

Prove that the real part of the eigenvalue of a (not necessarily symmetric) positive definite matrix is always positive.

Let A be positive definite, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$
 $\therefore \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \neq 0 \Rightarrow x^T A x > 0$

Defn

Let $\lambda = \lambda_1 + i\lambda_2$ be any eigenvalue of A
 $v = v_1 + iv_2$ be corresponding eigenvectors

Note: $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ -a & a \end{bmatrix}, a > 0$

is p.d ($a x_1^2 + a x_2^2 > 0$)

and its eigenvalues are

$a+ai$ & $a-ai$

$$Av = \lambda v \Rightarrow (A - \lambda_1 I - i\lambda_2 I)(v_1 + iv_2) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (A - \lambda_1 I)v_1 + \lambda_2 I v_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{premultiply by } v_1^T$$

$$(A - \lambda_1 I)v_2 - \lambda_2 I v_1 = 0 \rightarrow \text{premultiply by } v_2^T$$

$$v_1^T (A - \lambda_1 I)v_1 + v_2^T (A - \lambda_1 I)v_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \frac{v_1^T A v_1 + v_2^T A v_2}{v_1^T v_1 + v_2^T v_2} > 0$$

Q: How would your defn of positive definiteness be different if you allowed $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ & $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$?

\mathbb{C} = complex nos

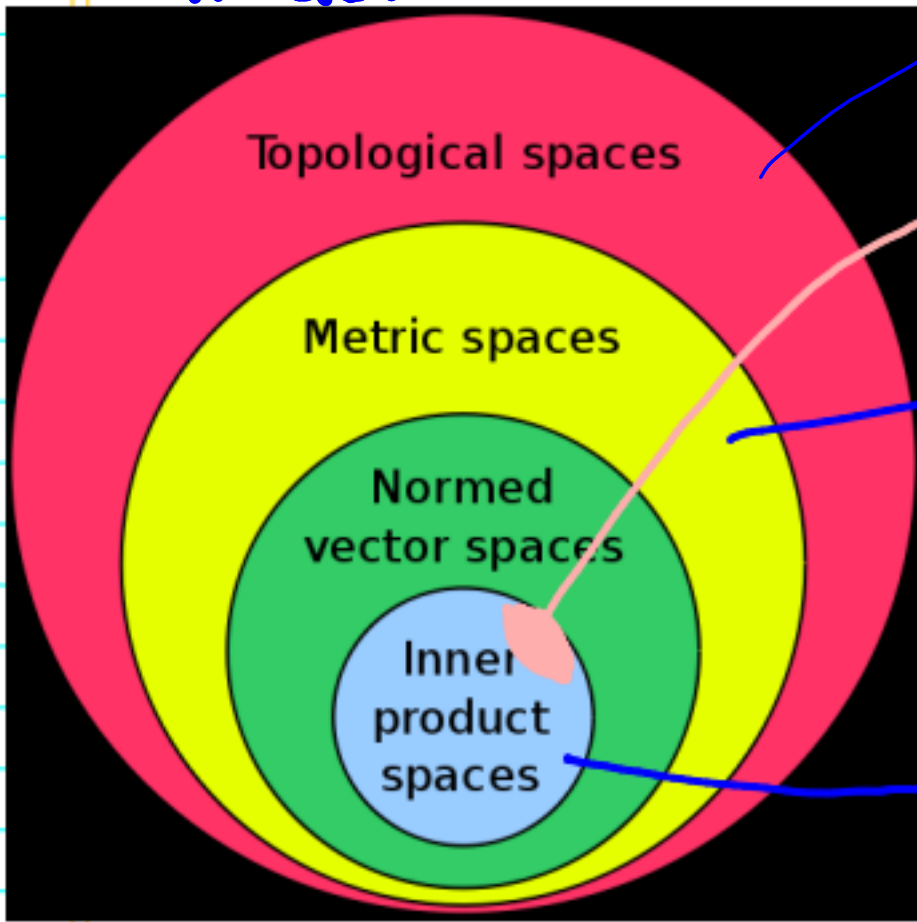
$$\text{Re}(x^* A x) > 0 ?$$

\equiv

$$\text{Re}(x^* A^* x) > 0$$

Do same steps hold?

