

# Solutions for MAS277 Problems

## Solutions for Chapter 3 problems: Inner product spaces

1. No. The only part that fails, however, is the condition that  $\langle f, f \rangle = 0$  should mean that  $f = 0$ . If  $f$  is a non-zero function that vanishes at  $x = 0$  (e.g.,  $f(x) = x$ ), then  $\langle f, f \rangle = 0$  but  $f \neq 0$ .

2. We see that

$$\|x + y\|^2 = \langle x + y, x + y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle,$$

and

$$\|x - y\|^2 = \langle x - y, x - y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle - \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle,$$

using our rules for inner products. Then

$$\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2\langle x, x \rangle + 2\langle y, y \rangle = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2,$$

as required.

3. (a) We have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle C_1, C_1 \rangle &= 6, & \langle C_1, C_2 \rangle &= 10, & \langle C_1, C_3 \rangle &= 6, \\ \langle C_2, C_1 \rangle &= 10, & \langle C_2, C_2 \rangle &= 37, & \langle C_2, C_3 \rangle &= 0, \\ \langle C_3, C_1 \rangle &= 6, & \langle C_3, C_2 \rangle &= 0, & \langle C_3, C_3 \rangle &= 28. \end{aligned}$$

(b) As  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is a real inner product,  $\langle A, B \rangle = \langle B, A \rangle$ . But

$$\langle B, A \rangle = \text{trace}(BA^T) = \text{trace}(BA) = \text{trace}(AB) = -\text{trace}(AB^T) = -\langle A, B \rangle,$$

so  $\langle A, B \rangle = -\langle A, B \rangle$ , and so  $\langle A, B \rangle = 0$ . (Alternatively, one could expand out the products, but this is simpler.)

4. (a) We have

$$\langle x+1, x^2+x \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 (x+1)(x^2+x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 x^3+2x^2+x dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{2x^3}{3} + \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{4}{3}.$$

(b) We have

$$\langle x^i, x^j \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x^{i+j} dx = \left[ \frac{x^{i+j+1}}{i+j+1} \right]_{-1}^1 = 0$$

since  $i + j + 1$  is even, meaning that  $(-1)^{i+j+1} = 1^{i+j+1}$ .

(c) We have

$$4f(-1) - 8f(0) + 4f(1) = 4(a - b + c) - 8c + 4(a + b + c) = 8a.$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle f, u \rangle &= \int_{-1}^1 (px^2 + q)(ax^2 + bx + c) dx \\
 &= \int_{-1}^1 apx^4 + bpx^3 + (pc + qa)x^2 + bqx + cq dx \\
 &= \left[ \frac{apx^5}{5} + \frac{bpx^4}{4} + \frac{(pc + qa)x^3}{3} + \frac{bqx^2}{2} + cqx \right]_{-1}^1 \\
 &= \frac{2ap}{5} + \frac{2(pc + qa)}{3} + 2cq \\
 &= a \left( \frac{2p}{5} + \frac{2q}{3} \right) + c \left( \frac{2p}{3} + 2q \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

We require that this equal  $8a$ , so we need

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{2p}{5} + \frac{2q}{3} &= 8 \\
 \frac{2p}{3} + 2q &= 0,
 \end{aligned}$$

and solving this as usual gives  $p = 45$ ,  $q = -15$ .

5. We have

$$\|x + y\|^2 = \langle x + y, x + y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle = \|x\|^2 + 2\langle x, y \rangle + \|y\|^2,$$

so the given formula holds if and only if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ , as required.

6. (a) Notice that, for  $f, g \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ ,  $\langle f, g \rangle$  is a function. So  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  does not necessarily take real number values, and is not therefore an inner product. But restricting to  $V$ , things are better:

$$\langle f, g \rangle' = (fg + f'g')' = f'g + fg' + f''g' + f'g'' = f'(g + g'') + g'(f + f'') = 0,$$

as both  $f$  and  $g$  lie in  $V$ , so that  $f + f'' = 0$  and  $g + g'' = 0$ . So  $\langle f, g \rangle$  is a constant function, that is, a real number.

(b) If  $f + f'' = 0$ , then  $(f + f'')' = 0$ , so  $f' + f''' = 0$ , i.e.,  $f' + (f')'' = 0$ , and so  $f' \in V$ .

