## Solutions to the sample Christmas exam paper

1. (a) A system of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k$  is said to be linearly independent if the only linear combination

$$c_1v_1+c_2v_2+\ldots+c_kv_k$$

which is equal to zero is the trivial one  $(c_1 = \ldots = c_k = 0)$ . Assume that the system  $v_1, \ldots, v_k$  is linearly independent, and let us remove the vector  $v_p$  from it. Furthermore, take a linear combination of vectors of the resulting system which is equal to 0. This combination can be thought of as a combination of  $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ , where the coefficient of  $v_p$  is equal to 0. Since our original system was linearly independent, we see that all coefficients should be equal to 0, which is what we need.

(b) Assume that  $a\mathbf{u}' + b\mathbf{v}' + c\mathbf{w}' = 0$ . Substituting into that  $\mathbf{u}' = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}$ ,  $\mathbf{w}' = 2\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ , we get

$$a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + b(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}) + c(2\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = 0,$$

which can be rewritten as

$$(a+b)\mathbf{u} + (a+2c)\mathbf{v} + (-b+c)\mathbf{w}) = 0.$$

Since **u**, **v** and **w** are linearly independent, we have a + b = 0, a + 2c = 0, -b + c = 0. This system of 3 equations with 3 unknowns has only the trivial solution a = b = c = 0, which is what we need. Since our vector space contains 3 linearly independent vectors, its dimension is at least 3, and, clearly, can be any number greater than 3 (we can take first three vectors of any basis as an example).

- 2. (a) For a linear operator A from a vector space V to the vector space W the rank of A, by definition, is equal to the dimension of the image of A.
  - (b) First of all,  $L_A$  is a linear operator:  $L_A(X+Y) = A(X+Y) (X+Y)A = (AX XA) + (AY YA) = L_A(X) + L_A(Y), L_A(cX) = A(cX) (cX)A = c(AX XA) = cL_A(X)$ . Furthermore, for  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ , we have

$$L_A(E_{11}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = E_{12} + E_{21},$$
$$L_A(E_{12}) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = -E_{11} + E_{22},$$
$$L_A(E_{21}) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = -E_{11} + E_{22},$$
$$L_A(E_{22}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -E_{12} - E_{21},$$

so the matrix of  $L_A$  relative to our basis is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This matrix, obviously, has two linearly independent columns, so its rank is equal to 2.

(c) We have

$$\operatorname{Im}(A+B) = \{ (A+B)(v) \mid v \in V \} \subset \{ A(v_1) + B(v_2) \mid v_1, v_2 \in V \} = \operatorname{Im}(A) + \operatorname{Im}(B).$$

Thus

$$rk(A + B) = \dim Im(A + B) \le \dim(Im(A) + Im(B)) \le \le \dim(Im(A)) + \dim(Im(B)) = rk(A) + rk(B).$$

(as we proved in class,  $\dim(U_1 + U_2) \leq \dim(U_1) + \dim(U_2)$  for every two subspaces  $U_1, U_2$ ).

3. (a) We have

$$det(A - tI) = det \begin{pmatrix} -2 - t & -4 & 16\\ 0 & 2 - t & 0\\ -1 & -1 & 6 - t \end{pmatrix} =$$
$$= (2 - t) det \begin{pmatrix} -2 - t & 16\\ -1 & 6 - t \end{pmatrix} = (2 - t)(t^2 - 4t + 4) = (2 - t)^3$$

(the  $3 \times 3$ -determinant is expanded along the second row). Also, B is triangular, so  $\det(B - tI) = (2 - t)^3$ . We see that all eigenvalues of A and B are equal to 2. Also, solving the system  $A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ , we see that it reduces to the equation 4z = x + y (we have  $A - 2I = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -4 & 16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ ). Thus, eigenvectors of A are of the form  $\begin{pmatrix} 4v - u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$ , where u and v are arbitrary parameters. Also, it is easy to

see that all eigenvectors of B are of the form  $\begin{pmatrix} s \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , where s is a parameter.

