Math, Inner Product Space#2

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1. (3.1)

Define $\langle x, y \rangle$ as $x \times y$ in a real inner porduct space. It's easy to show that $\langle x, y \rangle$ satisfies all there properties of an IPS.

i. RHS =
$$\frac{1}{4}((x+y)\times(x+y)-(x-y)\times(x-y))=x\times y$$
 =LHS ii. RHS = $\frac{1}{2}(2x^2+2y^2)=x^2+y^2$ = LHS

ii. RHS =
$$\frac{4}{2}(2x^2 + 2y^2) = x^2 + y^2 = LHS$$

2. (3.2)

Let x = a + bi and y = c + di, where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$LHS = ac - bd + (bc + ad)i$$

RHS =
$$\frac{1}{4}$$
 × $(4ac - 4bd + 4adi + 4bci)$ =LHS

3. (3.3)

i.
$$cos\theta = \frac{\langle f,g \rangle}{||f||||g||} = \frac{\int_0^1 x^6 dx}{\int_0^1 x^2 dx \int_0^1 x^1 0 dx}$$

$$=\frac{\sqrt{33}}{7}$$

ii.
$$cos\theta = \frac{\langle f,g \rangle}{||f||||g||} = \frac{\int_0^1 x^6 dx}{\int_0^1 x^4 dx \int_0^1 x^8 dx}$$

$$=\frac{3\sqrt{5}}{7}$$

4. (3.8)

i. for $x \in \{cos(t), sin(t), cos(2t), sin(2t)\}$, we always have $\langle x, x \rangle = 1$. For

 $x, y \in \{cos(t), sin(t), cos(2t), sin(2t)\}$ and $x \neq y$, we always have $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Therefore, S is an orthonormal set.

ii.
$$||t|| = \langle t, t \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\pi}^{\pi} t^2 dt = \frac{1}{\pi} (\frac{1}{3}\pi^3 - \frac{1}{3}(-\pi)^3) = \frac{2\pi^2}{3}$$

ii. $||t|| = \langle t, t \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\pi}^{\pi} t^2 dt = \frac{1}{\pi} (\frac{1}{3}\pi^3 - \frac{1}{3}(-\pi)^3) = \frac{2\pi^2}{3}$ iii. Since S is an orthonormal set, for $x_i \in \{cos(t), sin(t), cos(2t), sin(2t)\}, proj_X cos(3t) = \frac{\pi}{3}$

 $\sum_{x_i \in S} < \cos(3t), x_i > x_i =$ iv. Since S is an orthonormal set, for $x_i \in \{\cos(t), \sin(t), \cos(2t), \sin(2t)\}, proj_X t =$ $\sum_{x_i \in S} \langle t, x_i \rangle x_i =$

5. (3.9)

For $x,y \in \mathbb{R}, M[x,y]^T = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}[x+2y,2x-y]^T$. Therefore, for $x,y,z,w \in \mathbb{R}$, $< M[x,y]^T, M[w,z]^T > = (xw + yz).$ We notice that $< [x,y]^T, [w,z]^T > =$ (xw+yz). Therefore, the rotation in \mathbb{R}^2 is an orthonormal transformation.

i. "if": Let $x, y \in \mathbb{F}^n$, according to Definition 3.2.14, $\langle Qx, Qy \rangle = (Qx)^H Qy =$ $x^H Q^H Q x = \langle x, y \rangle = x^H y$. So $Q^H Q = I$. Trivial to prove that $QQ^H = I$ "only if": $\langle Qx, Qy \rangle = (Qx)^H(Qy) = x^HQ^HQy = x^Hy = \langle x, y \rangle$ ii. $\langle Qx, Qx \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle$. Therefore, ||Qx|| = ||x|| for all $x \in mathbb F^n$ iii. First, $\langle Q^H x, Q^H y \rangle = x^H (QQ^H) y = \langle x, y \rangle$, therefore, Q^H is an orthonormal matrix. Also, $QQ^H = I \implies Q^{-1}QQ^H = Q^{-1}I \implies Q^{-1} = Q^H$. Therefore, Q^{-1} is an orthonormal matrix.

iv. Let
$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & \dots & q_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 then $Q^H Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_1^H q_1 & \dots & q_1^H q_n \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_n^H q_1 & \dots & q_n^H q_n \end{bmatrix} = I$

Therefore, the columns are orthonorma

v. $1 = det(I) = det(QQ^H) = det(Q)det(Q^H)$. Because $det(Q) = det(Q^H)$, |det(Q)| = 1

7. (3.11)

W.L.O.G., let's assume $x_t = \sum_{j=1}^{t-1} \alpha_j x_j$. Then we have:

$$p_{t-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \langle q_i, x_t \rangle q_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \langle q_i, \sum_{j=1}^{t-1} \alpha_j x_j \rangle q_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \sum_{j=1}^{t-1} (\alpha_j \langle q_i, x_j \rangle q_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \alpha_i x_i = x_t$$

This means q_t is divided by 0 and G-S algorithm cannot proceed further on.

8. (3.16)

i. Let $A \in \mathbb{M}_{m \times n} A = QR$. Let D be a diagonal matrix with -1 on its first diagonal element and 1s on other diagonal positions. Then $A = Q(DD^{-1})R =$ $(QD)(D^{-1}R)$. We find that QD is also an orthonormal matrix and $D^{-1}R$ is also an upper triangular matrix. Therefore, the QR decomposition is not unique.

ii. Assume that $A = Q_1R_1 = Q_2R_2 \implies R_1R_2^{-1} = Q_1^HQ_2$. If we let $M=R_1R_2^{-1}=Q_1^HQ_2$. We find tha M is both orthonormal and upper triangular, therefore a diagonal matrix. If diagonal elements of M are all positive, then M = I. Decomposition is unique.

$$x = \hat{R}^{-1}(\hat{R}^H)^{-1}\hat{R}^H\hat{Q}^Hb$$

$$x = \hat{R}^{-1} \hat{Q}^H b$$

10.
$$(3.23)$$

i.
$$||x|| = ||x - y + y|| \le ||x - y|| + ||y||$$
. Therefore, $||x|| - ||y|| \le ||x - y||$.

ii. $||y|| = ||y - x + x|| \le ||y - x|| + ||x||$. Therefore, $||y|| - ||x|| \le ||y - x|| =$ $||-1|| \cdot ||x-y|| = ||x-y||.$

Combining i and ii, we could prove the question.

11. (3.24)

- i. Positivity and scalar preservation are easy to check, therefore omitted; For triangular inequality, $||f+g||_{L^1}=\int_a^b|f(t)+g(t)|dt\leq \int_a^b(|f(t)|+|g(t)|)dt=$ $||f||_{L^1} + ||g||_{L^1}$
- ii. Positivity and scalar preservation are easy to check, therefore omitted; For triangular inequality, it's easy to prove using the Minkowski's integral inequality.
- iii. Positivity and scalar preservation are easy to check, therefore omitted; For triangular inequality, $\sup_{x\in[a,b]}|f(x)+g(x)|\leq \sup_{x\in[a,b]}|f(x)|+\sup_{x\in[a,b]}|g(x)|.$ Therefore $||f + g||_{\infty} \le ||f||_{\infty} + ||g||_{\infty}$.

12. (3.26)

(Equivalence relation) $\exists 0 < m \leq Ms.t.m||x||_a \leq ||x||_b \leq M||x||_a$. Also $\exists 0 < \frac{1}{M} \le \frac{1}{m} s.t. \frac{1}{M} ||x||_b \le ||x||_a \le \frac{1}{m} ||x||_b$. Therefore, it's an equivalent relation.

i. $||x||_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \le ((\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|)(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i))^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| = ||x||_1$. Also, $||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \cdot 1 \le (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} (\sum_{i=1}^n 1^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{n}||x||_2$ ii. $||x||_{\infty} = \sup\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}$. $||x||_{\infty} \le ||x||_2$ is trivial to prove. $||x||_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \le (\frac{1}{n} ||x||_{\infty}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} ||x||_{\infty}$

13. (3.28)

Since $||A||_p = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{||Ax||_p}{||x||_p}$, We could directly use te results from 3.26 to prove this question.

