## Miscellaneous Notes

**Matrix Exp.** Let X(t) be a fundamental matrix of a homogeneous linear d.e. with coefficient matrix A(t), not necessarily constant. Note that X(t) is well-defined up to an invertible factor on the right; hence  $X(t)X(0)^{-1}$  is independent of the choice of X(t); we shall denote it by  $X_A(t)$ .

 $X_A(t)$  is characterized by  $\dot{X}_A = AX_A$  and  $X_A(0) = I$ . If A is constant,  $X_A(t) = expAt$ .

Let B be another matrix. The identity

$$\frac{d}{dt}(X_A X_B) = (A+B)X_A X_B + (X_A B - BX_A)X_B$$

shows that  $X_A X_B = X_{A+B}$  iff B commutes with  $X_A$ . If A and B are constant, this means that AB = BA (look at terms of degree 1 in the power series).

NOTE: If A is not constant, it does not define a vector-field, and  $X_A(t)$  is not a flow in the usual sense.

Binomial Trials and Difference Equations. By a bell-curve of width  $\sigma$  centered at  $\mu$ , we mean a positive solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma^2} y.$$

Fix a natural number n and positive reals p, q with p + q = 1. On the interval [-1, n + 1], consider the piece- wise linear function b(x) which is 0 at the end- points and has

$$b(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$$

at integers k in between. On each subinterval (k, k + 1), its slope b(k + 1) - b(k) turns out to be very easily computed in terms of the intermediate point  $x_k = q(k + 1) + pk$ , namely

$$b(k+1) - b(k) = -\frac{x_k - np}{(n+1)pq}b(x_k).$$

Thus, on the discrete set of points  $(x_k, b(x_k))$ , the graph of b(x) satisfies the differential equation for bell-curves of width  $\sigma_n = \sqrt{(n+1)pq}$  centered at  $\mu_n = np$ .

For a picture less dependent on n, we transfer our graph to a (u, v)-plane, with  $u = (x - \mu_n)/\sigma_n$  and  $v = \sigma_n y$ . The points  $(x_k, b(x_k))$  go into  $(u_k, v_k)$  at which the image graph now has slope  $-u_k v_k$ , i.e. looks like a bell curve of width 1 centered at 0, its support reaching from  $-(np+1)/\sigma_n$  to  $(nq+1)/\sigma_n$ . For large n it therefore seems (!) that the graph can be reconstructed from its apex —using Stirling's formula to get b([n/2])— by solving the linear d.e. v' = -uv via finite differences.

Remark: Of course we are not seriously advocating such a reconstruction, for which there would be the exact (but non-linear) formula b(k+1) - b(k) = c(k)b(k), where c(k) = ((n+1)p - (k+1))/(k+1)q. Rather, we are trying to show an a priori proximity between binomial and normal distribution. The unusual +1 in our formula for  $\sigma_n$  probably comes from working with the piece-wise linear function b instead of the usual histogram.

Musical Mnemonic. Succesive intervals of the diatonic scale are:

$$\alpha, \beta, \epsilon, \alpha, \beta, \alpha, \epsilon$$

, where  $\alpha = 1 + 1/8$ ,  $\beta = 1 + 1/9$ ,  $\epsilon = 1 + 1/15$ . The rest of the drama follows from this. Note, for instance: however you define F-sharp, the scale of G gets off to a bad start. Even worse, the interval from D to A is  $\alpha\beta^2\epsilon$  instead of the perfect fifth  $\alpha^2\beta\epsilon$ . The twelfth root of 2 was applied to this puzzle in 1686 by one Werckmeister. A previous expert had come close by using 18/17.

**The Gradient of a Quadratic Form.** Let A be a linear transformation on a Eucidean space and put  $Q(X) = AX \bullet X$ . The identity  $Q(X+V) - Q(X) = (A+A^t)X \bullet V + Q(V)$  clearly shows that

$$\nabla Q(X) = (A + A^t)X.$$

For those who are not comfortable with Frechet derivatives, we could use the same identity to compute the directional derivative  $D_UQ(X) = \lim_{h\to 0} [Q(X+hU)-Q(X)]/h = (A+A^t)X \bullet U$ . Either way it is immediate that, for *symmetric* A, the problem of maximizing Q(X) on the unit sphere (using Lagrange multipliers) is identical to the eigenvalue problem.

**Combinations with Repeats.** According to Melzak the following pretty argument is due to Euler. If  $S_k = \{1, ..., k\}$ , let F(n, k) and G(n, k) stand for the increasing and non-decreasing functions  $S_k \to S_n$ , respectively. The cardinality of the former is good old C(n, k); what is the cardinality of G(n, k), the set of "combinations with repeats"?

Given  $g \in G(n, k)$ , construct a function  $f \in F(n+k-1, k)$  by making f(x) = g(x) + x - 1. Conversely, given such an f, put g(x) = f(x) - x + 1; then g(x+1) = f(x+1) - x > f(x) - x, i.e.  $g(x+1) \ge g(x)$ . Hence G(n, k) is in one-to-one correspondence with F(n+k-1, k).

The Cross Product. For  $V, W \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , define  $V \times W$  by

$$(V \times W) \bullet X = \det(V, W, X)$$
 for all  $X \in \mathbf{R}^3$ .

