

# Homework #5

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## Problem 1

### Part a

To calculate the eigenvectors of  $A_3$ , we first need to find their correspondent eigenvalues. Since  $A_3$  is an upper triangular matrix, the eigenvalues of  $A_3$  are its diagonal elements:

$$A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 10 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2 \text{ and } \lambda_3 = 3$$

Solving for the eigenvector  $v_1$  of  $\lambda_1 = 1$ , we get:

$$A_3 v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 \implies (A_3 - \lambda_1 I) v_1 = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda_1 & 4 & 10 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 - \lambda_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^1 \\ v_1^2 \\ v_1^3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Solving the system of equations, we get:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 4v_1^2 + 10v_1^3 &= 0 \\ v_1^2 &= 0 \\ 3v_1^3 &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \implies v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$$

Repeating the same procedure for  $v_2$  and  $v_3$ , we obtain:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda_2 & 4 & 10 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 - \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_2^1 \\ v_2^2 \\ v_2^3 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \implies v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4s \\ s \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \forall s \in \mathbb{R}$$

And:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda_3 & 4 & 10 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 - \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_3^1 \\ v_3^2 \\ v_3^3 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \implies v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{10}{2}r \\ 0 \\ r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5r \\ 0 \\ r \end{bmatrix}, \forall r \in \mathbb{R}$$

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To check whether the eigenvectors of  $A_3$  are linearly independent, we write a linear combination of the eigenvectors and solve the system of equations as such:

$$\alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 4s \\ s \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_3 \begin{bmatrix} 5r \\ 0 \\ r \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \alpha_1 t + 4\alpha_2 s + 5\alpha_3 r = 0 \\ \alpha_2 s = 0 \\ \alpha_3 r = 0 \end{array} \right\} \implies \alpha = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus we have showed that the eigenvectors of  $A_3$  are linearly independent since the only solution to (1) is the trivial solution. Computing the eigenvectors of  $A_3$  in MATLAB, we notice that they are similar to the vectors computed by hand. In fact, for a specific set of values  $\{t, s, r\}$ , we check that relations between the elements of each vector are satisfied as such:

$$V = \text{eig}(A_3) = [V_1, V_2, V_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0000 & 0.9701 & 0.9806 \\ 0 & 0.2425 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.1961 \end{bmatrix}$$

For  $S_1 = \{t, s, r\} = \{1, 0.2425, 0.1961\}$ , the relations between the elements of  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  are satisfied. Thus, the vectors computed by hand are equal to the ones obtained from MATLAB for the set of values  $S_1$ .

## Part b

To calculate the eigenvectors of  $A_4$ , we first need to find their correspondent eigenvalues. Since  $A_4$  is an upper triangular matrix, the eigenvalues of  $A_4$  are its diagonal elements:

$$A_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_1 = 3 \text{ and } \lambda_2 = 2$$

Solving for the eigenvector  $v_1$  of  $\lambda_1 = 3$ , we get:

$$A_4 v_1 = \lambda_1 v_1 \implies (A_4 - \lambda_1 I) v_1 = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 - \lambda_1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 - \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 - \lambda_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^1 \\ v_1^2 \\ v_1^3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Solving the system of equations, we get:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} v_1^2 = 0 \\ 0 = 0 \\ -v_1^3 = 0 \end{array} \right\} \implies v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$$

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Repeating the same procedure for  $v_2$ , we obtain:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 - \lambda_2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 - \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 - \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_2^1 \\ v_2^2 \\ v_2^3 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \implies v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ s \end{bmatrix}, \forall s \in \mathbb{R}$$

Since we only have two eigenvectors, we cannot represent every element  $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$  because the basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  requires 3 vectors, however, we will prove this using the definition of a basis. To check whether the eigenvectors of  $A_4$  constitute a basis  $B$  for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we first check if they are linearly independent by writing a linear combination of the eigenvectors and solve the system of equations as such:

$$\alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ s \end{bmatrix} = 0 \tag{2}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \alpha_1 t = 0 \\ 0 = 0 \\ \alpha_2 s = 0 \end{array} \right\} \implies \alpha = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus we have showed that the eigenvectors of  $A_4$  are linearly independent since the only solution to (2) is the trivial solution. Now, we also need to check if  $\text{span}(B) = \mathbb{R}^3$ . In order to do this, we need to show that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^3, \exists \alpha_i$  s.t.  $\sum_{i=0}^n \alpha_i v_i - x_i = 0$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ s \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving the system of equations, we get:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x_1 = \alpha_1 t \\ x_2 = 0 \\ x_3 = \alpha_2 s \end{array} \right\} \implies x = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 t \\ 0 \\ \alpha_2 s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{t} \\ 0 \\ \tilde{s} \end{bmatrix} \quad \forall \tilde{t}, \tilde{s} \in \mathbb{R}$$

Thus we can only represent the vectors  $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$  whose second element is zero (i.e:  $x_2 = 0$ ). Therefore, we cannot constitute a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$  using the eigenvectors of  $A_4$ .

