§ 4 Basis I & II Jessica Wei

MOTIVATION: Earlier we saw [1,0],[0,1] generates \mathbb{R}^2 i.e.

$$Span[1, 0], [0, 1] = \mathbb{R}^2$$

What does this mean? For any vector $\overrightarrow{v} = [a, b] \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we can define its location as

$$a[1,0] + b[0,1] = \overrightarrow{v}$$

DEF | Coordinates

Let G be a generating set of vectors and V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F}

$$Span(G) = V$$

The coordinates of a vector $\overrightarrow{v} \in V$ with respect to the set G are the coefficients $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n$ where

$$\overrightarrow{v} = \alpha_1 \overrightarrow{g}_1 + \alpha_2 \overrightarrow{g}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \overrightarrow{g}_n$$

and $\overrightarrow{g}_i \in G$.

Example. Find the coordinates of vector $\overrightarrow{v} = [1, 2]$ with respect to the given generating set of \mathbb{R}^2 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(a)} & G = [1,1], [-1,1] \\ & [1,2] = \alpha[1,1], \beta[-1,1] \\ & [\alpha,\alpha] + [-\beta,\beta] \\ & [\alpha-\beta,\alpha+\beta] \\ & [1,2] = \frac{3}{2}[1,1] + \frac{1}{2}[-1,1] \\ & \text{Coordinates:} < \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2} > G \end{array}$$

(b)
$$G_2 = [-2, 0], [0, 1]$$

 $[1, 2] = \alpha[-2, 0] + \beta[0, 1]$
 $[-2\alpha, 0] + [0, \beta]$
 $-2\alpha = 1, \beta = 2$
 $\alpha = \frac{-1}{2}$
Coordinates: $\langle \frac{-1}{2}, 2 \rangle_{G_2}$

NOTE: We could also argue that H=[1,0],[0,1],[2,0] also generates \mathbb{R}^2 e.g. $\overrightarrow{v}\in\mathbb{R}$

$$\overrightarrow{v} = \alpha[1, 0] + \beta[0, 1] + \lambda[2, 0]$$

$$1, 2 = [\alpha, 0] + [0, \beta] + [2\lambda, 0] = [\alpha + 2\lambda, \beta]$$

$$\beta = 1 \quad \alpha = -1 \quad \lambda = 1 \quad <-1, 1, 1 >_H$$

$$\beta = 1 \quad \alpha = 1 \quad \lambda = 0 \quad <1, 1, 0 >_H$$

$$\beta = 1 \quad \alpha = 2 \quad \lambda = -\frac{1}{2} \quad <1, 2, -\frac{1}{2} >_H$$

We obtain more than one possible set of coordinates for the same vector under the same generating set. Confusing!

DEF | Linear Dependence

The vectors $\overrightarrow{v_1}, \overrightarrow{v_2}, ..., \overrightarrow{v_k}$ are linearly dependent if we can find scalars $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k \in \mathbb{F}$ not all zero such that

$$\alpha_{1}\overrightarrow{v}_{1} + \alpha_{2}\overrightarrow{v}_{2} + \dots + \alpha_{k}\overrightarrow{v}_{k} = \overrightarrow{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{i}\overrightarrow{v}_{i} = -\alpha_{1}\overrightarrow{v}_{1} - \alpha_{2}\overrightarrow{v}_{2} - \dots - \alpha_{k}\overrightarrow{v}_{k}$$

$$\Rightarrow \overrightarrow{v}_{i} = \frac{\alpha_{1}}{\alpha_{i}}\overrightarrow{v}_{1} - \frac{\alpha_{2}}{\alpha_{i}}\overrightarrow{v}_{2} - \dots - \frac{\alpha_{k}}{\alpha_{i}}\overrightarrow{v}_{k}$$

i.e. any vector in the set can be written as a linear combination of the rest of the vectors.

Example. Determine if the set of vectors is linearly dependent.