(c) Clearly  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  satisfies conditions IP1–IP3 of the definition of inner product, and is also valued in  $\mathbb{R}$  by part (a). Also, a typical element in  $V$  is  $f = a \sin t + b \cos t$ . Then

$$\langle f, f \rangle = f^2 + f'^2 = (a \sin t + b \cos t)^2 + (a \cos t - b \sin t)^2 = a^2 + b^2,$$

which is clearly non-negative, and is only zero when  $a = b = 0$ , i.e., when  $f = 0$  as required.

(d) As  $D(\sin) = \cos$  and  $D(\cos) = -\sin$ , the matrix representation of  $D$  relative to the basis  $\{\sin, \cos\}$  is  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

7. We use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality on the space  $C[0, 1]$  with its usual inner product. Put  $g(x) = 1 + x$ . Then

$$\langle g, g \rangle = \int_0^1 g(x)^2 dx = \int_0^1 (1 + x)^2 dx = \int_0^1 x^2 + 2x + 1 dx = \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} + x^2 + x \right]_0^1 = \frac{7}{3}.$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality tells us that

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(x)(1 + x) dx \right| \leq \langle 1 + x, 1 + x \rangle \langle f, f \rangle,$$

which is exactly the statement required. The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is an equality if  $f(x)$  is a scalar multiple of  $1 + x$ , so  $f(x) = 1 + x$  is one function where we have equality.

8. We use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality on the space  $C[-1, 1]$  with its usual inner product. Put  $g(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ . Then

$$\langle g, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 g(x)^2 dx = \int_{-1}^1 1 - x^2 dx = \left[ x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{4}{3}.$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality tells us that

$$\left| \int_{-1}^1 f(x)\sqrt{1 - x^2} dx \right| \leq \langle \sqrt{1 - x^2}, \sqrt{1 - x^2} \rangle \langle f, f \rangle,$$

which is exactly the statement required. The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is an equality if  $f(x)$  is a scalar multiple of  $\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ , so  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  is one function where we have equality.

9. We use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality on the space  $C[0, 1]$  with its usual inner product. Given a function  $f(x)$ , put  $g(x) = f(x)^2$ . Then

$$\langle g, g \rangle = \int_0^1 g(x)^2 dx = \int_0^1 f(x)^4 dx.$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality tells us that

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx \right| \leq \langle g, g \rangle \langle f, f \rangle,$$

which is exactly the statement required when we substitute  $g(x) = f(x)^2$ . The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is an equality if  $f(x)$  is a scalar multiple of  $f(x)^2$ , so we need  $f(x) = \lambda f(x)^2$ , i.e.,  $f(x) = 1/\lambda$ . Thus this is an equality precisely for constant functions. (One ought to be a little more careful about the possibility that  $f(x) = 0$  at some points, but as  $f$  is continuous, one sees that either  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ , or  $f(x) = 1/\lambda$  for all  $x$ .)

10.  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  is orthogonal to 1 and  $x$  if and only if  $\langle f(x), 1 \rangle = \langle f(x), x \rangle$ . Using the definition of the inner product we require

$$\langle f(x), 1 \rangle = \int_0^1 (ax^2 + bx + c) dx = \frac{a}{3} + \frac{b}{2} + c = 0$$

and

$$\langle f(x), x \rangle = \int_0^1 (ax^3 + bx^2 + cx) dx = \frac{a}{4} + \frac{b}{3} + \frac{c}{2} = 0.$$

Setting  $a = 1$  in the above equations we find  $b = -1$  and  $c = \frac{1}{6}$ . So the polynomial  $f(x) = x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}$  is orthogonal to both 1 and  $x$ .

11. First,  $\phi(a + b \cos t + c \sin t) = b \sin t + c \cos t$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi(a + b \cos t + c \sin t), \alpha + \beta \cos t + \gamma \sin t \rangle &= \langle b \sin t + c \cos t, \alpha + \beta \cos t + \gamma \sin t \rangle \\ &= \pi(\beta c + \gamma b). \end{aligned}$$

If  $\phi^*$  is the adjoint of  $\phi$ , we need

$$\langle a + b \cos t + c \sin t, \phi^*(\alpha + \beta \cos t + \gamma \sin t) \rangle = \pi(\beta c + \gamma b)$$

and so  $\phi^*(\alpha + \beta \cos t + \gamma \sin t) = \beta \sin t + \gamma \cos t$ , showing that  $\phi^* = \phi$ .