IN GENERAL



Need neighborhood $\{x \in N(x), \text{intersection of neighborhoods is neighborhood...}\}$

Hilbert space

4 axioms
H/W: Determine what makes neighborhood open

Triangle inequality

$\|v\|^2 = \langle v, v \rangle$

Vector space with an inner prod

Source: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Space_\(mathematics\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Space_(mathematics))

A hierarchy of mathematical spaces: The inner product induces a norm. The norm induces a metric. The metric induces a topology.

Topological space: Set of points along with a set of neighborhoods of each point, with certain axioms required to be satisfied by the pt & their neighborhoods

Metric space: Set of points with a notion of "distance" between elements

$d(x, y)$ must be

- (a) non-negative
- (b) $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$
- (c) symmetric
- (d) satisfy triangle inequality

Assuming you have understood vector space

Normed vector space: A vector space on which a norm is defined. (see page number 4 for definition of norm)

Definitions: In topological space, $\{x_i\}$ could converge to a limit $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i$

$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{i} = 0$

[//en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Limit_point](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Limit_point)

$cl(S)$ when S is a topological space

Should consist of S
 union with
 should consist of $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i$ for every
 convergent sequence $\{x_i\} \subseteq S$

For general topological space

with norm $\|\cdot\|$

S is closed if $cl(S) = S$
 S is open if S^c is closed

$int(S) = \bigcup_{\substack{S' \text{ open} \\ S' \subseteq S}} S'$

$bnd(S) = cl(S) - int(S)$
 $\stackrel{?}{=} cl(S) \cap cl(S^c)$

$\forall x \in S, \exists \epsilon > 0$ s.t.
 $\{y \mid \|y-x\| \leq \epsilon\} \subseteq S$ (open set in Normed \mathbb{R}^n)

