bmatrix}$ leads to

$$u_1 = A u_0 = A \begin{bmatrix} 0.02 \\ 0.98 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.065 \\ 0.935 \end{bmatrix}$$

$0.065 + 0.935 = 1$. All cars are accounted for.

Next month:

$$u_2 = A u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.09875 \\ 0.90125 \end{bmatrix} = A^2 u_0$$

each
by

The 1st components have grown from 0.02 and cars are moving toward Denver.

Since every column of 'A' adds to 1, nothing is lost or gained. We are moving rental cars or populations, and no cars or people suddenly appear (or disappear).

The fractions add to 1 and the matrix A keeps them that way.

$A^k u_0$ gives the fractions in and out of Denver after k steps. The eigenvalues of A are $\lambda = 1$ and 0.75.

$$A\alpha = \lambda\alpha: \quad A \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0.75 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.02 \\ 0.95 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} + 0.18 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each α is multiplied by λ :

$$u_1 = 1 \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} + (0.75)(0.18) \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U_k = A^k U_0 = 1^k \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} + (0.75)^k (0.18) \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvector α_1 with $\lambda=1$ is the steady state. The other eigenvector α_2 disappears because $|\lambda| < 1$. The more steps we take, the closer we come to $U_\infty = (0.2, 0.8)$. In the limit, $\frac{2}{10}$ of the cars are in Denver and $\frac{8}{10}$ are outside. This is the pattern for Markov chains, even starting from $U_0 = (0, 1)$.

If 'A' is a +ve Markov matrix (entries $A_{ij} > 0$, each column adds to 1), then $\lambda_1 = 1$ is larger than any other eigenvalue. The eigenvector α_1 is the steady state:

$$U_k = \alpha_1 + C_2(\lambda_2)^k \alpha_2 + \dots + C_n(\lambda_n)^k \alpha_n \quad \text{always approaches } U_\infty = \alpha_1$$

Another eigenvalue has $|\lambda|=1$?

Ex: 2. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ has no steady state because $\lambda_2 = -1$.

Ans: The powers A^k alternate b/w A and I .

The 2nd eigenvector $\mathbf{v}_2 = (-1, 1)$ will be multiplied by $\lambda_2 = -1$ at every step - and does not become smaller: No steady state.

Ex: 3. Start with 3 groups. At each time step, half of group 1 goes to group 2, & the other half goes to group 3. The other groups also split in half and move. Take one step from the starting populations P_1, P_2, P_3 :

Ans: New populations: $u_1 = A u_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P_1 \\ P_2 \\ P_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}P_2 + \frac{1}{2}P_3 \\ \frac{1}{2}P_1 + \frac{1}{2}P_3 \\ \frac{1}{2}P_1 + \frac{1}{2}P_2 \end{bmatrix}$

'A' is a Markov matrix. Nobody is born or lost.

$$u_2 = A^2 u_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues of A are: $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = -\frac{1}{2}$

For $\lambda_1 = 1$, the eigenvector $u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$ will be the steady state.

When 3 ^{equal} populations split in half and move, the populations are again equal.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

□ PageRank algorithm/Google algorithm

- an algorithm based on Classical Random walks.

Page rank is 1st proposed by Page in 1999.

The purpose is to rank the web page in the World Wide Web (WWW).

i.e., to define what is the importance of a webpage.

The network of webpage is considered as a graph where webpages are considered as nodes. If there is a webpage containing a hyperlink which points to another webpage, then there should be a directed edge b/w these 2 nodes. The direction of the edge is as same as the web ~~directed~~ redirection.

The most simple PageRank can be described by the following mathematical equation:

$$R(u) = c \sum_{v \in B_u} \frac{R(v)}{N_v}$$

where,

$R(u)$: rank of the web u .

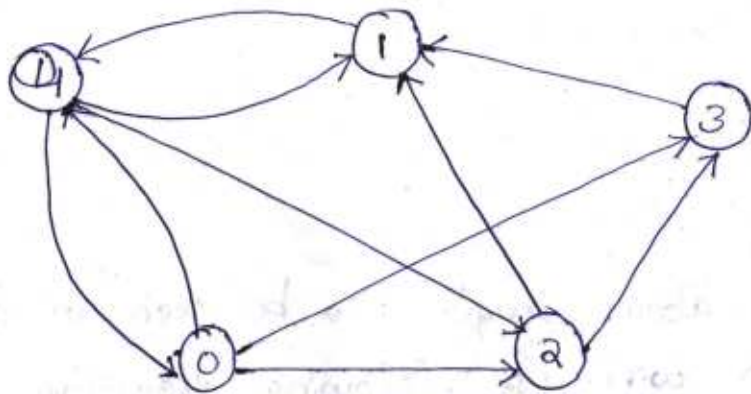
B_u : set of pages pointing to page u .

c : normalization parameter.

F_v : set of pages that v points to

N_v : # of pages in F_v

Example



$$R(0) = \frac{R(4)}{3}$$

$$R(1) = \frac{R(2)}{2} + \cancel{R(3)} + \frac{R(4)}{3}$$

$$R(2) = \frac{R(0)}{3} + \frac{R(4)}{3}$$

$$R(3) = \frac{R(0)}{3} + \frac{R(2)}{2}$$

$$R(4) = \frac{R(0)}{3} + R(1)$$



The above graph can be seen as a Markov chain with the following transition matrix.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

For the initial distribution, let's consider that it is equal to

$$R_0 = \left(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

where n is the total # of nodes.

ie.,

the random walker will choose randomly the initial node from where it can reach all other nodes.

At every step, the random walker will jump to another node according to the transition matrix, the probability distribution is then computed for every step. This distribution tells us where the random walker is likely to be after a certain # of steps.

The probability distribution is computed using the following equation:

$$R_{t+1} = P R_t$$

where,

R is the vector of page rank,

P is the transition probability matrix.

In this example,

after an infinitely long walk, the probability distribution will converge to a stationary distribution R .

→ the probability distribution at time t defines the probability that the walker will be in a node after t steps.

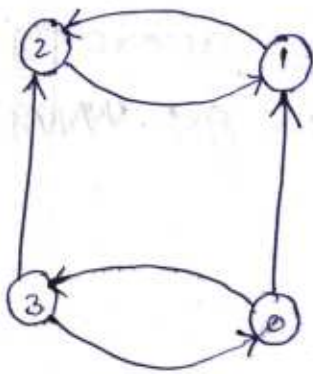
The higher the probability, the more important is the node.

We can rank our webpages according to the stationary distribution we get. ~~using~~

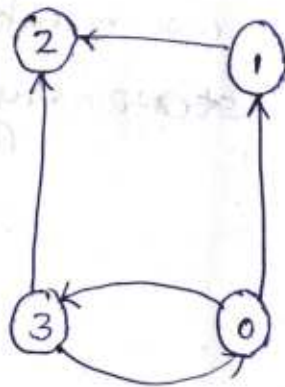


Teleportation & damping factor

In the web graph, for example, we can find a webpage i which refers only to webpage j and j refers only to i . This is what we call spider trap problem. We can also find a webpage which has no outlinks. It is commonly named Dead end.



~~Dead~~
Spider trap



Dead end

In the case of a spider trap, when the random walker reaches the node 1, he can only jump to node 2 and from node 2 he can only reach node 1, and so on. The importance of all other nodes will be taken by nodes 1 and 2.

In our example, the probability distribution will converge to $R = (0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$.

This is not the desired result.

In the case of Dead ends, when the walker arrives at node 2, it can't reach any other node because it has no outlink. The algorithm can not converge.

To get over these problems, we introduce the notion of teleportation.

Teleportation consists of connecting each node of the graph to all other nodes. The graph will then be complete.

The idea is with a certain probability β , the random walker will jump to another node according to the transition matrix P . and with a probability $\frac{1-\beta}{n}$, it will jump randomly to any node in the graph.

The new transition matrix P' :

$$P' = \beta P + (1-\beta) v e^T$$

where $v = [1, \dots, 1]^T$

$$e^T = [\frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}]$$

β : damping factor.

In practice it is advised to set $\beta = 0.85$.

In our example, the new transition matrix:

$$P' = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} \\ \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1}{2}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} \\ \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1}{4}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} \\ \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1}{2}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} \\ \frac{1}{3}\beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \beta + \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} & \frac{1-\beta}{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

Markov chain

A Markov chain is a memoryless, homogeneous, stochastic process with a finite # of states.

A process is a system that changes after each time step t , and a stochastic process is a process in which the changes are random.

A process is memoryless if the probability of an $i \rightarrow j$ transition does not depend on the history of the process.

A process is homogeneous if it does not depend on the time t .

Let $\{X_0, X_1, \dots\}$ be a sequence of discrete random variables. Then $\{X_0, X_1, \dots\}$ is a Markov chain if it satisfies the Markov property:

$$P(X_{t+1} = s | X_t = s_t, \dots, X_0 = s_0) = P(X_{t+1} = s | X_t = s_t)$$

for all $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ & for all states $s_0, s_1, \dots, s_t, s$

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for all $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ & for all states $s_0, s_1, \dots, s_t, s$

The matrix describing the Markov chain is called the transition matrix.

Let $\{X_0, X_1, \dots\}$ be a Markov chain with state space S ,

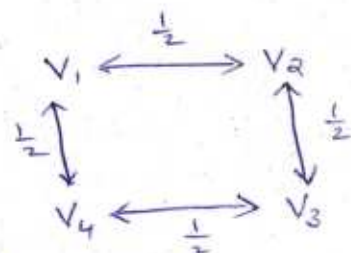
the transition probabilities of the Markov chain are

$$p_{ij} = P(X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i) \quad \text{for } i, j \in S, \\ t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Ex:- Consider a person on a square ~~where the~~

Suppose this person starts at V_1 , i.e., $q(0) = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ and flips a coin to decide b/w going one way or the other way.

After n steps, regardless of where our person has been, the probability of the going one of the 2 possible directions is still $\frac{1}{2}$ & this only depends on the current state.



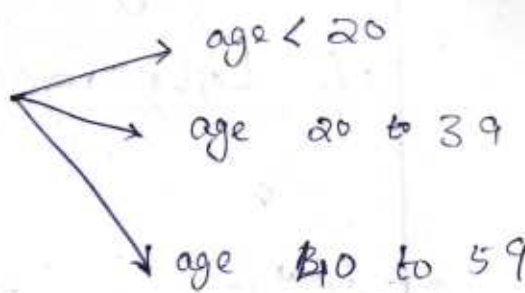
$$P(X_n = V_j) = P(X_n = V_j | X_{n-1} = V_i) \text{ where } i \rightarrow j$$

Transition matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

□ Population Growth

Divide the population into
3 age groups



- age < 20
- age 20 to 39
- age 40 to 59

At year T the sizes of those groups are n_1, n_2, n_3 .

20 years later, the sizes have changed for 3 reasons: births, deaths, getting older.

① Reproduction:

$$n_1^{\text{new}} = F_1 n_1 + F_2 n_2 + F_3 n_3 \text{ gives a new generation.}$$

② Survival:

$$n_2^{\text{new}} = P_1 n_1 \quad \text{and} \quad n_3^{\text{new}} = P_2 n_2$$

gives older generations.

The fertility rates are F_1, F_2, F_3 (F_2 largest).