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## Problem 2

**STATEMENT:** If  $A$  and  $B$  are similar matrices, then they have the same characteristic equation, hence the same eigenvalues.

**PROOF:** To prove the above statement, we use a direct proof as such:

$$\begin{aligned}\det(\lambda I - B) &= \det(\lambda I - P^{-1}AP) \\ &= \det(\lambda P^{-1}P - P^{-1}AP) \\ &= \det(P^{-1}(\lambda P - AP)) \\ &= \det(P^{-1}(\lambda I - A)P) \\ &= \det(P^{-1})\det(\lambda I - A)\det(P) \\ &= \frac{1}{\det(P)}\det(P)\det(\lambda I - A) \\ &= \det(\lambda I - A)\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have shown that the two similar matrices have the same characteristic polynomial, hence the same characteristic equation and eigenvalues  $\lambda$ .

## Problem 3

To show that  $A_3$  is similar to a diagonal matrix  $\Lambda$ , it suffices to show that there exist an invertible matrix  $M$  such that  $\Lambda = M^{-1}AM$ . Let  $\Lambda$  be a diagonal matrix whose elements are the eigenvalues of  $A_3$  denoted as such:

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let  $M$  be a matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  whose columns are the eigenvectors of  $A_3$  such that  $M = [v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3]$ , then  $M$  is invertible since the eigenvectors of  $A_3$  are linearly independent. We have:

$$\begin{aligned}AM &= [Av_1 \ Av_2 \ Av_3] = [\lambda_1 v_1 \ \lambda_2 v_2 \ \lambda_3 v_3] \\ \implies AM &= M \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} = M\Lambda\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we can find a diagonal matrix  $\Lambda = M^{-1}AM$  who is similar to  $A_3$  where the elements of the diagonal matrix are the eigenvalues of  $A_3$ .