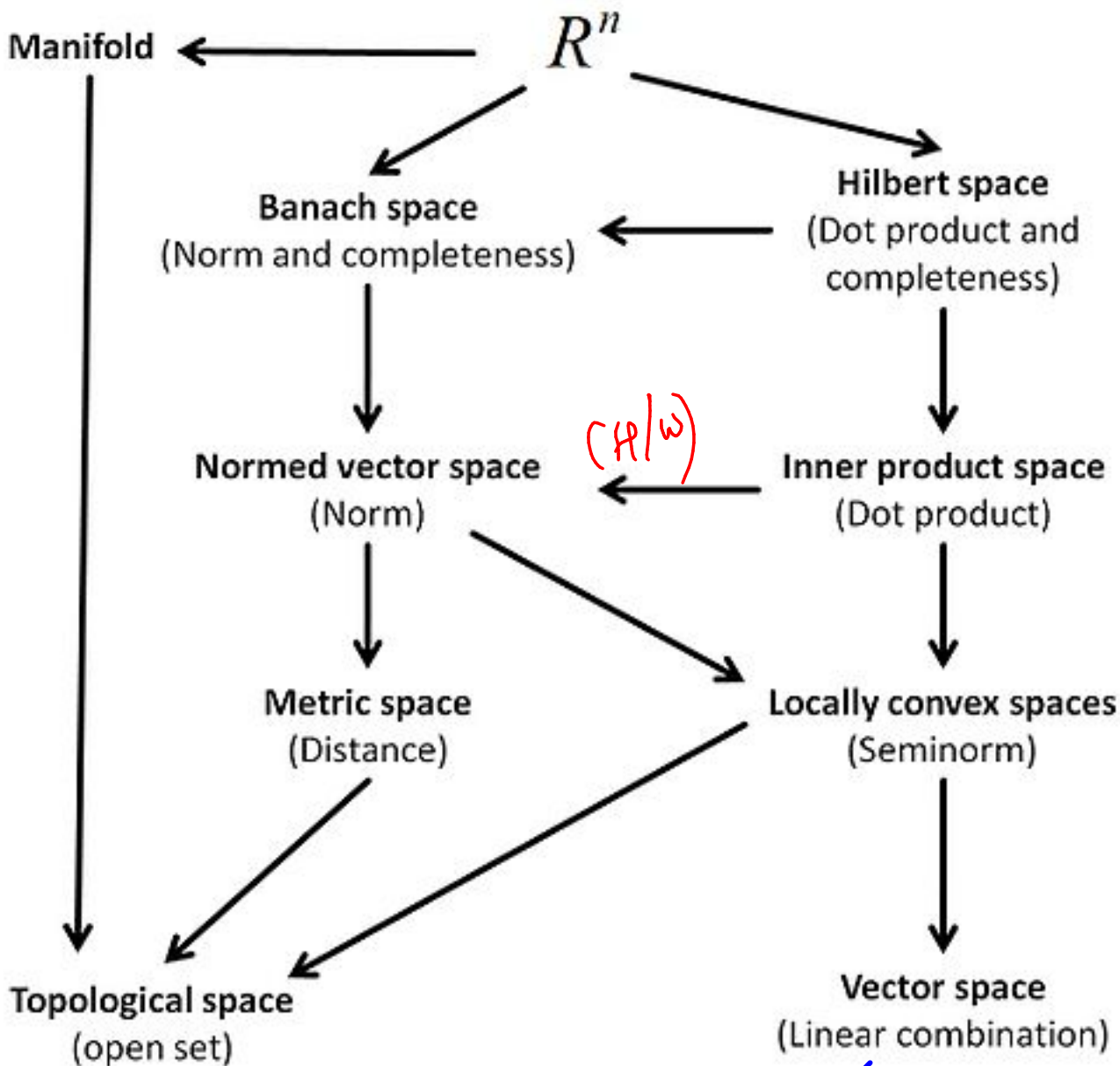
$bnd(S) = \partial(S)$
 x belongs to the normed space
 $cl(S) = \{x \mid \forall \epsilon > 0, S \cap \{y \mid \|x-y\| < \epsilon\} \neq \emptyset\}$



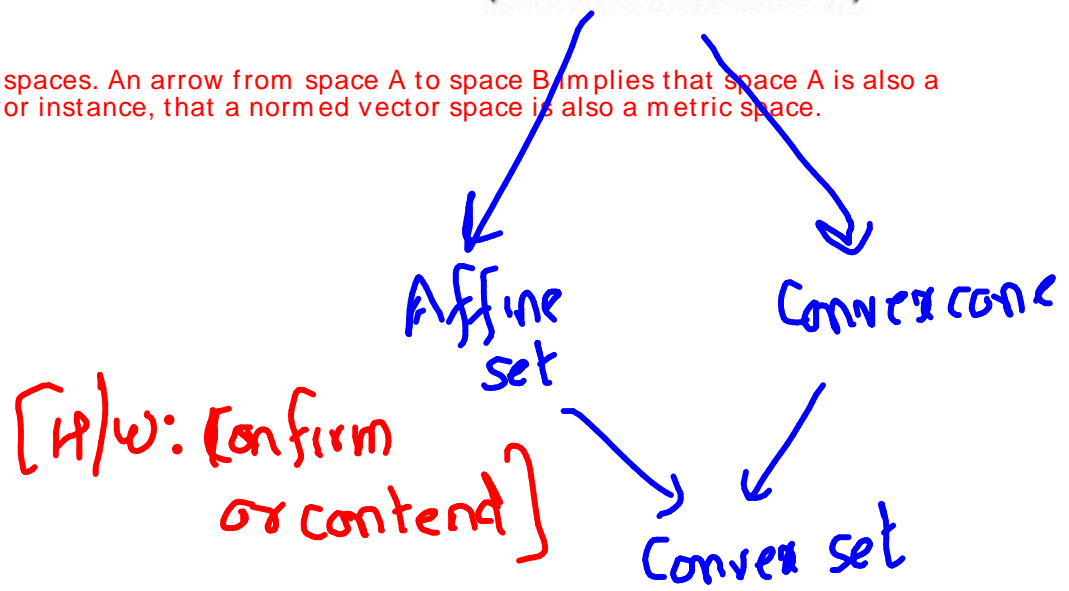
$int(S) = \{x \mid x \in S \text{ s.t. } \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \{y \mid \|x-y\| < \epsilon\} \subseteq S\}$