The Leslie matrix 'A' might look like:

$$\begin{bmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{bmatrix}^{\text{new}} = \begin{bmatrix} F_1 & F_2 & F_3 \\ P_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.04 & 1.1 & 0.01 \\ 0.98 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.92 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is population projection in its simplest form, the same matrix 'A' at every step.

In a realistic model, 'A' will change with time (from the environment or internal factors).

The matrix 'A' has $A \geq 0$ but not $A > 0$.

The Perron-Frobenius theorem still applies because $A^3 > 0$. The largest eigenvalue is $\lambda_{\max} \approx 1.06$.

$$\lambda = 1.06, -1.01, -0.01$$

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.08 & 0.05 & 0 \\ 0.04 & 1.08 & 0.01 \\ 0.90 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.10 & 1.19 & 0.01 \\ 0.06 & 0.05 & 0.00 \\ 0.04 & 0.99 & 0.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

The middle group will reproduce 1.1 and also survive 0.92.

□ Sensitivity of eigenvalues

Ex: 10.3 (19)

$$AX = X\Lambda \implies A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$$

The eigenvalues and eigenvectors change by $\Delta\Lambda$ and ΔX :

$$(A + \Delta A)(X + \Delta X) = (X + \Delta X)(\Lambda + \Delta\Lambda) \leftarrow$$

$$\cancel{AX} + A(\Delta X) + (\Delta A)X = \cancel{X\Lambda} + X(\Delta\Lambda) + (\Delta X)\Lambda$$

Small terms $(\Delta A)(\Delta X)$ and $(\Delta X)(\Delta\Lambda)$ are ignored.

$$A(\Delta X) + (\Delta A)X = X(\Delta\Lambda) + (\Delta X)\Lambda$$

$$\underline{X^{-1}A(\Delta X)} + X^{-1}(\Delta A)X = \Delta\Lambda + \underline{X^{-1}(\Delta X)\Lambda}$$

$$X^{-1}A = \Lambda X^{-1} \longleftarrow A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$$

$$\underline{\Lambda X^{-1}(\Delta X)} + X^{-1}(\Delta A)X = \Delta \Lambda + \underline{X^{-1}(\Delta X)\Lambda}$$

$$\text{diag}(B\Lambda) = \text{diag}(\Lambda B)$$

$$\cdot \text{diag}(\Lambda X^{-1}\Delta X) = \text{diag}(X^{-1}\Delta X\Lambda) \quad X = XI$$

$$\text{diag}(\Lambda X^{-1}(\Delta X - X^{-1}(\Delta X)\Lambda)) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\text{diag}(X^{-1}(\Delta A)X) = \Delta \Lambda}$$

$\Rightarrow$ A matrix change ΔA produces eigenvalue changes $\Delta \Lambda$. These changes $\Delta \lambda_1, \dots, \Delta \lambda_n$ are on the diagonal of $X^{-1}(\Delta A)X$.

$$\Lambda(X\Delta) + (\Delta\Lambda)X = X(\Delta A) + (X\Delta)\Lambda$$

$$(X\Delta)X + \Lambda\Delta = X(\Delta A) + (X\Delta)\Lambda$$

$$X\Lambda X + \Lambda \longrightarrow X\Lambda + \Lambda X$$

~~□ Linear~~

□ Consumption Matrix - Linear Algebra
in Economics

The consumption matrix tells how much of each i/p goes into a unit of output. This describes the manufacturing side of the economy.

We have n industries like chemicals, food and oil. To produce a unit of chemicals may require 0.2 units of chemicals, 0.3 units of food, and 0.4 units of oil. Those #'s go into row 1 of the consumption matrix A :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Chemical o/p} \\ \text{food o/p} \\ \text{oil o/p} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.4 & 0.1 \\ 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Chemical i/p} \\ \text{food i/p} \\ \text{oil i/p} \end{bmatrix}$$

Row 2 shows the i/p to produce food -
 a heavy use of chemicals and food, not
 so much oil. Row 3 of A shows the
 i/p's consumed to refine a unit of oil.

The real consumption matrix for the US
 in 1958 contained 83 industries. The
 model in the 1990's are much larger
 and more precise.

John

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.001 & 0.001 \\ 0.001 & 0.001 & 0.001 \\ 0.001 & 0.001 & 0.001 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 100 & 100 & 100 \\ 100 & 100 & 100 \\ 100 & 100 & 100 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.001 & 0.001 \\ 0.001 & 0.001 & 0.001 \\ 0.001 & 0.001 & 0.001 \end{bmatrix}$$

Can this economy meet demands y_1, y_2, y_3 for chemicals, food & oil?

To do that, the i/p p_1, p_2, p_3 will have to be higher - because part of p is consumed in producing y . The i/p is p and the consumption is Ap , which leaves the o/p $p - Ap$.

This net production is what meets the demand y :

Problem: Find a vector p such that

$$p - Ap = y \quad (\text{or}) \quad p = (I - A)^{-1} y$$

$I - A$ invertible ?

The vector y of required o/p is non-negative and so is A .

The production levels in $p = (I - A)^{-1}y$ must also be non-negative.

When is $(I - A)^{-1}$ a non-negative matrix ?

If A is small compared to I , then $A p$ is small compared to p . There is plenty of output.

If A is too large then production consumes too much and the demand y can not be met.

"Small" or "Large" is decided by the largest eigenvalue λ_1 of A (which is +ve):

$\lambda_1 > 1 :$

$\lambda_1 = 1 :$ $(I-A)^{-1}$ fails to exist

$\lambda_1 < 1 :$

$$(\underline{I} - A) \sum_{k=0}^n A^k = \sum_{k=0}^n A^k - \sum_{k=0}^n A^{k+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n A^k - \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} A^k = \underline{I} - A^{n+1}$$

If $|\lambda_i| < 1$ for each eigenvalue λ_i of A

then $(\underline{I} - A)$ is invertible

$$\begin{aligned} S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n A^k &= \underline{I} + A + A^2 + \dots + A^n \\ &= (\underline{I} - A)^{-1} (\underline{I} - A^{n+1}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k = (\underline{I} - A)^{-1}$$

Neumann series

$$(I - A)^{-1} = I + A + A^2 + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A^k$$

* it converges if all eigenvalues of 'A' have, $|\lambda| < 1$

Ex: 4

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.4 \\ 0.4 & 0.4 & 0.1 \\ 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $\lambda_{\max} = 0.9$

$$(I - A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{93} \begin{bmatrix} 41 & 25 & 27 \\ 33 & 36 & 24 \\ 34 & 23 & 36 \end{bmatrix}$$

A is small compared to I

$$p - Ap = y \quad \text{or} \quad p = (I - A)y$$

Ap is consumed in production,
leaving $p - Ap$.

This is $(I - A)p = y$ and the demand
is met.

Ex: 5. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $\lambda_{\max} = 2$ and $(I - A)^{-1} = -\frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

This consumption matrix A is too large.

Demands can't be met, because production consumes more than it yields.

The series $I + A + A^2 + \dots$ does not converge to $(I - A)^{-1}$ because $\lambda_{\max} > 1$.

The series is growing while $(I - A)^{-1}$ is -ve.

4. For every 4×4 Markov matrix, what eigenvector of A^T corresp. to the eigenvalue $\lambda = 1$?

Ans:

Each row of A^T adds to 1.

→ ~~think~~

A^T always has the eigenvector $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$

for $\lambda = 1$.

5. Every year 2% of young people become old and 3% of old people become dead. (No births). Find the steady state for

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Young} \\ \text{Old} \\ \text{dead} \end{bmatrix}_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.98 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.02 & 0.97 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.03 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{young} \\ \text{old} \\ \text{dead} \end{bmatrix}_k.$$

Ans: The steady state eigenvector for $\lambda = 1$ is $(0, 0, 1)$ = everyone is dead.

6. For a Markov matrix, the sum of the components of x equals the sum of the components of Ax . If $Ax = \lambda x$ with $\lambda \neq 1$ prove that the components of this Markov non-steady eigenvector x add to zero.

Ans: Adding the components of $Ax = \lambda x$

$$S = \lambda S \quad \text{given } \lambda \neq 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{S = 0}}$$

7. Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A . Explain why A^k approaches A^∞ .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^\infty = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.6 \\ 0.4 & 0.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which Markov matrices produce that steady state (0.6, 0.4)?

8. The steady state eigenvector of a permutation matrix is $(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$. This is not approached when $u_0 = (0, 0, 0, 1)$. What are u_1 and u_2 and u_3 and u_4 ? What are the 4 eigenvalues of P , which solve $\lambda^4 = 1$?

9.

Ans

Permutation matrix
||
Markov matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $P =$ cyclic permutation.

$$u_0 = (1, 0, 0, 0), u_1 = (0, 1, 0, 0), u_2 = (0, 0, 1, 0)$$

$$u_3 = (1, 0, 0, 0), u_4 = u_0$$

Eigenvalues are: $1, i, -1, -i$

9. Prove that the square of a Markov matrix is also a Markov matrix.

Ans: M^2 is non-negative

$$[1 \dots 1] M = [1 \dots 1]$$

$$[1 \dots 1] M^2 = [1 \dots 1] M M =$$

$$= [1 \dots 1] M = [1 \dots 1]$$

12. A Markov differential equation is not
 $\frac{du}{dt} = Au$ but,

$$\frac{du}{dt} = (A - I)u.$$

The diagonal is -ve, the rest of $A - I$ is +ve. The columns add to zero, not 1.

Find λ_1, λ_2 for $B = A - I = \begin{bmatrix} -0.2 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & -0.3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Why does $A - I$ have $\lambda_1 = 0$?

When $e^{\lambda_1 t}, e^{\lambda_2 t}$ multiply α_1, α_2 ,

What's the steady state as $t \rightarrow \infty$?

Ans:

B has $\lambda = 0$ and -0.5

$\alpha_1 = (0.3, 0.2)$ and $\alpha_2 = (-1, 1)$

$$u(t) = C_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} \alpha_1 + C_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} \alpha_2$$

$$= C_1 e^{0t} \alpha_1 + C_2 e^{-0.5t} \alpha_2$$

$$= C_1 \alpha_1 + C_2 e^{-0.5t} \alpha_2$$

3. ~~1A~~

$e^{-0.5t}$ approaches zero and the solution approaches $C_1 \alpha_1$

(b)

15. For which of these matrices does $I + A + A^2 + \dots$ yield a non-negative matrix $(I - A)^{-1}$? Then the economy can meet any demand:

Ans:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 \\ 0.2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If the demands are $y = (2, 6)$, what are the vectors $p = (I - A)^{-1} y$?

(c)

Ans:

② $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = 0$ & $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 0$

~~$$0 = 2\lambda_1^2 + 2 = 2(\lambda_1^2 - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 \neq 1$$~~

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{\lambda = 0, 0}}$$

$\lambda_{\max} < 1$

$$p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 \\ 0.2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Ans. } \lambda_1 = \pm 0.894427, \quad \lambda_{\max} < 1$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 20 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = 1, 0.5 \Rightarrow \lambda_{\max} = 1$$

$I - A$ has no inverse

18. For the Leslie matrix show that $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ gives $F_1 \lambda^2 + F_2 P_1 \lambda + F_3 P_1 P_2 = \lambda^3$.

The right side λ^3 is larger as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$.