## Problem 4

### Part a-b

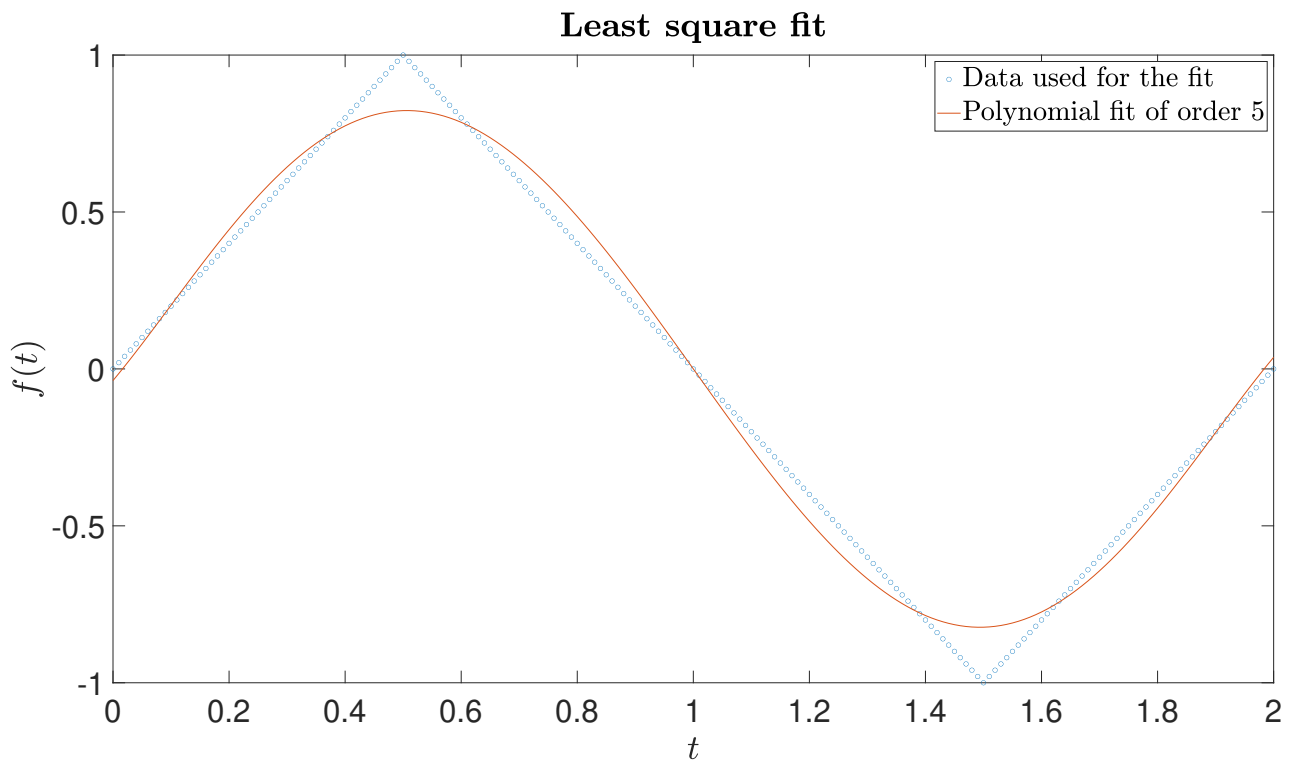


Figure 1: Goodness of Fit

From MATLAB, the polynomial  $P(t)$  and the computed coefficients of the fit of order 5 are tabulated below:

Table 1: Coefficients of the Polynomial  $P(t)$

Coefficient	Value
$c_0$	-0.0370
$c_1$	-0.0370
$c_2$	2.8901
$c_3$	-11.2271
$c_4$	7.6978
$c_5$	-1.5396

$$P(t) = c_0 + c_1t + c_2t^2 + c_3t^3 + c_4t^4 + c_5t^5$$

$$\Rightarrow P(t) = -0.0370 - 0.0370t + 2.8901t^2 - 11.2271t^3 + 7.6978t^4 - 1.5396t^5$$

