# Problem Set #3

Boot Camp 2018

Name: Zunda Xu

 $Email: \ zunda@uchicago.edu$ 

# Exercise 4.2.

# **Proof:**

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

.

Let  $\det(\lambda I - D) = 0$ 

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 0$$

 $\therefore$  Algebraic multiplicity is 3. The corresponding eigenvector is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

 $\therefore$ Geometric multiplicity is 1.

# Exercise 4.4.

# **Proof:**

(i) Let  $A=\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ , then  $A^H=A$  implies that  $b=\bar{c}$ . Recall that if  $z\in\mathbb{C}$ , then  $z\bar{z}=|z|^2\geq 0$ 

Now, 
$$p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + (ad-bc)$$
  
 $\Delta = (a+d)^2 - 4(ad-bc) = (a-d)^2 + 4b\bar{b} = (a-d)^2 + 4|b|^2 \ge 0$   
 $\Rightarrow$  Real roots.

(ii)

Suppose  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A where  $A^H=-A$ . x is the corresponding eigenvector.

Then, 
$$\langle Ax, x \rangle = \langle \lambda x, x \rangle = lam \bar{b} da \langle x, x \rangle$$
.  
Also,  $\langle Ax, x \rangle = \langle x, A^H x \rangle = \langle x, -Ax \rangle = -\langle x, \lambda x \rangle = -\lambda \langle x, x \rangle$ .  
So we have  $\bar{\lambda} = -\lambda$   
 $\Rightarrow \lambda$  is pure imagery.

#### Exercise 4.6.

# **Proof:**

Suppose A is an upper triangular matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & & * \\ & a_2 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the characteristic polynomial is

$$\det(zI - A) = \begin{vmatrix} z - a_1 & & * \\ & z - a_2 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & z - a_n \end{vmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^n (z - a_i) = 0$$

Note that this polynomial has n zeros, which are  $a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$  respectively.

The case of upper triangular matrix is the same.

# Exercise 4.8.

# **Proof:**

(i) Since V = span(s), it suffices to show that the four vectors are linearly independent.

Let  $a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) + c\sin(2x) + d\cos(2x) = 0$ ,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Let 
$$x = 0$$
:  $b + d = 0$ 

Let 
$$x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$
:  $a - d = 0$ 

Let 
$$x = \pi$$
:  $-b + d = 0$ 

Let 
$$x = \frac{\pi}{4}$$
:  $a\sin(\frac{\pi}{4}) + b\cos(\frac{\pi}{4}) + c\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) + d\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 0$ 

From the above four conditions we can get a = 0, b = 0, c = 0, d = 0.

Since the only case that can let  $a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) + c\sin(2x) + d\cos(2x) = 0$ ,  $\forall x \in$ 

 $\mathbb{R}$ . is when a = b = c = d = 0,

 $\Rightarrow$  They are linearly independent.

(ii)

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(iii)

$$V_1 = \{\sin x, \cos x\}, V_2 = \{\sin 2x, \cos 2x\}$$

# Exercise 4.13.

# **Proof:**

To diagonalize A, we first need to find eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

$$p(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - 1.4\lambda + 0.4 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = \frac{2}{5}$$

And  $\Sigma_1 = span([2,1]^T), \Sigma_2 = span([1,-1]^T)$ 

So A is semisimple.

Let

$$p = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

,

then

$$p^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow D = p^{-1}Ap$$
.

# Exercise 4.15.

#### Proof:

Since  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  is semisimple, we can diagonalize  $A = pDp^{-1}$ , where Dd is diagonalized, and  $\{\lambda_i\}_{1}^n$  are the diagonal entries of D.

Now, 
$$f(A) = f(pDp^{-1})$$
  
 $= a_0I + a_1pDp^{-1} + \dots + a_npD^np^{-1}$   
 $= p[a_0I + a_1D + \dots + a_nD^n]p^{-1}$   
 $= pf(D)p^{-1}$ 

Observe that f(A) and f(D) are similar, so they have the same eigenvalues.