The left side is larger at $\lambda = 1$ if $F_1 + F_2 P_1 + F_3 P_1 P_2 > 1$. In that case the 2 sides are equal at an eigenvalue $\lambda_{max} > 1$: growth.

Ans:
$$\begin{bmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{bmatrix}^{\text{new}} = \begin{bmatrix} F_1 & F_2 & F_3 \\ P_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} F_1 - \lambda & F_2 & F_3 \\ P_1 & -\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -\lambda^3 + F_1 \lambda^2 + F_2 P_1 \lambda + F_3 P_1 P_2$$

$$|A - \lambda I| < 0 \text{ for } \lambda \rightarrow \infty$$

$$|A - \lambda I| > 0 \text{ for } \lambda = 1 \text{ given}$$

$$F_1 + F_2 P_1 + F_3 P_1 P_2 > 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0 \text{ at some } \lambda \in (1, \infty)$$

That eigenvalue means that the population grows.

20. Suppose $B > A > 0$, meaning that each

- $b_{ij} > a_{ij} > 0$. How does the Perron-Frobenius discussion show that $\lambda_{\max}(B) > \lambda_{\max}(A)$?

$$\text{Ans: } A\alpha = \lambda_{\max}(A)\alpha > 0$$

$$B\alpha = \lambda_{\max}(B)\alpha$$

$$B\alpha > A\alpha = \lambda_{\max}(A)\alpha > 0$$

$$B\alpha = \lambda_{\max}(B)\alpha > \lambda_{\max}(A)\alpha$$

$$\underline{\underline{\lambda_{\max}(B) > \lambda_{\max}(A)}}$$

30. Cont. problem (29) from $U_0 = (1, 0)$ to U_7 , and also from $V_0 = (0, 1)$ to V_7 . What do you notice about U_7 & V_7 ?

Ans: $U_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $U_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$, $U_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7 \\ 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$, $U_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.65 \\ 0.35 \end{bmatrix}$

$$U_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.65 \\ 0.35 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.625 \\ 0.375 \end{bmatrix}, U_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6125 \\ 0.3875 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U_6 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.60625 \\ 0.39375 \end{bmatrix}, U_7 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.603125 \\ 0.396875 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0.603125 + 0.396875 = 1$$

$$U_7 \text{ is close to } S = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 \\ 0.4 \end{bmatrix} = \text{Steady state, } S$$

* If A is a +ve Markov matrix,
 $\lambda = 1$ is the only eigenvalue of modulus 1.

* If A is a +ve Markov matrix, then A^n has
 1 as the only eigenvalue of modulus 1.

31. Invent a 3×3 "magic matrix" M_3 with entries $1, 2, \dots, 9$. All rows & columns & diagonals add to 15. The 1st row could be 8, 1, 3, 4.

$$M_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = ?$$

$M_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ if a 4×4 magic matrix has entries $1, \dots, 16$?

Ans: $M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 4 & 9 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{T^T} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 & 9 \\ 6 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 5+u & 5-u+v & 5-v \\ 5-u-v & 5 & 5+u+v \\ 5+v & 5+u-v & 5-u \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ 15 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 34 \\ 34 \\ 34 \\ 34 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$1+2+\dots+16 = \frac{16 \times 17}{2} = 136 = 4 \times (34)$$

2.2

7. For which # a does elimination breakdown

$$ax + 3y = -3$$

$$4x + 6y = 6$$

(a) Permanently

Ans: $a = 2 \Rightarrow$ 2 lld lines in row picture

(b) temporarily

Ans: $a = 0 \Rightarrow$ elimination will stop for row exchange.

8. For which # k does elimination break down? Which is by a row exchange?

In such case, is the # of solutions 0 or 1 or ∞ ?

$$kx + 3y = 6$$

$$3x + ky = -6$$

Ans: $k = 3$: No solution.

$k = -3$: infinitely many solutions.

$k = 0$: row exchange is needed.

11. (a) system of linear eq. can't have exactly 2 solutions. Why?

(b) If (x, y, z) & (x', y', z') are 2 solutions. What is another solution?

(c) If 25 planes meet at 2 pts, where else do they meet?

Ans:

(a) Answer $\frac{1}{2}(x+x', y+y', z+z')$

(b) If the planes meet at 2 pts, they meet along the whole line thro' those pts.

14. Which # d forces a row exchange, & what is the triangular system (not singular) for that d ? Which d makes this system singular (no 3rd pivot)?

$$\begin{aligned} 2x + 5y + z &= 0 \\ 4x + dy + z &= 2 \\ y - z &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Ans. $\begin{aligned} 2x + 5y + z &= 0 \\ (d-10)y + z &= 2 \\ y - z &= 3 \end{aligned}$

If $d=10$, exchange rows 2 & 3.

If $d=11$, the system becomes singular.

15. Which # b leads later to a row exchange? Which b leads to a missing pivot? In that singular case find a non-zero solution x, y, z .

$$x + by = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} x + by &= 0 \\ x - 2y - z &= 0 \\ y + z &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Ans. $\begin{aligned} (-2b)y - z &= 0 \\ y + z &= 0 \end{aligned}$

If $b = -2$, we exchange rows 2 & 3.

If $b = -1$: singular case.

$$x = -by \text{ \& } z = -y \implies (t, t, -t)$$

$$(1, 1, -1) //$$

16. Construct a 3×3 system that needs 2 row exchanges to reach a triangular form & a solution.
- (a) Construct a 3×3 system that needs a row exchange to keep moving, but breaks down later.

Ans: $2z = 4$

(a) $x + 2y + 2z = 5$
 $3y + 4z = 6$

(b) $3y + 4z = 4$
 $x + 2y + 2z = 5$
 $3y + 4z = 10$

17. If rows 1 and 2 are the same, how far can you get with elimination (allowing row exchange) if columns 1 & 2 are the same, which pivot is missing?

Ans: Equal Rows

$2x - y + z = 0$
 $2x - y + z = 0$
 $4x + y + z = 2$

$2x - y + z = 0$
 $0 = 0$
 $3y - z = 0$

$2x - y + z = 0$
 $3y - z = 0$
 $0 = 0$

Equal columns

$$2x + 2y + z = 0$$

$$4x + 4y + z = 0$$

$$6x + 6y + z = 2$$



$$2x + 2y + z = 0$$

$$-z = 0$$

$$-2z = 2$$

column 2 has no pivot

20. 3 planes can fail to have an intersection point, even if no planes are $\parallel$. The system is singular if row 3 of 'A' is a linear comb. of the 1st two rows. Find a 3rd eq. that can't be solved together with $x+y+z=0$ & $x-2y-z=1$.

Ans: Linear comb. of 1st 2 rows.



$$x+y+z=0$$

$$x-2y-z=1$$

$$2x-y=4$$



3 planes form a Δ tunnel. No solution.

$$z = b+d$$

$$y = b+c$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} d & c \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$$

The n eqs are solvable only if 2 are solvable & different matrices have 2 rows & columns same. Write down the row echelon form of A & make (b,c,d) = 10

24. For which $a \neq 0$ will elimination fail on $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix}$

Ans. $a=0$ & $a=2$

25. For which 3 #'s 'a' will elimination fail to give 3 pivots?

$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 2 & 3 \\ a & a & 4 \\ a & a & a \end{bmatrix}$ is singular for 3 values of a ?

Ans. $a=0$ (zero row)
 $a=4$ (equal rows)

$a=2$ (equal columns)

26. Look for a matrix that has row sums 4 & 8, and column sums 2 & 5:

Matrix = $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, $a+b=4$, $a+c=2$, $c+d=8$, $b+d=5$.

The 4 eq's are solvable only if $s = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$.
 Then find 2 different matrices that have the correct row & column sums.
 Write down the 4×4 system $Ax=b$ with $x=(a,b,c,d)$ & make A triangular by

elimination.

Ques. $a+b+c+d = 12 = 5+2 \implies \underline{\underline{S=10}}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

3. Suppose, elimination takes A to U without row exchanges. Then row j of U is a combination of which rows of A ?
- If $Ax=0$, is $Ux=0$? If $Ax=b$, is $Ux=b$?
- If ' A ' starts out lower triangular, what is upper triangular U ?

Ans: Row j of U is a combination of rows $1, \dots, j$ of A (when no row exchanges).

$$Ax=0 \implies Ux=0$$

$$Ax=b \not\implies Ux=b$$

$\Rightarrow$ U keeps the diagonal of ' A ' when A is lower triangular.

3d. Start with 100 eq's $Ax=0$ for 100 unknowns
 $x = (x_1, \dots, x_{100})$. Suppose elimination reduces
the 100th eq. to $0=0$, so the system is
"singular".

- (c) Invent a 100×100 singular matrix with
no zero entries
- (d) For that matrix, describe in words the
row picture & the column picture of $Ax=0$.

Ans: 99 random rows
100th row is the sum of any linear
combination of those rows with no zeros.

Row picture: 100 hyperplanes meeting along a
common line thro' 0.

Column picture: has 100 vectors all in the same
99-D hyperplane

2.3

2. E_{21} subtracts 5 times row 1 from row 2.

E_{32} subtracts -7 times row 2 from row 3.

$$E_{32} E_{21} b = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

$$E_{21} E_{32} b = \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \quad b = (1, 0, 0)$$

When E_{32} comes 1st, row 3 has no effect from row 1.

Ans: $E_{32} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & +7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, E_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$E_{32} E_{21} b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 & 0 \\ -35 & 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -5 \\ -35 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$E_{21} E_{32} b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -5 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

When E_{32} comes 1st, row 3 has no effect from row 1.

3. Which 3 matrices E_{21} , E_{31} , E_{32} put 'A' into triangular form U?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 6 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } E_{32} E_{31} E_{21} A = U$$

Multiply these E's to get one matrix M that does elimination: $MA = U$.

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A = U$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 10 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

16. Write these ancient problems in a 2×2 matrix form $Ax = b$ & solve them:

@ X is twice as old as Y and their ages add to 33

Ans: $\begin{matrix} x = 2y \\ x + y = 33 \end{matrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 33 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} y = 11 \\ x = 22 \end{matrix}$$

17. The parabola $y = a + bx + cx^2$ goes thro' the pts.
 $(1, 4)$ & $(2, 8)$ & $(3, 14)$. Find & solve
 a matrix equation for the unknowns (a, b, c) ?

Ans:

$$\begin{aligned} a + b + c &= 4 \\ a + 2b + 4c &= 8 \\ a + 3b + 9c &= 14 \end{aligned} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vandermonde Matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 8 & 10 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$c = 1, \quad b + 3c = b + 3 = 4 \Rightarrow b = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$a = 4 - 2 = 2$$

$$(a, b, c) = (2, 1, 1)$$

□ Vandermonde matrix

In linear algebra,

a Vandermonde matrix is a matrix with the terms of a G.P in each row.

Ex:-

$$V_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_1^2 & \dots & \alpha_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_2^2 & \dots & \alpha_2^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_3 & \alpha_3^2 & \dots & \alpha_3^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \alpha_m & \alpha_m^2 & \dots & \alpha_m^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(or) \quad V_{i,j} = \alpha_i^{j-1} \quad \forall \quad i, j$$

The identical term Vandermonde matrix was used by Macdon & Spitzbart.

The Vandermonde matrix used for DFT matrix satisfies both definitions.

An ~~an~~ N -point DFT is expressed as $X = Wx$,
 x : original input signal, W : $N \times N$ square DFT matrix,
 X : DFT of the signal.

W is a Vandermonde matrix

$$W = \left(\frac{\omega^{jk}}{\sqrt{N}} \right)_{j,k=0,1,\dots,N-1}$$

(OR)

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{N-1} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{2(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{N-1} & \omega^{2(N-1)} & \dots & \omega^{(N-1)(N-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

where, $\omega = e^{-\frac{2\pi j}{N}}$: N^{th} root of unity

The determinant of a square Vandermonde matrix can be expressed as:

$$\det(V) = \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (\alpha_j - \alpha_i)$$

This is called the Vandermonde determinant
(or) Vandermonde polynomial.

- $\det(V)$ is non-zero iff all α_i are distinct.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_1^2 & \dots & \alpha_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_2^2 & \dots & \alpha_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \alpha_n & \alpha_n^2 & \dots & \alpha_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

* The discriminant of a polynomial of degree 'n' is equal to the square of the Vandermonde determinant of the roots of the polynomial times

$$A_n \left[\frac{x_1^{n-2}}{(x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3) \dots (x_1 - x_n)} + \dots + \frac{x_{n-2}^{n-2}}{(x_{n-2} - x_1)(x_{n-2} - x_3) \dots (x_{n-2} - x_n)} \right] + \dots$$

For

$$A(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0, \quad a_n \neq 0$$

in terms of the roots $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$, the discriminant is equal to:

$$\text{Disc}_x(A) = a_n^{n-2} \prod_{i < j} (x_i - x_j)^2$$

- • If the polynomial has a multiple root (at least 2 roots are equal), then its discriminant is zero.
- If all the roots are real and simple, then the discriminant is +ve.

Ex:- Degree 2. $A(x) = ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

$$\Delta = a^{2(2)-2} (x_1 - x_2)^2$$

$$= a^2 \left[\frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} + \frac{b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \right]^2$$

$$= a^2 \left[\frac{\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{a} \right]^2 = b^2 - 4ac$$

Degree 3 $A(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$

$$\Delta = b^2c^2 - 4ac^3 - 4b^3d - 27a^2d^2 + 18abcd$$

19. $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $PQ = QP = ?$
 $P^2 = ?$

Find another non-diagonal matrix whose square is $M^2 = I$?

Ans: $PQ = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$QP = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ & $P^2 = I$

$M^2 = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

if $a^2 + bc = 1$

22. The entries of A and x are a_{ij} & x_j
 So the 1st comp. of Ax is $\sum a_{1j} x_j =$
 $a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n$ E_{21} subtracts row 1 from row 2.

③ 3rd comp. of Ax

$C_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{jk}$

Ans: $\sum a_{3j} x_j$ $E_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

⑥ the (2,1) entry of $E_{21}A$

Ans: $\sum a_{2j} a_{j1} = a_{21} - a_{11}$

© (211) entry of $E_{21}(E_{21}A)$

Ans: $E_{21}(E_{21}A) = E_{21}^2 A =$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A$$

$$C_{21} = \sum_{j=1}^n e'_{2j} a_{j1} = a_{21} - 2a_{11}$$

④ 1st component of $E_{21}A\alpha$

Ans: $(EA\alpha)_1 = (A\alpha)_1 = \sum a_{1j}\alpha_j$

27. Choose the # a, b, c, d in the augmented matrix so that there is

• infinitely many solutions

① No solution

②

infinitely many solutions

$$[A \ b] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & a \\ 0 & 4 & 5 & b \\ 0 & 0 & d & c \end{bmatrix}$$

Which of the # a, b, c, d have no effect on the solvability?

Ans: $|A| = 0$ for both the cases.

$$|A| = 4d = 0 \implies \boxed{d=0} \text{ \& rank}(A) = 2$$

(b) Infinitely many solutions.

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|b) < n = 3.$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = D_1 = D_2 = D_3 = 0.$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & a \\ 0 & 4 & b \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{vmatrix} = 4c = 0 \implies c = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & a \\ 4 & 5 & b \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{vmatrix} = 0 \implies c = 0$$

$$\boxed{d=0 \text{ \& } c=0}$$

(c) No solution

$$\text{rank}(A) < \text{rank}(A|b).$$

$$2 < \text{rank}(A|b) \implies \text{rank}(A|b) = 3$$

$$\boxed{d=0, c \neq 0}$$

30. Write $M = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ as a product of many factors $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Ans: $M \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

① What matrix E subtracts row 1 from row 2 to make row 2 of EM smaller?

Ans: $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A^{-1}$

② What matrix F subtracts row 2 from row 1 to reduce row 1 of FEM ?

Ans: $F = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = B^{-1}$

any
 (c) Continue E's & F's until (many E's & F's)
 times M is (A or B) until row below is
 0

(d) $M = \text{product of A's \& B's}$

Ans: $M = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{E} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{F} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

(8 of 6 columns) A

(11 rows of 4)

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{row 1 of A} \\ \text{row 2 of A} \\ \text{row 3 of A} \\ \text{row 4 of A} \end{array} \right\} \begin{bmatrix} 8A \\ 2A \\ 2A \\ 2A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8A \\ 2A \\ 2A \\ 2A \end{bmatrix}$$

(8 of 6 columns) A

(row 3 of A) * (column 2 of B)

2.4

2. What rows/columns or matrices do you multiply to find

(a) 2nd column of AB

Ans: $A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b}_1 & \vec{b}_2 & \dots & \vec{b}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A\vec{b}_1 & A\vec{b}_2 & \dots & A\vec{b}_n \end{bmatrix}$

(b) A (column 2 of B)

(c) 1st row of AB ?

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vec{a}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix} B = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 B \\ \vec{a}_2 B \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n B \end{bmatrix} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vec{a}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix}} \right\} \text{(row 1 of } A) B$

(d) entry in row 3, column 5 of AB ?

Ans: $(\text{row 3 of } A) \cdot (\text{column 5 of } B)$

④ entry (in row 1, column 1) of CDE

(A D E row)

Ans: (row 1 of C) D (column 1 of E)

5. Compute A^2, A^3 & make a prediction for A^5 & A^n .

⑥ $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & nb \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

⑦ $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^n = \begin{bmatrix} 2^n & 2^n \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

8. How is each row of DA and EA related to the rows of A, when $D = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$, $E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$

How is each column of AD & AE related to the column of A?

Ans: $DA = \begin{bmatrix} 3a & 3b \\ 5c & 5d \end{bmatrix}$, $EA = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$

The rows of DA are 3 (row 1 of A) and 5 (row 2 of A).

Both rows of EA are row 2 of A .

9. EA : row 1 of A is added to row 2.

$(EA)F$: column 1 of EA is added to column 2

$$EA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ a+c & b+d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(EA)F = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ a+c & b+d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & a+b \\ a+c & a+b+c+d \end{bmatrix}$$

② Do those steps in the opp. order.

i.e., $E(AF)$

$$\text{Ans: } E \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = E \begin{bmatrix} a & a+b \\ c & c+d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & a+b \\ c & c+d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & a+b \\ a+c & a+b+c+d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{(EA)F = E(AF)}$$

11. $(EA)F = E(AF) \Rightarrow$ If you do a ~~column~~ row operation on A , and then a column operation, the result is the same as if you did the column operation first.

12. 3×3 matrices. Choose the only B so that every matrix A satisfies

(a) $BA = 4A$

Ans: $B = 4I$

(b) $BA = 4B$

Ans: $B = 0$

(c) BA has rows 1 and 3 of A reversed & row 2 unchanged.

Ans: $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) All rows of BA are the same as row 1 of A

Ans: $BA = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{A}_1 \\ \vec{A}_2 \\ \vec{A}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{A}_1 \\ \vec{A}_1 \\ \vec{A}_1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

13. $AB=BA$ & $AC=CA$ for these 2 particular matrices B & C :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \text{ commutes with } B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ \& } C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Prove that $a=d$ and $b=c=0$. Then A is a multiple of I . The only matrices that commute with B & C and all other 2×2 matrices are

$A = \text{multiple of } I$.

$$\text{Ans: } AB = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \downarrow \end{matrix} \Rightarrow \underline{b=c=0}$$

$$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AC = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \downarrow \end{matrix} \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} a=d \\ c=0 \end{matrix}$$

$$CA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = aI$$

→ The only matrices that commute with all other 2×2 matrices are multiples of I .

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = aI_4$$

15. True/False

(a) If $AB = B$ then $A = I$

Ans: False: true for $B = 0$

16. If 'A' is m by n , how many separate multiplications are involved when

(a) 'A' multiplies a vector x with n components?

Ans: mn

(b) 'A' multiplies an $n \times p$ matrix B

Ans: $A_{m \times n} B_{n \times p} = C_{m \times p}$

= mp terms of C & each term has

n multiplications

$= mnp$

(c) A multiplies itself to produce A^2 $m=n$

Ans: $n^3 = m^3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

17. For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$, compute these answers and nothing more:

(a) column 2 of AB

Ans: $= A \vec{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) row 2 of AB

Ans: ~~A_1~~ ~~A_2~~ $\vec{A}_2 B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) row 2 of AA^2

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) row 2 of A^3

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

19. What words would you use to describe each of these classes of matrices?
Which matrix belongs to all 4 classes?

(a) $A_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{Diagonal matrix}$

(b) $A_{ij} = 0$ if $i < j$

$\begin{bmatrix} a & d & e \\ 0 & b & f \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ d & b & 0 \\ e & f & c \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{Lower triangular}$

(c) $A_{ij} = A_{ji} \rightarrow \text{Symmetric}$

(d) $A_{ij} = A_{ij} \rightarrow \text{all rows equal}$

Zero matrix fits all 4

23. Find a non-zero matrix A for which $A^2 = 0$

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$

$A = UV^T = U \otimes V$

$A^2 = UV^TUV^T = 0$ if $\begin{cases} V^T U = 0 \\ V \cdot U = 0 \end{cases}$

$V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, U = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$A = UV^T = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

matrix that has $A^2 \neq 0$ but $A^3 = 0$

$\Rightarrow A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans

24. By experiment with $n=2$, $n=3$ predict A^n for these matrices.

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Ans: } A_1^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad A_1^n = \begin{bmatrix} 2^n & 2^{n-1} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_1^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_2^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_2^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A_2^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ A_2^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right\} A_2^n = \begin{bmatrix} 2^{n-1} & 2^{n-1} \\ 2^{n-1} & 2^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = 2^{n-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_3^2 = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & ab \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_3^3 = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & ab \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^3 & a^2 b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_3^n = \begin{bmatrix} a^n & a^{n-1} b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q5. Multiply A times I using columns of A (3×3)
times rows of I .

Ans: ~~$A \cdot I = A$~~

$$AI = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i}_1 \\ \hat{i}_2 \\ \hat{i}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= a_1 \hat{i}_1 + a_2 \hat{i}_2 + a_3 \hat{i}_3$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a \\ d \\ g \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b \\ e \\ h \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c \\ f \\ i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ d & 0 & 0 \\ g & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & e & 0 \\ 0 & h & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & c \\ 0 & 0 & f \\ 0 & 0 & i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} = A$$

28. Draw the cuts in $A(2 \times 3)$ and $B(3 \times 4)$ and AB to show how each of the 4 multiplication rules is really a block multiplication.

