

Answer Set 5, Physics 104A

1. a) $(1, 1) \rightarrow (1 + 2/\sqrt{5}, 1/\sqrt{5}); (\sqrt{5}, 1/2) \rightarrow (\sqrt{5} + 1/\sqrt{5}, 1/2\sqrt{5})$
- b) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2/\sqrt{5} \\ 0 & 1/\sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix}$
- c) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & \sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix}$; this is the inverse of the matrix in part b)
- d) The area of the parallelogram is base \times height $= 1/\sqrt{5}$. You could also get this from $|\hat{\mathbf{m}} \times \hat{\mathbf{n}}|$. The determinant of the matrix in c) is $\sqrt{5}$, which means that the transformation increases areas by $\sqrt{5}$. This is consistent, since the parallelogram gets mapped to the square defined by $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, which has area $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\sqrt{5}) = 1$.
2. a) $[A^2, B] = (AA)B - B(AA) = A(AB) - (BA)A = A(I + BA) - BAA = A + ABA - BAA = A + (I + BA)A - BAA = 2A$. (Everything associates, so I dropped those parentheses after the first two steps.)
- b) $[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}, x]f = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(xf) - x\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f + x\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}) - x\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + x\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} - x\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 2\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$. Since this holds for ANY function f , $[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}, x] = 2\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$.
- c) $[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x]f = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xf) - x\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = (f + x\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}) - x\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f$, so $[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x] = I$. Then part a) shows that $[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}, x] = 2\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$, just as found in b).
3. a) The eigenfunction corresponding to eigenvalue λ is $f_\lambda(x) = Ce^{\lambda x}$. All complex numbers are eigenvalues, and C , the integration constant, can also be any complex number.
- b) The eigenfunction corresponding to eigenvalue λ is $f_\lambda(x) = Ax^\lambda$. Again, any complex number is an eigenvalue. (To raise x to a complex power, note that $x^\lambda = e^{\ln(x^\lambda)} = e^{\lambda \ln x}$, and we know how to deal with complex powers of e .)
4. a) To get the eigenvalues, plug in the given vectors to $Av = \lambda v$. Actually all you need to do is find one entry of Av and see how it relates to the same entry of v . For example, say we calculate the last entry of Av for the first eigenvector: $-2(1)+7/2(1)+1/2(3)=3$, so the eigenvalue is 1. The second and third eigenvectors give eigenvalues of 1 and 2, respectively.
- b) One possibility is $T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, so the resulting diagonal matrix is $T^{-1}AT = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, with the diagonal entries being the eigenvalues corresponding to the columns of T . Note that you can write down the diagonal matrix without actually computing T^{-1} , and that you needn't normalize the columns of T .
- c) I'm once again going to save space by writing everything as row vectors. Since $(1 \ 1 \ 3)$ and $(-2 \ -1 \ 1)$ both have eigenvalue 1, *any* linear combination of them also is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1. To find an eigenvector perpendicular to \mathbf{v} , use a Gram-Schmidt procedure beginning with \mathbf{v} and $\mathbf{w} = (1 \ 1 \ 3)$. (Any vector in the plane with eigenvalue 1 can be written as a linear combination of these two. We're going to find the component of \mathbf{w} in the direction of \mathbf{v} , then subtract that component from \mathbf{w} to find a vector in the $\lambda = 1$ plane which is perpendicular to \mathbf{v} .) First normalize \mathbf{v} : $\hat{\mathbf{v}} = 1/\sqrt{17}(-1 \ 0 \ 4)$. The component of \mathbf{w} parallel to $\hat{\mathbf{v}}$ is $(\hat{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{w})\hat{\mathbf{v}} = 11/17(-1 \ 0 \ 4)$. Subtracting this from \mathbf{w} gives $(28/17 \ 1 \ 7/17)$, an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue 1.
5. a) The second column doesn't "talk" to either of the others, so one eigenvector is $(0,1,0)$, with eigenvalue 2. The corner entries form the 2×2 matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$. You can find the

eigenvectors and eigenvalues of this in various ways. One way is just to call an eigenvector $(1, \beta)$ with corresponding eigenvalue λ , write out the two equations that result from $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$, and solve for λ and β . The answers are $(1, -2)$ with eigenvalue -2 and $(1, \frac{1}{2})$ with eigenvalue 3 ; the corresponding eigenvectors of the original matrix are $(1, 0, -2)$ and $(1, 0, \frac{1}{2})$. (As a check, note that the product of the eigenvalues equals the determinant of the original matrix, and that the sum of the eigenvalues equals the trace of the original matrix.) For $S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$, the diagonal matrix is $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$.

- b) By inspection, $(0, -1, 1)$ has eigenvalue -2 and $(1, -1, -1)$ has eigenvalue -1 . I know that the sum of the eigenvalues must equal the sum of the diagonal of the original matrix, so the third eigenvalue must be 2 . The corresponding eigenvector is $(2, 1, 1)$, which you can get by inspection or by writing it as $(x, y, 1)$ and plugging into the eigenvalue equation with $\lambda = 2$.

For $S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, the diagonal matrix is $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

6. A matrix S diagonalizes both A and B . Show $[A, B] = 0$. $A_D = S^{-1}AS$ and $B_D = S^{-1}BS$. Multiply each equation by S on the left and S^{-1} on the right to get $A = SA_D S^{-1}$, $B = SB_D S^{-1}$. Then $[A, B] = (SA_D S^{-1})(SB_D S^{-1}) - (SB_D S^{-1})(SA_D S^{-1}) = SA_D B_D S^{-1} - SB_D A_D S^{-1} = S(A_D B_D - B_D A_D) S^{-1}$. This vanishes since any two diagonal matrices commute; their product is a diagonal matrix with each entry the product of the corresponding diagonal entries.

T1. The commutator is $[R, S] = RS - SR$. The operator RS means first act S , then R . So $RS(x, y) = R(x, 2y) = (2y, -x)$. Similarly $SR(x, y) = S(y, -x) = (y, -2x)$. So $[R, S](x, y) = (2y, -x) - (y, -2x) = (y, x)$. This is a reflection, flipping the plane about the line $y = x$.

T2. a) The matrix is essentially two 2×2 matrices. The matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ corresponds to the first and third rows and columns, and $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ to the second and fourth rows and columns. Any eigenvector (α, β) of the first of these smaller matrices corresponds to an eigenvector $(\alpha, 0, \beta, 0)$ of the 4×4 matrix, with the same eigenvalue; and similarly for the second 2×2 matrix. By inspection, the eigenvalues then are $5, -3, 5,$ and -1 . (Or, you could find the roots of the characteristic polynomials of the 2×2 matrices.)

- b) Since the matrix is symmetric, eigenvectors belonging to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal. However, the eigenvalue 5 is repeated, so there is an entire plane of vectors with this eigenvalue. The two eigenvectors obtained from the 2×2 matrices are $(1, 0, 1, 0)$ and $(0, 1, 0, 1)$, which are orthogonal, but adding them together gives another eigenvector which is not orthogonal to either one. So one pair of independent, non-orthogonal eigenvectors is $(1, 0, 1, 0)$ and $(1, 1, 1, 1)$.