12. If  $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z)^T$ , we have

$$\langle \phi(\mathbf{v}), A \rangle = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ y & z \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle = ax + by + cy + dz.$$

On the other hand, if  $\mathbf{w} = (p, q, r)^T$ , then

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = px + qy + rz.$$

These two agree when  $p = a$ ,  $q = b + c$  and  $r = d$ . So  $\mathbf{w} = (a, b + c, d)^T$ .

13. Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_4 & a_5 & a_6 \\ a_7 & a_8 & a_9 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ b_4 & b_5 & b_6 \\ b_7 & b_8 & b_9 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We need to find  $\phi^*$  so that  $\langle \phi(A), B \rangle = \langle A, \phi^*(B) \rangle$ . But

$$\langle \phi(A), B \rangle = a_4 b_2 + a_7 b_3 + a_8 b_6.$$

In order that this is equal to  $\langle A, \phi^*(B) \rangle$ , we need

$$\phi^* \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ b_4 & b_5 & b_6 \\ b_7 & b_8 & b_9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ b_2 & 0 & 0 \\ b_3 & b_6 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

14. Explicitly,  $\phi \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+b+c+d & a+b+c+d \\ a+b+c+d & a+b+c+d \end{pmatrix}$ . Let  $B = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$ . Then

$$\langle \phi(A), B \rangle = (a+b+c+d)(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta).$$

We need this to equal  $\langle A, \phi^*(B) \rangle$ , and as this is

$$a(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta) + b(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta) + c(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta) + d(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta),$$

we need  $\phi^*(B) = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta & \alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta \\ \alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta & \alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta \end{pmatrix}$ , and so  $\phi^* = \phi$ , as required.

15. We see  $\chi(ax^2 + bx + c) = 2a$ . If  $u = \alpha x^2 + \beta x + \gamma$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, u \rangle &= \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} (ax^2 + bx + c)(\alpha x^2 + \beta x + \gamma) dx \\ &= \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} a\alpha x^4 + (a\beta + \alpha b)x^3 + (a\gamma + b\beta + c\alpha)x^2 + (b\gamma + \beta c)x + c\gamma dx \\ &= \left[ \frac{a\alpha x^5}{5} + \frac{(a\beta + \alpha b)x^4}{4} + \frac{(a\gamma + b\beta + c\alpha)x^3}{3} + \frac{b\gamma + \beta c}{2}x^2 + c\gamma x \right]_{-1/2}^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{a\alpha}{80} + \frac{a\gamma + b\beta + c\alpha}{12} + c\gamma \\ &= a \left( \frac{\alpha}{80} + \frac{\gamma}{12} \right) + b \frac{\beta}{12} + c \left( \frac{\alpha}{12} + \gamma \right). \end{aligned}$$

We require that this always equal  $2a$ . So  $\beta = 0$  and  $\frac{\alpha}{12} = -\gamma$ . Then  $\frac{\alpha}{80} - \frac{\alpha}{144} = 2$ , and this gives  $\alpha = 360$ , and so  $\gamma = -30$ . Thus  $u = 360x^2 - 30$ .

We need  $\langle \chi(f), t \rangle = \langle f, \chi^*(t) \rangle$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . The left-hand side is

$$\langle \chi(f), t \rangle = \langle f''(0), t \rangle = f''(0) \cdot t = \langle f, u \rangle t = \langle f, tu \rangle,$$

so  $\chi^*(t) = tu = t(360x^2 - 30)$ .

16. We simply observe that for  $i \neq j$ ,

$$\langle \phi(\mathbf{v}_i), \phi(\mathbf{v}_j) \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \phi^*(\phi(\mathbf{v}_j)) \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = 0,$$

the first equality being the definition of the adjoint, the middle by the given property of  $\phi$ , and the final one because  $\mathbf{v}_i$  and  $\mathbf{v}_j$  are orthogonal. Similarly, the same argument gives  $\langle \phi(\mathbf{v}_i), \phi(\mathbf{v}_i) \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 1$ , so  $\{\phi(\mathbf{v}_1), \dots, \phi(\mathbf{v}_n)\}$  is an orthonormal set.