(i) A times columns of B .

Ans: $A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(ii) Rows of A times B .

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix} B$

(iii) Rows of A times columns of B

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix}$ Inner products.

(iv) Columns of A times rows of B

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix}$ Outer products.

30. Block multiplication says that column 1 is eliminated by

$$EA = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline -c/a & I \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & D - \frac{c}{a}b \end{bmatrix}$$

What # go into c & D and what's

$$D - \frac{c}{a}b ?$$

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{c|cc} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 8 & 5 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{Ans. } D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, a = 2, c = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D - \frac{cb}{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

31. The product of $(A+iB)$ & $(x+iy)$ is

$Ax + iBx + iAy - By$.

Use blocks to separate the real part without i from the imaginary part that multiplies i :

Ans:
$$\begin{bmatrix} A & -B \\ B & A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Ax - By \\ Bx + Ay \end{bmatrix}$$
 real part
imaginary part

→ Complex matrix times complex vector needs 4 times real multiplications.

32. Suppose you solve $Ax=b$ for 3 special right sides

$Ax_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, Ax_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, Ax_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

If the 3 solutions x_1, x_2, x_3 are the columns of a matrix X , what is A times X ?

Ans:
$$AX = A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Ax_1 & Ax_2 & Ax_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

33. If 3 solutions in (3a) are $\alpha_1 = (1, 1, 1)$

$\alpha_2 = (0, 1, 1)$, $\alpha_3 = (0, 0, 1)$, solve $Ax = b$ when

$b = (3, 5, 8)$ What is $A = ?$

Ans: $A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $A \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $A \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\alpha_1 \qquad \alpha_2 \qquad \alpha_3$

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 5 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 8 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 3A\alpha_1 + 5A\alpha_2 + 8A\alpha_3$$

$$A(3\alpha_1 + 5\alpha_2 + 8\alpha_3) = b$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 3\alpha_1 + 5\alpha_2 + 8\alpha_3 = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 5 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 8 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix} \iff A^{-1}b = x$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{E_{32} E_{31} E_{21}} A^{-1} = I$$

1,1)
column

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

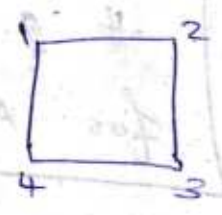
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

35. Suppose a "circle graph" has 4 nodes connected (in both directions) by edges around a circle. What is its adjacency matrix S ~~from~~ $S^2 = ?$
 All 2-step paths predicted by S^2 .

Ans: $S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



$$S^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

36.

$$A_{m \times n}, B_{n \times p}, C_{p \times q}$$

of multiplications

$$\text{for } (AB) = mnp$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ \vdots \\ A_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_p \end{bmatrix}$$

mp dot products
& each has n terms

of multiplications

$$\text{for } (AB)C = (mpq) + \# \text{ for } AB$$

$$= mnp + mpq$$

$$(AB)_{m \times p} C_{p \times q}$$

$$(mp)q$$

of multiplications

for $A(BC)$

$$= mnq + npq$$

$$A_{m \times n} (BC)_{n \times q}$$

$$mnq$$

② If A is 2×4 & B is 4×7 , C is 7×10
do you prefer $(AB)C$ or $A(BC)$?

Ans: # of multiplications
for $(AB)_{2 \times 7}$ $= 2 \times 4 \times 7$

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ for } (AB)C &= (2 \times 4 \times 7) + (2 \times 7 \times 10) \\ &= 2[28 + 70] = 2 \times 98 \\ &= 196 \end{aligned}$$

$$\# \text{ for } (BC)_{4 \times 10} = 4 \times 7 \times 10$$

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ for } A(BC) &= 2 \times 4 \times 10 + 2 \times 7 \times 10 \\ &= 4[20 + 70] = 4 \times 90 = 360 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$ We prefer $(AB)C$

③ With N -component vectors, would you choose $(U^T V)W^T$ or $U^T(VW^T)$?

Ans: $U^T: 1 \times N \mid V: N \times 1 \mid W^T: 1 \times N$

$$\# (U^T V)W^T = 1 \times N \times 1 + N = 2N$$

$$\# U^T(VW^T)_{N \times N} = 1 \times N \times N + N \times 1 \times N = 2N^2$$

$\Rightarrow$ prefer $(U^T V)W^T$

© Divide by $mnpq$ to show ~~that~~
 $(AB)C$ is faster when $n^{-1} + q^{-1} < m^{-1} + p^{-1}$

Ans: $\# (AB)C < \# A(BC)$

$$mnp + mpq < mnq + npq$$

Dividing by $mnpq$,

$$\frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{m}$$

$q^{-1} + n^{-1} < p^{-1} + m^{-1}$

$\nexists$ $C_{pq} = V_{pn} \rightarrow q=1$

$\rightarrow$ If matrices A and B are multiplying v for ABv ,
don't multiply the matrices first.
Better to multiply Bv and then $A(Bv)$

Answer V_{pn} : $\frac{1}{n} + 1 < \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow n < 1$
Not true

$(AB)v$ is not better.

37. To prove that $(AB)C = A(BC)$, use the column vectors $b_1, \dots, b_n$ of B .

1st suppose that C has only one column c with entries $c_1, \dots, c_n$:

$$AB = A \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b}_1 & \dots & \vec{b}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Ab_1 & \dots & Ab_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)c = c_1 Ab_1 + \dots + c_n Ab_n$$

$$Bc = c_1 b_1 + \dots + c_n b_n$$

$$A(Bc) = A(c_1 b_1 + \dots + c_n b_n) = (AB)c$$

By linearity

The same is true for all other columns of C .

$$\therefore (AB)C = A(BC)$$



2.5

2. For these Permutation matrices find P^{-1}

(a) $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = P^T$

also it is ~~an~~ orthogonal matrix $\longleftrightarrow$ symmetry transformation $\longleftrightarrow$ Norm preserved.

(b) $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

5. Find an upper triangular U (not diagonal) with $U^2 = I$ which gives $U = U^{-1}$

Ans: $U = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow U^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & -b \\ 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & \frac{-b}{ac} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{c} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow a^2 = 1, c^2 = 1, b = 0 \text{ (or) } ac = -1$

$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ for any b

(or) $U = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

6. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, find 2 different matrices such

that $AB = AC$

Ans: $|A| = 0$

$$A(B-C) = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B-C = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x+z & y+w \\ x+z & y+w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$z = -x \text{ \& } w = -y$$

$$B-C = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -x & -y \end{bmatrix}$$

7. If 'A' has row 1 + row 2 = row 3,

(a) Why $Ax = (0, 0, 1)$ can't have a solution.

(b) Which (b_1, b_2, b_3) might allow a solution to $Ax = b$?

(c) What happens to elimination, in elimination

Ans: $Ax = (0, 0, 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ A is not invertible

row 1 + row 2 - row 3 $\Rightarrow 0 = 1$

No solution

(B) $b_1 + b_2 - b_3 = 0 \Rightarrow b_1 + b_2 = b_3$

(C) row 3 becomes a row of zeros.
No 3rd pivot.

8. A has column 1 + column 2 = column 3,
 $A_{3 \times 3}$.

(a) Find a non-zero solution x to $Ax = 0$.

(b) Elimination keeps column 1 + column 2 = column 3.
No 2nd pivot.

Ans: $|A| = 0 \Rightarrow A^{-1}$ does not exist.
 $\Rightarrow$ Only non-zero solution to $Ax = 0$.

$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x\vec{a}_1 + y\vec{a}_2 + z(\vec{a}_1 + \vec{a}_2) = 0$

$\vec{a}_1 + \vec{a}_2 = \vec{a}_3$

$\vec{a}_1(x+z) + \vec{a}_2(y+z) = 0$
 $x = -z, y = -z, z = z$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (-1, -1, 1) \\ (1, 1, -1) \end{array} \right.$ etc.

$$\textcircled{b}. \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \vec{a}_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\cancel{A_1 + A_2} \quad \vec{a}_1 + \vec{a}_2 = \vec{a}_3$$

$$E(\vec{a}_1 + \vec{a}_2) = E\vec{a}_3$$

$$E\vec{a}_1 + E\vec{a}_2 = E\vec{a}_3 \Rightarrow \underline{\vec{A}_1 + \vec{A}_2 = \vec{A}_3}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Elimination keeps column(1) + column(2) = column(3)

After elimination : 1st & 2nd entries in the 3rd row will be zero.

$\Rightarrow$ 3rd entry must be zero -

$\Rightarrow$ whole 3rd row is zero

$\Rightarrow$ No 3rd pivot

10. Find the inverses.

② $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $A \equiv P_{14} P_{23}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A^{-1} = P_{14} P_{23} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad P_{23} P_{14} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

③ $B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag}(A_1, A_2) = A_1 \oplus A_2$

Ans: $B^{-1} = A_1^{-1} \oplus A_2^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \oplus \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -7 \\ -5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \oplus \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -5 \\ -7 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & -7 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

12. If $C=AB$ is invertible (A, B square), then A itself is invertible. Find a formula for A^{-1} that involves C^{-1} and B .

Ans: $C=AB \Rightarrow A^{-1}C=B$
 $\Rightarrow \underline{A^{-1}=BC^{-1}}$

13. If $M=ABC$ of 3 sq. matrices is invertible, then B is invertible. So are A & C . Find a formula for B^{-1} that involves M^{-1} and A & C .

Ans: $M=ABC \Rightarrow M^{-1}=C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}$
 $\underline{B^{-1}=CM^{-1}A}$

15. Prove that a matrix with a column of zeros can't have an inverse.

Ans: 'A' has column of zeros $\Rightarrow AB$ ~~must~~ also have
 $\rightarrow AB=I$ is impossible
 $\rightarrow$ There is no A^{-1} .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

21. There are sixteen 2×2 matrices whose entries are 1's and 0's. How many of them are invertible.

Ans: Invertible $\Rightarrow |A| \neq 0$

$$|A| = 1, -1$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right\} \# = 6$$

24. Use Gauss-Jordan elimination on $[U \ I]$ to find the upper triangular U^{-1} .

$$UU^{-1} = I \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans:
$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & a & 0 & 1 & 0 & -b \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -a & a-b \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$\downarrow$
 U^{-1}

26. What 3 matrices E_{21} & E_{12} and D reduce $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ to the identity matrix.

Multiply $D^{-1} E_{12} E_{21}$ to find A^{-1}

Ans: $E_{21} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$D E_{21} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $E_{12} E_{21} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$E_{12} D E_{21} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^{-1} = D E_{12} E_{21} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \leftarrow \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$

32. Suppose, P & Q have the same rows as I
 • but in any order. They are 'permutation matrices'.
 Show that $P-Q$ is singular by solving $(P-Q)x=0$

Ans: For $x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$,

$$x = Px = Qx \implies (P-Q)x = 0.$$

Non-zero solution.

$\therefore (P-Q)$ is singular.

