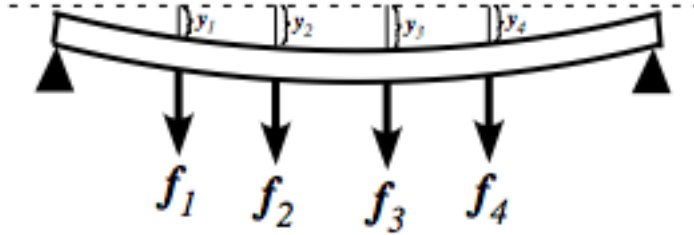


1. Suppose that a horizontal elastic beam is supported at each end and is subjected to forces at four points. Let the flexibility matrix D be given in centimeters per newton. Suppose forces of 20, 35, 40 and 15 newtons are applied at the four points. What will be the deflection at the four points? What forces would need to be applied so that the deflections are 0, 0.1, 0.1 and 0 cm at the corresponding points?



$$D = \begin{pmatrix} .040 & .021 & .015 & .012 \\ .030 & .042 & .030 & .024 \\ 0.020 & .028 & .045 & .032 \\ .010 & .014 & .022 & .048 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The deflections are given by $\mathbf{y} = D\mathbf{f}$. Inserting given forces we find using the program ©R,

$$\mathbf{y} = D\mathbf{f} = \begin{pmatrix} .040 & .021 & .015 & .012 \\ .030 & .042 & .030 & .024 \\ 0.020 & .028 & .045 & .032 \\ .010 & .014 & .022 & .048 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 35 \\ 40 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.915 \\ 3.330 \\ 3.460 \\ 2.190 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The stiffness matrix is D^{-1} . The forces for the given deflections are $\mathbf{f} = D^{-1}\mathbf{y} =$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 40.00000 & -20.000000 & 0.0000000 & 0.0000000 \\ -28.57143 & 57.1900047 & -26.874120 & -3.536068 \\ 0.00000 & -26.4026403 & 49.504950 & -19.801980 \\ 0.00000 & -0.4125413 & -14.851490 & 30.940590 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0.1 \\ 0.1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2.000000 \\ 3.031589 \\ 2.310231 \\ -1.526403 \end{pmatrix}$$

2. Suppose that $AB = AC$ where B and C are $p \times n$ matrices and A is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix. Show that $B = C$. Is it true in general when A is not invertible?

Since A is invertible, the inverse matrix A^{-1} exists. Premultiplying the equation by A^{-1} we find

$$B = IB = (A^{-1}A)B = A^{-1}(AB) = A^{-1}(AC) = (A^{-1}A)C = IC = C$$

as desired. For example, the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ is not invertible because its determinant is $ad - bc = 2 \cdot 2 - 4 \cdot 1 = 0$ but there are different C and B that yield the same product

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 22 \\ 2 & 11 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = AC$$

3. Explain why the columns of an $n \times n$ matrix are linearly independent and span \mathbf{R}^n when A is invertible.

Recall that the column vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$ are linearly independent if the only solution of the vector equation

$$A\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + x_2\mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

is the trivial solution. But since A is invertible, if we premultiply by the inverse we find

$$\mathbf{x} = I\mathbf{x} = (A^{-1}A)\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Thus the solution \mathbf{x} must be zero, showing that the columns are linearly independent.

Recall that the columns of A span \mathbf{R}^n if every vector $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ can be realized as a linear combination of the columns. This means, for every \mathbf{b} we can solve the equation

$$A\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + x_2\mathbf{a}_2 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{b}$$

But since A is invertible, if we premultiply by the inverse we find

$$\mathbf{x} = I\mathbf{x} = (A^{-1}A)\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}.$$

Thus there is solution \mathbf{x} giving the weights for a linear combination of the columns that equals \mathbf{b} . Since any $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is the linear combination of the column vectors, \mathbf{R}^n is spanned by the columns of A .

Knowing one of these, we could have also deduced the other from the fact that n linearly independent vectors of \mathbf{R}^n automatically span; or from the fact that n spanning vectors of \mathbf{R}^n are automatically linearly independent.

