

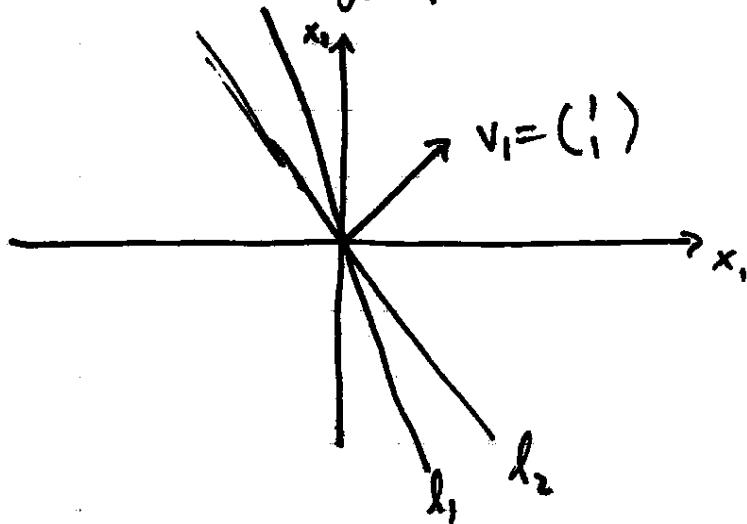
① The orthogonal set to $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} v_1^\perp &= \left\{ x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mid (1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mid 3x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \right\} = l_1 \end{aligned}$$

For the dot product, the set orthogonal to v_1 is

$$\begin{aligned} v_1^\perp &= \left\{ x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mid (1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ x \mid x_1 + x_2 = 0 \right\} = l_2 \end{aligned}$$

These are both hyperplanes in \mathbb{R}^2 :



For $v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, we perform similar computations to find for the new inner product

$$v_2^\perp = \left\{ x \mid (0 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \right\} = l_2 \text{ from above!}$$

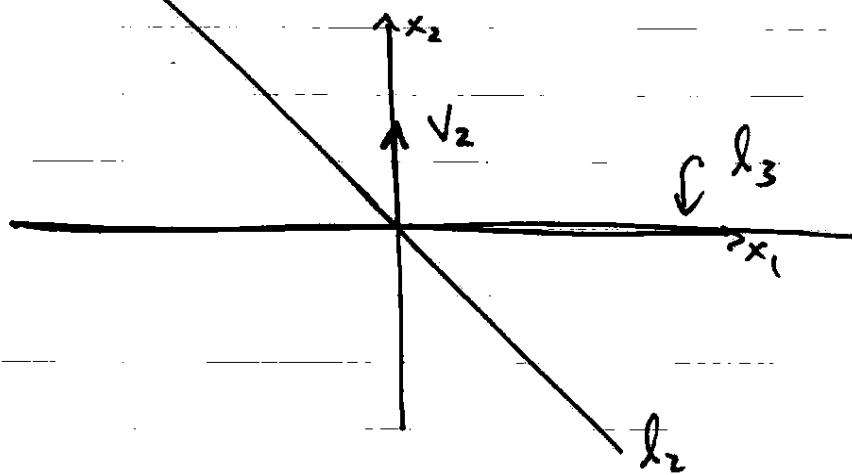
and for the dot product

$$\begin{aligned} v_2^\perp &= \left\{ x \mid (0 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \right\} = \left\{ x \mid x_2 = 0 \right\} = \text{x-axis!} \\ &= l_3 \end{aligned}$$

(2)

① (cont.)

So our picture is



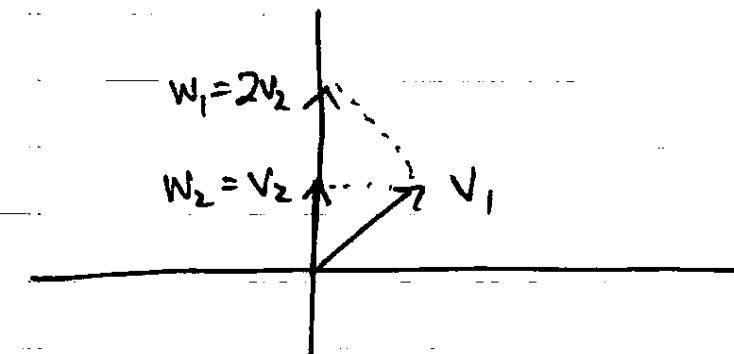
We can see from these pictures that the notions of orthogonal are quite different for these inner products.