17. (a) Notice that  $f''$  is just a constant. So

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(\alpha(f)) &= \alpha((3x^2 - 1)f'') = f''\alpha(3x^2 - 1) = f''(3x^2 - 1)(3x^2 - 1)'' \\ &= 6f''(3x^2 - 1) = 6\alpha(f). \end{aligned}$$

- (b) If  $\alpha(f) = \lambda f$ , then  $\alpha(\alpha(f)) = \alpha(\lambda f) = \lambda \cdot \alpha(f) = \lambda^2 f$ . But we also have  $\alpha(\alpha(f)) = 6\alpha(f) = 6\lambda f$ . As  $f$  is nonzero,  $\lambda^2 = 6\lambda$ .

- (c) The eigenvectors with eigenvalue 0 are those polynomials where  $f'' = 0$ , i.e.,  $f(x) = ax + b$ . The eigenvector with eigenvalue 6 must have  $\alpha(f) = 6f$ ; but  $\alpha(f)$  is always a scalar multiple of  $3x^2 - 1$ , and indeed this is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 6. Thus we begin with the sequence  $1, x, 3x^2 - 1$ . It is easy to see that 1 and  $x$  are already orthogonal. And  $3x^2 - 1$  is orthogonal to both 1 and  $x$ , since two eigenvectors of a self-adjoint operator with different eigenvalues are necessarily orthogonal.

## Solutions for Chapter 4 problems: Gram-Schmidt and Fourier theory.

1. Integrating by parts, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\langle t, \sin kt \rangle &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} t \sin kt \, dt = \left[ -t \frac{\cos kt}{k} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{\cos kt}{k} \, dt \\ &= \left[ -\pi \frac{\cos k\pi}{k} + (-\pi) \frac{\cos(-k\pi)}{k} \right] = -\frac{2\pi}{k} \cos k\pi = \frac{(-1)^{k+1} 2\pi}{k}.\end{aligned}$$

Notice that computing these inner products involves carrying out exactly the same integrals that you use when computing Fourier series.

2. (a) We use the angle formula:

$$\cos(A+B)t + \cos(A-B)t = 2 \cos At \cos Bt$$

to see that  $\cos t \cos 4t = (\cos 5t + \cos 3t)/2$ . Then

$$\langle \cos 3t, \cos t \cos 4t \rangle = \frac{\langle \cos 3t, \cos 5t \rangle}{2} + \frac{\langle \cos 3t, \cos 3t \rangle}{2} = 0 + \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

On the other hand,

$$\langle \cos 3t, \cos 3t \rangle = \pi,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \cos t \cos 4t, \cos t \cos 4t \rangle &= \frac{\langle \cos 5t + \cos 3t, \cos 5t + \cos 3t \rangle}{4} \\ &= \frac{\langle \cos 5t, \cos 5t \rangle}{4} + \frac{\langle \cos 3t, \cos 3t \rangle}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

Combining these, we see that if  $\theta$  is the angle between the functions, then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\pi/2}{\sqrt{\pi}\sqrt{\pi/2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

(b) We use the angle formula:

$$\sin(A+B)t + \sin(A-B)t = 2 \sin At \cos Bt$$

to see that  $\cos 2t \sin t = (\sin 3t - \sin t)/2$  and  $\cos 5t \sin t = (\sin 6t - \sin 4t)/2$ . Then as  $\langle \sin mt, \sin nt \rangle = 0$  if  $m \neq n$ , we see that  $\langle \cos 2t \sin t, \cos 5t \sin t \rangle = 0$ , as required.

3. We use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Put  $g(x) = \sin x$ . Then

$$\langle g, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2 x \, dx = \pi.$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality tells us that

$$\left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin x f(x) \, dx \right| \leq \langle \sin x, \sin x \rangle \langle f, f \rangle,$$

which is exactly the statement required. The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is an equality if  $f(x)$  is a scalar multiple of  $\sin x$ , so  $f(x) = \sin x$  is one function where we have equality.

