

## HW7 Solutions

Math 2310

### 4.4.1

- (a) Independent, change the second vector to  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- (b) Orthogonal, change the second vector to  $\begin{bmatrix} .8 \\ -.6 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- (c) Orthonormal.

### 4.4.2

$$Q = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$Q^T Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$Q Q^T = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & -4 \\ 2 & 8 & 2 \\ -4 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

### 4.4.3

- (a)  $A^T A$  is the  $3 \times 3$  diagonal matrix with the columns of  $A$ 's lengths squared on the diagonal.
- (b)  $A^T A$  is the  $3 \times 3$  diagonal matrix with 1, 4, 9 on the diagonal.

**4.4.4**

(a) From 4.4.2,  $Q = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

(b) Any vector and 0 are orthogonal (dot product is 0) but not linearly independent.

(c) For this pick two other vectors independent of  $q_1 = (1, 1, 1)/\sqrt{3}$  and apply Gram-Schmidt, or alternatively find two vectors orthogonal to  $q_1$  (and each other) and normalize them. For example,  $q_2 = (1, -1, 0)/\sqrt{2}$  and  $q_3 = (1, 1, -2)/\sqrt{6}$ .

**4.4.7**

The solution  $\hat{x}$  satisfies  $Q^T Q \hat{x} = Q^T b$  but  $Q^T Q = I$  so  $\hat{x} = Q^T b$ .

**4.4.14**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**4.4.15**

(a) Gram-Schmidt yields  $q_1 = \frac{1}{3}(1, 2, -2)$ ,  $q_2 = \frac{1}{3}(2, 1, 2)$ , and  $q_3 = \frac{1}{3}(2, -2, -1)$ .

(b) The left nullspace.

(c)  $\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T (1, 2, 7) = (1, 2)$ .

**4.4.18**

$$q_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -1, 0, 0), \quad q_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(1, 1, -2, 0), \quad q_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}(1, 1, 1, -3).$$

#### 4.4.22

$A = (1, 1, 2)$ ,  $B = (1, -1, 0)$ ,  $C = (-1, -1, 1)$ . Completing Gram-Schmidt would also divide these by their lengths.

#### 4.4.24

(a) One basis for  $A$  is the 3 special solutions  $(-1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $(-1, 0, 1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0, 0, 1)$  to the equation  $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 - x_4 = 0$ .

(b)  $S$  is the subspace of vectors perpendicular to the vector  $(1, 1, 1, -1)$ , so  $(1, 1, 1, -1)$  is a basis for  $S^\perp$ .

(c) Project onto both subspaces  $S, S^\perp$ :  $b_1 = \frac{1}{2}(1, 1, 1, 3)$  and  $b_2 = \frac{1}{2}(1, 1, 1, -1)$ .

#### 4.5.1

$\det(2A) = 2^4 \det(A) = 16/2 = 8$ , as by linearity each of the 4 rows multiplied by 2 contributes a factor of 2.

$\det(-A) = (-1)^4 \det(A) = 1/2$  for the same reason.

$\det(A^2) = \det(A)\det(A) = 1/4$ .

$\det(A^{-1})\det(A) = \det(A^{-1}A) = \det(I) = 1$ , so  $\det(A^{-1}) = 1/\det(A) = 2$ .

#### 4.5.3

(a) False. For  $I$   $2 \times 2$ ,  $\det(I + I) = \det(2I) = 2^2 \det(I) = 4\det(I) \neq \det(I) + \det(I)$ .

(b) True, by repeated application of  $|AB| = |A||B|$ .

(c) False. If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  for  $n > 1$  then  $\det(4A) = 4^n \det(A) \neq 4\det(A)$ .

(d) False. For  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $AB - BA = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , which is invertible.

#### 4.5.4

For  $J_3$ , exchange rows 1 and 3 to get  $I$ . which shows that  $\det(J_3) = -1$ .

For  $J_4$ , exchange rows 1 and 4 then 2 and 3 to get  $I$ , which shows that  $\det(J_4) = (-1)^2 = 1$ .

#### 4.5.8a

$1 = \det(I) = \det(Q^T Q) = \det(Q^T) \det(Q) = \det(Q) \det(Q) = \det(Q)^2$ , and the only possible determinants  $\det(Q)$  which square to 1 are 1 or -1.

#### 4.5.10

If each row of  $A$  sums to 0 then  $A(1, \dots, 1) = 0$  so  $A$  has nontrivial nullspace and is not invertible, so  $\det(A) = 0$ .

If each row sums to 1 then  $A - I$  has each row sum to 0, so  $\det(A - I) = 0$ .  $\det(A)$  is not necessarily 1 as the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  has this property but its determinant is 13.

#### 4.5.11

$|C||D| = (-1)^n |D||C|$  where the matrices are  $n \times n$ . Therefore this statement is only true when  $n$  is odd.

#### 4.5.12

For  $2 \times 2$  matrices,  $\det(cA) = c^2 \det(A)$  not  $c \det(A)$ , so  $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{ad-bc} = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$ .

#### 4.5.13 (first matrix)

$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  so  $\det(A) = 1$  as the product of the pivots.

**4.5.14 (first matrix)**

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ so } \det(A) = 1 * 2 * 3 * 6 = 36.$$

**4.5.15 (first matrix)**

The first two steps of elimination reduces the first matrix to  $\begin{bmatrix} 101 & 201 & 301 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ , which clearly does not have linearly independent rows so its determinant is 0.

**4.5.28**

- (a) For  $A, B$  square this is true as  $\det(A) = 0$  and  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B) = 0$ .
- (b) This is false when a row exchange is used in reducing  $A$  to upper triangular form.
- (c) False.  $\det(2I - I) = \det(I) = 1$  but  $\det(2I) - \det(I) = 2^2 - 1 = 3$ .
- (d) True.  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B) = \det(B)\det(A) = \det(BA)$ .