

**Problem 0:** What is Jordan's Canonical Form of  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  ?

**Solution 0:**  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  .

**Problem 1:** Here is what is known about a linear operator  $\mathbf{L}$  that maps a vector space to itself: No matrix  $\mathbf{L}$  that represents  $\mathbf{L}$  in any basis can have 0 as its first diagonal element, but this element is 3 in at least one such  $\mathbf{L}$ . What operator is  $\mathbf{L}$ ? Justify your answer.

**Solution 1:** We shall see why  $\mathbf{L} = 3\mathbf{I}$  where  $\mathbf{I}$  is the identity operator. Evidently  $\mathbf{L} \neq \mathbf{O}$ , so  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{L} \neq \mathbf{o}^T$  for some functional  $\mathbf{w}^T \neq \mathbf{o}^T$ . Suppose now that a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  existed satisfying  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{v} = 1$  and  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{v} = 0$ ; then a basis  $\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3, \dots]$  could be chosen in which  $[\mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3, \dots]$  is a basis for the subspace annihilated by  $\mathbf{w}^T$ , so that every  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{b}_j = 0$ , and then  $\mathbf{w}^T$  would be the first "row" in the inverse basis  $\mathbf{B}^{-1}$ , whereupon the matrix  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{B}$  that represents  $\mathbf{L}$  in this basis would have  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{v} = 0$  for its first diagonal element. This can't happen, according to the problem's statement. Therefore no vector  $\mathbf{v}$  can ever satisfy both  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{v} = 1$  and  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{v} = 0$ ; therefore every  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{L} = \mu \mathbf{w}^T$  for some scalar  $\mu = \mu(\mathbf{w}^T) \neq 0$ . This implies  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{B}$  is diagonal for every basis  $\mathbf{B}$ . No two diagonal elements can differ without violating the equation  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{L} = \mu \mathbf{w}^T$  when  $\mathbf{w}^T$  is the difference between their corresponding "rows" in  $\mathbf{B}^{-1}$ . This makes  $\mathbf{L}$  a scalar multiple of the identity matrix  $\mathbf{I}$ , and therefore  $\mathbf{L}$  is a scalar multiple of the identity operator  $\mathbf{I}$ ; the scalar turns out to be 3.

**Problem 2:**  $Z$  is called a "Commutator" just when  $Z = XY - YX$  for some matrices  $X$  and  $Y$  (not determined uniquely by  $Z$ ). Prove that if  $Z$  is a commutator, so is  $\bar{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{r}^T \\ \mathbf{c} & Z \end{bmatrix}$  for any row  $\mathbf{r}^T$  and column  $\mathbf{c}$ .

**Solution 2:** Suppose  $Z = XY - YX$ ; this equation remains valid if  $X$  is replaced by  $X + \beta \mathbf{I}$  for any scalar  $\beta$ , so we might as well assume  $X$  is invertible. Then  $\bar{Z} = \bar{X} \bar{Y} - \bar{Y} \bar{X}$  wherein

$$\bar{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{o}^T \\ \mathbf{o} & X \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\mathbf{r}^T X^{-1} \\ X^{-1} \mathbf{c} & Y \end{bmatrix} .$$

**Bonus Problem 1/2:** Prove that if  $\text{Trace}(Z) = 0$  then  $Z$  is a commutator.

**Solution 1/2:** The asserted inference is obviously valid if  $Z$  is 1-by-1 or a bigger zero matrix. Therefore assume that  $Z$  is a nonzero matrix of dimension bigger than 1. Our proof goes by induction; we assume the desired inference valid for all matrices of dimension smaller than  $Z$ 's with Trace zero.  $Z$  cannot be a nonzero scalar multiple of the identity since  $\text{Trace}(Z) = 0$ , so

Problem 1 implies that some invertible  $C$  exists such that  $C^{-1}ZC = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & r^T \\ c & B \end{bmatrix}$ ; observe next that

$\text{Trace}(B) = 0$ . Then the induction hypothesis implies that  $B$  is a commutator, whereupon Problem 2 implies that  $C^{-1}ZC = XY - YX$  is a commutator too, whence so is  $Z$ .