Then it is obvious that

$$A^t(AV \times AW) = \det A \cdot (V \times W),$$

for any  $3 \times 3$ -matrix A. Hence the product is invariant under rotations.

Moreover it is clear that  $V \times W$  is orthogonal to V, W. To interpret its length, let U be a unit vector parallel to it. Then  $|V \times W| = |(V \times W) \bullet U| = |\det(V, W, U)|$ , which equals the area of the parallelogram given by V, W.

The Simplex Method. A linear optimization problem involves a (consistent) system AX = B of linear equations and a linear pay-off function C on the solution set thereof. It is in *standard form* if A is fully reduced, B is non-negative, and C is expressed in terms of the "free" variables. The simplex method treats such a problem by moving from one standard form to an adjacent one while making sure that C is increased. The following three steps are iterated.

- 1. Look at the formula for C to decide which one of the free variables (if any) should be "entered".
- 2. Which row, in the corresponding column, can be used as a pivot without introducing negatives on the right? Check constant-to-coefficient ratios.
- 3. Sweep out the column chosen in (1) using the row chosen in (2). Don't forget to include (and thus modify) the formula for C in this process. Go back to (1).

Sion's Lemma. Here is Maurice's version of the singular value decomposition.

Let  $A:U\to V$  be linear, and r be the maximum value of |Au| for u on the unit sphere. Put  $E=\{u\in U\,|Au\bullet Au=r^2u\bullet u\}$ . Then

$$u \in E, x \in U \implies Au \bullet Ax = r^2u \bullet x.$$

In particular, E is a linear space, and  $A(E^\perp)\subseteq A(E)^\perp.$ 

*Proof:* Applying Cauchy-Schwarz to the non-negative bilinear form  $C(x,y) = r^2 x \bullet y - Ax \bullet Ay$ , we get  $|C(u,x)|^2 \le 0$  because C(u,u) = 0.

**The Möbius Function.** The set of functions  $f: \mathbb{N} \to D$ , where D is any domain, is a ring under pointwise addition and convolution

$$(f * g)(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)g(n/d).$$

Its identity is the characteristic function of the set  $\{1\}$ .

By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, this ring is isomorphic to the ring of formal power series in countably many indeterminates  $X_{\nu}$  (corresponding to prime  $p_{\nu}$ ). An element f is invertible iff f(1) is a unit in D. Such an f is called *multiplicative* if f(1) = 1 and  $f = \prod_{\nu} f_{\nu}$ , where each  $f_{\nu}$  is a power series in the single indeterminate  $X_{\nu}$ .

The function e which is identically equal to 1, is a case in point. It is the product of geometric series in each of the  $X_{\nu}$ ; hence its inverse  $\mu$ , called the *Möbius function*, is the product  $\prod_{\nu} (1 - X_{\nu})$ . Thus, as a function,  $\mu(n) = (-1)^k$  if n has k simple prime factors; if any prime occurs in n with multiplicity > 1, the value of  $\mu(n)$  is zero.

Since the equations g = f \* e and  $f = \mu * g$  are equivalent, we have explicitly

$$g(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} f(d) \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad f(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} \mu(d) g(n/d).$$

This is called Möbius inversion.

## Dissection Puzzles.

- 1. Let the vertices of a regular dodecagon be numbered as on a clock. Making four cuts from 6 and 7 to 11 and 2, we get six pieces which fit together to form a square. The sides of the latter are the edges joining 7 with 11 and 6 with 2. Compute all relevant angles to check that the fit is perfect (note that 278 is a right angle by Thales).
- 2. An equilateral triangle can be separated into 5 pieces which may be used to form either two or three smaller equilateral triangles. One of the cuts, parallel to the "base", produces a trapezoid; two more, perpendicular to the base, then make a rectangle in which the last cut is a diagonal. The first cut divides two of the sides in the ratio 3:2, with the trapezoid getting the smaller height.
- 3. What is the shape of an isosceles triangle  $\Delta$  which can be divided into two smaller isosceles triangles by a single cut? Let the legs and base of  $\Delta$  have lengths 1 and b, and let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  denote the angles at base and roof, respectively.

If  $\alpha > \beta$ , the cut must divide one of the base angles, and  $\alpha$  remains a base angle for one of the smaller triangles, say  $\Delta'$ , which is therefore similar to  $\Delta$ . This similarity implies  $b^2 = 1 - b$ , hence the *golden ratio* for legs to base.

 $\beta$  is the base angle of the other isosceles piece  $\Delta''$ , and also the roof angle of  $\Delta'$ . Hence  $\alpha = \beta + \beta$ . Moreover, the roof angle of  $\Delta''$ , being the exterior to the base angle of  $\Delta'$ , is  $\alpha + \beta = 3\beta$ . Summing angles in  $\Delta''$ , we now get  $5\beta$ , and thus  $\alpha$  is the centre angle of a regular pentagon. Therefore Euclid constructs the latter by first making an isosceles triangle based on the golden ratio (which he gets from the diagonal of a rectangular half-square).

For the case  $\beta > \alpha$ , a similar analysis shows that  $\Delta$  must have the shape of the  $\Delta''$  above.