# ELEC 405 - Homework 1

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1. Sampling and Matrix Notation

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , ie.  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]$ 

1. Let  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}^{2n-1}$  and

$$y_k = \begin{cases} x_{\frac{k+1}{2}} & \text{if k is odd} \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$
 (1)

for  $k = 1, \dots, 2n - 1$  and  $y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \dots & y_{2n-1} \end{bmatrix}^T$ .

Answer:  $y^T$  is of the form  $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 0 & x_2 & 0 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix}$ . So,  $A \in \mathcal{R}^{2n-1 \times n}$  and it should be of the

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if i is odd and } j = \frac{i+1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (2)

2. Assume n is even and  $y \in \mathcal{R}^{\frac{n}{2}}$ . Define  $y_k = x_{2k}$  for  $k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2}$ . Answer:  $A \in \mathcal{R}^{\frac{n}{2} \times n}$  and

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = 2 \times i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (3)

3. Assume n is even and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^{\frac{n}{2}}$ . Define  $y_k = \frac{x_{2k} + x_{2k-1}}{2}$  for  $k = 1, \dots, \frac{n}{2}$ . Answer:  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{\frac{n}{2} \times n}$  and

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } j = 2 \times i \text{ or } j = 2 \times i - 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

### 2. Vector Space of Polynomials

Let  $\mathcal{P}_{n-1}$  represent the vectors space of polynomials with degree less than or equal to n-1. Therefore, each element in this vector space can be written as

$$p(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots + c_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$
(5)

Answer: 
$$b = \frac{dp(x)}{dx}$$
,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  and then  $b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \times c_1 & 2 \times c_2 & \dots & (n-1) \times c_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}^T$ . Then  $b = Ha$ 

 $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1 \times n}$  and

$$H_{ij} = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } i = j+1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & \cdots & & \\ & & & n-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 3. Affine functions
  - 1. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha + \beta = 1$ .

$$f(\alpha x + \beta y) = A(\alpha x + \beta y) + b$$

$$= \alpha Ax + \beta Ay + \alpha b + (1 - \alpha)b$$

$$= \alpha Ax + \beta Ay + \alpha b + \beta b$$

$$= \alpha (Ax + b) + \beta (Ax + b)$$

$$= \alpha f(x) + \beta f(y)$$

- 2. Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and be an affine function and  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  such that g(x) = f(x) f(0). We will show that g(x) is linear. For a function to be linear, it must satisfy two properties: additivity and homogeneity.
  - Homogeneity:  $g(\alpha x) = \alpha g(x)$

$$g(\alpha x) = f(\alpha x) - f(0)$$

$$= f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)0) - f(0)$$

$$= \alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(0) - f(0)$$

$$= \alpha (f(x) - f(0))$$

$$= \alpha g(x)$$
(6)

Eq (6) follows from the fact that f is affine. Therefore, g satisfies the homogeneity property.

• **Addivity:** g(x + y) = g(x) + g(y)

$$g(x+y) = f(x+y) - f(0)$$

$$= f(\frac{1}{2}(2x) + \frac{1}{2}(2y)) - f(0)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(f(2x) - f(0)) + \frac{1}{2}(f(2y) - f(0))$$
(7)

$$= \frac{1}{2}g(2x) + \frac{1}{2}g(2y)$$

$$= g(x) + g(y)$$
(8)

Eq (7) follows from the fact that f is affine. Eq(8) uses the homogeneity property of g proved earlier.

Therefore, g is linear, in other words  $\exists A \in \mathcal{R}^{m \times n}$  such that g(x) = Ax for any  $x \in \mathcal{R}^n$ . Then f(x) can be rewritten as

$$f(x) = q(x) + f(0) = Ax + b$$

where b = f(0) and  $b \in \mathcal{R}$ .

- 4. Yet Another Proof of Cauchy-Schwarz...
  - 1. Let  $a \geq 0, c \geq 0$  and  $\forall \lambda \in \mathcal{R}, a + 2b\lambda + c\lambda^2 \geq 0$ . Let  $f: \mathcal{R} \to \mathcal{R}$  and  $f(\lambda) = a + 2b\lambda + c\lambda^2$ . For f to be  $\geq 0$  for all  $\lambda \in \mathcal{R}$ , f should have one or zero real roots otherwise we can find  $\lambda' \in \mathcal{R}$  such that  $f(\lambda') < 0$  (Easy to visualize geometrically). So, the determinant  $\Delta$  should be  $\leq 0$ .

$$\Delta = (2b)^2 - 4ac \le 0$$

$$b^2 \le ac$$

$$|b| \le \sqrt{ac}$$
(9)

- (9) holds because  $a, c \ge 0$ .
- 2. Given  $u, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , explain why  $(u + \lambda w)^T (u + \lambda w) \ge 0 \ \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$(u + \lambda w)^{T}(u + \lambda w) = \langle u + \lambda w, u + \lambda w \rangle$$

$$= \langle u, u + \lambda w \rangle + \langle \lambda w, u + \lambda w \rangle$$

$$= \langle u, u \rangle + \langle u, \lambda w \rangle + \langle \lambda w, u \rangle + \langle \lambda w, \lambda w \rangle$$

$$= ||u||^{2} + 2\lambda u^{T} w + \lambda^{2} ||w||^{2}$$

$$= (u + \lambda w)^{2}$$

$$\geq 0$$

$$(10)$$

- (10) and previous ones follow from the properties of inner products.
- 3. Eq (10) is of the form of quadratic equation in the first part. Namely, here  $a = ||u||^2$ ,  $c = ||w||^2$  and  $b = \langle u, w \rangle a$ ,  $c \ge 0$  for any  $\lambda \in \mathcal{R}$ . Then by the first part, we know that  $|b| \le \sqrt{ac}$  so

$$|u^T w| \le \sqrt{\|u\|^2 \|w\|^2}$$

$$\le \sqrt{u^T u} \times \sqrt{w^T w}$$
(11)

