

HOMEWORK 5 SOLUTION

Due date: April 1, 2016, 11:55PM.

Bibliography: Course lecture notes Lessons 21-23. Textbook pp. 395-424, Sections 8.2-8.4.

Typical solution procedures are shown

1. (1 course point) Textbook p.400, Exercise 8.2.1

Solution. (a) Eigenvalue computation by finding roots of characteristic polynomial

$$p(\lambda) = \det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & -2 \\ -2 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3 = (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 1) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 3.$$

Eigenvector computation by finding basis for null spaces of $\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}$

$$\mathbf{A} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 2 \cdot x_{11} - 2 \cdot x_{21} = 0 \\ 0 \cdot x_{11} + 0 \cdot x_{21} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \|\mathbf{x}_1\| = 1 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

$$\mathbf{A} - \lambda_2 \mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 2 \cdot x_{12} + 2 \cdot x_{22} = 0 \\ 0 \cdot x_{12} + 0 \cdot x_{22} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \|\mathbf{x}_2\| = 1 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

(b) Once the above operations have been learned and become routine, one can use Octave to carry out the arithmetic

```
octave> A=[1 -2./3.; 1/2. -1/6.]; c=poly(A); disp(c);
1.00000 -0.83333 0.16667
octave> lambda=roots(c); disp(lambda');
0.50000 0.33333
octave> X=[ null(A-lambda(1)*eye(2)) null(A-lambda(2)*eye(2)) ]; disp(X);
0.80000 0.70711
0.60000 0.70711
octave> disp( inv(X)*A*X );
0.50000 0.00000
0.00000 0.33333
octave>
```

(c) The operations of finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors are frequently encountered, and there exist operations to directly obtain the eigensystem associated with a matrix.

```
octave> A=[3 1; -1 1]; [X,L]=eig(A); disp([X L]);
0.70711 -0.70711 2.00000 0.00000
-0.70711 0.70711 0.00000 2.00000
octave> det(A)
4
octave>
```

Note, that interpreting the results requires understanding of theoretical concepts. In this case, the matrix has eigenvalue $\lambda = 2$ with algebraic multiplicity $m_\lambda = 2$. The geometric multiplicity is $n_\lambda = \dim(N(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})) = 1$, and the matrix is defective. Notice that Octave gives only one basis vector for the null space, and the rank of the \mathbf{X} matrix returned by the eig procedure is equal to one

```
octave> disp(null(A-2*eye(2)));
-0.70711
```

0.70711

```
octave> disp( rank(X) );
```

2

```
octave>
```

(j) This example is instructive since it shows how identifying a block structure in the matrix can simplify computations. Notice how block submatrices are identified, defined, and used

```
octave> A11=[3 4;4 3]; A12=zeros(2); A21=zeros(2); A22=[1 3;4 5];
```

```
octave> A=[A11 A12; A21 A22]; disp(A);
```

```
3  4  0  0
4  3  0  0
0  0  1  3
0  0  4  5
```

```
octave>
```

The eigenvalues could be found as the roots of the characteristic polynomial of the \mathbf{A} matrix

```
octave> c=poly(A); r=roots(c); disp(r');
```

```
7.0000 - 0.0000i  7.0000 - 0.0000i  -1.0000 - 0.0000i  -1.0000 + 0.0000i
```

```
octave>
```

In this particular case with $\mathbf{A}_{12}=\mathbf{A}_{21}=\mathbf{0}$, the characteristic polynomial can be computed as

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_4) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_2 & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{A}_{22} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_2 \end{vmatrix} = \det(\mathbf{A}_{11} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_2) \det(\mathbf{A}_{22} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_2).$$

Here we explicitly show the dimension of the identity matrix through a subscript.

```
octave> c1=poly(A11); r1=roots(c1); c2=poly(A22); r2=roots(c2);
```

```
octave> disp([r1 r2]);
```

```
7  7
-1 -1
```

```
octave>
```

The same roots are found by working with submatrices. This is typically advantageous since it reduces number of arithmetic operations.

(EC4.a 1 point) Determine the most general conditions on submatrices $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ such that

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} = \det(\mathbf{AD} - \mathbf{BC}).$$

(k) In this example, the triangular structure of the matrix can be used to simplify computations. Indeed the eigenvalues are directly read off the diagonal

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 - \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 - \lambda & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (4 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda)(1 - \lambda).$$

```
octave> A=[4 0 0 0; 1 3 0 0; -1 1 2 0; 1 -1 1 1]; disp(eig(A)');
```

```
1  2  3  4
```

```
octave>
```

(c) Procedures for complex-valued matrices are identical to those for real matrices

$$p(\lambda) = \det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} i - \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -1 + i - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda - i)(\lambda - i + 1) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = i, \lambda_2 = i - 1.$$

$$\mathbf{A} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 \cdot x_{11} + 1 \cdot x_{21} = 0 \\ 0 \cdot x_{11} + 0 \cdot x_{21} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} - \lambda_2 \mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 1 \cdot x_{12} + 1 \cdot x_{22} = 0 \\ 0 \cdot x_{12} + 0 \cdot x_{22} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; \|\mathbf{x}_2\| = 1 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Octave computational procedures work equally well with complex numbers

```
octave> i=sqrt(-1); A=[i 1; 0 -1+i]; c=poly(A); disp(c);
```

```
1 + 0i    1 - 2i   -1 - 1i
```

```
octave> r=roots(c); disp(r);
```

```
-1.000000 + 1.000000i
```

```
0.000000 + 1.000000i
```

```
octave> [X,L]=eig(A); disp(diag(L));
```

```
0 + 1i
```

```
-1 + 1i
```

```
octave> disp(X);
```

```
1.00000    0.70711
```

```
0.00000   -0.70711
```

3. (1 course point) Textbook p.404, Exercises 8.2.19-22

Solution. (19) It is given that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$. (a) Multiply eigenvalue relation by c to obtain $(c\mathbf{A})\mathbf{x} = (c\lambda)\mathbf{x}$.

(b) Add $d\mathbf{x}$ to both sides to obtain $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + d\mathbf{I}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} + d\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow (\mathbf{A} + d\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = (\lambda + d)\mathbf{x}$, hence $\lambda + d$ is an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{A} + d\mathbf{I}$.

(c) Combine above.

(20) Multiply $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$, on the left by \mathbf{A} to obtain $\mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda(\lambda\mathbf{x}) = \lambda^2\mathbf{x}$.

(21) (a) False. The key observation here is that even if two matrices have the same eigenvalue, they generally have different eigenvectors, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} = \lambda\mathbf{y}$. Counter example

$$\lambda = 0, \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I} \text{ has } \lambda_{1,2} = 1.$$

(b) True. Given $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{v} = \mu\mathbf{v}$ it results from adding the two equalities that $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})\mathbf{v} = (\lambda + \mu)\mathbf{v}$.

(22) False. Again, the two matrices need not have the same eigenvectors. Counter example

$$\lambda = 1, \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mu = 1, \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ has eigenvalues } \{0, 0\}.$$

4. (1 course point) Textbook p.404, Exercises 8.2.23-26

(23) Consider $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$. Multiply on left by \mathbf{B} to obtain $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow (\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A})\mathbf{y} = \lambda\mathbf{y}$, proving $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}$ have same eigenvalues and eigenvectors related by $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}$.

(24) (a) Multiply $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ by $(1/\lambda)\mathbf{A}^{-1}$ to obtain $\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = (1/\lambda)\mathbf{x}$, q.e.d.

(b) If $\lambda = 0$ is an eigenvalue the matrix \mathbf{A} is singular since $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = 0 \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ with $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ thereby stating that columns of \mathbf{A} are linearly dependent.

(25) (a) Assume \mathbf{A} admits an eigendecomposition, $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{X}^{-1}$, then

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{X})\det(\mathbf{\Lambda})\det(\mathbf{X}^{-1}) = \prod_{j=1}^m \lambda_j > 1$$

since $\det(\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \det(\mathbf{X}^{-1})$. Since the product is greater than one, at least one factor must be greater than one.

(EC4.b. 1 point) Prove the above when \mathbf{A} is defective (automatically awarded if this case was considered in the submitted homework proof).

(b) No. Counter example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{16} \end{pmatrix}$$

(26) See (24b)

5. (Computer application 4 course points) We illustrate practical applications of eigenvalue and eigenvector computation by an investigation of systems of masses and springs.

Task 1. (1 course point *ex officio*). Read Section 6.1 of textbook, pp. 293-301.

Task 2. (1 course point). Consider a one-dimensional lattice of n point masses with mass m_j at position j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, connected by $n - 1$ springs of stiffness c_j and undeformed length $l = 1$ between point masses $j, j + 1$. Let \mathbf{u} denote the vector of displacements of the point masses from their equilibrium positions. Write an Octave/Matlab script to construct the stiffness matrix \mathbf{K} of the system (cf. formula 6.12, p.296 of textbook).

Solution. Define a vector of one values, and use the `diag` function to build the stiffness matrix. A more complicated script using loops to individually set each element is possible, but this is the most efficient procedure. Notations follow the textbook. Note the concise construction of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1) \times n}$ by adding a row of zeros.

```
octave> function K=stiff(C)
    n=max(size(C))-1;
    o=ones(n,1); z= zeros(1,n);
    A=[diag(o); z] - [diag(o(1:n-1),-1); z];
    K=A'*C*A;
end;

octave>
```

Task 3. (2 course points). Choose $n = \text{ord}(\text{FirstName}) + \text{ord}(\text{LastName})$, with `ord` the ordinal of the letter in the alphabet. Compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of \mathbf{K} for:

a) $c_j = 1, 1 \leq j \leq n - 1$

b) $c_j = 1 + (j - 1)(n - 1 - j)$

In both cases, plot the first 5 eigenvectors. What aspect of the motion of the mass-spring system is represented by each eigenvector.