Also note that f(D) is also diagonal, so each entry along the diagonal is  $f(D)_{ii} = a_0 + a_1 d_{ii} + \cdots + a_n d_{ii}^n = f(d_{ii})$ , where  $D = [d_{ij}]_{ij}$ 

Hence, the eigenvalues of f(D) are just its diagonals, which are:

$$\{f(\lambda_1), f(\lambda_2), \dots, f(\lambda_n)\}\$$

# Exercise 4.16.

**Proof:** 

(i)

$$A = pD^{n}p_{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.4^{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \to \infty} A^n = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Let  $B = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$ , then it follows immediately from the definition of limit.

(ii)

The choice of norm does not affect the answer.

(iii)

Let  $f(x) = 3 + 5x + x^3$ , then the eigenvalues of f(A) are  $f(\lambda_1) = f(1) = 9$ ,  $f(\lambda_2) = f(0.4) = 5.064$ .

# Exercise 4.18.

# **Proof:**

Take  $\vec{y}$  an eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda$ . Then,

$$x^T A y = x^T \lambda y = (\lambda x^T y)$$

$$\Rightarrow x^TA = \lambda x^T$$

### Exercise 4.20.

#### **Proof:**

Let 
$$B = U^H A U$$
, then,

$$B^H = U^H A^H U = U^H A U = B$$
, since  $A^H = A$ 

# Exercise 4.28.

# **Proof:**

(i)

$$p(\vec{x}) = \frac{\langle x, Ax \rangle}{||x||^2}$$

Observe that the denominator is always a real number.

Hence to show that  $p(\vec{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $itsuffices to show that <math>\langle x, Ax \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Now 
$$\langle x,Ax\rangle=\langle A^H,x\rangle=-\langle Ax,x\rangle$$

Since by definition,  $\langle x, Ax \rangle = \bar{\langle Ax, x \rangle}$ , we have  $\langle Ax, x \rangle = \bar{\langle Ax, x \rangle} \in \mathbb{R}$ 

This implies

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow p(x) \in \mathbb{R}$$

(ii)

If 
$$A^H = -A$$
, then

$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle A^H, x \rangle = -\langle Ax, x \rangle$$

Also, 
$$\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle A\bar{x}, x \rangle$$

$$\therefore \langle A\bar{x}, x \rangle = -\langle Ax, x \rangle$$

This implies  $\langle x, Ax \rangle = \langle A\bar{x}, x \rangle \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R} \cup \{0\}$ 

Hence  $p(\vec{x}) = \frac{\langle x, Ax \rangle}{||x||^2}$  is pure imaginary number.

#### Exercise 4.25.

# **Proof:**

(i)

Since  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  is a normal matrix, its eigenspace  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  spans  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

Observe that  $\forall j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

$$(x_1x_1^H + x_2x_2^H + \dots + x_nx_n^H)x_j = x_1x_1^Hx_j + x_2x_2^Hx_j + \dots + x_nx_n^Hx_j = x_j$$

This holds for any j.

Since 
$$\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$$
 spans  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\forall \vec{v} = \mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\vec{v} = \sum a_i \vec{x}_i$ 

Let  $B = x_1 x_1^H + x_2 x_2^H + \dots + x_n x_n^H$ , then  $B\vec{v} = \sum a_i B\vec{x}_i = \sum a_i \vec{x}_i = \vec{v}$ .

Let  $\vec{v} = \vec{e_1}, \vec{e_2}, \dots, \vec{e_n}$  respective, then we get

$$Be_1 = e_1, Be_2 = e_2, \dots, Be_n = e_n$$

Hence B = I

(ii)

Since A is a normal matrix and  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  forms an orthonormal eigenbasis, A admits a diagonalization.

$$A = pDp - 1 = pDp^H$$
, where

$$p = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$p^{-1} = p^{H} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

, since p is an orthonormal matrix.

Hence,

$$A = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1^H \\ x_2^H \\ \vdots \\ x_n^H \end{bmatrix} = \sum \lambda_i x_i x_i^H$$

Exercise 4.27.

