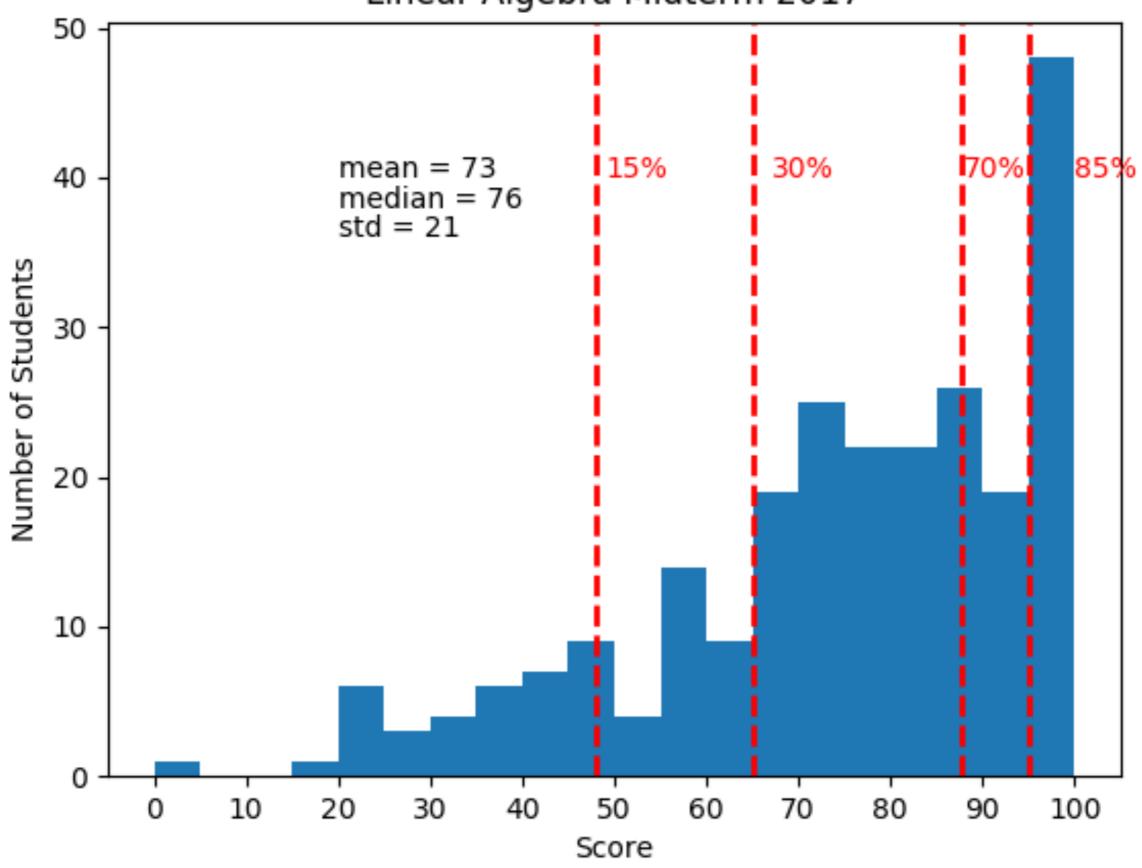
# Midterm Recap





# Question 4, part I

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Is there a vector  $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Is there a vector  $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution?

You actually don't have to do any computation for this problem. A row echelon form of A will have at most 3 pivots as there are only 3 rows.

But A has 4 columns. There must be free column.

 $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  will either be inconsistent, or have infinitely many solutions.

### Incorrect Answer

If  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution, then A is invertible.

In this case A is 3-by-4 and so is not invertible.

Thus  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  cannot have a unique solution.

What is wrong with this argument?

### Reason

The statement

"If  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution, then A is invertible."

is not correct.

The correct statement is:

If A is square and  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution, then A is invertible.