$relbnd(S) = cl(S) - relint(S)$

$relint(S) = \{x \mid x \in S \text{ s.t. } \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \{y \mid \|x-y\| < \epsilon\} \cap aff(S) \subseteq S\}$



Overview of types of abstract spaces. An arrow from space A to space B implies that space A is also a kind of space B. That means, for instance, that a normed vector space is also a metric space.



[H/W: Prove that "normed" space is a "metric" space]

Read how an inner product space is a normed space.

Inner product space: It is a vector space over a field of scalars along with an inner product

eg: \mathbb{R}
an algebraic structure with addition, subtraction
↓
associative & commutative

multiplication & division

must be commutative, associative & distributive

multiplicative inverse must exist

Recall: $\| \cdot \|$ is a norm if

① $\|x\| \geq 0$; $\|x\| = 0 \iff x = 0$

② $\|kx\| = |k| \|x\|$ for $k \in \text{scalar}$

③ $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$
(triangle inequality)

① (conjugate) symmetry:
 $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$

② Linearity in the first argument
 $\langle ax, y \rangle = a \langle x, y \rangle$

$\langle x+y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$

③ Positive definiteness:

$\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ with equality $\iff x = 0$

[H/w: Prove that "inner product space" is a "normed" vector space]

Inner product space: It is a vector space over a field of scalars along with an inner product

↓
Assume \mathbb{R} or complex

$$\textcircled{1} \langle x, x \rangle = \overline{\langle x, x \rangle} \Rightarrow \langle x, x \rangle \text{ must be real}$$

$$\therefore \text{We can define } \|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

We need to prove that $\|x\|$ is a valid norm

① • By defn of inner product, since $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ with equality iff $x=0$,

$$\|x\| \geq 0 \text{ iff } x=0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \cdot \|tx\| = \sqrt{\langle tx, tx \rangle} = \sqrt{t \cdot \overline{t} \langle x, x \rangle}$$

$$= \sqrt{t \cdot \overline{t}} \|x\| = |t| \|x\| \quad (\text{For real \& complex } t, |t| = \sqrt{t \cdot \overline{t}})$$

$$\textcircled{c} \|x+y\| = \sqrt{\langle x+y, x+y \rangle}$$

$$= \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle}$$

$$\leq \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle + \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle} \times 2}$$

By Cauchy Schwarz inequality (proved on next page)

$$= \sqrt{(\|x\| + \|y\|)^2}$$

$$= \|x\| + \|y\|$$

- Hence proved that $\sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ is a norm

normed vs
IP v.s

⇒ Every inner product space is a normed space.

converse does not hold: ∃ normed spaces

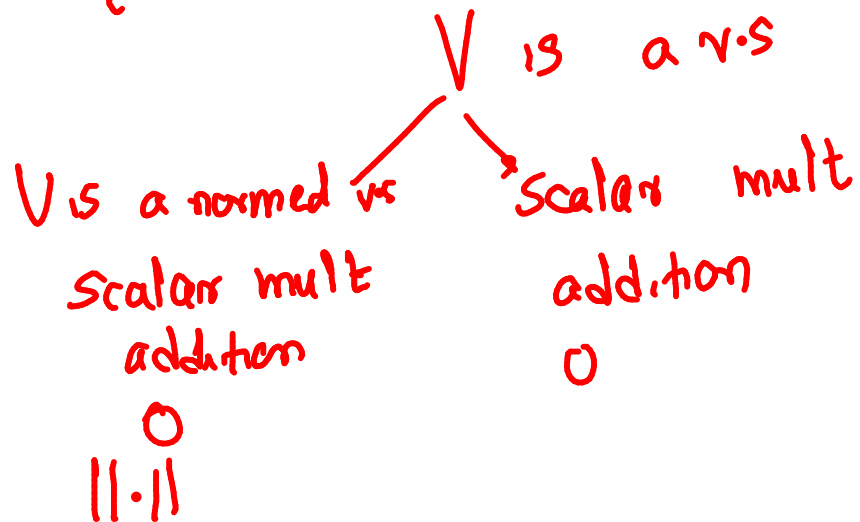
that are not inner product spaces.