4. We put  $f_1 = 1$ ,  $f_2 = x$ ,  $f_3 = x^2$ . Put  $g_1 = f_1 = 1$ , and  $g_2 = f_2 - \lambda g_1 = x - \lambda$ . We wish to choose  $\lambda$  so that  $g_2$  is orthogonal to  $f_1$ : we know that  $\lambda = \frac{\langle f_2, g_1 \rangle}{\langle g_1, g_1 \rangle}$ , but it is almost easier in this case just to work it out directly:

$$\langle f_1, g_2 \rangle = \int_0^1 (x - \lambda) dx = \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} - \lambda x \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} - \lambda,$$

and so we must choose  $\lambda = 1/2$ . Thus  $g_2 = x - \frac{1}{2}$ .

Next, we put  $g_3 = f_3 - \lambda g_1 - \mu g_2 = x^2 - \lambda - \mu(x - \frac{1}{2})$ , and we want to choose  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  so that  $g_3$  is orthogonal to  $f_1$  and to  $f_2$ . We can work out  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  using the formulae, or just compute the inner products. Let's do that.

$$\langle f_1, g_3 \rangle = \int_0^1 x^2 - \lambda - \mu(x - \frac{1}{2}) dx = \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} - \lambda x - \mu \frac{x^2}{2} + \mu \frac{x}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} - \lambda.$$

So  $\lambda = 1/3$ . Next,

$$\langle f_2, g_3 \rangle = \int_0^1 x^3 - \lambda x - \mu(x - \frac{1}{2})x dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} - \lambda \frac{x^2}{2} - \mu \frac{x^3}{3} + \mu \frac{x^2}{4} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{\lambda}{2} - \frac{\mu}{12},$$

and so  $\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1/3}{2} - \frac{\mu}{12} = 0$ , giving  $\mu = 1$ . Then  $g_3 = x^2 - \frac{1}{3} - (x - \frac{1}{2}) = x^2 - x + \frac{1}{6}$ .

5. We can take  $g_1 = f_1 = \sin t$ . Notice that  $f_2 = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2t$  is already orthogonal to  $g_1$  as  $\langle \sin mt, \sin nt \rangle = 0$  if  $m \neq n$ . So we can put  $g_2 = f_2$ , and  $g_2$  is already orthogonal to  $g_1$ .

Now notice that  $f_3(t) = (\sin 3t - \sin t)/2$  is already orthogonal to  $g_2(t)$ , again using the remark about  $\langle \sin mt, \sin nt \rangle$  above. To make it orthogonal to  $g_1$ , put  $g_3 = f_3 - \lambda g_1 = \sin t(\cos 2t - \lambda)$ , and try to choose  $\lambda$  so that  $\langle g_3, g_1 \rangle = 0$ . But

$$\begin{aligned} \langle g_3, g_1 \rangle &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin t \cdot \sin t(\cos 2t - \lambda) dt \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (1 - \cos 2t)(\cos 2t - \lambda)/2 dt \\ &= -\pi\lambda - \pi/2, \end{aligned}$$

so  $\lambda = -1/2$ . Thus  $g_3 = \sin t(\cos 2t + 1/2)$ .

6. Clearly a basis for  $V$  is  $B_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $B_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $B_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , and these three matrices are clearly orthogonal to each other, so form an orthogonal basis for  $V$ . For  $A \in V$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(A) &= \frac{\langle A, B_1 \rangle}{\langle B_1, B_1 \rangle} B_1 + \frac{\langle A, B_2 \rangle}{\langle B_2, B_2 \rangle} B_2 + \frac{\langle A, B_3 \rangle}{\langle B_3, B_3 \rangle} B_3 \\ &= \frac{a}{1} B_1 + \frac{b+c}{2} B_2 + \frac{d}{1} B_3 \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b+c}{2} \\ \frac{b+c}{2} & d \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (A + A^T)/2 \end{aligned}$$



An alternative approach is to identify  $V^\perp$  and to write  $A$  in its unique form  $C + D$ , where  $C \in V$  and  $D \in V^\perp$ . Then  $\pi(A) = C$ . A matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  is orthogonal to  $B_1$  if  $a = 0$ ; is orthogonal to  $B_2$  if  $b + c = 0$ , and orthogonal to  $B_3$  if  $d = 0$ . Then  $V^\perp = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ -b & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ . Given any matrix  $A$ , we want to write it as  $C + D$ , where  $C \in V$  and  $D \in V^\perp$ . The unique way to do this is with

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b+c}{2} \\ \frac{b+c}{2} & d \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } D = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{b-c}{2} \\ \frac{c-b}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\pi(A) = C = \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b+c}{2} \\ \frac{b+c}{2} & d \end{pmatrix} = (A + A^T)/2,$$

as required.