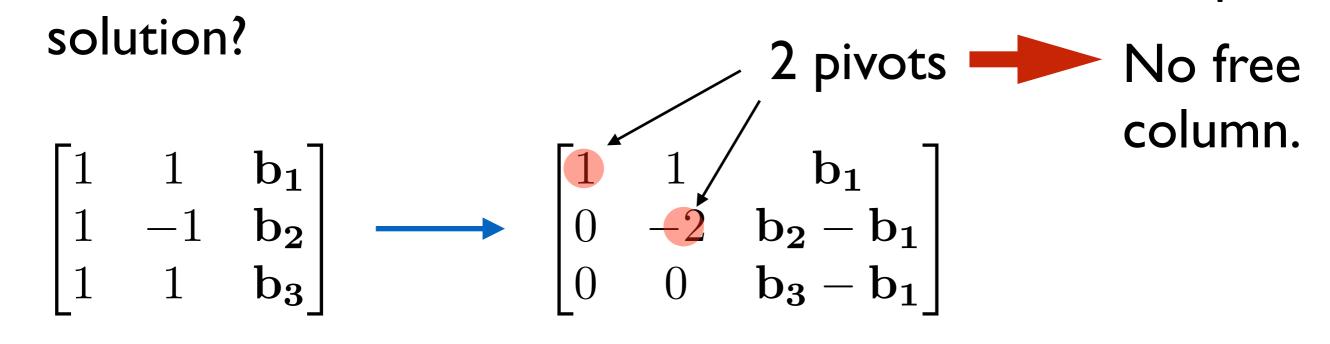
# Question 4, part II

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Is there a vector  $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & b_1 \\ 1 & -1 & b_2 \\ 1 & 1 & b_3 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & b_1 \\ 0 & -2 & b_2 - b_1 \\ 0 & 0 & b_3 - b_1 \end{bmatrix}$ No free column.

Is there a vector  $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a unique solution?



If  $b_1 = b_3$  the system will be consistent and will have a unique solution as there is no free column.

If  $b_1 \neq b_3$  the system is inconsistent.

### Question 5

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find the set of  $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  has a solution.

Don't forget to modify the right hand side during Gaussian elimination!

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b} \implies EA\vec{x} = E\vec{b}$$

### Inverse by cofactors

Reading: Strang 5.3

Learning objective: See how to express the inverse of a matrix in terms of the matrix of its cofactors.

### Review: Cofactors

Let A be an n-by-n matrix.

The cofactor of the (i,j) entry is  $\det(A'_{ij})$ , where  $A'_{ij}$  is equal to A outside of the  $i^{th}$  row and in the  $i^{th}$  row is zero everywhere except for the (i,j) entry, which is 1.

#### Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad C_{23} = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

cofactor of the (2,3) entry

# Cofactors: First Simplification

By adding a multiple of one row to another, which does not change the determinant, we see the (i,j) cofactor is equal to  $\det(A''_{ij})$  where  $A''_{ij}$  equals A except in the  $i^{th}$  row and  $j^{th}$  column, where it is all zero except for the (i,j) entry, which is 1.

#### Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad C_{23} = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

### Cramer's Rule

Let A be an n-by-n matrix with  $det(A) \neq 0$ .

The  $j^{th}$  component of the solution to  $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$  is given by

$$x_j = \frac{\det(A_{j \leftarrow \vec{b}})}{\det(A)}$$

where  $A_{j\leftarrow \vec{b}}$  is the matrix A with the  $j^{th}$  column replaced by  $\vec{b}$  .

#### Cramer's Rule for Inverses

Let A be an n-by-n matrix with  $det(A) \neq 0$ .

Say we want to find the inverse, a matrix X satisfying

$$AX = I$$

How can we use Cramer's rule?

The  $i^{th}$  column of the inverse satisfies:

$$AX(:,i) = I(:,i)$$

call this vector  $\vec{e_i}$ 

#### Cramer's Rule for Inverses

The  $i^{th}$  column of the inverse satisfies:

$$AX(:,i) = I(:,i)$$

Applying Cramer's rule, the  $j^{th}$  component of the solution, which is X(j,i), satisfies

$$X(j,i) = \frac{\det(A_{j \leftarrow \vec{e_i}})}{\det(A)}$$

#### Cramer's Rule for Inverses

Applying Cramer's rule, the  $j^{th}$  component of the solution, which is X(j,i), satisfies

$$X(j,i) = \frac{\det(A_{j \leftarrow \vec{e_i}})}{\det(A)}$$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{12} \\ x_{22} \\ x_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_{32} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{C_{23}}{\det(A)}$$

Applying Cramer's rule, the  $j^{th}$  component of the solution, which is X(j,i), satisfies

$$X(j,i) = \frac{\det(A_{j \leftarrow \vec{e_i}})}{\det(A)} = \frac{C_{ij}}{\det(A)}$$

Define a matrix C of cofactors.

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} \\ C_{31} & C_{32} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem: If  $det(A) \neq 0$  then  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)}C^T$ 

# Another proof

Let's look at another way to view this result.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & C_{31} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{32} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \det(A) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$A \qquad \qquad C^T \qquad \qquad Z$$

Why is this true?