## Part c

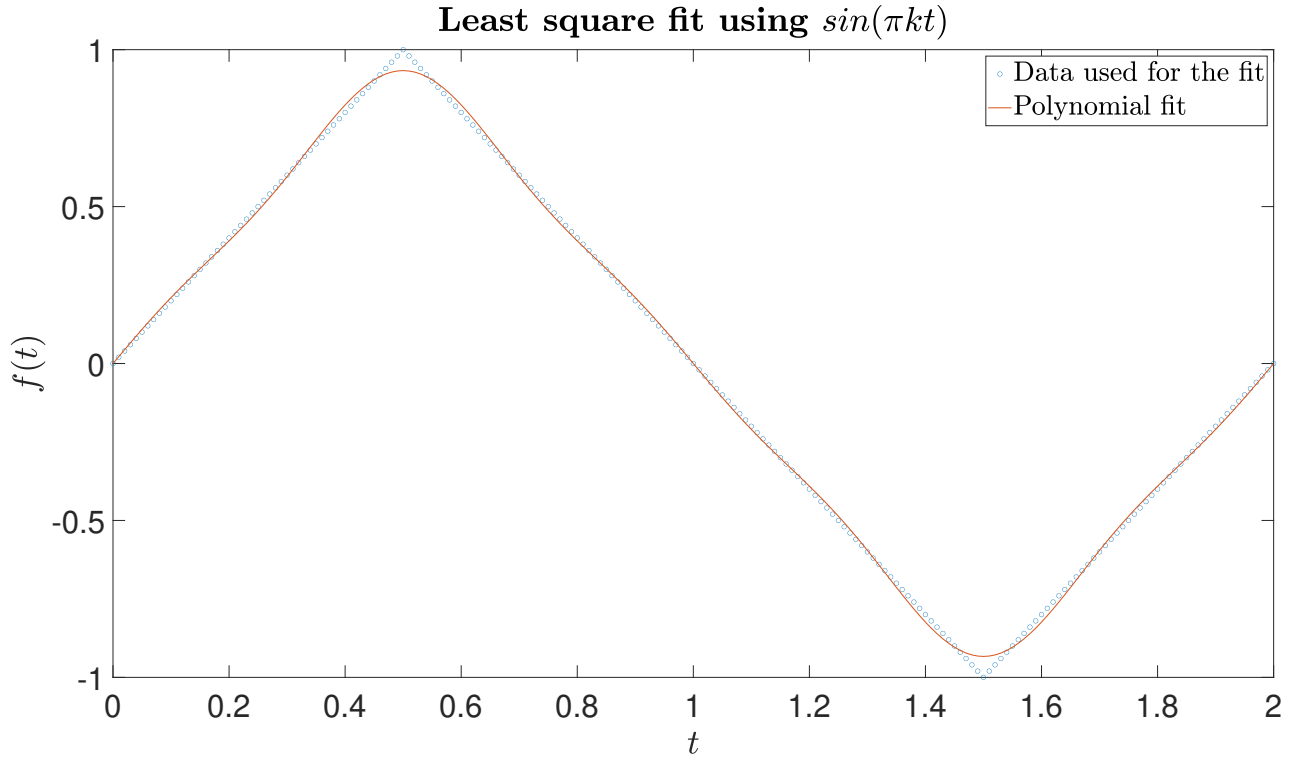


Figure 2: Goodness of Fit using  $\sin(\pi kt)$

From MATLAB, the polynomial  $\tilde{P}(t)$  and the computed coefficients of the fit are tabulated below:

Table 2: Coefficients of the Polynomial  $\tilde{P}(t)$

Coefficient	Value
$c_1$	0.8106
$c_2$	-3.7016e-17 $\approx 0$
$c_3$	-0.0901
$c_4$	3.6312e-17 $\approx 0$
$c_5$	0.0325

$$\tilde{P}(t) = c_1 \sin(\pi t) + c_2 \sin(\pi 2t) + c_3 \sin(\pi 3t) + c_4 \sin(\pi 4t) + c_5 \sin(\pi 5t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{P}(t) = 0.8106 \sin(\pi t) - 0.0901 \sin(\pi 3t) + 0.0325 \sin(\pi 5t)$$

## Problem 5

From the plot of the data given, we notice the data can fit through an exponential function as well as a tangent function. Thus these two functions will be used and their respective polynomials are denoted below:

$$E(t) = a_0 + a_1 e^t + a_2 e^{t^2}$$

$$T(t) = t_0 + t_1 \tan(t) + t_2 \tan(t^2)$$

The plot of the data as well as the two fits is shown:

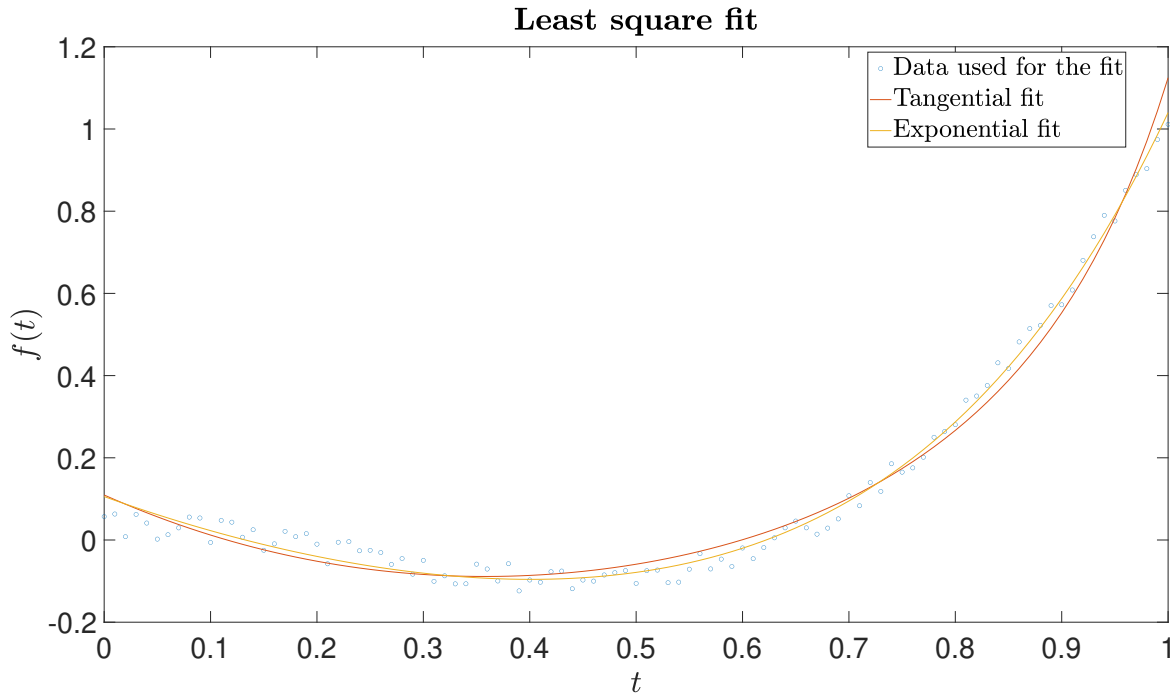


Figure 3: Goodness of Fit using  $\sin(\pi kt)$

From MATLAB, the polynomials  $E(t)$  and  $T(t)$  as well as the computed coefficients of each fit are tabulated below:

Table 3: Coefficients of Polynomials  $E(t)$  and  $T(t)$

Coefficients of $E(t)$	Value	Coefficients of $T(t)$	Value
$a_0$	-0.4379	$t_0$	0.1095
$a_1$	-0.9292	$t_1$	-1.1508
$a_2$	1.4729	$t_2$	1.8026

$$E(t) = -0.4379 - 0.9292e^t + 1.4729e^{t^2}$$

$$T(t) = 0.1095 - 1.1508 \tan(t) + 1.8026 \tan(t^2)$$

Now computing the derivative at  $t = 0.3$ , we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{E}(t) &= -0.9292e^t + 2 * 1.4729 * te^{t^2} \implies \dot{E}(0.3) = -0.2873 \\ \dot{T}(t) &= -1.1508 \sec^2(t) + 2 * 1.8026 * t \sec^2(t^2) \implies \dot{T}(0.3) = -0.1709\end{aligned}$$

## Problem 6

### DAVID LUENBERGER DEFINITION:

To show that the definition  $\langle x, y \rangle = x^T \bar{y}$  satisfies the definition of inner product proposed by David Luenberger, we show the following three properties:

- A.  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n, \langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$
- B.  $\forall x_1, x_2, y \in \mathbb{C}^n, \forall \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{C}, \langle \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2, y \rangle = \alpha_1 \langle x_1, y \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle x_2, y \rangle$
- C.  $\forall x \in \mathbb{C}^n, \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  and  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

### PROOF:

- A.  $\langle x, y \rangle = x^T \bar{y}$ , and  $\overline{\langle y, x \rangle} = \overline{y^T \bar{x}} = \bar{y}^T \bar{\bar{x}} = \bar{y}^T x = x^T \bar{y} = \langle x, y \rangle$
- B.  $\langle \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2, y \rangle = (\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2)^T \bar{y} = (\alpha_1^T x_1^T + \alpha_2^T x_2^T) \bar{y} = \alpha_1 x_1^T \bar{y} + \alpha_2 x_2^T \bar{y} = \alpha_1 \langle x_1, y \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle x_2, y \rangle$
- C.  $\langle x, x \rangle = x^T \bar{x} = [\alpha_1 + \beta_1 j \quad \alpha_2 + \beta_2 j \quad \dots \quad \alpha_n + \beta_n j] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 - \beta_1 j \\ \alpha_2 - \beta_2 j \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n - \beta_n j \end{bmatrix}$   
 $= (\alpha_1^2 + \beta_1^2) + (\alpha_2^2 + \beta_2^2) + \dots + (\alpha_n^2 + \beta_n^2) = \|x\|^2 \geq 0$  and  $(\alpha_1^2 + \beta_1^2) + (\alpha_2^2 + \beta_2^2) + \dots + (\alpha_n^2 + \beta_n^2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n = 0$

### NAGY DEFINITION:

To show that the definition  $\langle x, y \rangle = \bar{x}^T y$  satisfies the definition of inner product proposed by nagy, we show the following two properties  $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{C}^n$  and  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ :

- A.  $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$
- B.  $\langle x, (ay + bz) \rangle = a \langle x, y \rangle + b \langle x, z \rangle$
- C.  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  and  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

### PROOF:

- A.  $\langle x, y \rangle = \bar{x}^T y$  and  $\overline{\langle y, x \rangle} = \overline{y^T \bar{x}} = \bar{y}^T x = \bar{x}^T y = \langle x, y \rangle$



