Ex_Mod1 : Preliminaries

Riccardo Marega

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1 Ex 1: slide 39

Given $x = (x_1, x_2), y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ with $x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for i = 1, 2, we verify the vector space axioms:

1. Closure under addition:

 $x + y = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2)$. Since \mathbb{R} is closed under addition, $x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, implying $x + y \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

2. Associativity of addition:

Given also $z = (z_1, z_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $(x + y) + z = ((x_1 + y_1) + z_1, (x_2 + y_2) + z_2) = (x_1 + (y_1 + z_1), x_2 + (y_2 + z_2)) = x + (y + z)$. This follows since addition in \mathbb{R} is associative.

3. Existence of the additive identity:

The additive identity in \mathbb{R}^2 is 0 = (0,0), since for all $x = (x_1, x_2)$: $x + 0 = (x_1 + 0, x_2 + 0) = (x_1, x_2) = x$.

4. Existence of additive inverses:

For each $x = (x_1, x_2)$, its additive inverse is $-x = (-x_1, -x_2)$, since: $x + (-x) = (x_1 + (-x_1), x_2 + (-x_2)) = (0, 0)$.

5. Commutativity of addition:

Since addition in \mathbb{R} is commutative, $x+y=(x_1+y_1,x_2+y_2)=(y_1+x_1,y_2+x_2)=y+x$.

6. Associativity of scalar multiplication:

 $\alpha(\beta x) = \alpha(\beta x_1, \beta x_2) = (\alpha(\beta x_1), \alpha(\beta x_2)) = ((\alpha \beta) x_1, (\alpha \beta) x_2) = (\alpha \beta) x.$

7. Existence of a multiplicative identity:

Since $1 \cdot x = (1 \cdot x_1, 1 \cdot x_2) = (x_1, x_2) = x$, the multiplicative identity in \mathbb{R} acts as the identity for scalar multiplication in \mathbb{R}^2 .

8. Distributivity of scalar multiplication over vector addition:

 $\alpha \cdot (x+y) = \alpha \cdot (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2) = (\alpha(x_1 + y_1), \alpha(x_2 + y_2)) = (\alpha x_1 + \alpha y_1, \alpha x_2 + \alpha y_2) = \alpha x + \alpha y.$

9. Distributivity of scalar multiplication over field addition:

 $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot x = ((\alpha + \beta)x_1, (\alpha + \beta)x_2) = (\alpha x_1 + \beta x_1, \alpha x_2 + \beta x_2) = \alpha x + \beta x.$

Thus, all vector space axioms hold, proving that \mathbb{R}^2 is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Given $||\bullet||_2 \doteq \sqrt{x^T x} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + ... + x_n^2}$ with $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

- 1. Given the domain of the function, $|| \bullet ||_2 \ge 0 \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $||x|| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- $2. \ \forall \alpha \in R, \ ||\alpha x||_2 = \sqrt{\alpha^2 x_1^2 + \ldots + \alpha x_n^2} = \sqrt{\alpha^2 (x_1^2 + \ldots + x_n^2)} = |a|\sqrt{x_1^2 + \ldots + x_n^2} = |\alpha| ||x||_2$
- 3. Given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and remembering the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, $||x+y||_2^2 = \langle x+y|x+y \rangle = \langle x|x \rangle + \langle y|y \rangle + 2 \langle x|y \rangle \leq ||x||_2^2 + ||y||_2^2 + 2||x||_2||y||_2 = (||x||_2 + ||y||_2)^2 \longrightarrow ||x+y||_2 \leq ||x||_2 + ||y||_2.$

The function f(x) = a + bx with $a \in \mathbb{R}/\{0\}$ and $b, x \in R$ in not linear in \mathbb{R} because: $f(\alpha x + \beta y) = a + b(\alpha x + \beta y) = a + b\alpha x + b\beta y \neq \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y)$ for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ \square .

2 Ex 2: slide 61

1.

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & \frac{1}{3} & \sqrt{2} \\ -1 & 0 & 9 \\ 3 & 1 & \frac{2}{7} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 2 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 9 \\ 1 & \frac{2}{7} \end{vmatrix} - \frac{1}{3} \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 9 \\ 3 & \frac{2}{7} \end{vmatrix} + \sqrt{2} \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 2 \left(0 \cdot \frac{2}{7} - 9 \cdot 1 \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left(-1 \cdot \frac{2}{7} - 9 \cdot 3 \right) + \sqrt{2} \left(-1 \cdot 1 - 0 \cdot 3 \right)$$

$$= -18 + \frac{27 + \frac{2}{7}}{3} - \sqrt{2}$$

$$= -18 + \frac{189}{21} + \frac{2}{21} - \sqrt{2}$$

$$= -18 + \frac{191}{21} - \sqrt{2}.$$

2.

$$B = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & \frac{3}{2} \end{vmatrix} = 2 \cdot \frac{3}{2} - (-1 \cdot -3) = 3 - 3 = 0.$$

3.

$$C = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2c \\ -3 & -3c \end{vmatrix} = 1(-3c) - 2c(-3) = -3c + 6c = 3c.$$

Given:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

since there are 4 vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 , they must be linearly dependent.

Given I_3 , the identity matrix of order 3,

$$I_3 \cdot I_3 = I_3.$$

3 Ex 3: slide 85

Given, $A=\begin{bmatrix}3 & -18\\2 & -9\end{bmatrix}$, and given that the inverse of a 2×2 matrix $A=\begin{bmatrix}a & b\\c & d\end{bmatrix}$ is given by: $A^{-1}=\frac{1}{\det(A)}\begin{bmatrix}d & -b\\-c & a\end{bmatrix}$ where the determinant is: $\det(A)=(3)(-9)-(-18)(2)=-27+36=9$ Since $\det(A)\neq 0$, the inverse exists: $A^{-1}=\frac{1}{9}\begin{bmatrix}-9 & 18\\-2 & 3\end{bmatrix}=\begin{bmatrix}-1 & 2\\-\frac{2}{9} & \frac{1}{3}\end{bmatrix}$. Given $B=\begin{bmatrix}2 & 2c\\-3 & -3c\end{bmatrix}$, the determinant is: $\det(B)=(2)(-3c)-(2c)(-3)=-6c+6c=0$ Since the

determinant is zero for any real c, the matrix is singular and does not have an inverse.

The eigenvalues of a matrix ${\cal M}$ are found by solving:

$$\det(M - \lambda I) = 0$$

Given A:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3 - \lambda & -18 \\ 2 & -9 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (3 - \lambda)(-9 - \lambda) - (-18)(2) = 0.$$

Expanding:

$$(-27 - 3\lambda + 9\lambda + \lambda^2) + 36 = 0$$
$$\lambda^2 + 6\lambda + 9 = 0$$
$$(\lambda + 3)^2 = 0$$
$$\lambda = -3$$

So, the only eigenvalue is $\lambda = -3$ with multiplicity 2. Given B,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 2c \\ -3 & -3c - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (2 - \lambda)(-3c - \lambda) - (2c)(-3) = 0$$

Expanding:

$$-6c - 2\lambda + 3c\lambda + \lambda^2 + 6c = 0$$
$$\lambda^2 + (3c - 2)\lambda = 0$$
$$\lambda(\lambda + 3c - 2) = 0$$

So, the eigenvalues are:

$$\lambda_1 = 0, \quad \lambda_2 = 2 - 3c$$