**Proof:** 

Suppose

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

By definition,  $\forall x, \quad x^H Ax > 0$ 

Now, let

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = e_i^{-1}$$

then

$$e_1^H A e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11} > 0$$

Similarly, let  $x = e_1, e_3, \dots, e_n$ 

we have  $a_{22} > 0, a_{33} > 0, \dots, a_{nn} > 0$ 

Here all diagonal elements are positive and real.

#### Exercise 4.28.

#### **Proof:**

First we introduce the following lemmas used in the proof.

- Lemma 1: The diagonals of a positive semi-definite matrix are greater than or equal to zero. (Proof similar to exercise 4.27)
- Lemma 2: tr(AB) = tr(BA) (Proof can be found in Problem Set 2)

• Lemma 3: If  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  is a positive semi-definite matrix,  $D \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  is a diagonal matrix with non-negative diagonals, then  $0 \leq tr(AD) \leq tr(A)tr(D)$ .

Proof. Suppose

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

,

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & & & \\ & d_{22} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & d_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

,

then 
$$tr(AD) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} d_i \ge 0$$
, since  $a_{ii} \ge 0$  and  $d_i \ge 0$  for  $\forall i$ 

$$tr(A)tr(D) = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii})(\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} d_i + \sum_{i \ne j} a_{ii} d_j \ge \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} d_i$$

$$\Rightarrow tr(A)tr(D) \ge tr(AD) \ge 0$$

Now since B is a positive semi-definite matrix, it admits a diagonalization s.t.  $B = PDP^{-1} = PDP^{H}, \text{ where }$ 

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is an orthonormal eigenbasis,

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & & & \\ & d_{22} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & d_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

is diagonal matrix with  $d_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i$ .

Then 
$$tr(AB) = tr(APDP^H) = tr(P^HAPD) \le tr(P^HAP)tr(D)$$
  
=  $tr(APP^H)tr(D) = tr(A)tr(D) = tr(A)tr(B)$ .  
Meanwhile,  $||AB||_F^2 = tr(AA^HBB^H) \le tr(AA^H) tr(BB^H) = ||A||_F ||B||_F^2$ , which makes  $||\cdot||_F$  a matrix norm.

# Exercise 4.31.

### **Proof:**

(i)

Suppose A has rank r, then  $A^HA$  is positive definite and has r distinct eigenvalues. Let  $s = \{\vec{v_1}, \vec{v_2}, \dots, \vec{v_n}\}$  be an orthonormal eigenspace of  $A^HA$ , and  $\{\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \dots, \sigma_n^2\}$  be the corresponding eigenvectors, where  $\sigma_1^2 \geq \sigma_2^2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n^2$ .

Since s spans  $\mathbb{F}^n$ ,  $\forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{F}^n$ , we have

$$\vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \vec{v_i}, c_I \in ]\mathbb{F}, \forall i, \text{ and}$$
  
$$||x||_2 = \sqrt{(\sum c_i v_i^T)(\sum c_i v_i)} = \sqrt{(\sum c_i^2)}$$

Hence if 
$$||x||_2 = 1$$
, then  $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2 = 1$ 

Now, observe that  $||Ax||_2^2 = \langle Ax, Ax \rangle = (Ax)^H Ax = x^H A^H Ax$ 

$$= (\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \vec{v_i}^H)(A^H A)(\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \vec{v_i})$$

$$= (\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \vec{v_i}^H) (\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i A^H A \vec{v_i}^H)$$

$$= (\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \vec{v_i}^H)(\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \sigma^2 \vec{v_i}^H) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i^2 \sigma^2$$
, where  $s = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ 

Note that when  $\sigma c_i^2 = 1$ , and  $\sigma_1^2 \ge \sigma_2^2 \ge \cdots \ge \sigma_n^2$ ,

$$\sum c_i^2 \sigma_i^2 \leq \sigma_1^2$$

Hence, 
$$||A||_2^2 = \sup_{||x||_2 = 1} ||Ax||_2^2 = \sigma_1^2$$
  
 $\Rightarrow ||A||_2 = \sigma_1$ 

(ii)

Since 
$$A = U\Sigma V^H$$

$$A^{-1} = (U\Sigma V^H)^{-1} = (V^H)^{-1}\Sigma^{-1}(U)^{-1} = V\Sigma^{-1}U^H$$