- i. Given i) in 3.26, we know that $||Ax||_2 \le ||Ax||_1 \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}||Ax||_2$ and $||x||_2 \le ||Ax||_1 \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}||Ax||_2$ $||x||_1 \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}||x||_2$. Therefore, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}||A||_2 \le ||A||_1 \le \sqrt{n}||A||_2$
- ii. Given ii) in 3.26, using the same logic in i) above, it's easy to prove.

14. (3.30)

- i. The positivity is easy to prove.
- ii. Homogneity: $||aA||_S = ||S(aA)S^{-1}|| = a||SAS^{-1}|| = a||A||_S$
- iii. Triangular inequality: $||A + B||_S = ||S(A + B)S^{-1}|| = ||SAS^{-1} + SBS^{-1}||$. Given $||\cdot||$ is a matrix norm, it satisfies the triangular inequality. Therefore $||SAS^{-1} + SBS^{-1}|| \le ||SAS^{-1}|| + ||SBS^{-1}|| = ||A||_S + ||B||_S$ Therefore, $||\cdot||_{S}$ is a matrix norm.

15. (3.37)suppose $p = a + bx + cx^2 = [1, x, x^2][a, b, c]^T$. Since L(p) = p'(1) = 2c + b = <

q, p >. Therefore, $q = [\frac{2c+b}{a}, 0, 0]$

16. (3.38)

By using the same method in 3.37, we have $D = [b, a2c, 0]^T$

17. (3.39)

i. $<(S+T)^*y, x> = < y, (S+T)x> = < y, Sx> + < y, Tx> = < S^*y, x> + < T^*y, x> = < (S^*+T^*)y, x>$. So $(S+T)^*=(S^*+T^*)$. Also $<(\alpha T)^*y, x> = < y, \alpha Tx> = \overline{\alpha} < T^*y, x> = < \overline{\alpha} T^*y, x>$

- . Therefore, $(\alpha T)^* = \overline{\alpha}(T)^*$.
- ii. $\langle (S^*)^*y, x \rangle = \langle y, S^*x \rangle = \langle Sy, x \rangle$, therefore, $(S^*)^* = S$
- iii. $<(ST)^*y, x> = < y, (ST)x> = < S^*y, Tx> = < T^*S^*y, x>$. Therefore, $(ST)^* = T^*S^*$.
- iv. A According to (iii), $(T^{-1})^*T^* = (TT^{-1})^* = I^* = I$. Therefore, $(T^{-1})^* = (T^*)^{-1}$.
- 18. (3.40)
 - i. Let $X, Y \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$, then $\langle Y, A^*X \rangle = \langle A^*Y, X \rangle \implies Y^H A^*X = (AY)^H X = Y^H A^H X$. Therefore, $A^* = A^H$
 - ii. Based on the equivalence proved in i, we have $\langle A_2, A_3 A_1 \rangle = tr(A_2^H A_3 A_1) = tr(A_2^* A_3 A_1) = tr(A_1 A_2^* A_3) = tr(A_1 A_2^H A_3) = \langle A_2 A_1^H, A_3 \rangle = \langle A_2 A_1^H, A_3 \rangle$
 - iii. $\langle Y, T_A^*(X) \rangle = \langle T_A(Y), X \rangle = \langle AY YA, X \rangle = \langle AY, X \rangle \langle YA, X \rangle = tr(Y^HA^HX) tr(A^HY^HX) = tr(Y^H(A^HX)) tr(Y^H(XA^H)) = \langle Y, A^HX \rangle \langle Y, XA^H \rangle = \langle Y, A^*X \rangle \langle Y, XA^* \rangle = \langle Y, T_{A^*}(X) \rangle.$ Therefore, $(T_A)^* = T_{A^*}$.
- 19. (3.44)
 - i. If Ax = b has a solution $x \in \mathbb{F}$ then $b \in \mathcal{R}(A)$. Since $y \in \mathcal{N}(A^H) = \mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A)^{\perp}$, this means $\langle y, b \rangle = 0$.
 - ii. If Ax = b doesn't have a solution $x \in \mathbb{F}$, then it indicates that $b \in \mathcal{R}(A)^{\perp}$. Then there exists $y \in \mathcal{N}(A^H)$ such that $\langle y, b \rangle \neq 0$
- 20. (3.45)