7. Let's take  $B_1 = A_1$ . To find a matrix  $B_2 = A_2 - \lambda B_1$  orthogonal to  $B_1$ , it is easy to see that we can take  $\lambda = 1$  so that

$$B_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

clearly orthogonal to  $B_1$ . Similarly, if  $B_3 = A_3 - \lambda B_1 - \mu B_2$  is orthogonal to  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , it is easy to see that we can take  $\mu = 1$  and  $\lambda = 1$  to get

$$B_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Notice that  $B_3 = A_3 - A_2$ . The real reason that this is orthogonal to  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  is that we've arranged that there's no non-zero entry of  $B_3$  corresponding to a non-zero entry of  $A_1$  or  $A_2$  (which have the same span as  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ ) so it must be orthogonal to them. We could have done this by inspection.

In the same way, we can see that

$$B_4 = A_4 - A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

is orthogonal to all of  $B_1, B_2$  and  $B_3$ . Thus we have an orthogonal set

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & B_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \\ B_3 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & B_4 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

and we can make them normal by dividing by their norms:

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$C_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C_4 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

as required.

8. Let  $v_1 = u_1$ . We need  $v_2 = u_2 - \lambda v_1$  to be orthogonal to  $v_1$ , and  $\lambda = \frac{\langle u_2, v_1 \rangle}{\langle v_1, v_1 \rangle} = \frac{4}{5}$ , so that  $v_2 = (1/5, 1/5, 1/5, 1/5, -4/5)^T$ . Next, we need  $v_3 = u_3 - \lambda v_1 - \mu v_2$  to be orthogonal to  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  (or equivalently to  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ , since they have the same span). But we know that we should take  $\lambda = \frac{\langle u_3, v_1 \rangle}{\langle v_1, v_1 \rangle} = \frac{3}{5}$ , and  $\mu = \frac{\langle u_3, v_2 \rangle}{\langle v_2, v_2 \rangle} = \frac{3/5}{4/5} = \frac{3}{4}$ . This gives  $v_3 = (1/4, 1/4, 1/4, -3/4, 0)^T$ . Next we need  $v_4 = u_4 - \lambda v_1 - \mu v_2 - \nu v_3$  to be orthogonal to  $v_1, v_2$  and  $v_3$ . But then  $\lambda = \frac{\langle u_4, v_1 \rangle}{\langle v_1, v_1 \rangle} = \frac{2}{5}$ ,  $\mu = \frac{\langle u_4, v_2 \rangle}{\langle v_2, v_2 \rangle} = \frac{2/5}{4/5} = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\nu = \frac{\langle u_4, v_3 \rangle}{\langle v_3, v_3 \rangle} = \frac{1/2}{3/4} = \frac{2}{3}$ , and so  $v_4 = (1/3, 1/3, -2/3, 0, 0)^T$ .

I hope that you spotted the pattern before now, and worked out, just by staring at the vectors, why this had to be the case. So I won't bother to write down the final set of equations; if you do, you will find that  $v_5 = (1/2, -1/2, 0, 0, 0)^T$ , but you should have been able to predict it anyway from how things have been working so far.

Of course, these aren't yet orthonormal; we need to divide by the norms of the vectors, to get

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{v}_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1, 1, 1, 1, 1)^T \\ \hat{v}_2 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{20}}(1, 1, 1, 1, -4)^T \\ \hat{v}_3 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}(1, 1, 1, -3, 0)^T \\ \hat{v}_4 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(1, 1, -2, 0, 0)^T \\ \hat{v}_5 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -1, 0, 0, 0)^T. \end{aligned}$$