Solution. (a)

```
octave> n=129; C=eye(n); K=stiff(C); disp(K(1:4,1:4));
    2   -1    0    0
   -1    2   -1    0
    0   -1    2   -1
    0    0   -1    2

octave> [X,L]=eig(K);
octave> l=1:n-1;
octave> xlabel('point'); ylabel('displacement'); title('First 5 eigenmodes');
octave> plot(1,X(:,1),1,X(:,2),1,X(:,3),1,X(:,4),1,X(:,5));
octave> cd /home/student/courses/MATH547/homework; print -dpng eigenmodes.png;
octave>
```

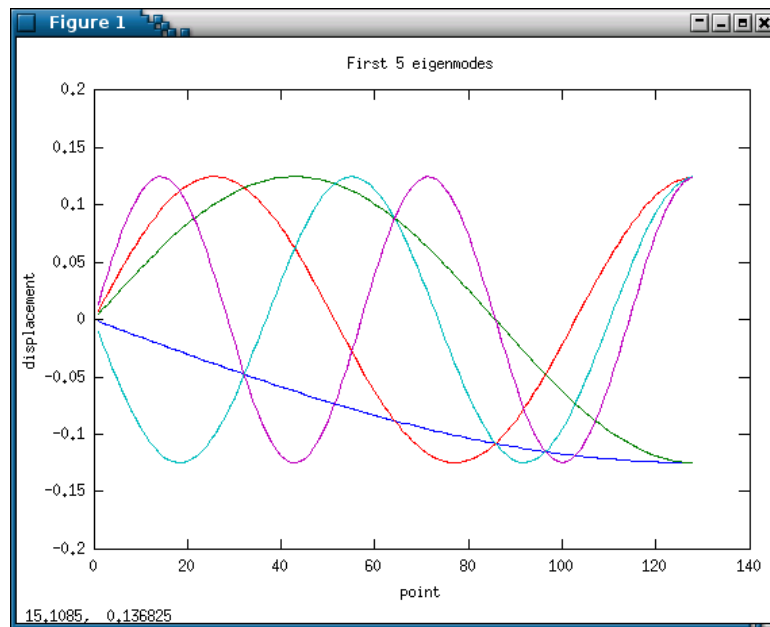


Figure 1. First 5 eigenmodes for $C = I$

(b)

```
octave> n=129;
        for j=1:n
            c(j)=1+(j-1)*(n-1-j);
        end;
octave> C=diag(c); K=stiff(C); [X,L]=eig(K);
octave> l=1:n-1;
octave> xlabel('point'); ylabel('displacement'); title('First 5 eigenmodes');
octave> plot(1,X(:,1),1,X(:,2),1,X(:,3),1,X(:,4),1,X(:,5));
octave> cd /home/student/courses/MATH547/homework; print -dpng eigenmodes.png;
octave>
```

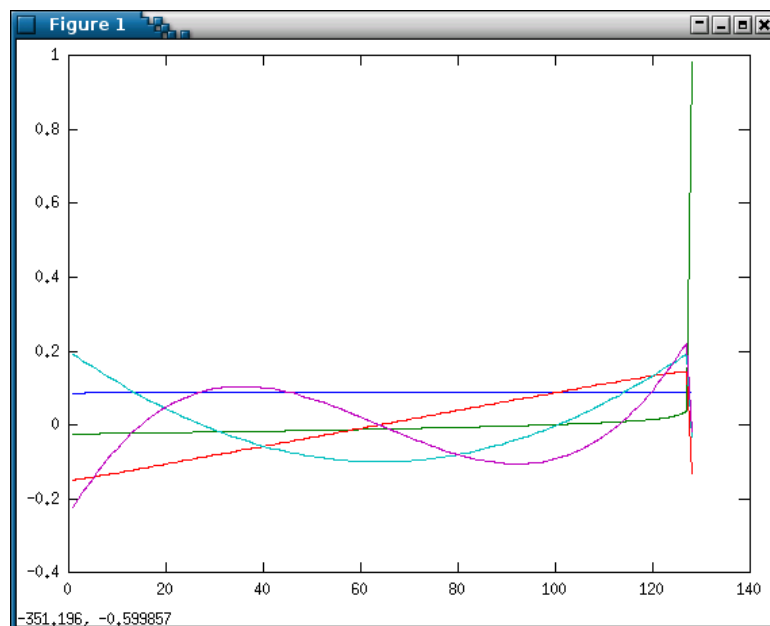


Figure 2. Eigenmodes for stiff-at-center springs