Given Theorem 3.8.5, to prove $Sym_n(\mathbb{R})^{\perp} = Skew_n(\mathbb{R})$ is equivalent to prove that $Sym_n(\mathbb{R}) \bigoplus Skew_n(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R}$. Since $\forall A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ we could write $A = \frac{A+A^T}{2} + \frac{A-A^T}{2}$. It's easy to prove that $\frac{A+A^T}{2} \in Sym_n(\mathbb{R})$ and $\frac{A-A^T}{2} \in Skew_n(\mathbb{R})$. Therefore this decomposition holds for all satisfied A in the space.

- 21. (3.46)
 - i. By definition, $Ax \in \mathcal{R}(A)$. Since $x \in \mathcal{N}(A^H A)$, $A^H Ax = 0$. So $Ax \in \mathcal{N}(A^H)$.
 - ii. It's easy to prove that $\mathcal{N}(A) \subset \mathcal{N}(A^H A)$. If $x \in \mathcal{N}(A^H A)$, then $x^H A^H A x =$

 $0 \implies (Ax)^T(Ax) = 0 \implies Ax = 0 \implies x \in \mathcal{N}(A)$. So $\mathcal{N}(A^HA) = \mathcal{N}(A)$.

iii. Combining ii and Rank-Nullity Theorem, it's easy to prove, given $\mathcal{N}(A^H A) =$ $\mathcal{N}(A)$

- iv. Natural to prove directly from arguments in iii.
- 22. (3.47)

i.
$$P^{2} = A(A^{H}A)^{-1}A^{H}A(A^{H}A)^{-1}A^{H} = A(A^{H}A)^{-1}A^{H} = P$$

ii.
$$P^H = (A(A^H A)^{-1}A^H)^H = A(A^H A)^{-1}A^H = P$$

iii. $Rank(P) = Rank(A(A^HA)^{-1}A^H) \le Rank(A)$, and $Rank(A) = Rank(A(A^HA)^{-1}(A^HA)) =$ $Rank(PA) \leq Rank(P)$. Therefore, Rank(A) = Rank(P)

23. (3.48)

$$P(A+B) = \frac{(A+B)+(A+B)^T}{2} = \frac{(A+B)+A^T+B^T}{2} = P(A) + P(B)$$

ii.
$$P^2(A) = P(\frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)) = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(A + A^T) + \frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)^T}{2} = P(A)$$

i. $P(A+B) = \frac{(A+B)+(A+B)^T}{2} = \frac{(A+B)+A^T+B^T}{2} = P(A) + P(B)$ ii. $P^2(A) = P(\frac{1}{2}(A+A^T)) = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(A+A^T)+\frac{1}{2}(A+A^T)^T}{2} = P(A)$ iii. We could directly using the fact that $P^* = P^T$ in question i in 3.40 and $P^T = P$ to prove this.

iv.
$$\forall x \in \mathcal{N}(P), Px = 0 \iff \frac{x+x^T}{2} = 0 \iff x^T = -x \iff x \in Skew_n(\mathbb{R}).$$

Therefore $\mathcal{N}(P) = Skew_n(\mathbb{R})$

Therefore, $\mathcal{N}(P) = Skew_n(\mathbb{R})$

v. By using the result of 3.45 and question (iii), we know that $Sym_n(\mathbb{R}) =$ $Skew_n(\mathbb{R})^{\perp} = \mathcal{R}(P^*) = \mathcal{R}(P).$

vi.
$$A - P(A) = \frac{A - A^T}{2}$$
. Therefore, $\sqrt{\langle \frac{A - A^T}{2}, \frac{A - A^T}{2} \rangle} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}(tr(A^TA) - tr(A^2) - tr((A^T)^2)))} = \sqrt{\frac{tr(A^TA) - tr(A^2)}{2}}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 & 1 \\ x_2^2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_n^2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$x = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{r}{s} \\ \frac{1}{s} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$b = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$$