- (a) [1,0], [2,0] $\alpha_1[1,0] + \alpha_2[2,0] = [0,0]$ $alpha_1 = -2, \alpha_2 = 1 \Rightarrow \text{linearly dependent}$
- (b) [1,0,0],[0,2,0],[2,4,0],[0,1,0] $\alpha_1[1,0,0] + \alpha_2[0,2,0] + \alpha_3[2,4,0] + \alpha_4[0,1,0] = \overrightarrow{0}$ $\alpha_1 = -2\alpha_2 = -2\alpha_3 = 1\alpha_4 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{linearly dependent}$
- (c) [1,0,0], [0,2,0], [0,0,4] $\alpha_1[1,0,0] + \alpha_2[0,2,0] + \alpha_3[0,0,4] = [0,0,0]$ $\alpha_1 = 0\alpha_2 = 0\alpha_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{linearly independent}$

LEMMA 1

Let $G = \overrightarrow{v}_1, ..., \overrightarrow{v}_k$ where $\overrightarrow{v}_i \in \mathbb{F}^2$. Then $\overrightarrow{x} \in Span(G)$ if and only if $\exists \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}$ such that

$$\alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \overrightarrow{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + \alpha_{k+1} \overrightarrow{x} = 0$$

and not all scalars are 0.

Proof. Assume

$$\alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + \alpha_{k+1} \overrightarrow{x} = 0$$

and not all scalars are 0. Then,

$$\alpha_{k+1} \overrightarrow{x} = -\alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 - \dots - \alpha_k \overrightarrow{v}_k$$

$$\overrightarrow{x} = \frac{-\alpha_1}{\alpha_{k+1}} \overrightarrow{v}_1 - \dots - \frac{-\alpha_k}{\alpha_{k+1}} \overrightarrow{v}_k$$

$$= \beta_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \dots + \beta_k \overrightarrow{v}_k$$

where
$$\beta_i = \frac{-\alpha_i}{\alpha_{k+1}}$$

 $\Rightarrow \overrightarrow{x} \in Span(G)$

Now assume $\overrightarrow{x}tSpan(G)$. Then $\exists \lambda_i \in \mathbb{F}$ such that

$$\overrightarrow{x} = \lambda_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k \overrightarrow{v}_k$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \dots + \lambda_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + (-1) \overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{0}$$

Hence $\lambda_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + ... + \lambda_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + \lambda_{k+1} \overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{0}$ where $\lambda_{k+1} = -1$

LEMMA 2Let $S = \overrightarrow{v}_1, \overrightarrow{v}_2, ..., \overrightarrow{v}_k, \overrightarrow{x}$ such that $\overrightarrow{x} = \alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v} + ... + \alpha_k \overrightarrow{v}_k$. Then $Span(S) = Span(S - \overrightarrow{x})$

Proof NTS 1. $Span(S) \leq Span(S - \overrightarrow{x})$ and 2. $Span(S - \overrightarrow{x}) \leq SpanS$

(1) Pick an arbitrary vector $\overrightarrow{u} \in Span(S)$. Then $\overrightarrow{u} = \beta_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + \beta_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + \beta_{k+1} \overrightarrow{x}$ $= \beta_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + \beta_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + \beta_{k+1} (\alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + \alpha_k \overrightarrow{v}_k)$ $= \beta_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + \beta_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + \beta_{k+1} \alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + \beta_{k+1} \alpha_k \overrightarrow{v}_k$ $= (\beta_1 + \beta_{k+1} \alpha_1) \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + (\beta_k + \beta_{k+1} \alpha_k) \overrightarrow{v}_k$ $= \lambda_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \ldots + \lambda_k \overrightarrow{v}_k$ $\Rightarrow \overrightarrow{u} \in Span(S - \overrightarrow{x})$ $\Rightarrow Span(S) \leq Span(S - \overrightarrow{x})$