4. Find the inverse matrix of A . Check your answer.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Make an augmented matrix $[A; I]$ and reduce to RREF

$$\begin{aligned}
 \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} && \text{Swap } R_1 \text{ and } R_2 \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 & -3 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -7 & -7 & 0 & -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} && \begin{array}{l} \text{Replace } R_2 \text{ by } R_2 - 2R_1 \\ \text{Replace } R_3 \text{ by } R_3 - 3R_1 \end{array} \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -7 & -7 & 0 & -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} && \text{Multiply } R_2 \text{ by } -\frac{1}{4} \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{7}{4} & -\frac{7}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix} && \begin{array}{l} \text{Replace } R_1 \text{ by } R_1 - 2R_2 \\ \text{Replace } R_3 \text{ by } R_3 + 7R_2 \end{array} \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{4} & -\frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} \end{pmatrix} && \text{Multiply } R_3 \text{ by } -\frac{4}{7} \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{7} & \frac{2}{7} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & \frac{5}{7} & \frac{3}{7} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} \end{pmatrix} && \begin{array}{l} \text{Replace } R_1 \text{ by } R_1 - \frac{1}{2}R_3 \\ \text{Replace } R_2 \text{ by } R_2 - \frac{3}{4}R_3 \end{array}
 \end{aligned}$$

We check $A^{-1}A =$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{7} & \frac{2}{7} \\ -1 & \frac{5}{7} & \frac{3}{7} \\ 1 & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{7} & \frac{2}{7} \\ -1 & \frac{5}{7} & \frac{3}{7} \\ 1 & -\frac{2}{7} & -\frac{4}{7} \end{pmatrix} = AA^{-1}$$

5. Guess the form of A^{-1} and prove $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix}$$

The matrix A can be written in terms of elementary matrices. If $E(j, c)$ corresponds to multiplying R_j by c and $E(i, j, c)$ corresponds to replacing R_i by $R_i + cR_j$ then

$$\begin{aligned} A &= E(n, 1, 1) \cdots E(3, 1, 1)E(2, 1, 1) \\ &\quad \cdot E(n, 2, 1) \cdots E(4, 2, 1)E(3, 2, 1) \\ &\quad \cdot E(n, 3, 1) \cdots E(5, 3, 1)E(4, 3, 1) \\ &\quad \cdots \\ &\quad \cdot E(n, n-2, 1)E(n-1, n-2, 1) \\ &\quad \cdot E(n, n-1, 1) \\ &\quad \cdot E(n, n) \cdots E(3, 3)E(2, 2) \end{aligned}$$

To see why,

$$\begin{aligned} E(n, n) \cdots E(3, 3)E(2, 2) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & n-1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n \end{pmatrix} \\ E(n, n-2, 1)E(n-1, n-2, 1) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n-2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n-2 & n-1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n-2 & n-1 & n \end{pmatrix} \\ E(n, n-1, 1) \cdot E(n, n) \cdots E(3, 3)E(2, 2) &= \end{pmatrix}$$

And so on to fill up A by going down each column in turn.

Using $E(j, c)^{-1} = E(j, \frac{1}{c})$ and $E(i, j, c)^{-1} = E(i, j, -c)$ the inverse is

$$\begin{aligned}
A^{-1} &= E(2, \frac{1}{2})E(3, \frac{1}{3}) \cdots E(n, \frac{1}{n}) \\
&\quad \cdot E(n, n-1, -1) \\
&\quad \cdot E(n-1, n-2, -1)E(n, n-2, -1) \\
&\quad \cdots \\
&\quad \cdot E(4, 3, -1)E(5, 3, -1) \cdots E(n, 3, -1) \\
&\quad \cdot E(3, 2, -1)E(4, 2, -1) \cdots E(n, 2, -1) \\
&\quad \cdot E(2, 1, -1)E(3, 1, -1) \cdots E(n, 1, -1) \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -\frac{1}{n-1} & \frac{1}{n-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -\frac{1}{n} & \frac{1}{n} \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

To see why,

$$\begin{aligned}
E(2, 1, -1)E(3, 1, -1) \cdots E(n, 1, -1) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
E(3, 2, -1)E(4, 2, -1) \cdots E(n, 2, -1) &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
\cdot E(2, 1, -1)E(3, 1, -1) \cdots E(n, 1, -1) &
\end{aligned}$$

And so on wiping out each lower -1 column

$$\begin{aligned}
& E(n, n-1, -1) \\
& \cdot E(n-1, n-2, -1) E(n, n-2, -1) \\
& \quad \dots \\
& \cdot E(4, 3, -1) E(5, 3, -1) \dots E(n, 3, -1) \\
& \cdot E(3, 2, -1) E(4, 2, -1) \dots E(n, 2, -1) \\
& \cdot E(2, 1, -1) E(3, 1, -1) \dots E(n, 1, -1)
\end{aligned}
=
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}$$

This is multiplied by $\text{diag} \left[1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n} \right]$ to get A^{-1} . One checks that $A^{-1}A = I$ and $AA^{-1} = I$.

6. Explain why the columns of the $n \times n$ matrix A span \mathbf{R}^n whenever the columns of A are linearly independent.

Both conditions happen if and only if A is invertible, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem.

A less glib explanation goes as follows: Suppose the columns of A span \mathbf{R}^n . Then for any $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^n$, we find a linear combination of columns that equals \mathbf{b} , in other words for every \mathbf{b} you can solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. If the augmented matrix $[A, \mathbf{b}]$ is row-reduced, then the corresponding echelon matrix must have a pivot in every row. But since A is $n \times n$, there must be a pivot in every column. This means that the only solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. But this says that the only linear combination of the columns of A that makes $\mathbf{0}$ is the trivial linear combination. In other words, the columns of A satisfy the condition to be linearly independent.

Now these steps may be reversed: if the columns are independent then the only solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is trivial. Hence the echelon form of A must have a pivot in every column. But since A is $n \times n$, this says there is a pivot in every row. This implies that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ can be solved for every \mathbf{b} , in other words every \mathbf{b} is a linear combination of the columns of A , in other words the columns span \mathbf{R}^n .

7. Suppose you receive a stream of vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbf{R}^n$, and need to compute $G_k = X_k X_k^T$ where $X_k = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k]$ matrix whose columns are \mathbf{x}_i . Using partitioned matrices, show how to update to G_{k+1} using G_k and \mathbf{x}_{k+1} without having to construct X_{k+1} and $X_{k+1} X_{k+1}^T$ from scratch. (Text problem 124[17].)

The partitioning is $X_{k+1} = [X_k, \mathbf{x}_{k+1}]$. Thus

$$G_{k+1} = X_{k+1} X_{k+1}^T = \begin{pmatrix} X_k & \mathbf{x}_{k+1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X_k^T \\ \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^T \end{pmatrix} = X_k X_k^T + \mathbf{x}_{k+1} \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^T = G_k + \mathbf{x}_{k+1} \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^T.$$

8. Use partitioned matrices to show for $n = 1, 2, \dots$ that the $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible and that B is its inverse. (Text problem 124[24].)

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

An induction argument to prove sequence of logical propositions \mathcal{P}_n , one proves two statements. The first is the base case, to show that \mathcal{P}_2 is true. The second is the induction case, to show for all $n \geq 2$ that if \mathcal{P}_n is true then so is \mathcal{P}_{n+1} .

In the present problem \mathcal{P}_n is the statement “the $n \times n$ matrix A is invertible and that B is its inverse, where A and B are as above.”

In the bases case, when $n = 2$, we use the formula for the inverse of 2×2 matrices on A :

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 1 - 0 \cdot 1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = B$$

as desired.

In the induction case we assume $A^{-1} = B$ for $n \times n$ matrices. We need the formula for inverting the block lower triangular matrices. Assume A_{11} is an invertible $p \times p$ matrix, A_{22} is an invertible $q \times q$ matrix and A_{21} is any $q \times p$ matrix. Then we seek a matrix B such that $AB = I$ or

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix}$$

This leads to the equations

$$\begin{aligned} A_{11}B_{11} &= I \\ A_{11}B_{12} &= 0 \\ A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} &= 0 \\ A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} &= I \end{aligned}$$

The first and second equations say $B_{11} = A_{11}^{-1}$ and $B_{12} = 0$ since A_{11} is invertible. The fourth says $0 + A_{22}B_{22} = I$ so $B_{22} = A_{22}^{-1}$ since A_{22} is invertible. It follows from the third

$A_{22}B_{21} = -A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}$ which implies $B_{21} = -A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}$. Summarizing

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ -A_{22}^{-1} \cdot A_{21}A_{11}^{-1} & A_{22}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let's build the $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrix \mathcal{A} out of the $n \times n$ matrix A with inverse B , the 1×1 matrix 1 with inverse 1 and the $1 \times n$ matrix U consisting of all ones:

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ U & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Applying the inverse formula we get

$$\mathcal{A}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} B & 0 \\ -1 \cdot UB & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Computing

$$\begin{aligned} -1 \cdot UB &= (-1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\mathcal{A}^{-1} = \mathcal{B}$, the $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrix in the same pattern as B , as desired. The induction proof is complete.

We could do problem (5.) by the same method.

9. Solve the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ using LU factorization, where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -4 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Start by row reducing A to echelon form.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -4 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 8 & 7 \end{pmatrix} && \begin{array}{l} \text{Replace } R_2 \text{ by } R_2 - 2R_1 \\ \text{Replace } R_3 \text{ by } R_3 + 4R_1 \end{array} \\ &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} && \text{Replace } R_3 \text{ by } R_3 + 8R_2 \end{aligned}$$

The echelon matrix is U upper triangular. The lower triangular matrix L records the row operations column by column.

$$LU = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & -8 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -4 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = A$$

The equation $LU\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is solved in two steps, solving for \mathbf{y} then \mathbf{x} in

$$\begin{aligned} L\mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{b} \\ U\mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{y}. \end{aligned}$$

First back-substitution solves for \mathbf{y}

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & -8 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= 4 \\ y_2 &= 5 - 2y_1 = 5 - 2 \cdot 4 = -3 \\ y_3 &= 7 + 4y_1 + 8y_2 = 7 + 4 \cdot 4 + 8 \cdot (-3) = -1 \end{aligned}$$

Second back-substitution solves for \mathbf{x}

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}x_3 &= 1 \\x_2 &= -(-3 + x_3) = -(-3 + 1) = 2 \\x_1 &= 4 - 2x_2 - x_3 = 4 - 2 \cdot 2 - 1 = -1.\end{aligned}$$

Finally we check that this is correct:

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -4 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b}.$$

10. Suppose that $A = QR$ where Q and R are $n \times n$ matrices, R is invertible and upper triangular, and $Q^T Q = I$. Show that for each $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique solution. What computation with Q and R will produce that solution? (Text problem 132[24].)

Note that since $Q^T Q = I$ then Q is invertible and $Q^{-1} = Q^T$. The equation

$$QR\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

can be solved in two steps: solve for \mathbf{y} then \mathbf{x} in

$$\begin{aligned}Q\mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{b} \\R\mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{y}.\end{aligned}$$

Because Q and R are invertible, these equations imply

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{y} &= Q^{-1}\mathbf{b} = Q^T\mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{x} &= R^{-1}\mathbf{y} = R^{-1}Q^T\mathbf{b}\end{aligned}$$

This formula says both that the solution exists (one is given by the formula) and that it is unique (every solution has the same expression).

11. Find bases for $\text{Nul}(A)$ and $\text{Col}(A)$, the rank and the nullity of A where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 8 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Row reducing

$$\begin{aligned}
 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 8 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -9 & -12 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 & -14 & -19 \\ 0 & 0 & -11 & -19 & -27 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -9 & -12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{17}{2} & 11 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{61}{2} & 39 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -9 & -12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{17}{2} & 11 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{8}{17} \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus columns 1,3,4 and 5 are pivot columns. Thus a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$ is

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

There are four vectors in the basis, so the rank $r(A) = \dim(\text{Col}(A)) = 4$. x_2 is a free variable, and can take any real value. Solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ we see that

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_5 &= 0 \\
 x_4 &= 0 \\
 x_3 &= 0 \\
 x_1 &= -2x_2
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\text{Nul}(A) = \left\{ x_2 \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : x_2 \in \mathbf{R} \right\} \quad \text{which has the basis} \quad \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

The nullity, $n(A) = \dim(\text{Nul}(A)) = 1$.

12. Suppose that the columns of the matrix $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \dots, \mathbf{a}_p]$ are linearly independent. Explain why $\{\mathbf{a}_1 \dots, \mathbf{a}_p\}$ is a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$. (Text problem 154[30].)

$\text{Col}(A)$ is by definition $\text{span}(\{\mathbf{a}_1 \dots, \mathbf{a}_p\})$ hence the vectors $\{\mathbf{a}_1 \dots, \mathbf{a}_p\}$ span $\text{Col}(A)$. But a linearly independent spanning set is a basis.

13. Prove if $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_q\}$ is a basis for the linear subspace $H \subset \mathbf{R}^n$, then any finite subset $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\} \subset H$ with $p > q$ is linearly dependent. Conclude that every basis of H has the same dimension. (See problem 2 161[27,28].)

Let $B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_q]$ be the $n \times q$ matrix whose columns are the \mathbf{b}_i 's and $V = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p]$ be the $n \times p$ matrix whose columns are the \mathbf{v}_i 's. For $1 \leq i \leq p$, let $\mathbf{c}_i = [\mathbf{v}_i]_{\mathcal{B}}$ be the coordinates of the \mathbf{v}_i 's relative to \mathcal{B} , thus $\mathbf{v}_i = B\mathbf{c}_i$. Let $C = [\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_p]$ be the $q \times p$ matrix whose columns are the \mathbf{c}_i 's. Then $V = BC$.

Now let us prove that the \mathbf{v}_i 's are dependent. Because there are more columns than rows, the columns of C are not independent so there are weights $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbf{R}^p$ such $\mathbf{u} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and that a the combination of columns of C is zero, $C\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$. Multiplying by B we find

$$V\mathbf{u} = BC\mathbf{u} = B\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}.$$

It follows that there are nonzero weights \mathbf{u} such that the linear combination of the \mathbf{v}_i 's equals zero. But this is the definition that the \mathbf{v}_i 's are linearly dependent.

Now suppose that $\mathcal{V} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\} \subset H$ is another basis besides \mathcal{B} . We must have $p \leq q$, because, as we showed above, $p > q$ would mean that the \mathbf{v}_i 's are linearly dependent. Reversing the roles of \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{V} , we must have $q \leq p$ also, because if $q > p$, then there are more \mathbf{b}_i 's than in the basis \mathcal{V} , and as above, the \mathbf{b}_i 's would be dependent. Together these inequalities say that any two bases of H must have the same dimension.

14. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis for the linear subspace $H = \text{span}(\mathcal{B}) \subset \mathbf{R}^4$. Let $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in H$. Show that \mathcal{B} is a basis. Find $[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$. If $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{c}$, what is \mathbf{v} , where

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} ?$$

The set \mathcal{B} spans, by definition of H . It is a basis if it is also linearly independent. Inserting as column vectors, augmenting with \mathbf{u} we row reduce.

$$[B, \mathbf{u}] = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{4}{3} & \frac{4}{3} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & \frac{3}{2} & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

There is a pivot in every column so no free variables. The only solution of $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is trivial, hence the \mathbf{b}_i 's are independent, so \mathcal{B} is a basis. Solving $B\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{u}$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} y_3 &= 1 \\ y_2 &= \frac{2}{3}(7 - y_3) = \frac{2}{3}(7 - 1) = 4 \\ y_1 &= -\frac{1}{2}(2 - y_2) = -\frac{1}{2}(2 - 4) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have the coefficients of \mathbf{u} relative to \mathcal{B} ,

$$[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{because } B\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{u}, \text{ or } 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 4 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Finally $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{c}$ means

$$\mathbf{v} = B\mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 9 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

15. Construct a nonzero 3×3 matrix A and a nonzero vectors \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{c} and \mathbf{d} such that \mathbf{b} is in $\text{Col}(A)$ but is not the same as any of the columns of A , \mathbf{c} is not in $\text{Col}(A)$ and \mathbf{d} is in $\text{Nul}(A)$. (Text problems 154[27, 28, 29].)

Just about any noninvertible matrix will do. Try

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} -5 \\ -2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{d} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We see that $\mathbf{b} \in \text{Col}(A)$ and $\mathbf{d} \in \text{Nul}(A)$ because

$$A \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b}, \quad \text{and} \quad A\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{0}$$

We see that $A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c}$ is inconsistent so $\mathbf{c} \notin \text{Col}(A)$ by row reduction

$$[A, \mathbf{c}] = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 & 7 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

which is an inconsistent system.

16. Find a basis for the subspace spanned by the given vectors. What is the dimension of the subspace?

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 5 \\ -12 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -6 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ -3 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

We put the vectors in as columns, starting with the last because its simpler, row reduce and pick the vectors corresponding to pivot columns for the basis

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 6 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 5 \\ -3 & 0 & -3 & -6 & -12 \\ 3 & 3 & 6 & 3 & 15 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 6 & 6 & -6 & 6 \\ 0 & -3 & -3 & 3 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The first two columns are pivots, thus the basis is the corresponding columns of the original matrix and the dimension of H is two.

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

17. Compute the determinant by cofactor expansion.

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

The second column has the most zeros so use it to expand.

$$\Delta = +1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

Now expand by the last rows.

$$\Delta = \left\{ 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \right\} - 2 \left\{ -1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \right\}$$

Finally, expand the second rows (or invoke the 3×3 determinant formulæ).

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta &= \left\{ -1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \right\} + \left\{ -1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \right\} \\
&\quad + 2 \left\{ -1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \right\} - 2 \left\{ -1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \right\} \\
&= \{-(1 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 3) - 3(2 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 0)\} + \{-(1 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 1) + (2 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 0)\} \\
&\quad + 2\{-(1 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 3) - 3(1 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 1)\} - 2\{-(1 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 3) - 3(2 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 0)\} \\
&= \{4 - 18\} + \{-2 + 6\} + 2\{4 - 6\} - 2\{4 - 18\} = -14 + 4 - 4 + 28 = 14.
\end{aligned}$$

18. Find the determinant from Problem 17 using row reduction.

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta &= \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = (-1)^3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Swap } R_3 \text{ and } R_4 \\ \text{Then swap } R_2 \text{ and } R_3. \\ \text{Then swap } R_1 \text{ and } R_2. \end{array} \\
&= - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\
&= - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta &= - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \\
&= - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{7}{2} \end{vmatrix} \\
&= - (1 \cdot (-2) \cdot (\frac{1}{2}) \cdot 4 \cdot \frac{7}{2}) = 14.
\end{aligned}$$

19. Find a formula for $\det(rA)$ where A is an $n \times n$ matrix. Prove your formula. (Text problem 178[36].)

Claim: $\det(rA) = r^n \det(A)$. Proof by induction (see problem 8 about induction arguments.)

Base case $n = 1$, where $A = (a)$. Then $\det(rA) = ra = r \det(A)$.

Induction case. Assume the statement is true for $n \times n$ matrices to show it for $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrices. Let A be an $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrix. By definition, the determinant is given inductively by first row expansion

$$\det(rA) = \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (-1)^{1+j} (ra_{1j}) \det(rA_{1j})$$

where A_{1j} is obtained by deleting the first row and j th column from A . Similarly rA_{1j} is obtained by deleting the first row and j th column from rA . rA_{1j} is an $n \times n$ matrix, so the induction hypothesis may be applied to this matrix

$$\det(rA_{1j}) = r^n \det(A_{1j}).$$

Inserting this into the formula,

$$\det(rA) = \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (-1)^{1+j} (ra_{1j}) r^n \det(A_{1j}) = r^{n+1} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (-1)^{1+j} a_{1j} \det(A_{1j}) = r^n \det(A)$$

completes the induction step.

20. Show that if two rows of square matrix A are equal then $\det(A) = 0$. The same is true for columns. Why? (Text problem 178[30].)

Suppose rows i and j are equal, $i \neq j$. Then the elementary row operation of replacing row R_j by $R_j - R_i$ results in a zero row j

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} & \vdots & \\ - & R_i & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & R_j & - \\ & \vdots & \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} & \vdots & \\ - & R_i & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & \mathbf{0} & - \\ & \vdots & \end{vmatrix}$$

Now using row expansion on the j th row

$$\Delta = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{j+k} 0 \cdot \det(A_{jk}) = 0.$$

If columns C_i and C_j are equal, then they become equal rows in the transposed matrix A^T . The row statement says for such matrices $\det(A^T) = 0$. But the determinant of a matrix equals the determinant of its transpose

$$\det A = \det(A^T) = 0.$$

Or we could have argued as above by using column operations instead of row operations.

21. Solve using Cramer's Rule.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Put

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 14$$

The solutions are ratios of determinants

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 3 & 3 \\ 6 & 2 & 4 \\ 7 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{5 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot 6 \cdot 1 - 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 6 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 7}{14} = \frac{16}{7}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 6 & 4 \\ 3 & 7 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{2 \cdot 6 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 7 - 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 - 5 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 6 \cdot 3}{14} = -\frac{11}{7}$$

$$x_3 = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 1 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot 6 \cdot 3 + 5 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 6 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 7 - 5 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{14} = \frac{12}{7}$$

22. Find the inverse using Cramer's Inverse Formula.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Put

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 - 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 3 - 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 - 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 8$$

Then, Cramer's rule expresses A^{-1} in terms of cofactors $C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{ij})$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} \\ C_{31} & C_{32} & C_{33} \end{pmatrix}^T = \frac{1}{8} \begin{pmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} 25 \\ 32 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} 33 \\ 32 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} 33 \\ 25 \end{vmatrix} \\ - \begin{vmatrix} 15 \\ 32 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} 23 \\ 32 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} 23 \\ 15 \end{vmatrix} \\ + \begin{vmatrix} 12 \\ 33 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} 23 \\ 33 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} 23 \\ 12 \end{vmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{8} \begin{pmatrix} -11 & 3 & 9 \\ 13 & -5 & -7 \\ -3 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

23. Let $T \subset \mathbf{R}^2$ be a triangle with vertices (x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) and (x_3, y_3) Show that its area is given by A . (Text problems 187/29,30].)

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

The area of a triangle whose vertices are 0 , \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 in \mathbf{R}^2 is half the area of a parallelogram generated by \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 , thus is the determinant of a matrix whose columns are \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \det([\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2])$$

Translating the triangle by $(-x_1, -y_1)$ to the origin, the sides are

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 - x_1 \\ y_2 - y_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} x_3 - x_1 \\ y_3 - y_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

View the vectors in the x - y plane of \mathbf{R}^3 by augmenting by zero,

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now the right cylinder with base given by the parallelogram spanned by $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_1$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_2$ and height 1 is the parallelepiped generated by $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_1$, $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_2$ and \mathbf{e}_3 . Its volume is equal to the area of its base times height, or in other words

$$V = \det([\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_1, \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_2, \mathbf{e}_3]) = 2A \cdot 1$$

By row operations and then column operations, then transpose and row swaps

$$\begin{aligned} 2A &= \begin{vmatrix} x_2 - x_1 & x_3 - x_1 & 0 \\ y_2 - y_1 & y_3 - y_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} x_2 - x_1 & x_3 - x_1 & x_1 \\ y_2 - y_1 & y_3 - y_1 & y_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} x_2 & x_3 & x_1 \\ y_2 & y_3 & y_1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \\ x_1 & y_1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{vmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

24. Consider the subset H of the vector space of continuous functions on the interval $[a, b]$. Is H a subspace of $\mathcal{C}([a, b])$? (H is the subset satisfying periodic boundary conditions.)

$$H = \{f \in \mathcal{C}([a, b]) : f(a) = f(b)\}$$

To be a subspace, we have to show that H is closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication. So we check if the sum satisfies the condition to belong to H . Choose any two continuous function $f, g \in H$ and any number $c \in \mathbf{R}$. Then $f(a) = f(b)$ and $g(a) = g(b)$. Thus the vector sum and scalar multiple satisfy

$$\begin{aligned}(f + g)(a) &= f(a) + g(a) = f(b) + g(b) = (f + g)(b), \\ (cf)(a) &= c(f(a)) = c(f(b)) = (cf)(b)\end{aligned}$$

Thus $f + g \in H$ and $cf \in H$ so H is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. It is a vector subspace of $\mathcal{C}([a, b])$.

25. Let $\mathcal{T}(V, W) = \{T : V \rightarrow W : T \text{ is a linear transformation}\}$ be the set of linear transformations mapping the vector space V to the vector space W . The addition of two transformations $S, T \in \mathcal{T}(V, W)$ and scalar multiplication by $c \in \mathbf{R}$ is defined by

$$(S + T)(x) := S(x) + T(x), \quad (cT)(x) := cT(x).$$

Show that $\mathcal{T}(V, W)$ is a real vector space.

The proof that a set with operations is a vector space amounts to checking that the ten axioms for a vector space are satisfied. It turns out that the fact that W is a vector space is used for every step. Following the order on p. 192, suppose that $S, T, U \in \mathcal{T}(V, W)$ and that $c, d \in \mathbf{R}$.

(1) The sum $S + T$ is a linear transformation because $(S + T)(x + y) = S(x + y) + T(x + y) = [S(x) + S(y)] + [T(x) + T(y)] = [S(x) + T(x)] + [S(y) + T(y)] = (S + T)(x) + (S + T)(y)$ for every $x, y \in V$ because of the definition of addition on transformations, the linearity of S and T , and again, the definition of addition on transformations. Similarly, $(S + T)(cx) = S(cx) + T(cx) = cS(x) + cT(x) = c(S(x) + T(x)) = c(S + T)(x)$ for all $x \in V$ and all $c \in \mathbf{R}$ because of the definition of addition on transformations, the linearity of S , and the definition of the addition of transformations.

(2) For every $x \in V$, $(S + T)(x) = S(x) + T(x) = T(x) + S(x) = (T + S)(x)$ because of the commutativity of vector addition in W .

(3) For every $x \in V$, $[(S + T) + U](x) = (S + T)(x) + U(x) = [S(x) + T(x)] + U(x) = S(x) + [T(x) + U(x)] = S(x) + (T + U)(x) = [S + (T + U)](x)$ because of the associativity of vector addition in W .

(4) Let $Z(x) = 0$ be the transformation that sends all vectors to zero. It is the additive identity because, for all $x \in V$, $(T + Z)(x) = T(x) + Z(x) = T(x) + 0 = T(x)$, by the additive identity property of $0 \in W$.

(5) Let $(-T)(x) = -T(x)$ be the transformation that takes x to the additive inverse of $T(x)$ in W . One checks that it is a linear transformation. It serves as the additive inverse in the space of transformations because, for all $x \in V$, $(T + [-T])(x) = T(x) + [-T](x) = T(x) + [-T(x)] = 0 = Z(x)$, using the fact that $-T(x)$ is the additive inverse of $T(x)$ in W .

(6) The scalar multiple cT is a linear transformation because $(cT)(x + y) = cT(x + y) = c[T(x) + T(y)] = [cT(x)] + [cT(y)] = (cT)(x) + (cT)(y)$ for every $x, y \in V$ because of the definition of scalar multiplication on transformations, the linearity of T , and again, the definition of addition on transformations. Similarly, $(cT)(kx) = cT(kx) = c[kT(x)] =$

$k[cT(x)] = k(cT)(x)$ for all $x \in V$ and all $k \in \mathbf{R}$ because of the definition of scalar multiplication on transformations, the linearity of S , and the definition of the scalar multiplication of transformations.

(7) For all $x \in V$, $[c(S + T)](x) = c[(S + T)(x)] = c[S(x) + T(x)] = [cS(x)] + [cT(x)] = (cS)(x) + (cT)(x) = [(cS) + (cT)](x)$ using the distributivity with respect to vector addition in W .

(8) For all $x \in V$, $[(c + d)T](x) = (c + d)T(x) = [cT(x)] + [dT(x)] = [(cT)(x)] + [(dT)(x)] = [(cT) + (dT)](x)$ using the distributivity with respect to scalar addition in W .