Eg: $\|x\|_p = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right]^{1/p}$

Eg: $p=1 \quad \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$
 $p=\infty \quad \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |x_i|$

Show that there does not exist $(x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n)$
 $\langle x, y \rangle$ inner product s.t

$$\langle x, x \rangle = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{2/p}$$



In general (see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cauchy%E2%80%93Schwarz_inequality)

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\| \text{ for } \|u\|^2 = \langle u, u \rangle$$

Proof: If $v=0$, both sides are 0 & hence equality holds.

Assume $v \neq 0$ & let $z = u - \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} v$ } $z=0$ iff u & v are lin. dependent

$\therefore \langle z, v \rangle = \langle u - \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} v, v \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle - \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} \langle v, v \rangle = 0$

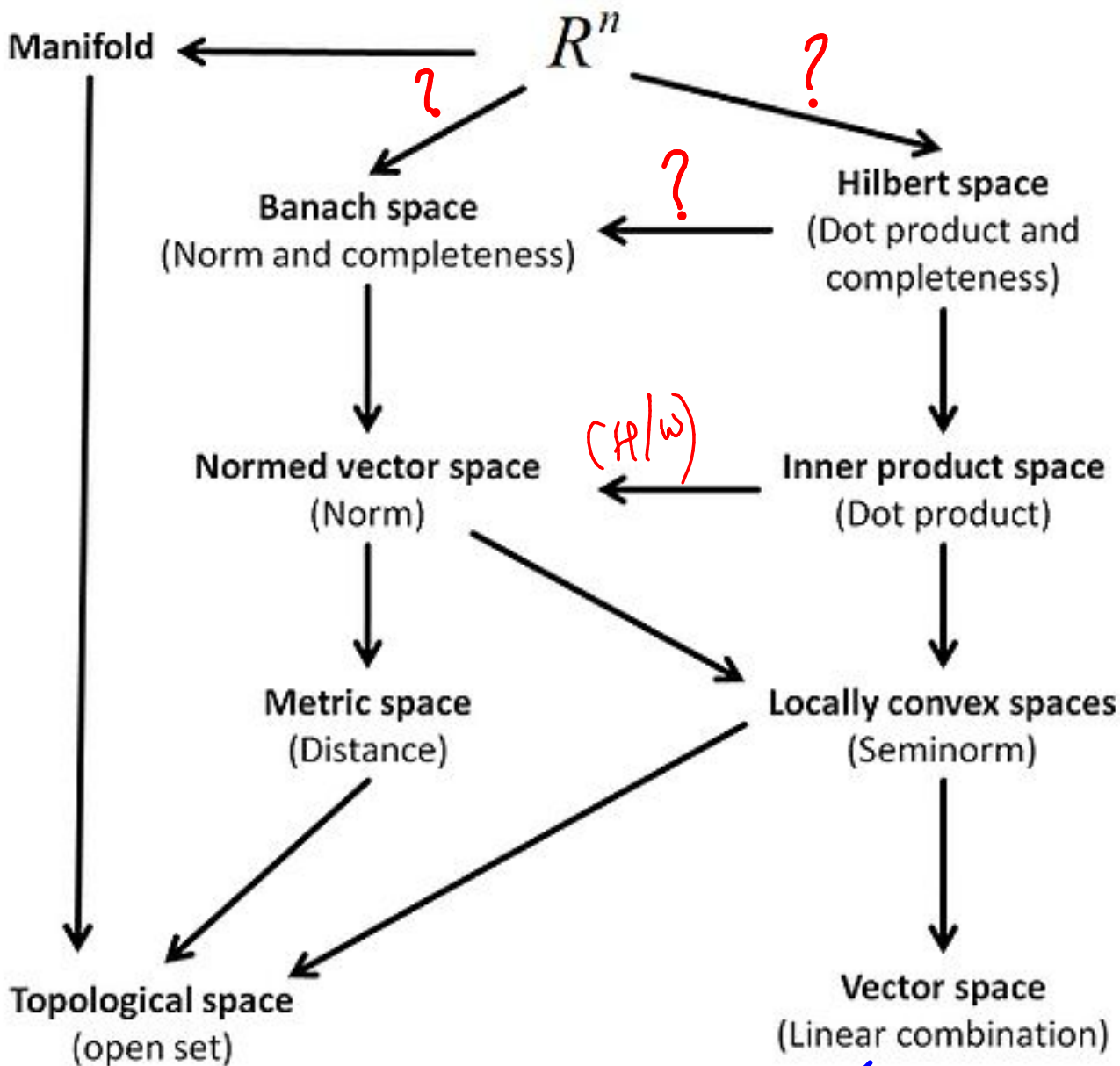
(By linearity of the inner product in the first argument)