(b) We have already seen that dim Ker(A - 2I) = 2. Also,  $(A - 2I)^2 = 0$ , so Ker $(A - 2I)^2 = V$ . To find a Jordan basis, we first take a nonzero vector in V outside Ker(A - 2I) (the difference of dimensions is 3 - 2 = 1, so the relative basis consists of one vector). For such a vector we can take  $f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ : we have (A - 2I)

consists of one vector). For such a vector we can take  $f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ; we have  $(A - 2I)f = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . It remains to extend (A - 2I)f to a basis of Ker(A - 2I).

 $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \end{pmatrix}$ The latter subspace is 2-dimensional, so we need just one more vector which is not proportional to (A - 2I)f. If we put u = 1, v = 0 in the parametrisation of  $\operatorname{Ker}(A - 2I)$ , we get the vector  $e = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  which is definitely not proportional to (A - 2I)f. Overall, we get a Jordan basis (A - 2I)f, f, e, and the Jordan normal  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

form of A is  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Indeed,

$$A(A-2I)f = (A-2I+2I)(A-2I)f = ((A-2I)^{2} + 2(A-2I))f = 2(A-2I)f,$$
  

$$Af = (A-2I+2I)f = (A-2I)f + 2f,$$
  

$$Ae = (A-2I+2I)e = (A-2I)e + 2e = 2e.$$

- (c) No, A has two linearly independent eigenvectors, and B only one, so they cannot be matrices of the same linear operator. More generally, their Jordan forms are different, so they are not similar.
- (d) We have

$$C^{-1}AC = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = J,$$

where  $C = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is the matrix whose columns are the vectors of the Jordan basis. We have  $J^n = \begin{pmatrix} 2^n & n2^{n-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 2^n & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $C^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$ , so

ordan basis. We have 
$$J^n = \begin{pmatrix} 2^n & n2^{n-1} & 0\\ 0 & 2^n & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 2^n \end{pmatrix}$$
 and  $C^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1\\ 1 & 1 & -4\\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , so  
$$A^n = CJ^nC^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2^n - n2^{n+1} & -n2^{n+1} & n2^{n+3}\\ 0 & 2^n & 0\\ -n2^{n-1} & -n2^{n-1} & 2^n + n2^{n+1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

4. (a) Recall that  $(PQ)^T = Q^T P^T$  for every two matrices A and B whose product is defined. Thus, is C is invertible, we see that  $C^T$  is invertible, and  $(C^T)^{-1} =$ 

 $(C^{-1})^T$ . Indeed,  $(C^{-1})^T C^T = (CC^{-1})^T = I^T = I$ , and  $C^T (C^{-1})^T = (C^{-1}C)^T = I^T = I$ . Finally, if B is similar to A, that is  $B = C^{-1}AC$ , then

$$B^{T} = C^{T} A^{T} (C^{-1}) T = C^{T} A^{T} (C^{T})^{-1},$$

which proves that  $B^T$  is similar to  $A^T$ .

(b) First of all, every square matrix A is similar to a Jordan matrix, so it is enough to show that a Jordan matrix is similar to its transpose. Also, it is enough to show that for a single Jordan block, since if it is true for every block, we can then collect matrices  $C_i$  for different blocks into a block diagonal matrix which will be the transition matrix proving the similarity for A and  $A^T$ . Finally, for a single block J transposition corresponds to reversing the order of the basis vectors, so Jand  $J^T$  do define the same operator in two bases which differ by the ordering of vectors; two matrices which define the same operator in different bases are similar. Another solution: we know that sizes of Jordan blocks are defined by numbers  $rk(A - \lambda I)^k$  for various  $\lambda, k$ . Clearly,

$$\operatorname{rk}(A^T - \lambda I)^k = \operatorname{rk}((A - \lambda I)^T)^k = \operatorname{rk}((A - \lambda I)^k)^T = \operatorname{rk}((A - \lambda I)^k)$$

(the rank does not change when we replace a matrix by its transpose), so A and  $A^{T}$  have the same Jordan form and are similar.