33. Find & check inverses (assuming they exist)
 • of these block matrices.

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ C & I \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & D \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $\left[\begin{array}{c|c} I & 0 \\ \hline -CA^{-1} & I \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}$

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} I & 0 \\ \hline -CA^{-1} & I \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A & 0 \\ \hline 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} I & 0 \\ \hline CA^{-1} & I \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A & 0 \\ \hline 0 & S = D - CA^{-1}B \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} I & A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}BS^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ -S^{-1}CA^{-1} & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Schur complement

$$S = D - CA^{-1}B$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} + A^{-1}BS^{-1}CA^{-1} & -A^{-1}BS^{-1} \\ -S^{-1}CA^{-1} & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{a} \quad M = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ C & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ CA & CB + D \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -C & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ CA & CB + D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & (D - CA^{-1}B)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & S^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{b} \quad M = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A^{-1} & 0 \\ \hline -D^{-1}CA & D^{-1} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\textcircled{c} \quad M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & D \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline -D^{-1}CA & D^{-1} \end{array} \right]$$

Define, $M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & D \end{bmatrix} = P_{12} \begin{bmatrix} I & D \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$

$$M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} I & D \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}^{-1} P_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} I & -ID \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} P_{12}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} I & -D \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} P_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} -D & I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

→ $0 = \hat{u} + \hat{D} + \hat{I} + \hat{I}$

relax to 0 : $0 = |x|$

34. Could a 4×4 matrix A be invertible, if every row contains the # 0, 1, 2, 3 in some order?

(What if every row of B contains 0, 1, 2, -3 in some order?)

Ans: A can be invertible

Ex:- $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 6 & 6 \\ 2 & -4 & -3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -18 + 24 \neq 0$$

$$B = [\vec{b}_1 \ \vec{b}_2 \ \vec{b}_3 \ \vec{b}_4]$$

$$\vec{b}_1 + \vec{b}_2 + \vec{b}_3 + \vec{b}_4 = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{b}_4 \text{ is a linear comb of other 3 vectors}$$

$$\therefore |B| = 0 \quad \therefore \underline{\underline{B \text{ is singular}}}$$

(OR) For $x = (1, 1, 1, 1)$

$$Bx = 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ Non-zero solution

$\therefore B$ singular

36. Hilbert matrices,

$$H_{ij} = \frac{1}{i+j-1} = \int_0^1 x^{i+j-2} dx$$

Ex:-

$H_{n \times n} =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \dots & \frac{1}{n} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \dots & \frac{1}{n+1} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} & \dots & \frac{1}{n+2} \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{7} & \dots & \frac{1}{n+3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n} & \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+2} & \frac{1}{n+3} & \dots & \frac{1}{2n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

40. Suppose E_1, E_2, E_3 are 4×4 identity matrices, except E_1 has a, b, c in column 1, E_2 has d, e in column 2 & E_3 has f in column 3 (below in 1's).

$$L = E_1 E_2 E_3 = ?$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans: } E_1 E_2 E_3 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ b & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ c & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & f & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ b & d & 1 & 0 \\ c & e & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & f & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ L &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ b & d & 1 & 0 \\ c & e & f & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

44. How does the identity $A(I+BA) = (I+AB)A$ connect the inverses of $I+BA$ and $I+AB$?

Ans: $(I+BA)^{-1}A^{-1} = A^{-1}(I+AB)^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow |A||I+BA| \neq 0 \quad \& \quad |I+AB||A| \neq 0$

If $|A| \neq 0, |I+BA| = 0 \Rightarrow |I+AB| = 0$
 $|I+BA| \neq 0 \Rightarrow |I+AB| \neq 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

AB & BA
 have same non-zero
 eigen values

2.6

2.

$$\begin{cases} x+y=5 \\ x+2y=7 \end{cases}$$

Write down the 2×2 triangular systems
 $Lc=b$ and $Ux=c$

Qw:

$$Ax=b \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Lc=b : \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} c_1 = 5 \\ c_2 = 2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow c = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Ux=c : \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

by back substitution.

$$\begin{aligned} 4. \quad & x+y+z=5 \\ & x+2y+3z=7 \\ & x+3y+6z=11 \end{aligned}$$

Find $Lc=b$ & $Ux=c$

$$Qw: Ax=b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Lc = b \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow c = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Ux = c: \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = x \Leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow x = U^{-1}c$$

8. $A = L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ a & 1 & 0 \\ b & c & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(a) $E_{32} E_{31} E_{21} = E = ? \quad \forall EA = I$

(b) $E_{21}^{-1} E_{31}^{-1} E_{32}^{-1} = L^{-1} = E^{-1} = ?$

Ans: (a)

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -b & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -a & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -a & 1 & 0 \\ -b & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -a & 1 & 0 \\ ae-b & -c & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L = E^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ a & 1 & 0 \\ b & c & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

→ The multipliers a, b, c are mixed up in E
But perfect in L .

12. A & B are symmetric across the diagonal.
Find their triple factorization LDU and say
how U is related to L .

Symmetric

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 4 & 12 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 11 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\approx LDU = LDL^T$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 B &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 4 & 12 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= LDU = LDL^T
 \end{aligned}$$

13. Compute L & U for the symmetric matrix A

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a & a & a \\ a & b & b & b \\ a & b & c & c \\ a & b & c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

Find 4 conditions on a, b, c, d to get $A = LU$ with 4 pivots.

Ans: $A \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & a & a & a \\ 0 & b-a & b-a & b-a \\ 0 & b-a & c-a & c-a \\ 0 & b-a & c-a & d-a \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & a & a & a \\ 0 & b-a & b-a & b-a \\ 0 & 0 & c-b & c-b \\ 0 & 0 & c-b & d-b \end{bmatrix}$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & a & a & a \\ 0 & b-a & b-a & b-a \\ 0 & 0 & c-b & c-b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d-c \end{bmatrix} = U$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & a & a & a \\ a & b & b & b \\ a & b & c & c \\ a & b & c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & a & a & a \\ 0 & b-a & b-a & b-a \\ 0 & 0 & c-b & c-b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d-c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a \neq 0, b \neq a, c \neq b, d \neq c$$

18. $\nexists$ $A = LDU$ & also $A = L_1 D_1 U_1$ with all factors invertible, then $L = L_1$ and $D = D_1$ and $U = U_1$. i.e., the 3 factors are unique.

Derive the eqⁿ. $L^{-1} L D = D U, U^{-1}$.

Are the 2 sides triangular or diagonal?

Deduce $L = L_1, U = U_1$. Then $D = D_1$.

Ans $LDU = L_1 D_1 U_1 \Rightarrow L^{-1} L D U = D_1 U_1$

(a) $L^{-1} L D = D_1 U_1 U^{-1}$

LHS is lower triangular & right side is upper triangular $\rightarrow$ both sides are diagonal

(b)

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ d & a & 0 & 0 \\ c & b & a & 0 \\ b & 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ d & a & 0 & 0 \\ c & b & a & 0 \\ b & 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a \neq 0, d \neq 0, c \neq 0, b \neq 0$$

19. Tridiagonal matrices have zero entries except on the main diagonal and the two adjacent diagonals. Factor these into $A=LU$ & $A=LDL^T$

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a & 0 \\ a & a+b & b \\ 0 & b & b+c \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L I U$

$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a & 0 \\ a & a+b & b \\ 0 & b & b+c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & a & 0 \\ 0 & b & b \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} U$$

⇒ A tridiagonal matrix A has bidiagonal factors L and U.

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{U} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = U$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$LU = A$$

22.

Eliminate upwards:

Upper triangular - lower

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Ans: } \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{A = UL}$$

24. Which invertible matrices allow $A=LU$
(elimination without row exchanges) ?

Ans:

* $A=LU$ is possible only if all upper left $k \times k$ submatrices A_k must be invertible (sizes $k=1, 2, \dots, n$).

The upper left blocks all factor at the same time as 'A': A_k is $L_k U_k$

$$LU = \begin{bmatrix} L_k & 0 \\ * & * \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_k & * \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}$$

2.7

4. Show that $A^2 = 0$ is possible but $A^T A = 0$ is not possible (unless $A = 0$).

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + bc & ab + bd \\ ac + cd & bc + d^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow b=0, d=0, a=0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{A^2 = 0}}$$

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vec{a}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 & \vec{a}_2 & \dots & \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$A^T A$ has terms dot products of columns of A with themselves.

zero dot products $\Rightarrow$ zero columns $\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{A = 0}}$

$$6. M^T = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} A^T & C^T \\ B^T & D^T \end{bmatrix}$$

M is a block symmetric matrix if

$$A^T = A, B^T = C, D^T = D.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

13. • (a) Find a 3×3 permutation matrix with $P^3 = I$ (but not $P = I$).

Ans: ~~Cyclic permutation (or) its transpose~~

$$P = P_{31} P_{23} P_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

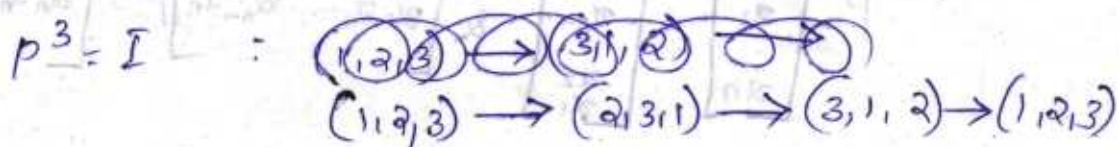
$$P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Cyclic permutation (a) its transpose matrix

$$P = P_{23} P_{12} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^3 = I$$



6 Find a 4×4 permutation $\hat{P}$ with $(\hat{P}^4 \neq I)$

Ans: $\hat{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & P \end{bmatrix}$ for the same above P .
has $\hat{P}^4 = P \neq I$

14. If P has 1's on the anti-diagonal from $(1,n)$ to $(n,1)$, describe PAP . Note $P = P^T$.

Ans: $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$P \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ x_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ x_2 \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix}$ & $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_{n-1} & x_n \end{bmatrix} P = \begin{bmatrix} x_n & x_{n-1} & \dots & x_2 & x_1 \end{bmatrix}$

$(PAP)_{ij} = A_{(n+1)-i, (n+1)-j}$ (I $\neq$ $\hat{A}$)

$\hat{A} \quad P \text{ swaps rows of } A \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{A} \text{ and } I \neq P = \hat{A} \text{ and}$

15.

- (b) Find a 4×4 example with $P^T = P$ that moves all 4 rows

Ans: $1 \rightarrow 2$ & $3 \rightarrow 4$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} E & 0 \\ 0 & E \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

17. Find 2×2 symmetric matrices $S = S^T$ with these properties:

- (a) S is not invertible

Ans: $ad = b^2$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}$$

- (b) S is invertible but can't be factored into LU (row exchanges needed).

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- (c) S can be factored into LDL^T but not into LL^T (because of -ve D).

Ans: $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ has $D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

18. (a) How many entries of S can be chosen independently if $S = S^T$ is 5×5 ?

Ans. * The upper (or lower) part of a symmetric matrix completely determines the other half.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ * & a_3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ * & a_4 & a_5 \\ * & * & a_6 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

$$5+4+3+2+1 = 15 \text{ independent entries}$$

(b) How do L & D give the same # of choices in LDL^T ?

$$\text{Ans. } S = S^T \longrightarrow S = LDL^T$$

L has 10 & D has 5

$\longrightarrow$ total 15 in LDL^T .

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{a}_{11} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tilde{a}_{n1} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = A^T A$$

© How many entries can be chosen if 'A' is skew-symmetric.