$\therefore \langle u, u \rangle = \|u\|^2 = \langle z, z \rangle + \left| \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} \right|^2 \langle v, v \rangle + \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} \langle z, v \rangle$

Substituting for $u = z + \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle v, v \rangle} v$ } $= 0$ from above

$= \|z\|^2 + \left(\frac{\langle u, v \rangle^2}{\|v\|^2} \right) \geq \frac{\langle u, v \rangle^2}{\|v\|^2}$ } equality iff $z=0$

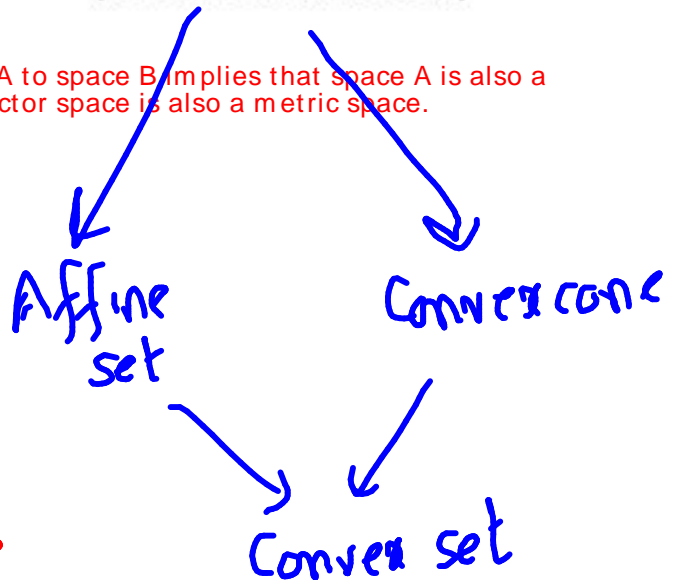
$\Rightarrow \|u\| \|v\| \geq |\langle u, v \rangle|$ } Cauchy Schwarz ineq. equality iff u & v are linearly dependent



Overview of types of abstract spaces. An arrow from space A to space B implies that space A is also a kind of space B. That means, for instance, that a normed vector space is also a metric space.

Recap:

Topological space S is closed if S contains limit points of all convergent sequences in S



Cauchy sequence: (in any metric space)

A sequence is Cauchy if its all its terms "eventually" become arbitrarily close to one another.

↳ ie given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N$ st ^{for any} if $m, n > N$ then $d(a_m, a_n) < \epsilon$

Q: Which of the following sequences are
(a) Cauchy (b) Convergent?