(9) For all $x \in V$, $[c(dT)](x) = c[(dT)(x)] = c[dT(x)] = (cd)T(x) = [(cd)T](x)$ using the associativity of scalar multiplication in W .

(10) For all $x \in V$, $(1T)(x) = 1[T(x)] = T(x)$, using $1y = y$ property of W .

The steps require careful interpretation but it is all a little tedious.

26. Let H and K be vector subspaces of the vector space \mathbb{V} . Show that the intersection $H \cap K$ is also a vector subspace. Show by example, however, that the union of two subspaces is not necessarily a vector subspace. (Text problem 199[32].)

Let us check the three properties of a vector subspace. First, since zero is in both $\mathbf{0} \in H$ and $\mathbf{0} \in K$, it is in the intersection $\mathbf{0} \in H \cap K$. Second let $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in H \cap K$ be two vectors in the intersection, we must show that their sum is in the intersection as well. But since \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are in the intersection, both must belong to both subspaces. For instance $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in H$. But because H is a subspace, it contains sums $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in H$. Similarly since $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in K$, because K is a subspace, it contains sums $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in K$. Now that the sum is in both subspaces, it is in their intersection too $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in H \cap K$. Third, let $\mathbf{u} \in H \cap K$ be a vector in the intersection and $c \in \mathbf{R}$ be any number. We must show that their scalar product is in the intersection as well. But since \mathbf{u} is in the intersection, it must belong to both subspaces. For instance, since $\mathbf{u} \in H$, because H is a subspace, it contains scalar multiples $c\mathbf{u} \in H$. Similarly since $\mathbf{u} \in K$, because K is a subspace, it contains scalar products $c\mathbf{u} \in K$. Now that $c\mathbf{u}$ is in both subspaces, it is in their intersection too $c\mathbf{u} \in H \cap K$.

Let \mathbf{e}_i be unit coordinate vectors in \mathbf{R}^3 . Let's give an example that shows unions are not necessarily subspaces. If $H = \text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$ then it is a subspace because it is a span. Indeed it is the x - y coordinate plane. Let $K = \text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ which is a subspace because it is a span which is the y - z coordinate plane. The union $H \cup K$ is the union of these planes which does not contain all points. Both \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_3 are vectors in one of the subspaces so also in their union. But the sum $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_3$ is in neither plane, and so not in the union. \mathbf{v} is not spanned by \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_2 so not in H and is not spanned by \mathbf{e}_2 and \mathbf{e}_3 so not in K either, thus $\mathbf{v} \notin H \cup K$. Thus $H \cup K$ is not closed under addition, so fails to be a vector subspace. Another way to see it is $H \cup K$ contains the basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ of \mathbf{R}^3 . If it were a subspace, it would contain all linear combinations, which is all of \mathbf{R}^3 , but it does not.

27. Let $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ denote the vector space of continuous functions on the interval $[0, 1]$. Define a mapping $T : \mathcal{C}[0, 1] \rightarrow \mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ by Tf is the antiderivative of f with $(Tf)(0) = 0$. Show that T is a linear transformation and describe the kernel of T . (Text problem 209[34].)

The operator may be given as the definite integral. For $f \in \mathcal{C}[0, 1]$,

$$(Tf)(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt.$$

Since the integral of a continuous function is continuous in x , it maps to $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$. It is an antiderivative since $(Tf)'(x) = f(x)$ and $(Tf)(0) = 0$. It remains to show that it is

closed under addition and scalar multiplication. To check closure under addition, choose $f, g \in \mathcal{C}[0, 1]$. We have by linearity of the integral,

$$(T[f + g])(x) = \int_0^x [f + g](t) dt = \int_0^x f(t) dt + \int_0^x g(t) dt = (Tf)(x) + (Tg)(x).$$

To check closure under scalar multiplication, choose $f \in \mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ and $c \in \mathbf{R}$. We have by linearity of the integral,

$$(T[cf])(x) = \int_0^x [cf](t) dt = \int_0^x cf(t) dt = c \int_0^x f(t) dt = c[(Tf)(x)].$$

To find the kernel we seek $f \in \mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ such that $(Tf)(x) = z(x)$, where $z(x) = 0$ is the additive zero vector (function) in $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ (since for any f , $f + z = f$). In other words, we seek f so that

$$(Tf)(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt = z(x) = 0, \quad \text{for all } x \in [0, 1].$$

Differentiating, using the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f(x) = (Tf)'(x) = z'(x) = 0, \quad \text{for all } x \in [0, 1].$$

Thus $\ker(T) = \{z\}$ is just the zero vector (the dead zero function.)