To show (2), pick an arbitrary $\overrightarrow{w} \in Span(S - \overrightarrow{x})$. Then, $\overrightarrow{w} = w_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + ... + w_k \overrightarrow{v}_k = w_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + ... + w_k \overrightarrow{v}_k + 0 \overrightarrow{x}$ $\Rightarrow \overrightarrow{w} \in Span(S)$ $Span(S - \overrightarrow{x}) \leq Span(S)$ By (1) and (2) it follows that $Span(S - \overrightarrow{x})$

DEF | Basis

Let G be a set of vectors. We call G a basis for a vector space V if

- (i) Span(G) = V i.e. G generates V
- (ii) G is a linearly independent set

e.g G = [1, 0], [0, 1] is a basis for \mathbb{R}^2 T = [1, 0], [0, 1], [0, 2] is a generating set for \mathbb{R}^2 i.e. $R^2 = Span(T)$ but T is NOT a basis.

Size of a Basis

LEMMA 3 Let V be a vector space, S be a generating set such that Span(S) = V and B be a subset V that is linearly independent. Then

$$|S| \ge |B|$$

size of a generating set \geq size of a linearly independent set

THM Basis Theorem

Let V be a vector space. All bases for V have the same size.

Proof. Suppose B_1 and B_2 are bases for V.

* B_1 is a bases means (i) $Span(B_1) = V$ and (ii) B_1 is linearly independent.

* B_2 is a basis means (iii) $Span(B_2) = V$ and (iv) B_2 is linearly independent. From Lemma 3.

- (i) & (iv) $|B_2| \leq |B_1|$ assuming $B_2 \leq V$ (which is true b/c any vector in B_2 *)
- (ii) & (iii) $|B_1| = |B_2| \Rightarrow$ bases have the same size.

THM Let V be a vector space, B a set of generators for V. B will be the smallest set of generators if and only if it is the basis for V.

Assume B is a basis for V. Consider some set of generators T. Since B is a basis, it is linearly independent & by Lemma 3

$$|B| \le |T|$$

Since T is arbitrary, the result holds for all sets of generators. Hence, B is the smallest generating set.

Now, assume B is the smallest generating set but is not a basis. i.e. either

$$Span(B) \neq V \leftarrow FALSE$$

or B is not linearly independent \leftarrow TRUE

If B is not linearly independent, there is some vector $\overrightarrow{x} \in B$ that is a linear combination of the other vectors in B. By Lemma 2, then,

$$V = Span(B) = Span(B - \overrightarrow{x})$$

i.e. B is NOT the smallest generating set which is a contradiction. So B MUST be a basis.

DEF | Dimension

The dimension of a vector space is the size of a basis for V = dim(V) = |B| where B is a basis.

Example. Find the dimension of each set.

a) \mathbb{R}^3

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} [1, 0, 0]^T \\ [0, 1, 0]^T \\ [0, 0, 1]^T \end{bmatrix}$$

is a basis because (i) B is linearly independent and (ii) $Span(B) = [\alpha, \beta, \lambda]^T = \mathbb{R}^3$ $dim(\mathbb{R}^3) = |B| = 3$

b) \mathbb{R}^2

$$B = [1, 0]^T, [0, 1]^T$$
 is a basis; $|B| = 2$
 $dim(\mathbb{R}^2 = |B| = 2$

DEF | Rank

Let $A \in \mathbb{F}_{m \times n}$. The Row Rank of A, row(A) or rowRank(A), is the dimension of the row space of A. i.e. $row(A) = dim(rowsp(A_c))$

Find a basis for the rowspace, then find the size of that basis. Similarly colRank(A) = dim(colsp(A))

Example. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Find the ranks of A.

*rowsp(A) = [1, 0, 0], [0, 2, 0], [2, 4, 0] $B_{row} = [1, 0, 0], [0, 2, 0]$ linearly indep. & $Span(B_{row}) = rowsp(B)$ $rowRank(A) = |B_{row}| = 2$

* $colsp(A) = [1, 0, 2]^T, [0, 2, 4]^T, [0, 0, 0]^T$ $B_{col} = [1, 0, 2]^T, [0, 2, 4]^T$ $colRank(A) = |B_{col}| = 2$

THM

Let $A \in \mathbb{F}_{n \times n}$. rowRank(A) = colRank(A). We refer to any rank of A simply as rank(A).