This proof is shorter than was found by K. Shoda (1936) *Japan J. Math.* **13** 361-5, and again by A.A. Albert and B. Muckenhoupt (1957) *Michigan Math. J.* **4** 1-3.

**Problem 3:** For any two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in Euclidean 3-space  $E^3$ , an anti-commutative non-associative *Cross-Product*  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$  is defined as follows from the column vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  that represent their respective vectors  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}$  etc. in any orthonormal basis  $\mathbf{B}$ :

$$\text{If } \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \\ \zeta \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} := \begin{bmatrix} \beta\zeta - \gamma\eta \\ \gamma\xi - \alpha\zeta \\ \alpha\eta - \beta\xi \end{bmatrix}.$$

$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  does depend upon basis  $\mathbf{B}$ . Changing to a new orthonormal basis  $\mathbf{B}Q^{-1}$  where  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$  changes the respective representatives of  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  from  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  to  $Q\mathbf{u}$ ,  $Q\mathbf{v}$  and  $(Q\mathbf{u}) \times (Q\mathbf{v}) = Q(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \det(Q)$ , thereby changing  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  by a factor  $\det(Q)$ .

What values can  $\det(Q)$  take?

Let  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  be the linear operator acting upon  $E^3$  that maps  $\mathbf{v}$  to  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ ; in that basis  $\mathbf{B}$  some matrix  $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{u})$  represents  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$ . To what does the foregoing change of basis change the operator  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$ ? After that prove  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})^2 = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T - \mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{u}\mathbf{I}$  regardless of orthonormal basis, and then find the eigenvalues of  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$ .

**Solution 3:** In that orthonormal basis  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  has the matrix  $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{X}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix}\right) := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\gamma & \beta \\ \gamma & 0 & -\alpha \\ -\beta & \alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

whence  $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{u})^2 = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T - \mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{u}\mathbf{I}$ , but this by itself does *not* prove  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})^2 = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T - \mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{u}\mathbf{I}$  since we have not yet established how  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  changes when the basis changes. First we observe that  $\det(Q) = \det(Q^T) = \det(Q^{-1}) = 1/\det(Q)$  so  $\det(Q) = \pm 1$ . Changing old basis  $\mathbf{B}$  to new basis  $\mathbf{B}Q^{-1}$  changes old  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{v} = \text{old}(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})$  to new  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{v} = \text{new}(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = \text{old}(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})\det(Q)$  so that old  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  changes to new  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u}) = \text{old}(\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u}))\det(Q)$ . Therefore  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})^2 = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T - \mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{u}\mathbf{I}$  for every orthonormal basis. Though Problem 3 didn't ask,  $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{u})$  changes to  $\mathbf{X}(Q\mathbf{u}) = Q\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{u})Q^T\det(Q)$ .

There is another way to verify that  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})^2 = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T - \mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{u}\mathbf{I}$ ; use the so-called *triple cross-product* formula  $\mathbf{w} \times (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{u}$  and set  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u}$ .

Since  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ , zero is an eigenvalue of  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  and  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})^3 = \mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})^2 = -\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} \mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$ , which implies that at least one of  $\pm i\sqrt{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}}$  is an eigenvalue too. ( $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .) Since  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  is real its complex eigenvalues come in complex-conjugate pairs, so they include both of  $\pm i\sqrt{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}}$ . In short, the three eigenvalues of  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  are 0 and  $\pm i\sqrt{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u}}$ .

**Problem 4 (continued from Problem 3):** Assume what Problem 3 asked to be proved, and that  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{u} = 1$  and  $\mu$  is a real scalar. Obtain a short formula for  $\exp(\mu \mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u}))$  as a polynomial in  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u})$  and  $\cos(\mu)$  and  $\sin(\mu)$ , and then explain why  $\exp(\mu \mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u}))$  is the operator that rotates a vector about axis  $\mathbf{u}$  through an angle  $\mu$ . (Recall that  $\exp(i\mu) = \cos(\mu) + i\sin(\mu)$  if  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .)