(i) $(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots)$ in \mathbb{R} (a) Cauchy & (b) Convergent

(ii) $(1, 1 + \frac{1}{2}, 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}, 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}, \dots) = (\sum_{i=1}^k (\frac{1}{i}) \dots)$
in \mathbb{R} (b) $a_k \geq 1 + (\log_2 k) \rightarrow \infty$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ \therefore Not convergent
(a) Not Cauchy since \mathbb{R} & not convergent?

(iii) $(1, \frac{1 + \frac{2}{1}}{2}, \dots, x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n + \frac{2}{x_n}}{2}, \dots)$ in \mathbb{Q}

(b) It is convergent in \mathbb{R} (to $\sqrt{2}$) but NOT in \mathbb{Q}
(a) It is Cauchy because it is convergent

Read: Babylonian method & Maclaurin series

↓
for approx $\sin(x)$
 $\cos(x)$

(iv) $(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots)$

in $(0, 2)$

(a) Cauchy by (i) (b) Not convergent in $(0, 2)$

Idea: If x is an overestimate of \sqrt{m}
where m is a non-negative real no, then
 $\frac{m}{x}$ is an underestimate of the square root:

ie if $x > \sqrt{m}$ then $\frac{m}{x} < \sqrt{m}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\left(x + \frac{m}{x}\right)$ will tend to approximate \sqrt{m}
 $1.5 > \sqrt{2}$ $2/1.5 < \sqrt{2}$

Idea: $m = (x+e)^2 \Rightarrow e = \frac{m-x^2}{2x+e} \approx \frac{m-x^2}{2x}$ (if $e \ll x$)

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} = x_n + e = \frac{x_n + \frac{m}{x_n}}{2}$$

Claim: Any convergent sequence in a Metric space must be Cauchy

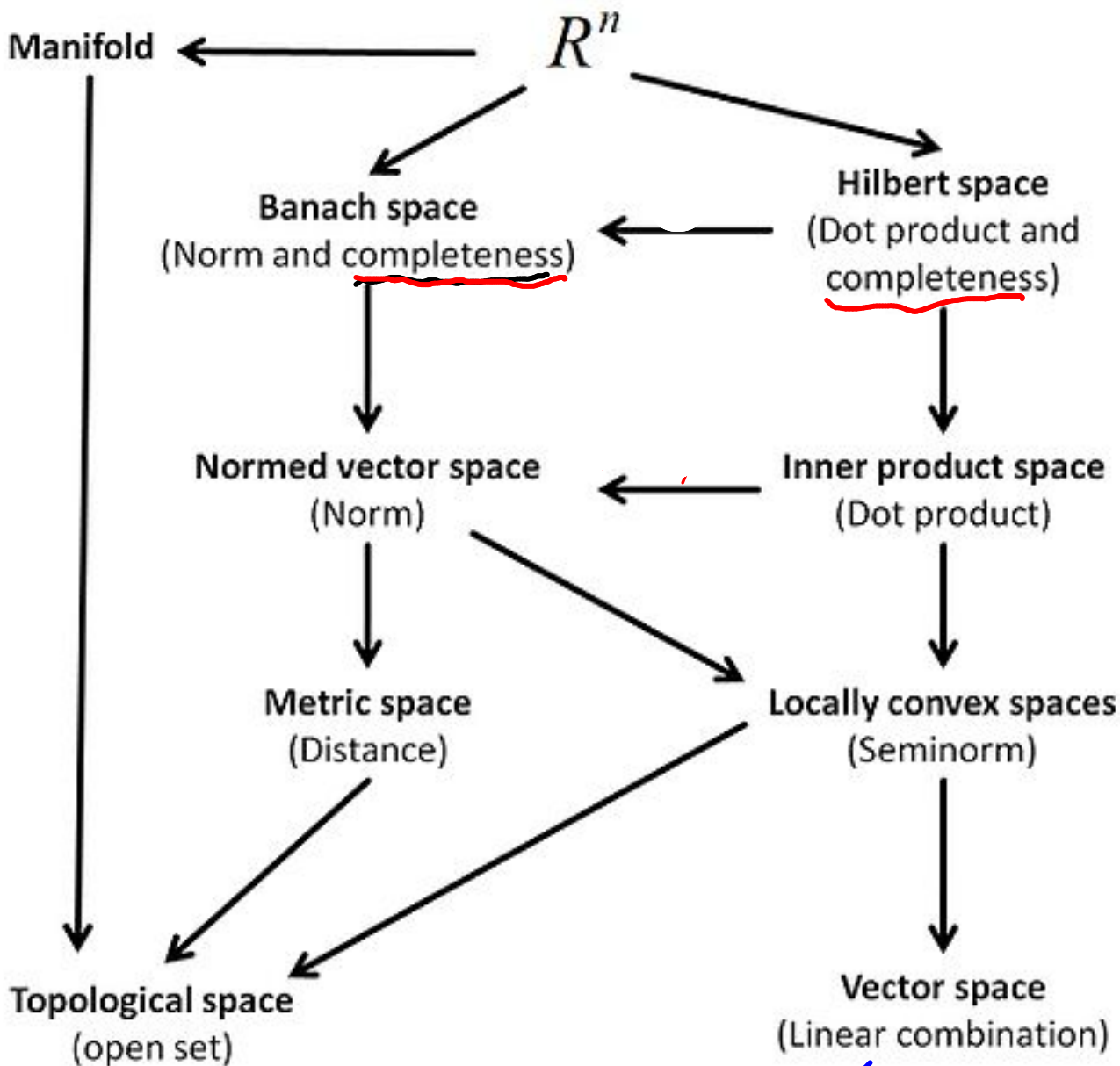
Proof:

Let $(s_n) \rightarrow s$. Given $\epsilon > 0$ choose N s.t
if $n > N$, we have $d(s_m, s_n) < \epsilon$

Then if $m, n > N$, $d(s_m, s_n) \leq d(s_m, s) + d(s, s_n)$
 $< 2\epsilon$

BUT GIVEN A METRIC SPACE S , EVERY CAUCHY SEQUENCE NEED NOT CONVERGE TO A LIMIT POINT IN S !

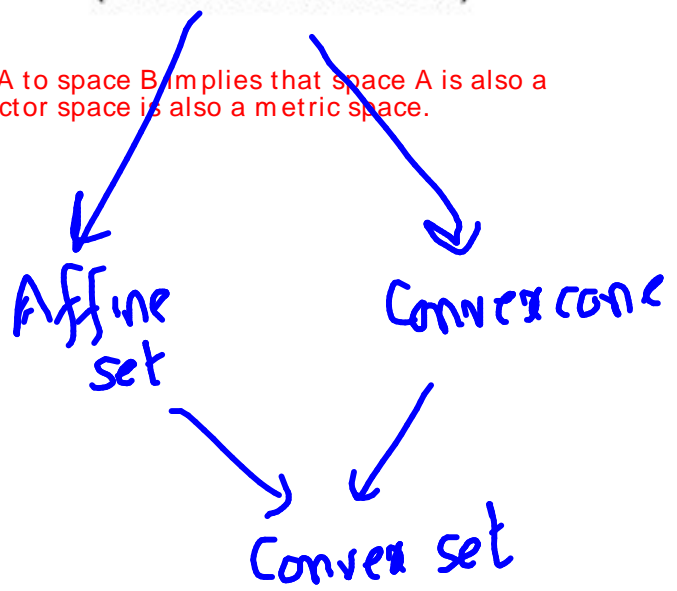
(We saw several examples: $\left(x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n + \frac{2}{x_n}}{2} \right)$)



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Complete metric space

A metric space S in which every cauchy sequence in S is convergent in S



Specialities of \mathbb{R}^n

① Every Cauchy sequence is convergent

② A bounded sequence has at least one limit point: Bolzano Weierstrass Theorem

eg: $(1, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots)$

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be a limit point of $\{x_k\}$ if \exists a subsequence of $\{x_k\}$ that converges to x .