- (11) follows from the fact that  $||u||^2 = \langle u, u \rangle = u^T u$ .
- 5. Inequality Proof

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and x = a + b, y = -b by triangle inequality

$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$$
$$||a|| \le ||a + b|| + || - b||$$
$$||a|| - ||b|| \le ||a + b||$$

6. First steps in multivariable quadratic functions

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 2x_1^2 + 3x_1x_3 - 2x_3x_2 - x_2^2 + 4x_3^2$$

can be written of the form  $x^TAx$  and A is not unique because of the non-zero  $x_{ij}$  terms. As long as  $A_{ij}+A_{ji}$  equals to the coefficient of  $x_i\times x_j$ . Two possible choices of A is  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$  and its

transpose  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$ 

7. On Gradients....

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable multivariate function.

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (12)

Find the explicit gradients of the following fuunctions

1. 
$$f(x) = a^T x + b$$
 for some  $a \in \mathcal{R}^n, b \in \mathcal{R}$ .  
 $\nabla f(x) = a$  because  $f(x) = a_1 x_1 + x_2 x_2 + \dots a_n x_n + b$  so  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = a_i$ .

2. 
$$f(x) = x^T A x$$
 for some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ .  
 $\nabla f(x) = (A + A^T) x$  because  $f(x) = x^T A x$  equivalently

$$f(x) = x^{T} A x$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{i} A_{ij} x_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} A_{i1} x_{1} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{1} A_{1j} x_{j} + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \sum_{j=2}^{n} x_{i} A_{ij} x_{j}$$
(13)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i A_{i1} + \sum_{j=1}^n A_{1j} x_j \tag{14}$$

Let 
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1^T \\ a_2^T \\ \vdots \\ a_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 where  $a_i, b_i \in \mathcal{R}^n$ . Then (14) can be rewritten of

the form  $x^Tb_1 + x^Ta_1$ . Note that  $x^Tb_1$  corresponds to the first row of  $A^Tx$  so  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = (A_i + A_i^T)x_i^T$ 

8. What is a homework without a computational part?....

$$f(x) = x^T A x \Rightarrow \nabla f(x) = 2Ax$$
, because A is symmetric.

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In [5]: using LinearAlgebra
using Plots
```

# 8. Affine Approximation

$$a(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$$
(7)

is an affine approximation of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  around  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .

Note that this affine function defines an hyperplane in  $\Re^{n+1}$  in the standard form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}^T \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ a(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0 \\ f(\mathbf{x}_0) \end{bmatrix} \right) = 0.$$
 (8)

Now consider the function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \tag{9}$$

defined over  $\Re^2$ , where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.01 & 0.001 \\ 0.001 & 0.01 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{10}$$

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```
In [7]: function draw_hyperplane_3D_modified(a, b, camera=(60, 45))
               pyplot()
             x=range(-50, stop=50, length=100)
             y=range(-50, stop=50, length=100)
             g(x, y) = (dot(a, b) - dot(a[1: 2], [x; y]))/a[3]
             plot!(x, y, g,
label="$(a)'(x-$(b))=0",
                 xlabel="x_1", ylabel="x_2", zlabel="x_3",
st=:surface, camera=camera)
             # # plot the normal vector, since b is on the plane plot the vector b to b+a
             a_x1 = range(b[1], stop=(b[1]+15*a[1]), length=100)
             a_x^2 = range(b[2], stop=(b[2]+15*a[2]), length=100)
             a_x3 = range(b[3], stop=(b[3]+15*a[3]), length=100)
             plot!(a_x1, a_x2, a_x3, label="a")
         function draw_hyperplane_3D(a, b, p, camera=(60, 45))
             pyplot()
             x=range(-2, stop=2, length=100)
y=range(-2, stop=2, length=100)
             g(x, y) = (dot(a, b) - dot(a[1: 2], [x; y]))/a[3]
             label="(a)'(x-$(b))=0",
                 xlabel="x_1", ylabel="x_2", zlabel="x_3",
xlims= (-2, 2), ylims=(-2, 2), zlims=(-2, 2),
                  st=:surface, camera=camera)
             # plot the normal vector, since b is on the plane plot the vector b to b+a
             a_x1 = range(b[1], stop=(b[1]+a[1]), length=100)
             a_x2 = range(b[2], stop=(b[2]+a[2]), length=100)
             a_x3 = range(b[3], stop=(b[3]+a[3]), length=100)
             plot!(a_x1, a_x2, a_x3, label="a")
         end
```

Out[7]: draw\_hyperplane\_3D (generic function with 2 methods)

Out[8]: nabla\_f (generic function with 1 method)

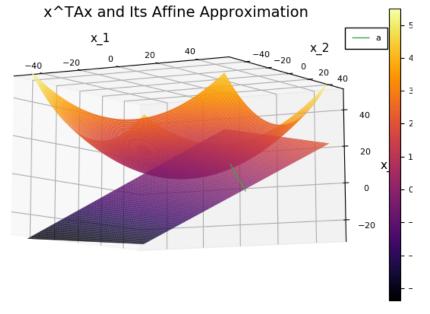
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Out[11]: X^TAX

40
20
0
-50
-25
x\_1
0
25
50
-50
-25
x\_2

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Out[12]:



In [ ]: