

SOLUTIONS for Homework 12

Ex 12.1 (Diagonalizability)

- a. Let A be a 3×3 matrix satisfying $A^3 = I_3$. Answer the following two questions: (i) What is the dimension of $\text{Ker}(A)$? (ii) Is 0 an eigenvalue of A ?
- b. Let A be a 3×3 with characteristic polynomial equal to $\chi_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - 1)^2(\lambda + 1)$. Which of the following statements is true?
- ☐ A must be diagonalizable.
 - ☐ $\sigma(A) = \{-1, 1\}$
 - ☐ A cannot be diagonalizable.
 - ☐ In case A is diagonalizable, then there exist linearly independent vectors $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ each satisfying $Av_i = -v_i$.

Solution:

- a. Correct answer: $\dim \text{Ker} A = 0$ and 0 is not an eigenvalue of A .

Reason: If 0 were an eigenvalue of A , then there exists $v \neq 0$ so that $Av = 0$. But then $A^3v = 0$ and hence $I_3v = 0$. This implies that $v = 0$. A contradiction. By the same argument $Av \neq 0$ for $v \neq 0$. Therefore, $\text{Ker}(A) = \{0\}$ and hence $\dim \text{Ker}(A) = 0$.

- b. The only correct response $\sigma(A) = \{-1, 1\}$.

Reason: A having the characteristic polynomial $\chi_A(\lambda) = (\lambda - 1)^2(\lambda + 1)$ only tells us its eigenvalues and it does not tell us the dimension of the corresponding eigenspace to 1. So, as A is diagonalizable if and only if the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue 1 must have dimension 2, by simply finding examples for which this is *and* is not the case, we've shown that the first and third statements are false. An example of this holding is simply the diagonal matrix with diagonals 1, 1, -1 while an example of where this does not hold is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Finally, the last statement holds only if the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue -1 has dimension 2. However, this is not possible as the algebraic multiplicity of -1 is 1 and so, the dimension of the eigenspace is 1.

Ex 12.2 (Inner product calculations)

Let

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Calculate $u \cdot u$, $v \cdot v$, $u \cdot v$, $\|u\|$, and $\|v\|$.
- Normalize u and v (i.e., find a unit vector with the same direction).
- Find the distance between u and v , and find the cosine of the angle between them.
- Find a basis of the space orthogonal to the plane spanned by u and v .

Solution:

a)

$$\begin{aligned} u \cdot u &= 3 \cdot 3 + (-1) \cdot (-1) + 5 \cdot 5 = 35 \\ v \cdot v &= 6 \cdot 6 + (-2) \cdot (-2) + 3 \cdot 3 = 49 \\ u \cdot v &= 3 \cdot 6 + (-1) \cdot (-2) + 5 \cdot 3 = 35 \\ \|u\| &= \sqrt{u \cdot u} = \sqrt{35}, \quad \|v\| = \sqrt{v \cdot v} = \sqrt{49} = 7 \end{aligned}$$

b)

$$\frac{u}{\|u\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{35}} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{v}{\|v\|} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

c) The distance can be computed by

$$\|u - v\| = \sqrt{(3 - 6)^2 + (-1 - (-2))^2 + (5 - 3)^2} = \sqrt{9 + 1 + 4} = \sqrt{14}$$

We can compute the angle using $u \cdot v = \|u\| \|v\| \cos(\alpha(u, v))$ as follows:

$$\cos(\alpha(u, v)) = \frac{u \cdot v}{\|u\| \|v\|} = \frac{35}{\sqrt{35} \sqrt{49}} = \frac{\sqrt{35}}{7} \left(= \sqrt{\frac{5}{7}} \right).$$

d) Note that the space orthogonal to $\text{Span}(u, v)$ is a line, i.e., one-dimensional, so any non-zero vector that is orthogonal to u and v will form a basis. Let

$$w = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

be such a vector, meaning that $u \cdot w = 0$ and $v \cdot w = 0$. This yields a linear system

$$\begin{aligned} 3a - b + 5c &= 0 \\ 6a - 2b + 3c &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

A non-trivial solution of this system is given by

$$w = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since we are in the 3-dimensional case, we could also use the cross product (not part of the course): From two vectors u and v this product yields a third vector $u \times v$ that is orthogonal to both u and v , and has length $\|u \times v\| = \|u\| \|v\| \sin(u, v)$. Hence in this case

$$u \times v = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 21 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

gives another basis of the orthogonal space.

Ex 12.3 (An orthogonal basis)

Let

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \quad u = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Show that $\mathcal{B}$ is an orthogonal basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$ and determine $[u]_{\mathcal{B}}$ and $[v]_{\mathcal{B}}$, i.e. represent them in the basis $\mathcal{B}$.

Solution:

To see that it is an orthogonal set, take the inner product of every pair and check that you get 0. As seen in the lecture, this already implies that $\mathcal{B}$ is an independent set, and 3 independent vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ are always a basis.

To represent a vector in an orthogonal basis, we don't have to do a row reduction like for other bases, because the orthogonality lets us use simple formulas:

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \frac{u \cdot b_1}{b_1 \cdot b_1} b_1 + \frac{u \cdot b_2}{b_2 \cdot b_2} b_2 + \frac{u \cdot b_3}{b_3 \cdot b_3} b_3 = \frac{-1}{2} b_1 + \frac{17}{3} b_2 + \frac{-13}{6} b_3 \\ &\implies [u]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ 17/3 \\ -13/6 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 34 \\ -13 \end{pmatrix} \\ v &= \frac{v \cdot b_1}{b_1 \cdot b_1} b_1 + \frac{v \cdot b_2}{b_2 \cdot b_2} b_2 + \frac{v \cdot b_3}{b_3 \cdot b_3} b_3 = \frac{5}{2} b_1 + \frac{2}{3} b_2 + \frac{-1}{6} b_3 \\ &\implies [v]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 5/2 \\ 2/3 \\ -1/6 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 15 \\ 4 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Ex 12.4 (Another orthogonal basis)

Consider the vectors

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad w = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Show that $\{u, v, w\}$ is an orthogonal basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
- Write the vector x as a linear combination of u , v and w .

Solution:

- We check that $u \cdot v = u \cdot w = v \cdot w = 0$, thus $\{u, v, w\}$ is an orthogonal basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
- We find

$$x = \frac{x \cdot u}{u \cdot u} u + \frac{x \cdot v}{v \cdot v} v + \frac{x \cdot w}{w \cdot w} w = \frac{4}{3} u + \frac{1}{3} v + \frac{1}{3} w.$$

Ex 12.5 (Properties of the orthogonal complement)

Let $W \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subspace and $W^\perp$ be its orthogonal complement. Show the following statements:

- Lemma 6.2:

- (i) $W^\perp$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. Moreover, $W \cap W^\perp = \{0\}$.
- (ii) If $\mathcal{B}$ spans W , then $W^\perp = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^n : z \cdot b = 0 \quad \forall b \in \mathcal{B}\}$.

- Theorem 6.4: $\dim(W^\perp) = n - \dim(W)$.

Hint: Let $b_1, \dots, b_k$ be a basis of W and M the matrix whose columns are the b_i . Check that $W^\perp = \text{Ker}(M)$ and use Theorem 6.3.

Solution:

- a) Let $w \in W$ be an arbitrary element. Then $0 \cdot w = 0$, so that $0 \in W^\perp$. If $x, y \in W^\perp$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then $x \cdot w = 0$ and $y \cdot w = 0$ and therefore $(\lambda x + y) \cdot w = \lambda x \cdot w + y \cdot w = \lambda 0 + 0 = 0$ and therefore $\lambda x + y \in W^\perp$. Hence $W^\perp$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. As the zero vector belongs to every subspace, it only remains to show that if $w \in W \cap W^\perp$, then $w = 0$. For such w we have $0 = w \cdot w = \|w\|^2$ and therefore $w = 0$.
- b) If $\mathcal{B}$ spans W , then in particular $\mathcal{B} \subset W$ and therefore $W^\perp \subset \{z \in \mathbb{R}^n : z \cdot b = 0 \quad \forall b \in \mathcal{B}\}$ (the right-hand side set has less constraints). To prove the reverse inclusion, let $w \in W$ and write $w = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i b_i$ for some $b_i \in \mathcal{B}$. If $z \cdot b = 0$ for all $b \in \mathcal{B}$, we get that

$$z \cdot w = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \underbrace{z \cdot b_i}_{=0} = 0$$

and therefore $z \in W^\perp$.

- c) Let $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_k\}$ be a basis for W and write those vectors as columns in a matrix M . This matrix is of size $n \times k$ and has rank k . We know from b) and Theorem 6.3 that $W^\perp = \text{col}(M)^\perp = \text{Ker}(M^T)$. The matrix M^T is of size $k \times n$ and by the rank theorem we know that $n = \text{Rank}(M^T) + \dim(\text{Ker}(M^T)) = k + \dim(W^\perp)$. Since $k = \dim(W)$ this proves the claim.

Ex 12.6 ($F^T F$ vs. $F F^T$ for matrices with orthogonal columns)

Consider the matrix

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -4 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Compute $F^T F$ and $F F^T$. Are these two matrices equal ?

Solution:

$$F^T F = \begin{pmatrix} 17 & 0 \\ 0 & 17/4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad F F^T = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -3 & 65/4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

These matrices are not equal.

Ex 12.7 (Orthogonality and projections) Prove the following statements about orthogonality and projections:

- (i) Every orthogonal set that does not contain the zero vector is independent.
(This implies that in particular orthonormal sets are independent.)
- (ii) The orthogonal projection from $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto a linear subspace $W \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear map.

Solution:

i) Let $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be an orthogonal set which doesn't contain 0. We will show S is linearly independent.

Suppose $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R}$ is such that

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_k v_k = 0.$$

Then, for any $i = 1, \dots, k$, we have

$$0 = v_i \cdot 0 = v_i \cdot (\lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_k v_k) = \lambda_1 v_i \cdot v_1 + \dots + \lambda_k v_i \cdot v_k.$$

Since S is an orthogonal set, $v_i \cdot v_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$ and thus, all but the i -th term in the above sum vanishes and we have

$$0 = \lambda_i v_i \cdot v_i = \lambda_i \|v_i\|^2.$$

However, as we had assumed $v_i \neq 0$, it follows that $\|v_i\|^2 > 0$ and so, $\lambda_i = 0$ and consequently S is linearly independent.

ii) Taking $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, it suffices to show

$$\text{proj}_W(x_1 + \lambda x_2) = \text{proj}_W(x_1) + \lambda \text{proj}_W(x_2). \quad (1)$$

Recall that, for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the orthogonal projection of x on to W : $\text{proj}_W(x)$ is the unique element of W such that $x - \text{proj}_W(x) \in W^\perp$. Thus, in order to show Equation (1), it suffices to show

(a) $\text{proj}_W(x_1) + \lambda \text{proj}_W(x_2) \in W$, and

(b) $(x_1 + \lambda x_2) - (\text{proj}_W(x_1) + \lambda \text{proj}_W(x_2)) \in W^\perp$.

(a) is clearly true since $\text{proj}_W(x_1)$ and $\text{proj}_W(x_2)$ are both in W so any linear combination of them will also be contained in W .

In order to show (b), we need to show that, for all $w \in W$,

$$((x_1 + \lambda x_2) - (\text{proj}_W(x_1) + \lambda \text{proj}_W(x_2))) \cdot w = 0.$$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} ((x_1 + \lambda x_2) - (\text{proj}_W(x_1) + \lambda \text{proj}_W(x_2))) \cdot w &= ((x_1 - \text{proj}_W(x_1)) + \lambda(x_2 - \text{proj}_W(x_2))) \cdot w \\ &= (x_1 - \text{proj}_W(x_1)) \cdot w + \lambda((x_2 - \text{proj}_W(x_2)) \cdot w) \\ &= 0 + 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

where the last line follows as $x_1 - \text{proj}_W(x_1)$ and $x_2 - \text{proj}_W(x_2)$ are in $W^\perp$ by the definition of projection.

Ex 12.8 (Projection onto a subspace)

Let

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Determine the orthogonal projection $\text{proj}_W(u)$ of u onto the subspace W spanned by v_1, v_2 . Give it both in the basis $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, v_2\}$ of W and in the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Solution:

Because v_1 and v_2 are orthogonal, we can simply use the formula

$$\text{proj}_W(u) = \frac{u \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1 + \frac{u \cdot v_2}{v_2 \cdot v_2} v_2 = \frac{1}{2} v_1 + \frac{6}{3} v_2$$

Denoting the standard basis by $\mathcal{E}$, this means that

$$[\text{proj}_W(u)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad [\text{proj}_W(u)]_{\mathcal{E}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5/2 \\ 2 \\ 3/2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Ex 12.9 (The row space and the kernel)

Consider an $m \times n$ matrix A .

- Prove that every vector x in $\mathbb{R}^n$ can be written uniquely as $x = p + u$ where p belongs to $\text{Row}(A)$ and u belongs to $\text{Ker}(A)$.
- Afterwards, show that if the equation $Ax = b$ is consistent, then there is a unique p in $\text{Row}(A)$ such that $Ap = b$.

Hint: For uniqueness, use Lemma 6.2 (b).

Solution:

- From Theorem 6.3 we deduce that $\text{Row}(A)^\perp = \text{Ker}(A)$, so that the claim follows from the orthogonal decomposition theorem (Theorem 6.7) applied to the subspace $\text{Row}(A)$.
- Assume that the system $Ax = b$ is consistent. Let x be a solution. Due to a) we can decompose it as $x = p + u$ with $p \in \text{Row}(A)$ and $u \in \text{Ker}(A)$. Then $Ap = A(x - u) = Ax - Au = b - 0 = b$. Thus the equation $Ax = b$ has at least a solution p in $\text{Row}(A)$.

Let now p_1 and p_2 be two solutions to $Ax = b$ such that $p_1, p_2 \in \text{Row}(A)$.

Then $p_2 - p_1$ belongs to $\text{Ker}(A)$ since

$$A(p_2 - p_1) = Ap_2 - Ap_1 = b - b = 0.$$

Thus $p_2 - p_1$ is in $(\text{Row}(A))^\perp \cap \text{Row}(A)$. Applying Ex. 12.3 we find that $p_2 - p_1 = 0$, which shows uniqueness.

Ex 12.10 (Closest point in a column space)

Let A be the following matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Show that the columns of A are an orthogonal set.
- Write U , the matrix made of the normalized columns vectors of A .

- Find the closest point to $y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in $\text{Col}(U)$ and the distance from $b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ to $\text{Col}(U)$.

Solution:

1. To show that the columns of A are an orthogonal set all we have to do is to check that $A^T A$ is a diagonal matrix. Here:

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2. In order to find the matrix U one can notice that the diagonal of the matrix $A^T A$ reads the squared norm of the matrix A 's columns. So we have:

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/2 & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 0 & 1/2 & 2/\sqrt{6} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} & -1/2 & 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

3. The closest point to y in $\text{Col}(U)$ is the projection (denoted as $\hat{y}$) of y on $\text{Col}(U)$. The columns of U being orthonormal, Theorem 6.8 tells us that $\hat{y} = U U^T y$. That is:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y} &= \begin{pmatrix} 11/12 & 1/12 & -1/12 & -1/4 \\ 1/12 & 11/12 & 1/12 & 1/4 \\ -1/12 & 1/12 & 11/12 & -1/4 \\ -1/4 & 1/4 & -1/4 & 1/4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ 4/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

The distance from b to $\text{Col}(U)$ is $\|b - \hat{b}\|$, where $\hat{b}$ is the projection of b on $\text{Col}(U)$,

$$\hat{b} = U U^T b = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 5/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix},$$

thus $\|b - \hat{b}\| = \sqrt{3}$.

Ex 12.11 (Distance to different subspaces)

Let

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Compute the distance from u to the line spanned by v_1 , and the distance from u to the plane spanned by v_1 and v_2 .

Solution:

Let $L = \text{Span}(v_1)$ and $P = \text{Span}(v_1, v_2)$. We calculate these distances using the fact that the orthogonal projection of a vector on a subspace is the point in that subspace closest to that vector. So

$$\text{dist}(u, L) = \|u - \text{proj}_L(u)\|, \quad \text{dist}(u, P) = \|u - \text{proj}_P(u)\|$$

The projection onto the line L is given by

$$\text{proj}_L(u) = \frac{u \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1 = \frac{3}{5} v_1 = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{dist}(u, L) = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \left\| \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \frac{1}{5} \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2 + 5^2} = \frac{\sqrt{30}}{5}$$

Moreover, since v_1 and v_2 are orthogonal, we know that

$$\text{proj}_P(u) = \frac{u \cdot v_1}{v_1 \cdot v_1} v_1 + \frac{u \cdot v_2}{v_2 \cdot v_2} v_2 = \frac{3}{5} v_1 + \frac{1}{9} v_2 = \frac{1}{45} \begin{pmatrix} 17 \\ 59 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{dist}(u, P) = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{45} \begin{pmatrix} 17 \\ 59 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \left\| \frac{1}{45} \begin{pmatrix} 28 \\ -14 \\ 35 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \frac{1}{45} \sqrt{28^2 + 14^2 + 35^2} = \frac{7}{3\sqrt{5}}$$

Ex 12.12 (Multiple choice and True/False questions)

a) Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$. Which of the following sets of eigenvalues is possible?

(A) $\{1, 1+i, 2-i\}$, (B) $\{1, 2, 4i\}$, (C) $\{0, 3-i, 3+i\}$, (D) $\{i, 3-i, 3+i\}$.

b) Decide whether the following statements are always true or if they can be false.

- (i) Let $u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If $u \cdot v = 0$ and $v \cdot w = 0$, then $u \cdot w \neq 0$.
- (ii) Let $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If the distance between u and v equals the distance between u and $-v$, then u and v are orthogonal.
- (iii) If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then $\text{Col}(A) = \text{Ker}(A)^\perp$.
- (iv) Let W be a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. If x is orthogonal to every element of a basis for W , then $x \in W^\perp$.
- (v) If $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then $\|\lambda x\| = \lambda \|x\|$.
- (vi) The orthogonal projection of u onto v is the same as the orthogonal projection of u onto av for any $a \neq 0$.
- (vii) If W is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $u \in W$, then $\text{proj}_W(u) = u$.
- (viii) Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. The columns of A form an orthonormal basis of $\mathbb{R}^n$ if and only if $\det(A) = 1$.
- (ix) If $A^T A = I$, then A must be square.
- (x) A square matrix has orthonormal columns if and only if it has orthonormal rows.
- (xi) If the vectors in an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors are normalized, then some of the new vectors may not be orthogonal.
- (xii) A matrix with orthonormal columns is an orthogonal matrix.

- (xiii) For each $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and each subspace W of $\mathbb{R}^n$, the vector $y - \text{proj}_W y$ is orthogonal to W .
- (xiv) If the columns of an $n \times p$ matrix U are orthonormal, then $UU^T y$ is the orthogonal projection of y onto the column space of U .

Solution:

a) The answer is (C). Indeed, we know that for a matrix with real coefficients complex eigenvalues appear in pairs in the sense that also the conjugate is an eigenvalue (this rules out (A), (B) and (D)).

b)

(i) **False:** Consider for instance $u = e_1, v = e_2, w = e_3$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

(ii) **True:** If we have $\|u - v\| = \|u - (-v)\|$, then $(u - v) \cdot (u - v) = (u + v) \cdot (u + v)$, i.e.

$$u \cdot u - 2(u \cdot v) + v \cdot v = u \cdot u + 2(u \cdot v) + v \cdot v.$$

Hence $-2(u \cdot v) = 2(u \cdot v)$, which implies that $u \cdot v = 0$.

Remark: For questions relating the distance to the inner product, it is always a good idea to consider the squared distance to avoid the square-roots.

(iii) **False:** For instance, for $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ we have $\text{Col } A = \text{Span}(e_2) = \text{Ker } A$ and $(\text{Ker } A)^\perp = \text{Span}(e_1)$.

(iv) **True:** This is a special case of Lemma 6.2 (b).

(v) **False:** The correct formula is $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$, so a counterexample is given by $x = e_1$ and $\lambda = -1$.

(vi) **True:** As seen in the course the a cancels out of the formula:

$$\text{proj}_{av}(u) = \frac{u \cdot (av)}{(av) \cdot (av)}(av) = a \frac{a(u \cdot v)}{(a^2(v \cdot v))}v = \frac{u \cdot v}{v \cdot v}v = \text{proj}_v(u).$$

(vii) **True:** By Theorem 6.7, there is a unique decomposition $u = p + o$ with $p = \text{proj}_W(u) \in W$ and $o \in W^\perp$. But if $u \in W$, then $u = u + 0$ is such a decomposition, hence $\text{proj}_W(u) = u$.

(viii) **False:** $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ has orthonormal columns but determinant -1 , and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ has determinant 1 but does not have orthogonal columns. So the implication doesn't work in either direction.

(ix) **False:** $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

(x) **True:** By Theorem 6.6, a matrix A has orthonormal columns if and only if $A^T A = I$. Since A is assumed to be square, this implies that A is invertible with $A^{-1} = A^T$. Hence also $AA^T = I$, or in other words $(A^T)^T A^T = I$. By the same theorem, this means that A^T has orthonormal columns, which means that A has orthonormal rows.

(xi) **False:** As $(\lambda v) \cdot (\mu w) = (\lambda \mu)(v \cdot w)$, scaling vectors doesn't affect the orthogonality relations between them.

- (xii) **False:** The matrix also needs to be a square matrix.
- (xiii) **True:** This is one of the crucial properties of the orthogonal projection (cf. Theorem 6.7).
- (xiv) **True:** This is stated in Theorem 6.8.