**Solution 4:** Abbreviate  $\mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{X}$ , and deduce that  $\mathbf{X}^3 = -\mathbf{X}$  as was done in the last paragraph of Solution 3. Therefore  $\mathbf{X}^{2n+1} = (-1)^n \mathbf{X}$ . Then the series for the exponential can be split into

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(\mu \mathbf{X}) &= \mathbf{I} + \sum_{n>0} \mu^n \mathbf{X}^n / n! \\ &= \mathbf{I} + \sum_{n \geq 0} \mu^{2n+1} \mathbf{X}^{2n+1} / (2n+1)! + \sum_{n>0} \mu^{2n} \mathbf{X}^{2n} / (2n)! \\ &= \mathbf{I} + \sum_{n \geq 0} \mu^{2n+1} (-1)^n \mathbf{X} / (2n+1)! - \sum_{n>0} \mu^{2n} (-1)^n \mathbf{X}^2 / (2n)! \\ &= \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X} \sin(\mu) + \mathbf{X}^2 (1 - \cos(\mu)), \end{aligned}$$

which exhibits the desired polynomial. Confirm that  $\exp(\mu \mathbf{X})^{-1} = \exp(-\mu \mathbf{X}) = \exp(\mu \mathbf{X})^T$  since  $\mathbf{X}^T = -\mathbf{X}$ . Therefore  $\exp(\mu \mathbf{X})$  is an orthogonal operator that preserves Euclidean length for all  $\mu$ . Next choose an arbitrary nonzero  $\mathbf{v}$  and let  $\mathbf{w}(\mu) := \exp(\mu \mathbf{X})\mathbf{v}$  for all real  $\mu$ . Now,  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{w}(\mu) = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$  because  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{0}^T$ , and  $\mathbf{w}(\mu)^T \mathbf{w}(\mu) = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}$ , which implies that the cosine of the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{w}(\mu)$  stays the same as between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  for all  $\mu$ . Therefore the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{w}(\mu)$  stays constant as  $\mathbf{w}(\mu)$  moves; it must be revolving about the axis  $\mathbf{u}$  at some rate determinable by differentiation:  $d\mathbf{w}/d\mu = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w}$  stays orthogonal to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{w}(\mu)$  and has constant squared magnitude  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{X}^2 \mathbf{v}$ . This means  $\mathbf{w}(\mu)$  revolves with constant angular velocity performing one revolution when  $\mu$  increases by  $2\pi$ . Therefore  $\mu$  is the angle of revolution through which  $\exp(\mu \mathbb{X}(\mathbf{u}))$  rotates any vector about the axis  $\mathbf{u}$ .

**Problem 5:** A *Simplex* in an  $n$ -dimensional vector space is the convex hull of any  $n+1$  points that do not lie in any hyperplane of dimension less than  $n$ . Each of those points is a *vertex* of the simplex. Opposite every vertex is a *face* of that simplex consisting of the convex hull of the other  $n$  vertices. For example, in 3-space the simplex is a tetrahedron and its faces are triangles. Suppose column vectors  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are given as the coordinates of the vertices for an Orthonormal basis of an Euclidean space. Exhibit one short formula for the  $n$ -dimensional unoriented content (like volume) of the simplex, and another for the  $(n-1)$ -dimensional unoriented content (like area) of the face opposite  $x_0$ , whose vertices are at  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . (Unoriented contents are the nonnegative magnitudes of oriented contents.)

**Solution 5:** The unoriented content of the simplex is  $|\det([x_1-x_0, x_2-x_0, x_3-x_0, \dots, x_n-x_0])|/n!$  because it is a fraction  $1/n!$  of the content of a parallelepiped from whose corner at  $x_0$  radiate  $n$  edges to all the other vertices of the simplex. The fraction  $1/n!$  comes from repeated integrations of the cross-sections parallel to a face of each of successive simplices of lower dimensions.

Let  $n$ -by- $(n-1)$  matrix  $F = [x_2-x_1, x_3-x_1, x_4-x_1, \dots, x_n-x_1]$ . The  $(n-1)$ -dimensional unoriented content of the face opposite  $x_0$  turns out to be  $\sqrt{(\det(F^T F))/(n-1)!}$ . To see why this is so, let  $W = W^T = W^{-1}$  be the elementary orthogonal reflector that swaps the last column of the  $n$ -dimensional identity matrix  $I$  with a unit vector orthogonal to all  $n-1$  columns of  $F$ . This  $W$  reflects the given simplex and its faces without altering their unoriented contents. The last row of  $R := WF$  is a row of zeros; the columns of  $R$  are the vectors emanating from  $Wx_1$  to the other  $n-1$  vertices of the reflected image of the face opposite  $x_0$ . This image is an  $(n-1)$ -dimensional simplex whose unoriented content is  $|\det(\text{first } n-1 \text{ rows of } R)|/(n-1)!$ . This is the same as  $\sqrt{(\det(R^T R))/(n-1)!} = \sqrt{(\det(F^T F))/(n-1)!}$ .

**Problem 6:** A *Polar Factorization*  $F = QH$  of a given possibly rectangular real matrix  $F$  has  $Q^T Q = I$  and  $H$  *Symmetric Positive Semidefinite*, which means that  $H = H^T$  and  $x^T H x \geq 0$  for every  $x$ . It is analogous to the representation of each complex number  $f = q \cdot h$  as a product of its magnitude  $h = |f|$  by a complex number  $q$  of magnitude  $|q| = 1$ . Which real matrices  $F$  have a polar factorization? Why?

**Solution 6:** If  $F$  has more columns than rows it has no polar factorization because  $Q$  would have to have more columns than rows and couldn't satisfy  $Q^T Q = I$  since the rank of a product ( $I$ ) can't exceed the rank of a factor ( $Q$ ). Otherwise, when  $F$  has no more columns than rows,  $F = QH$  obtainable as follows: Let  $R$  be an orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors of  $F^T F = R V^2 R^T$  so that  $R^T = R^{-1}$  and  $V^2$  is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues of  $F^T F$ . We know that  $V^2 \geq 0$  elementwise because  $x^T V^2 x = (FRx)^T (FRx) \geq 0$  for every  $x$ . Therefore diagonal matrix  $V \geq 0$  can be obtained from  $V^2$  by taking square roots elementwise. Then  $H := R V R^T$  must satisfy  $F^T F = H^2$ ; in other words,  $H$  is the symmetric positive semidefinite square root of  $F^T F$ .

Life is easy when the columns of  $F$  are linearly independent. Then  $x^T V^2 x = (FRx)^T (FRx) > 0$  for every  $x \neq 0$ , so that all diagonal elements of  $V$  are positive; and  $Q = F H^{-1} = F R V^{-1} R^T$ . When the columns of  $F$  are linearly dependent, some diagonal element(s) of  $V$  must vanish, and then the corresponding columns of  $FR$  must vanish too because  $(FR)^T (FR) = V^2$ . Dividing the nonzero columns of  $FR$  by the corresponding nonzero diagonal elements of  $V$  produces a matrix whose nonzero columns are orthonormal; replace its zero columns by more orthonormal columns, as must be possible because the total number of orthonormal columns will not exceed the number of rows, to obtain finally a matrix  $P$  of orthonormal columns that satisfies  $P^T P = I$  and  $P V = FR$ . Now set  $Q := P R^T$  to find  $Q^T Q = P^T R R^T P = I$  and  $Q H = P R^T R V R^T = F$ .

Incidentally, if non-square  $F$  has a polar factorization,  $F^T$  doesn't, and *vice-versa*.