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$$\text{B. } \langle x, (ay + bz) \rangle = \bar{x}^T(ay + bz) = a\bar{x}^T y + b\bar{x}^T z = a \langle x, y \rangle + b \langle x, z \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{C. } \langle x, x \rangle &= \bar{x}^T x \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 - \beta_1 j & \alpha_2 - \beta_2 j & \dots & \alpha_n - \beta_n j \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 + \beta_1 j \\ \alpha_2 + \beta_2 j \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n + \beta_n j \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (\alpha_1^2 + \beta_1^2) + (\alpha_2^2 + \beta_2^2) + \dots + (\alpha_n^2 + \beta_n^2) = \|x\|^2 \geq 0 \text{ and } (\alpha_1^2 + \beta_1^2) + (\alpha_2^2 + \beta_2^2) + \dots + (\alpha_n^2 + \beta_n^2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n = 0 \end{aligned}$$

## Problem 7

$$\begin{aligned} \langle p_0, p_3 \rangle &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{2}(5x^3 - 3x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{5}{4}x^4 - \frac{3}{2}x^2 \right]_{-1}^1 = \left( \frac{5}{8} - \frac{3}{4} \right) - \left( \frac{5}{8} - \frac{3}{4} \right) = 0 \\ \langle p_1, p_2 \rangle &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{2}(3x^3 - x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{3}{4}x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_{-1}^1 = \left( \frac{3}{8} - \frac{1}{4} \right) - \left( \frac{3}{8} - \frac{1}{4} \right) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

## Problem 8

### Part a

We will prove the statement by multiplying the matrix  $(A + BCD)$  by its inverse using the matrix inversion lemma and show that their product is the identity matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} P &= (A + BCD)(A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}) \\ &= (I - B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}) + (BCDA^{-1} - BCDA^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}) \\ &= (I + BCDA^{-1}) - (B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1} + BCDA^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}) \\ &= I + BCDA^{-1} - (B + BCDA^{-1}B)(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1} \\ &= I + BCDA^{-1} - BC(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1} \\ &= I + BCDA^{-1} - BCDA^{-1} \\ &= I \end{aligned}$$

### Part b

We have:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad C = 0.2 \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

With:

$$C^{-1} = \frac{1}{0.2} = 5 \quad \text{and} \quad A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus we can find the inverse using the matrix inversion lemma:

$$(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \\ &\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \{5 + [1 \ 0 \ 2 \ 0 \ 3] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}\}^{-1} [1 \ 0 \ 2 \ 0 \ 3] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \{5 + [1 \ 0 \ 2 \ 0 \ 3] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}\}^{-1} [1 \ 0 \ 4 \ 0 \ 6] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \{5 + 27\}^{-1} [1 \ 0 \ 4 \ 0 \ 6] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{32} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} [1 \ 0 \ 4 \ 0 \ 6] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{32} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 16 & 0 & 24 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 0 & 24 & 0 & 36 \end{bmatrix} = \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 31/32 & 0 & -1/8 & 0 & -3/16 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1/8 & 0 & 3/2 & 0 & -3/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -3/16 & 0 & -3/4 & 0 & 7/8 \end{bmatrix}} = (A + BCD)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

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## Problem 9

### Part a

To check whether  $f(x) = (x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is a norm, we check if the properties of the norm are satisfied for  $f(x)$  as follows:

A.  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \|x\| \geq 0$  and  $\|x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

B.  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2, \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$

C.  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|x\|$

### PROOF:

A. Since  $A$  is a positive definite matrix, then  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2 - \{0\}, x^T Ax > 0$ , thus  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2 - \{0\}, f(x) > 0$  and  $f(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

B.  $\|x + y\|^2 = f(x + y)^2 = ((x + y)^T A(x + y)) = (x^T Ax + y^T Ay + x^T Ay + y^T Ax)$ . Since  $A$  is symmetric positive definite, then  $x^T Ay = y^T Ax$ . Thus:

$$\|x + y\|^2 = (x^T Ax + y^T Ay + 2x^T Ay)$$

Now:

$$(\|x\| + \|y\|)^2 = x^T Ax + y^T Ay + 2(x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}}(y^T Ay)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

From the properties of a symmetric positive definite matrix  $A$ , we use the Cholesky decomposition on  $A$  with  $S$  a lower triangular matrix whose diagonal elements are positive:

$$\exists! S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad A = SS^T$$

Then we can write:

$$x^T Ay = x^T SS^T y = (S^T x)^T (S^T y)$$

Invoking the Cauchy Schwarz Inequality since every inner product induces a norm, we get:

$$|(S^T x)^T (S^T y)| \leq \|S^T x\| \cdot \|S^T y\|$$

Where:

$$\|S^T x\| = (x^T SSx)^{\frac{1}{2}} = (x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \|S^T y\| = (y^T SSy)^{\frac{1}{2}} = (y^T Ay)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Then:

$$|x^T Ay| \leq (x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}} (y^T Ay)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Comparing (B) and (B), we can see that the triangular inequality holds for  $f(x)$ .