 $\Rightarrow$  This is still an SVD of  $A^{-1}$ 

And

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} & & \ddots \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma_n} & & \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e. The singular values of  $A^{-1}are \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \leq \cdots \leq \frac{1}{\sigma_n}$ 

By (i),  $||A^{-1}||_2$  is the largest singular value of  $A^{-1}$ , i.e.  $\frac{1}{\sigma_n}$ 

(iii)

Since  $A = U\Sigma V^H$ 

$$A^H = (V^H)^H \Sigma^H U^H = V \Sigma^H U = V \Sigma U$$

 $\Rightarrow A^H$  and A has the same singular values.

So 
$$||A^H||_2^2 = ||A||_2^2 = \sigma_1^2$$

 $(A^T)$  is just  $A^H$  restricted on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

So 
$$||A^T||_2^2 = ||A^H||_2^2$$

By the previous argument, we know that  $A^HA$  has an orthonormal eigenbasis  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ ,

and  $\forall ||x||_2 = 1$ ,

$$\left\|A^H A x\right\|_2 = \left\|A^H A \sum c_i v_i\right\|_2 = \sqrt{\left(\sum c_i \sigma_i^2 v_i^T\right)\left(\sum c_i \sigma_i^2 v_i\right)} = \sqrt{\sum c_i \sigma_i^4} \le \sigma_1^2$$

Hence 
$$\left\|A^HA\right\|_2=\sup_{\|x\|=1}\left\|A^HAx\right\|=\sigma_1^2$$

It follows that  $\|A^HA\|_2 = \|A\|_2^2 = \|A^H\|_2^2 = \|A^T\|_2^2 = \sigma_1^2$ 

(iv)

Lemma: Let Q be an orthonormal matrix, then  $||AQ||_2 = ||A||_2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S_1 = \{ ||AQ\vec{x}||, ||x||_2 = 1 \}$ ,  $S_2 = \{ ||Ax||, ||x||_2 = 1 \text{ Since Q is orthonormal,}$  so Q is also invertible.

$$\forall s_1 \in S_1, \exists x, ||x|| = 1, \quad s.t. ||AQx||_2 = s_1$$

Now, let 
$$y = Qx$$
, it follows that  $||Qx|| = ||y||_2 = 1$ 

Since orthonormal matrix preserves length,  $\|Ay\|_2 = \|AQx\|_2 = s_1 \in S_2$ 

i.e. 
$$S_1 \subset S_2$$

$$\forall s_2 \in S_2, \exists x, ||x||_2 = 1$$
 s.t.  $||Ax||_2 = s_2$ 

Now, let 
$$y = Q^{-1}x$$
, then  $||y||_2 = ||Q^{-1}x||_2 = 1$ 

Hence 
$$||AQy||_2 = ||AQQ^{-1}x||_2 = ||Ax||_2 = s_2 \in S_1$$

i.e. 
$$S_2 \subset S_1$$

$$|AQ|_2 = \sup S_1 = \sup S_2 = ||A||_2$$

Now  $\|UAV\|_2 = \|UA\|_2$  by lemma since V is an orthonormal matrix.

$$\begin{split} &\|UA\|_2 = \sup_{\|x\|_2 = 1} \sqrt{(UAx)^H (UAx)} = \sup_{\|x\|_2 = 1} \sqrt{x^H A^H U^H U Ax} \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_2 = 1} \sqrt{\langle Ax, Ax \rangle} = \|A\|_2 \end{split}$$

Hence, 
$$||UAV||_2 = ||UA||_2 = ||A||_2$$

# Exercise 4.32.

### **Proof:**

(i)

We need the following lemmas:

- lemma 1: if  $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ , then tr(AB) = tr(BA)
- lemma 2:  $||A||_p^2 = tr(A^T A)$

Proof. let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{m1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Observe that  $(A^T A)_{nm} = a_{1n}^2 + a_{2n}^2 + \dots + a_{mn}^2$ 

$$\Rightarrow tr(A^T A) = ||A||_p^2$$

Now, 
$$||UAV||_1^2 = tr((UAV)^T(UAV)) = tr(V^TA^TU^TUAV) = tr(V^TA^TAV) = tr(VV^TA^A) = tr(A^TA) = ||A||_1^2$$
  

$$\Rightarrow ||UAV||_2 = ||A||_2$$

(ii)