Ans: $A^T = -A \implies$ zero diagonal.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ * & 0 & a_3 \\ * & * & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & * & * \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & * \end{bmatrix}$$

$4+3+2+1 = 10$ choices.

19. A is rectangular ($m \times n$) and S is symmetric ($m \times m$).

(a) Transpose of $A^T S A$ to show its symmetry. What shape is this matrix?

Ans: $(A^T S A)^T = A^T S^T A = A^T S A$ is $n \times n$.

(b) Show why $A^T A$ has no -ve # on its diagonal.

Ans: $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vec{a}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{bmatrix} [\vec{a}_1 \vec{a}_2 \dots \vec{a}_n] =$

$$(A^T A)_{ii} = (\text{column } i \text{ of } A)^2 \geq 0.$$

22. Find the $PA = LU$ factorization

(a) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$PA = LU : \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = LU$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Q4. Factor the following matrix into $PA = LU$.

Factor it also into $A = L, P, U$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 8 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & -2/3 \end{bmatrix}$

$PA = LU$

If we want to exchange $\Rightarrow$ q_{12} is the pivot.

$$L_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = L_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = L_1 P_{13} P_{23} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = L_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= L_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow A = L_1 P_1 U_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

25. Identity matrix can not be the product of 3 row exchanges (or five). It can be the product of 2 exchanges (or four).

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

26. (a) Choose E_{21} to remove the 3 below the 1st pivot. Then multiply $E_{21} S E_{21}^T$ to remove both 3's.

(b) Choose E_{32} to remove the 4 below the 2nd pivot. Then S is reduced to D by $E_{32} E_{21} S E_{21}^T E_{32}^T = D$. Invert the E 's to find L in $S = LDL^T$.

~~Ans~~ $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 11 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Ans: $E_{21} S E_{21}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} S \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

E_{12}

$$E_{32} E_{21} S E_{21}^T E_{32}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = D$$

$$S = L D L^T = (E_{32} E_{21})^T D (E_{32} E_{21})$$

27. If every row of a 4×4 matrix contains the numbers 0, 1, 2, 3 in some order, can the matrix be symmetric?

Ans: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = A^T$

29. Wires go b/w Boston, Chicago, & Seattle.

These cities are at voltages x_B, x_C, x_S .

With unit resistance b/w cities, the currents b/w the cities are in y :

$$y = Ax \quad : \quad \begin{bmatrix} y_{BC} \\ y_{CS} \\ y_{BS} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_B \\ x_C \\ x_S \end{bmatrix}$$

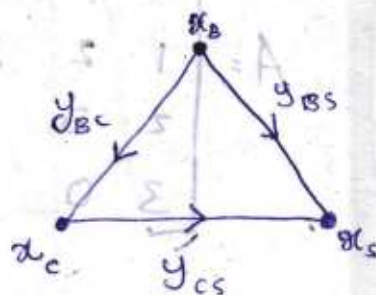
Check
3.5 Ex: 3
Kirchhoff's law

(a) Find the total currents $A^T y$ out of the 3 cities

(b) Verify that $(Ax)^T y = x^T (A^T y)$

Incidence matrix: matrix that shows the relationship b/w 2 classes of objects.

direction going away from the node is +ve.



$$D = \begin{matrix} & y_{BC} & y_{CS} & y_{BS} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{matrix} x_B \\ x_C \\ x_S \end{matrix} & = A^T \end{matrix}$$

Total currents are:

$$A^T y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{BC} \\ y_{CS} \\ y_{BS} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_{BC} + y_{BS} \\ -y_{BC} + y_{CS} \\ -y_{CS} - y_{BS} \end{bmatrix}$$

30. Producing x_1 trucks & x_2 planes needs -
 $x_1 + 50x_2$ tons of steel, $40x_1 + 1000x_2$ pounds of rubber, and $2x_1 + 50x_2$ months of labor.
 If the unit costs y_1, y_2, y_3 are 700/- per ton, 2/- per pound, and 3000/- per month, what are the values of one truck and one plane? Those are the components of $A^T y$.

Ans: $Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 50 \\ 40 & 1000 \\ 2 & 50 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + 50x_2 \\ 40x_1 + 1000x_2 \\ 2x_1 + 50x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{tons of steel} \\ \text{pounds of rubber} \\ \text{months of labor} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \# \text{ of trucks} \\ \# \text{ of planes} \end{bmatrix}$$

A took a vector in truck-plane space into a vector in steel-rubber-labor space.

$$A^T y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 40 & 2 \\ 50 & 1000 & 50 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 700 \\ 3 \\ 3000 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6820 \\ 188000 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{cost of truck} \\ \text{cost of plane} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 700 \\ 3 \\ 3000 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{unit cost per steel} \\ \text{" " rubber} \\ \text{" " labor} \end{bmatrix}$$

A^T sends ~~truck-plane~~ ^{steel-rubber-labor} vector into ~~steel-rubber-labor~~ ^{truck-plane} vector.
~~now in rupee, but it's just a~~
 change of units

31.

Ax : amounts of steel, rubber, labor
to produce x

then $Ax \cdot y$ is the _____ i/p.

$x \cdot A^T y$ is the value of _____

Ans: $Ax \cdot y$: cost of i/p

$x \cdot A^T y$: value of outputs

32. The matrix P that multiplies (x, y, z) to give
 (z, x, y) is also a rotation matrix.

$$P, P^3 = ?$$

The rotation axis $a = (1, 1, 1)$ doesn't move, it
equals Pa .

What is the angle of rotation from
 $v = (2, 3, -5)$ to $Pv = (-5, 2, 3)$?

Ans:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

P_{23} P_{13}

$P^3 = I \Rightarrow$ 3 rotations for 360°

~~P rotates 120° around~~

$P \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow P$ rotates 120° around $(1,1,1)$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$2 \cdot 1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} =$$

34. Factorization : $A = LS$ (triangular with 1's times symmetric)

$$A = LDU = L(U^T)^{-1}U^T D U = LS$$

$L(U^T)^{-1}$: lower triangular times lower triangular
 $\Rightarrow$ lower triangular

$(U^T D U)^T = U^T D U$: $U^T D U$ is symmetric

35. A group of matrices includes AB & A^{-1} if it includes A and B . "Products and inverses stay in the group."

check
on (23)
for groups

Which of the following sets are groups?

Lower triangular matrices L with 1's on the diagonal, symmetric matrices S , positive matrices M , diagonal invertible matrices D , permutation matrices P , matrices with $Q^T = Q^{-1}$

36. A square northwest matrix B is zero in the southeast corner, below the antidiagonal that connects $(1, n)$ to $(n, 1)$.

Will B^T, B^2 be northwest matrices?

Will B^{-1} be northwest or southeast?

What's the shape of BC = northwest $\times$ southeast

Ans:

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & \dots & b_{1,n-1} & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & \dots & b_{2,n-1} & 0 \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ b_{n-1,1} & b_{n-1,2} & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ b_{n,1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B^T = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{21} & b_{31} & \dots & b_{n-1,1} & b_{n,1} \\ b_{12} & b_{22} & b_{32} & \dots & b_{n-1,2} & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ b_{1,n-1} & b_{2,n-2} & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ b_{1n} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\rightarrow$ transpose of a northwest matrix is northwest matrix.

$$B^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \sum b_{11} b_{11} & \sum b_{11} b_{12} & \dots & \sum b_{11} b_{1n} \\ \sum b_{21} b_{11} & \sum b_{21} b_{12} & \dots & \sum b_{21} b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sum b_{n-1,1} b_{11} & \sum b_{n-1,1} b_{12} & \dots & \sum b_{n-1,1} b_{1n} \\ \sum b_{n1} b_{11} & \sum b_{n1} b_{12} & \dots & \sum b_{n1} b_{1n} \end{bmatrix}$$

→ Square of a northwest matrix is not northwest matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & p_{13} & \dots & p_{1n} \\ 0 & p_{22} & p_{23} & \dots & p_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & p_{33} & \dots & p_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & p_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B^2 = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & p_{13} & \dots & p_{1n} \\ 0 & p_{22} & p_{23} & \dots & p_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & p_{33} & \dots & p_{3n} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & p_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

→ Transpose of a northwest matrix is northwest matrix

$\Rightarrow$ Inverse of northwest matrix is not northwest
 but southeast.

$\Leftarrow$ Product of northwest and southeast matrix
 is identity matrix

If you take product of a transformation
 matrix P and its inverse P^{-1} , you get the identity matrix I .

These are the transformation matrices.

Inverse of a transformation matrix P must be the
 same dimension.

If $P = P^{-1}$, then $P^2 = I$.

$$BC = \begin{bmatrix} b_{1n} C_{1n} & b_{1n} C_{2n} + b_{1,n-1} C_{2,n-1} & \dots & \sum b_{1i} C_{in} \\ 0 & b_{2n-1} C_{2,n-1} & & \sum b_{2i} C_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & & \sum b_{n-1i} C_{in} \\ 0 & 0 & & \sum b_{ni} C_{in} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Product of northwest and southeast matrix is upper triangular matrix

37. If you take powers of a permutation matrix, why is some P^k eventually equal to I ?

Ans: There are $n!$ permutation matrices

Eventually 2 powers of P must be the same permutation.

If $P^r = P^s$, then $P^{r-s} = I$, $r-s \leq n!$

(b) Find a 5×5 permutation P so that the smallest power to equal I is P^6

Ans: $P = \begin{bmatrix} P_2 & 0 \\ 0 & P_3 \end{bmatrix} = P_2 \oplus P_3 = \text{Diag}(P_2, P_3)$

where, $P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $P_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$P^6 = \begin{bmatrix} P_2^6 & 0 \\ 0 & P_3^6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & I_3 \end{bmatrix} = I_5$$

3

VECTOR SPACES & SUBSPACES

Matrices : Numbers $\longrightarrow$ Vectors $\longrightarrow$ Spaces of vectors.

We are here looking inside the calculations, to find the mathematics. !

- * The space $\mathbb{R}^n$ consists of all column vectors $\vec{v}$ with n components. The components of $\vec{v}$ are real numbers, which is the reason for the letter $\mathbb{R}$.
- * A vector whose n components are complex numbers lies in the space $\mathbb{C}^n$.

The one-dimensional space $\mathbb{R}^1$ is a line.

$\mathbb{R}^2$ is represented by the usual xy-plane

Each vector gives the x and y coordinates of a point in the plane: $\vec{v} = (x, y)$

The vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ correspond to points (x, y, z) in 3D space

Ex: $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ \pi \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $(1, 1, 0, 1, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^5$,

$\begin{bmatrix} 1+i \\ i \\ 1-i \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^3$

* A vector space consists of a set V (elements of V are called vectors), a field F (elements of F are called scalars), and 2 operations:

- An operation called vector addition that takes 2 vectors $\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$, and produces a 3rd vector, written as $\vec{v} + \vec{w} \in V$
- An operation called scalar multiplication that takes a scalar $c \in F$ and a vector $\vec{v} \in V$, and produces a new vector, written $c\vec{v} \in V$.

which satisfy the following conditions:

- Associativity of vector addition:

$$(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$$

- Existence of a zero vector:

There exists a vector $\vec{0} \in V$ such that $\vec{u} + \vec{0} = \vec{u} \quad \forall \vec{u} \in V$, and $\vec{0}$ is called the zero vector

- Existence of -ves :
(additive inverse)

For every $\vec{v} \in V$ there exists an additive inverse $\vec{w} \in V$ such that $\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \vec{0}$.

- Associativity of multiplication :

$$ab(\vec{v}) = a(b\vec{v}) \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{F} \text{ and } \vec{v} \in V$$

- Distributivity :

$$(a+b)\vec{v} = a\vec{v} + b\vec{v} \quad \text{and} \quad a(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = a\vec{u} + a\vec{v}$$

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{F} \text{ and } \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$$

- Unitality :

$$1\vec{v} = \vec{v} \quad \forall \vec{v} \in V$$

→ The above 8 conditions are required for every vector space.

A real vector space is a set of vectors together with rules for vector addition & for multiplication by real numbers.

Vector spaces other than $\mathbb{R}^n$:

• ~~Thm~~

F : vector space of all real functions $f(x)$

The function space F is infinite dimensional.
A smaller function space is P_n containing all polynomials $a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$ of degree n .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

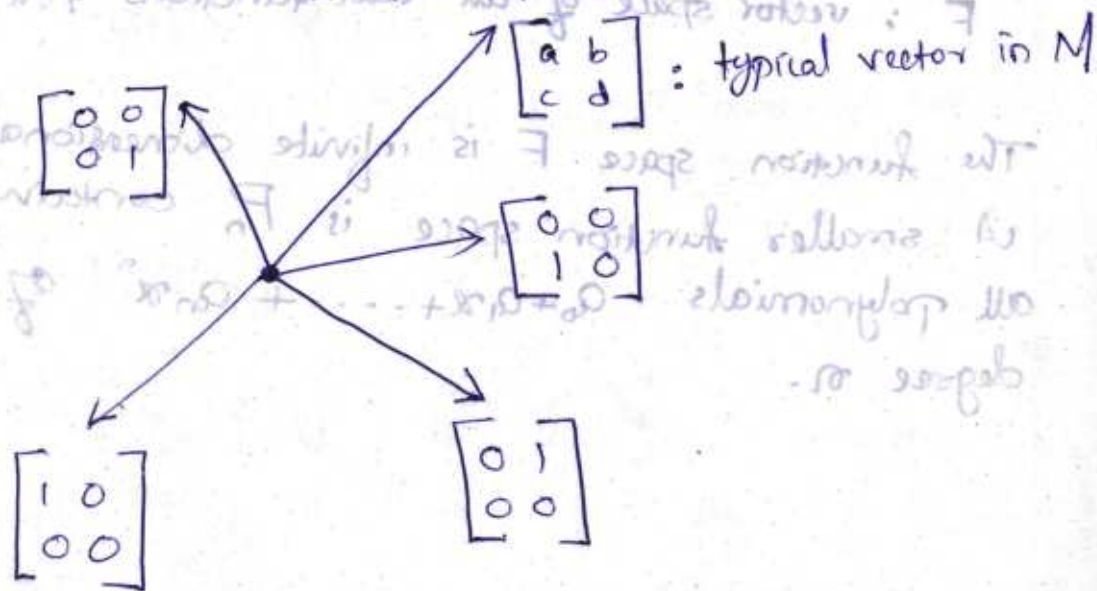
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbb{Z}$: vector space that consists of only a zero vector.

- The space $\mathbb{Z}$ is zero-dimensional.
 & it is the smallest possible vector space.

- The vector space $\mathbb{Z}$ contains exactly one vector (zero).

- M : The vector space of all real 2×2 matrices.



"Four-dimensional matrix space M "

▣ Subspaces

* A subspace of a vector space is a set of vectors (including $\vec{0}$) that satisfies 2 requirements:

If $\vec{v}$ & $\vec{w}$ are vectors in the subspace and c is any scalar, then

① $\vec{v} + \vec{w}$ is in the subspace

② $c\vec{v}$ is in the subspace.

⇒ All linear combinations stay in the subspace

* All these operations follow the rules of the host space, so the 8 required conditions are automatic. We just have to check the linear combinations requirements for a subspace.

* Every subspace contains the zero vector

* The whole vector space is a subspace of itself.

Ex:-

List of all the possible subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

L : any line through $(0,0,0)$

P : any plane through $(0,0,0)$

Z : The single vector $(0,0,0)$

$\mathbb{R}^3$: the whole space

Ex:1 Keep only the vectors (x, y) whose components are +ve or zero (quarter plane).

Ans: $(2, 3)$ is included

$-(2, 3) = (-2, -3)$ is not included

$\Rightarrow$ rule ② is violated.

$\therefore$ The quarter plane is not a subspace.

Ex:2 Include also the vectors whose components are both +ve, i.e., 2 quarter-planes.

Ans: Rule ② is satisfied.

$\vec{v} = (2, 3)$ and $\vec{w} = (-1, -4)$

$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = (1, -1)$ is outside the quarter-planes

$\therefore$ Two quarter-planes don't make a subspace.

Ex: 3

Subspaces of the
vector space M of all
 2×2 matrices

(i) U : all upper triangular
matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

(ii) D : all diagonal matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix}$$

(iii) L : all lower triangular
matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}$$

And any 2 matrices in U and the
sum is in U .

On diagonal matrices, & the sum is diagonal.

• D is also a subspace of U .

Zero matrix is in these subspaces.

Z is always a subspace.

Multiples of the identity matrix also form a subspace
ie.,

The matrices cI form a "line of matrices" inside M and U and D .

$2I + 3I$ is in this subspace, and so is 3 times $4I$.

Note : The matrix I by itself is not a subspace.
Only the zero matrix is.

□ The Column Space of A

$$Ax = b \rightarrow$$

If ' A ' is not invertible, the system is solvable for some ' b ', and not solvable for other ' b '.

We want to describe the good right sides ' b ' — the vectors that can be written as ' A ' times some vector ' x '. These ' b 's form the "column space" of ' A '.

To solve $Ax = b \iff$ express ' b ' as a combination of the columns.

* The column space consists of all linear combinations of the columns.

The combinations are all possible vectors Ax . They fill the column space $C(A)$.

ref. of solvability: if $Ax=b$ is solvable, then b is in the column space of A .
if b is not in the column space, then $Ax=b$ is not solvable.

* The system $Ax=b$ is solvable iff b is in the column space of A .

ie. b is a linear combination of the columns of A .

When b is in the column space, it is a combination of the columns. The coefficients in that combination give us a solution x to the system $Ax=b$.

$A_{m \times n} \rightarrow C(A)$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^m$.

Start with any set S of vectors in a vector space V . To get a subspace SS of V , we take all combinations of the vectors in that set:

$$S = \text{set of vectors in } V \text{ (probably not a subspace)} \\ \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\} \in V.$$

$$\begin{aligned} SS &= \text{all combinations of vectors in } S \\ &= \text{all } c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_n v_n \\ &= \text{Subspace of } V \text{ "spanned" by } S. \end{aligned}$$

The subspace SS is the "span" of S , containing all combinations of vectors in S .

* SS is the smallest subspace containing S .

Ex:- When S is the set of columns, SS is the column space.
ie. $\rightarrow$ the columns span the column space

When there is only one non-zero vector $\vec{v}$ in S , the subspace SS is the line thro' $\vec{v}$.

$\Rightarrow$ This is a fundamental way to create subspaces.

Ex: 4

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$C(A)$ of all combinations of the 2 columns fill up a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

The plane has zero thickness, so most right sides b in $\mathbb{R}^3$ are not in the column space.

ie., For most b there is no solution to our 3 equations in 2 unknowns.

$(0,0,0)$ is in the column space. The plane passes thro' the origin.

→ There is certainly a solution to $Ax = 0$

Ex: 5 Describe the column spaces (they are subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^2$) for

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ans: $C(I)$ is the whole space $\mathbb{R}^2$.

$$C(I) = \mathbb{R}^2$$

$C(A)$ is a line thro' $(1, 2)$ & $(0, 0)$

i.e., $Ax = b$ is only solvable when b is on that line.

$C(B)$ is all of $\mathbb{R}^2$.

$$C(I) = C(B) = \mathbb{R}^2$$

But, now ' x ' has extra components & there are more solutions — more combinations that give ' b '.

3.1(A) We are given 3 diff. vectors b_1, b_2, b_3 . Construct a matrix so that the eq's $Ax=b_1$ and $Ax=b_2$ are solvable, but $Ax=b_3$ is not solvable. How can you decide if this is possible? How could you construct A ?

Ans: make b_1, b_2 the columns of A

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = b_3$$

If b_3 is a combination of b_1 and b_2 , then it is not possible to construct the required A , since b_3 would necessarily be in the column space & $Ax=b_3$ would necessarily be solvable.

If no, we have the desired matrix A .

3.1 (B) Describe a subspace S of each vector space V and then a subspace SS of S .

V_1 : all combinations of $(1, 0, 0)$ & $(1, 1, 1, 0)$ & $(1, 1, 1, 1)$

V_2 : all vectors $\perp$ to $u = (1, 2, 1)$, so $u \cdot v = 0$

V_3 : all symmetric 2×2 matrices (a subspace of M)

V_4 : all solutions to the equation $\frac{d^4 y}{dx^4} = 0$

(a subspace of E)

Describe each V in 2 ways: "All combinations of _____", "all solutions of the equations _____"

Ans: V_1 : A subspace S comes from all combinations of the 1st 2 vectors.
 $(1, 1, 0, 0)$ & $(1, 1, 1, 0)$

A subspace SS of S comes from all multiples of the 1st vector $(1, 1, 0, 0)$.

V_1 = all combinations of the 3 vectors
= all solutions of

space V

$$0 = \frac{v \cdot b}{u \cdot b} \text{ of } u \cdot v = 0 \Rightarrow u \cdot v = 0$$

$$V_2 = \text{all combinations of } (1, -1, 1) \text{ \& } (1, 0, -1) \\ = \text{all solutions of } u \cdot v = 0 \Rightarrow 1 + 0 = 1$$

A subspace S of V_2 is the line through $(1, -1, 1)$, is $\perp$ to u .
The subspace SS of S is $\mathbb{Z}$.

$$V_3 = \text{all symmetric } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices} \\ = \text{all combinations of } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ = \text{all solutions } \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \text{ of } b = c$$

Note: Only the upper part (or lower) of a symmetric matrix completely determines the other half.
i.e., a, b, d matters
 $\Rightarrow$ 3 dimensional.

The diagonal matrices are a subspace of S of the symmetric matrices. The multiples cI are a subspace SS of the diagonal matrices.

$V_4 =$ all solutions to $\frac{d^4 y}{dx^4} = 0$.

V_4 contains all cubic polynomials =
 $y = a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3$, with $\frac{d^4 y}{dx^4} = 0$.

$\rightarrow$ 4 dimensional.

$V_4 =$ all combinations of $1, x, x^2, x^3$

The quadratic polynomials give a subspace S .

The linear polynomials are one choice of SS .

The constants could be SSS .

In all 4 parts, we could take $S = V$ itself.

and $SS =$ the zero subspace $\mathbb{Z}$.

←

The diagonal matrices are a subspace of M_n .
I.e. $\mathbb{R}^n$ is a subspace of M_n .
The diagonal matrices are a subspace of M_n .

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