Let's look at the diagonals of the product first.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & C_{31} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{32} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \det(A) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's look at the diagonals first.

$$Z_{11} = a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + a_{13}C_{13}$$

This is cofactor expansion in the first row!

$$Z_{11} = \det(A)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & C_{31} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{32} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \det(A) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$

#### The other diagonals are similar.

$$Z_{22} = a_{21}C_{21} + a_{22}C_{22} + a_{23}C_{23}$$
$$= \det(A)$$

cofactor expansion along the second row.

$$Z_{33} = a_{31}C_{31} + a_{32}C_{32} + a_{33}C_{33}$$
$$= \det(A)$$

cofactor expansion along the third row.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & C_{31} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{32} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \det(A) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \det(A) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \det(A) \end{bmatrix}$$



#### Now let's look at an off diagonal entry, say $Z_{12}$

$$Z_{12} = a_{11}C_{21} + a_{12}C_{22} + a_{13}C_{23}$$

We can also think of this as a determinant, but it's not of the matrix A.

# Off diagonal entries

Now let's look at an off diagonal entry, say  $Z_{12}$ 

$$Z_{12} = a_{11}C_{21} + a_{12}C_{22} + a_{13}C_{23}$$

Claim:

$$Z_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

Do cofactor expansion in the second row.

# Off diagonal entries

A similar thing happens for all other off diagonal entries:

$$Z_{ij} = a_{i1}C_{j1} + a_{i2}C_{j2} + a_{i3}C_{j3}$$

This is the determinant of the matrix with  $i^{th}$  row of A repeated in row j

This will be zero if  $i \neq j$ .

# Vector Spaces

Reading: Strang 3.1

Learning objective: Make the leap from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to vector spaces.

"We now come to the decisive step of mathematical abstraction: we forget about what the symbols stand for..."

Hermann Weyl, The Mathematical Way of Thinking

## Vector Spaces

Thus far "vectors" have denoted n-dimensional column vectors  $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

We have seen how to add vectors and multiply them by scalars.

We have seen rules for how these actions behave, for example:

$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$$
$$c \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = c \cdot \vec{u} + c \cdot \vec{v}$$

### Vector Spaces

A vector space is an abstraction that forgets about what  $\vec{u}$  stands for.

There are other objects that we can add together and multiply by scalars, for example matrices.

Moreover, for matrices these operations obey similar rules:

$$A + B = B + A$$
$$c \cdot (A + B) = c \cdot A + c \cdot B$$

With the generalization of vector spaces, we can prove statements about any system that obeys certain rules.

### Definition

A vector space is a nonempty set V on which the operations of addition and scalar multiplication are defined.

To be a vector space, there are 10 conditions which must be satisfied.

We divide these conditions into 3 groups.

- 1) Closure conditions
- 2) Properties of addition
- 3) Properties of scalar multiplication

see the beginning of problem set 3.1 in the Strang book

### Closure Conditions

A vector space is a nonempty set V on which the operations of addition and scalar multiplication are defined.

#### CI) Closure under addition:

$$x + y \in V$$
 for all  $x, y \in V$ 

#### C2) Closure under scalar multiplication:

 $c \cdot x \in V$  for all  $x \in V$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Properties of Addition

#### AI) Addition is commutative

$$x + y = y + x$$
 for all  $x, y \in V$ 

#### A2) Addition is associative

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$
 for all  $x, y, z \in V$ 

A3) Existence of a zero element  $0 \in V$  such that

$$x + \mathbf{0} = x$$
 for all  $x \in V$ 

A4) For each x there exists a unique element -x such that

$$x + (-x) = \mathbf{0}$$

### Properties of Scalar Mult.

#### MI) Scalar multiplication is associative

$$a(bx) = (ab)x$$
 for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, x \in V$ 

#### M2) Distributivity over addition in V

$$a(x+y) = ax + ay$$
 for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}, x, y \in V$ 

#### M3) Distributivity over scalar addition

$$(a+b)x = ax + bx$$
 for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, x \in V$ 

#### M4) Identity for scalar multiplication

$$1x = x$$
 for all  $x \in V$ 

### Definition

A vector space is a nonempty set V on which the operations of addition and scalar multiplication are defined and satisfy the 10 conditions C1-C2,A1-A4, M1-M4.

Checking all these conditions is quite tedious.

I won't go through these checks in lecture, and also won't ask you to do it on a quiz or exam.

Instead, let's look at some examples of vector spaces.

# Primary Example: $\mathbb{R}^n$

 $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space.

The zero element is  $\vec{0}$ , the all zero vector.

Most of the conditions AI-A4, MI-M4 we already discussed at the beginning of the semester.

### Space of Matrices

The set  $M_{m,n}$  of all m-by-n matrices with real entries is a vector space.

The zero element of  $M_{m,n}$  is  $\mathbf{0}_{m\times n}$ , the all zero matrix.

We have also already seen that matrix addition and multiplying a matrix by a scalar obeys many of the rules A1-A4, M1-M4.

# Space of real valued functions

The set of all functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a vector space, where addition and scalar multiplication are defined as

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

$$(c \cdot f)(x) = c \cdot f(x)$$

The zero element is the constant zero function:

$$\mathbf{0}(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$