Q. Given a vector space V, how do we find a basis for V?

A1. Shrink Algorithm

def shrink(V):

$$B = V$$

for v in B:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{if } \operatorname{Span}(B - v) & == V: \\
B = B - v
\end{array}$$

return B

A2. Growth Algorithm def grow(V): B = null for v in V: if v not in Span(B): #i.e. if v is linearly independent B = B union {v} #add v to B return B

Proof. Show that the grow algorithm always returns a basis for V.

NTS (i) B is linearly independent and (ii) Span(B) = V

To show i) it suffices to consider the condition for the if statement if $\overrightarrow{v} \notin Span(B)$. This shows that a linear combination of vectors already in B. Hence, if none of the vectors in B are linear combinations of each other, they are linearly independent.

Example. Find a basis for $v = [4, 1, 2]^T$, $[0, 0, 1]^T$, $[5, 4, 3]^T$, $[2, 0, 1]^T$ using the growth algorithm: $B = \emptyset$ Check: $[4, 1, 2] \in Span(\emptyset) \to False$ $B = \{[4, 1, 2]\}$ Check: $[0, 0, 1] \in Span([4, 1, 2]) \to False$ $B = \{[4, 1, 2], [0, 0, 1]\}$ Check: $[5, 4, 3] \in Span(\{[4, 1, 2], [0, 0, 1]\})$ $\alpha[4, 1, 2] + \beta[0, 0, 1] = [5, 4, 3]$ $[4\alpha, \alpha, 2\alpha + \beta] = [5, 4, 3]$ $\alpha_1 = \frac{5}{3}$ and $\alpha_2 = 4 \to Contradiction!$ $B = \{[4, 1, 2], [0, 0, 1], [5, 4, 3]\}$

Check.
$$[2,0,1] \in Span(B) \Rightarrow$$
 True
$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4\alpha + 5\lambda \\ 1\alpha + 4\lambda \\ 2\alpha + \beta + 3\lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Returns $B = \{[4,1,2],[0,0,1],[5,4,3]\}$

Q. How do we program the grow algorithm?

Let's revisit the problem
$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ \overrightarrow{v_1} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \overrightarrow{v_2} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ \overrightarrow{v_3} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \overrightarrow{v_4} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

ITER 1: $B = \{\overrightarrow{v_1}\}\$

ITER 2: Is there a scalar α such that $\alpha \overrightarrow{v}_1 = \overrightarrow{v}_2$?

$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{If no, add } \overrightarrow{v}_2 \text{ into } B. \ B = \overrightarrow{v}_1, \overrightarrow{v}_2$$

ITER 3: Are there scalars $\alpha_1 \& \alpha_2$ such that $\alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \overrightarrow{v}_2 = \overrightarrow{v}_3$?

TIER 5: Are there scalars
$$\alpha_1 \otimes \alpha_2$$
 such that $\alpha_1 \otimes \alpha_2 \overrightarrow{v}_2 = \overrightarrow{v}_3$?
$$\alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow B = \{ \overrightarrow{v}_1, \overrightarrow{v}_2, \overrightarrow{v}_3 \}$$
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ITER 4: Are there
$$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$$
 such that $\alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \overrightarrow{v}_2 + \alpha_3 \overrightarrow{v}_3 = \overrightarrow{v}_4$?
$$\alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_3 \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = ?$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4\alpha_1 + 0\alpha_2 + 5\alpha_3 \\ \alpha_1 + 0\alpha_2 + 4\alpha_3 \\ 2\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + 3\alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\begin{bmatrix} 4\alpha_1 + 0\alpha_2 + 5\alpha_3 \\ \alpha_1 + 0\alpha_2 + 4\alpha_3 \\ 2\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + 3\alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$ Notice: we are solving a problem that looks like the following:

$$A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{b}$$

Where \overrightarrow{A} consists of column vectors of B, \overrightarrow{x} is a vector of unknown scalars, and \overrightarrow{v} is the vector that we are checking for condition $\overrightarrow{v} \notin Span(B)$.

Solving $\overrightarrow{Ax} = \overrightarrow{b}$

DEF | Upper Triangular

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{F}_{m \times n}$ is called upper triangular if all elements below the main diagonal

i.e.
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

DEF | Lower Triangular

A matrix is lower triangular if every entry above the main diagonal is zero.

i.e.
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

If A is upper or lower triangular then $A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{b}$ can be solved by Forward or Backward substitution.

Example. Solve
$$A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{b}$$
 where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\overrightarrow{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 11 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\overrightarrow{Ax} = \overrightarrow{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 11 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 8$$

 $4x_2 + 5x_3 = 11$
 $6x_3 = 18 \Rightarrow x_3 = 3$
*From (3), $x_3 = 3$. Substitute $x_3 = 3$ into (2)
 $4x_2 + 15 = 11$
 $4x_2 = -4$
 $x_2 = -1$
*Substitute $x_3 = 3, x_2 = -1$ into (1)
 $x_1 - 2 + 9 = 8 \ x_1 + 7 = 8 \ x_1 = 1$

Solving $A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{b}$ if A is not upper or lower triangular **Option 1.** Use the inverse matrix

DEF | Inverse Matrix

Let $A \in \mathbb{F}_{n \times n}$, the inverse matrix of A, A^{-1} , is the square matrix satisfying

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_m$$

$$I_m$$
 being the identity matrix with 1's along diagonal and 0's everywhere else. i.e. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ has inverse $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
$$AA^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4-3 & -1+1 \\ 12-12 & -3+4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If A has an inverse A^{-1} , then

$$A\overrightarrow{x} = b^{-1} \to A^{-1}A\overrightarrow{x} = A^{-1}\overrightarrow{b} \to I_m \overrightarrow{x} = A^{-1}\overrightarrow{b} \to \overrightarrow{x} = A^{-1}b^{-1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix \times vector = same vector

*If $A \in \mathbb{R}_{m \times m}$ and $m \neq n$ then it does not have an inverse i.e. A is a singular matrix *Any A_{mxn} will have an inverse if and only if the rank is n.

Example. Verify that $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ has an inverse then find A^- . Since $\{[1,1],[3,4]\}$ are linearly independent, they form a basis for the row space (A). Hence, rank(A) = 2. Since A is a 2×2 matrix and rank(A) = 2, it is invertible.

Want:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

System #1: a + c = 1, Column 1: 3a + 1c = 0

$$-3a - 3c = -3$$

 $3a + 4c = 0 \Rightarrow c = -3$
 $a + (-3) = 1 \Rightarrow a = 4$
System #2: $b + d = 0$, $3b + 4d = 1$
 $b = -d$
 $-3d + 4d = 1 \Rightarrow d = 1, b = -2$

Example. Use the inverse to solve $A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{b}$ for $\overrightarrow{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$. Use the inverse from the previous example to solve.

ANS: From previous example

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
So $\overrightarrow{x} = A^{-1} \overrightarrow{b} \Rightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4+2 \\ 3-2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
Check.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2+1 \\ -6+4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \checkmark$$

For Grow Algorithm, we need to solve $A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{b}$

But A is formed from column vectors of $\{\overrightarrow{v}_1...\overrightarrow{v}_k\}$ where $\overrightarrow{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Then $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \overrightarrow{v}_1 & \overrightarrow{v}_2 & \dots & \overrightarrow{v}_k \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{n \times k}$ i.e. A is not always a square matrix. In fact, its di-

mensions change at every iteration because we add one more column. Hence, A will not be invertible, and we will not be able to solve $A\overrightarrow{x} = \overrightarrow{v}$ through this method of finding an inverse. Gaussian Elimination offers us hope.