C.

$$\|\alpha x\| = f(\alpha x) = ((\alpha x)^T A(\alpha x))^{\frac{1}{2}} = (\alpha x^T A \alpha x)^{\frac{1}{2}} = (\alpha^2 x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\alpha| (x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\alpha| \cdot \|x\|$$

Thus, we have shown that  $f(x) = (x^T Ax)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is a norm in  $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R})$ .

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## Part b

### ONE-NORM:

For  $A = [A_1|A_2|\dots|A_n]$  where  $A_i$  are the column vectors of  $A$ , and  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]^T$ , we have:

$$f_1(A) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1$$

Where:

$$\|Ax\|_1 = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & A_2 & \dots & A_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \right\|_1 = \|A_1x_1 + A_2x_2 + \dots + A_nx_n\|_1$$

Applying the triangular inequality, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \|Ax\|_1 &\leq \|A_1x_1\|_1 + \|A_2x_2\|_1 + \dots + \|A_nx_n\|_1 \\ \|Ax\|_1 &\leq \|A_1\|_1 \cdot |x_1| + \|A_2\|_1 \cdot |x_2| + \dots + \|A_n\|_1 \cdot |x_n| \end{aligned}$$

We define:

$$\begin{aligned} A^* &= \operatorname{argmax} A \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{j=1,\dots,n} [A_1|A_2|\dots|A_n] \end{aligned}$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1 &\leq \|A^*\|_1 \cdot |x_1| + \|A^*\|_1 \cdot |x_2| + \dots + \|A^*\|_1 \cdot |x_n| \\ \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1 &\leq \|A^*\|_1 (|x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|) \\ \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1 &\leq \|A^*\|_1 \|x\|_1 \\ \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1 &\leq \|A^*\|_1 \end{aligned}$$

Where:

$$\|A^*\|_1 = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} a_1^* \\ a_2^* \\ \vdots \\ a_n^* \end{bmatrix} \right\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i^*|$$

This means, that the supremum of the one-norm of  $Ax$  is equal to the one-norm of the column vector  $A^*$  of  $A$  whose one-norm is the greatest, i.e. the sum of the absolute values of its elements  $|a_i^*|$ . We can thus write:

$$\boxed{f_1(A) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1 = \max_{A_1 \leq A^* \leq A_n} \|A^*\|_1 = \max_{A_1 \leq A^* \leq A_n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i^*| \quad \square}$$

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### $\infty$ -NORM:

For  $A = [A_1|A_2|\dots|A_n]^T$  where  $A_i$  are the row vectors of  $A$ , and  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]^T$ , we have:

$$f_1(A) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_\infty=1} \|Ax\|_\infty$$

Where:

$$\|Ax\|_\infty = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ \dots \\ A_n \end{bmatrix} x \right\|_\infty = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} A_1 x \\ A_2 x \\ \dots \\ A_n x \end{bmatrix} \right\|_\infty$$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} \|Ax\|_\infty &= \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |A_i x| \\ \|Ax\|_\infty &= \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} x_j \right| \\ \|Ax\|_\infty &= \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{i,j}| \cdot |x_j| \\ \|Ax\|_\infty &\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{i,j}| \max_k |x_k| \\ \|Ax\|_\infty &\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{i,j}| \cdot \|x\|_\infty \end{aligned}$$

We can then write:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_\infty=1} \|Ax\|_\infty &\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{i,j}| \cdot \|x\|_\infty \\ \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_\infty=1} \|Ax\|_\infty &\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{i,j}| \end{aligned}$$

This means, that the supremum of the  $\infty$ -norm of  $Ax$  is equal to the one-norm of the row vector of  $A$  whose one-norm is the greatest, i.e. the sum of the absolute values of its elements  $|a_{i,j}|$ . We can write:

$$f_1(A) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \|x\|_\infty=1} \|Ax\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{i,j}| \quad \square$$