Observe that  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , with U and  $V^T$  orthonormal and

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_r & & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, 
$$\|A\|_p^2 = tr(A^TA) = tr((U\Sigma V)^T(U\Sigma V)) = tr(U\Sigma^TU^TU\Sigma V^T) = tr(U\Sigma^2V^T)$$
  
=  $tr(\Sigma^2) = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i^2$   
Hence  $\|A\|_p = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i^2}$ 

# Exercise 4.33.

### **Proof:**

Note that the  $Y^HAx$  will be a field element. Consider it as a linear map  $Y^HAx$ :  $\mathbb{F} \to \mathbb{F}$ , then the spectral norm of this map is:

$$||Y^H Ax||_2 = \sup_{f \in \mathbb{F}} \frac{||(Y^H Ax)f||_2}{||f||_2} = |Y^H Ax|$$

, where the first norm is spectral norm and the norm in fraction is the standard 2-norm.

### Exercise 4.36.

# **Proof:**

One example can be

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & -15 \\ -15 & 25 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A^T A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 - 50\lambda + 400 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 40, \lambda_2 = 10$$

Thus its singular value are  $s_1 = \sqrt{40}, s_2 = \sqrt{10}$ 

To calculate its eigenvalues,

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 - 9\lambda + 20 = 0$$

Thus its eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = 4, \lambda_2 = 5$ , which are different from its singular values.

### Exercise 4.38.

#### **Proof:**

(i) Suppose  $U\Sigma V^H$  is an SVD of A, then  $A^{\dagger} = V\Sigma^{-1}U^H$  $AA^{\dagger}A = (U\Sigma V^H)(V\Sigma^{-1}U^H)(U\Sigma V^H) = U\Sigma V^H = A$ 

(ii)

$$A^\dagger A A^\dagger = (V \Sigma^{-1} U^H) (U \Sigma V^H) (V \Sigma^{-1} U^H) = V \Sigma^{-1} U^H = A^\dagger$$

(iii)

$$(AA^\dagger)^H = ((U\Sigma V^H)(V\Sigma^{-1}U^H))^H = U\Sigma^{-1}V^HV\Sigma U^H = UU^H = AA^\dagger$$

(iv)

$$(A^\dagger A)^H = ((V\Sigma^{-1}U^H)(U\Sigma V^H))^H = V\Sigma U^H U\Sigma^{-1}V^H = VV^H = A^\dagger A$$

(v)

By prop (iii)  $\Rightarrow AA^{\dagger}$  is hermitian.

Also by prop (i),  $AA^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger} = AA^{\dagger} \Rightarrow AA^{\dagger}$  is idempotent.

Next we will check whether  $\mathcal{R}(AA^{\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(A)$ .

It is trivially  $\mathcal{R}(AA^{\dagger}) \subset \mathcal{R}(A)$ , and by  $\text{prop}(i) \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}(A) \subset \mathcal{R}(AA^{\dagger})$ 

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{R}(AA^{\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(A)$$

(vi)

By prop (iv)  $A^{\dagger}A$  is hermitian.

Also by prop (ii)  $A^{\dagger}AA^{\dagger}A = A^{\dagger}A \Rightarrow A^{\dagger}A$  is idempotent

Next we will check whether  $\mathcal{R}(A^{\dagger}A) = \mathcal{R}(A^{H})$ 

By prop (iv), 
$$AA^{\dagger} = (AA^{\dagger})^H = A^H(A^{\dagger})^H \implies \mathcal{R}(A^{\dagger}A) \subset \mathcal{R}(A^H)$$

Then we take the hermitian of both sides of prop (i),

we have 
$$(A^\dagger A)^H A^H = (A^\dagger A)^H A^H A^H \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^H) \subset \mathcal{R}(A^\dagger A)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{R}(A^{\dagger}A) = \mathcal{R}(A^H)$$