For the new inner product, we compute

$$W_1 = \text{Pr}_{V_2}(V_1) = \frac{\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle}{\langle V_2, V_2 \rangle} V_2 = \frac{2}{1} V_2 = 2V_2$$

For the dot product

$$W_2 = \text{Pr}_{V_2}(V_1) = \frac{\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle}{\langle V_2, V_2 \rangle} V_2 = \frac{1}{1} V_2 = V_2$$



These projections
are quite
different!

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \begin{aligned} \text{(1)} \quad \text{tr}(A) &= 5 + (-4) + (-3) = -2 \\ \text{tr}(B) &= 4 + 3 + 1 + 2 = 10 \end{aligned}$$

(2) The matrices X and X^t have the same diagonal entries, so $\text{tr}(X) = \text{tr}(X^t)$

(3) Let $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$ be $n \times n$ matrices and let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(\alpha A + \beta B) &= \text{tr}(\alpha a_{ij} + \beta b_{ij}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha a_{ii} + \beta b_{ii}) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n b_{ii} = \alpha \text{tr}(A) + \beta \text{tr}(B) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\text{tr} : M_{nn}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a linear transformation.

(3) To see that the trace form defines an inner product we must check 3 properties:

(1) Symmetry, (2) bilinearity, (3) Positive definiteness

We take these in order:

(1) By exercise 2, $\text{tr}(X) = \text{tr}(X^t)$. Note that $A^t B = (B^t A)^t$. Thus

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{tr}(B^t A) = \text{tr}(A^t B) = \langle B, A \rangle.$$

(2) Since tr is a linear transformation, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha A_1 + \beta A_2, B \rangle &= \text{tr}(B^t (\alpha A_1 + \beta A_2)) \\ &= \text{tr}(\alpha B^t A_1 + \beta B^t A_2) \\ &= \alpha \text{tr}(B^t A_1) + \beta \text{tr}(B^t A_2) \\ &= \alpha \langle A_1, B \rangle + \beta \langle A_2, B \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

③ (cont.)

(3) Let $A = (a_{ij})$. Then $A^t = (b_{ij})$ where $b_{ij} = a_{ji}$

And we get $A^t A = (c_{ij})$ where $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} a_{kj}$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ki} a_{kj}$$

$$\text{thus } \text{tr}(A^t A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ki}^2.$$

As a sum of squares it is certainly non-negative. And it equals zero exactly when each $a_{ik} = 0$, i.e. when $A = 0$.

It follows from this last computation that

$$\|A\| = \sqrt{\langle A, A \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} a_{ij}^2}$$

To see that $B = \{(1 \ 0), (0 \ 1), (0 \ 0), (1 \ 1)\}$ is an orthonormal basis, we just compute

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}((1 \ 0)^t (1 \ 0)) &= 1 = \text{tr}((0 \ 1)^t (0 \ 1)) = \text{tr}((1 \ 0)^t (1 \ 0)) \\ &= \text{tr}((0 \ 1)^t (0 \ 1)) \end{aligned}$$

so all vectors have norm one, and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}((1 \ 0)^t (0 \ 1)) &= 0 = \text{tr}((0 \ 1)^t (1 \ 0)) = \text{tr}((1 \ 0)(0 \ 1)) \\ &= \text{tr}((0 \ 1)^t (0 \ 0)) = \text{tr}((0 \ 1)^t (0 \ 0)) \\ &= \text{tr}((1 \ 0)^t (0 \ 0)) \end{aligned}$$

so the set B is orthogonal.

④ We begin with the vectors

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

first we make an orthogonal set

$$w_1 = v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \langle w_1, w_1 \rangle = 1+0+1+2 = 6$$

$$\|w_1\| = \sqrt{6}$$

$$w_2 = v_2 - \frac{\langle v_2, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{4}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{9} + 1 + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{12}{9} = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$w_3 = v_3 - \frac{\langle v_3, w_2 \rangle}{\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle} w_2 - \frac{\langle v_3, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{2/3}{4/3} \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{11}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{11}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \langle w_3, w_3 \rangle = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + 0 + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{6}{4} = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\|w_3\| = \sqrt{3/2}$$

$$w_4 = v_4 - \frac{\langle v_4, w_3 \rangle}{\langle w_3, w_3 \rangle} w_3 - \frac{\langle v_4, w_2 \rangle}{\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle} w_2 - \frac{\langle v_4, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{(-3/2)}{3/2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{2}{4/3} \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{(-9)}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1 \\ 1/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{oops})$$

(4) (cont.)

To get an orthonormal basis, we divide these vectors by their lengths. The only one yet to compute is

$$\langle w_4, w_4 \rangle = 1 + 1 + 9 + 1 = 12, \quad \|w_4\| = \sqrt{12}$$

so our orthonormal basis is

$$u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{12} \\ 1/\sqrt{12} \\ -1/\sqrt{12} \\ -1/\sqrt{12} \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_4 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} \\ -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_4 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{12} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{12} \\ -\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{12} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{12} \end{pmatrix}$$

(5) To do this problem: One way is to pick any basis v_1, \dots, v_n of \mathbb{R}^n , then apply Gramm-Schmidt to produce an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n . By the theorem from class on Monday, the matrix with these vectors as its columns is orthogonal!

There are lots of possible answers, and they can be checked by computing that $X^T X = I$.

for example, a 4×4 matrix can be made by the last problem.

Cleaned up \rightarrow

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{12} & -2/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{12} \\ 0 & 3/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{12} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{12} & 0 & -3/\sqrt{12} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{12} & 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{12} \end{pmatrix}$$

is orthogonal.

⑥ (1) Let $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis of V .

We apply Gramm-Schmidt to produce an orthogonal basis $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\} = B'$.

$$w_1 = v_1$$

$$w_2 = v_2 - c_{21}w_1$$

$$w_3 = v_3 - c_{32}w_2 - c_{31}w_1$$

:

$$w_n = v_n - c_{nn-1}w_{n-1} - \dots - c_{n1}w_1$$

the c_{ij} 's are
scalars...

Two ways from here:

II bring the w_i terms on the right over to the left! Obtain

$$v_1 = w_1$$

$$v_2 = c_{21}w_1 + w_2$$

$$v_3 = c_{31}w_1 + c_{32}w_2 + w_3$$

:

$$v_n = c_{n1}w_1 + c_{n2}w_2 + \dots + w_n$$

The change of basis matrix from B' to B is the transpose of this array. Call it Q .

Clearly, Q is upper triangular.

Now, the change of basis matrix from B to B' is $P = Q^{-1}$, and the inverse of an upper triangular matrix is upper triangular (can you prove that?) so we're done

⑥ (cont.)

- 2 Use the upper equations to substitute into lower equations in the Gramm-Schmidt equations to see that for some other scalars a_{ij}

$$w_1 = v_1$$

$$w_2 = a_{21}v_1 + v_2$$

$$w_3 = a_{31}v_1 + a_{32}v_2 + v_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$w_n = a_{n1}v_1 + \cdots + v_n$$

This exhibits the change of basis matrix from B to B' as the transpose P of this array, which is clearly upper triangular.

- (2) First note that in (1) we could have also normalized our vectors w_i to have an orthonormal basis, and though this changes the actual coefficients it doesn't change the triangularity. So we may assume (1) with B' an onb.

Let $A = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ be invertible. Then the columns v_1, \dots, v_n are a basis. By (1), there is an onb w_1, \dots, w_n of \mathbb{R}^n such that the change of basis P from v 's to w 's is upper triangular. Recall, $v_i = Pw_i$ by the change of basis theorem. Now we have $A = (v_1, \dots, v_n) = (Pw_1, \dots, Pw_n) = P(w_1, \dots, w_n) = PK$ where $K = (w_1, \dots, w_n)$ has orthonormal columns and is hence orthogonal.