

Linear Algebra HW5 Determinants and Vector Spaces Ryzeson Maravich

1

Let A and B be 4×4 matrices with $\det A = 2$ and $\det B = 6$.

a

Claim: $\det AB = 12$

Proof:

$$\det AB = (\det A)(\det B) \tag{1}$$

$$= 12 \tag{2}$$

(1) Theorem 6, Pg. 175

b

Claim: $\det A^5 = 32$

Proof:

$$\det A^5 = \det(AAAAA) \tag{1}$$

$$= (\det A)(\det A)(\det A)(\det A)(\det A) \tag{2}$$

$$= 32 \tag{3}$$

(2) Theorem 6, Pg. 175

c

Claim: $\det 3B = 486$

Proof: $3B$ is equivalent to B with each row multiplied by 3. When multiplying a row by some scalar multiple, the resulting determinant must also be multiplied by this scalar multiple (Theorem 3, Pg. 171). There are 4 rows, so $\det B$ must be multiplied by 3^4 , which equals 486.

d

Claim: $\det B^{-1}AB = 2$

Proof: We will first show that $\det B^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det B}$. Because $\det B \neq 0$, we know that B is invertible, and so $BB^{-1} = I_n$.

$$BB^{-1} = I_n$$

$$\implies \det(BB^{-1}) = \det I_n$$

$$\implies (\det B)(\det B^{-1}) = 1$$

$$\implies \det B^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det B}$$

This gives us

$$\det B^{-1}AB = (\det B^{-1})(\det A)(\det B)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}(2)(6)$$

$$= 2.$$

2

A is an $n \times n$ matrix and r is a real number.

Claim: $\det(rA) = r^n \det A$.

Proof: rA is equivalent to A with each row multiplied by r . When multiplying a row by some scalar multiple, the resulting determinant must also be multiplied by this scalar multiple (Theorem 3, Pg. 171). Because A has n rows, the scalar r is multiplied through n times, so $\det A$ must be also be multiplied by r^n .

3

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Let S be the parallelogram determined by the vectors $b_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $b_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Claim: The area of the image of S under the mapping $x \mapsto Ax$ is 20.

Proof: S is the image of the unit square under the linear transformation with standard matrix $B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

By calculating $\det B$, we can find that the area of S is 5. S undergoes another linear transformation, this time with standard matrix A . The area of the image of S under this mapping is $5(\det A)$, which is 20.

4

a

Let S be the set of all ordered pairs of real numbers.

Define addition (\oplus) on S by

$$(x_1, x_2) \oplus (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 + y_1, 0)$$

and scalar multiplication (\star) on S by

$$\alpha \star (x_1, x_2) = (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2),$$

where $x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, \alpha$ are real numbers.

Claim: S is not a vector space.

Proof: There is no identity element of addition (zero vector) in S . If $u \in S$ and $u = (u_1, u_2)$ where $u_2 \neq 0$, no matter what element you add to u , the second number in the ordered pair will always be 0, so you will never get u .

There is no identity element of addition, so there can be no inverse elements of addition.

There is no distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to addition, that is $(c + d)v \neq cv + dv$ for some $v \in S$ where c, d are real numbers. Let $v = u$, as defined above. The left side of the equation will have an ordered pair where the second number will be nonzero (assuming $c + d \neq 0$). The right side however will always give an order pair where the second number is zero.

(The rest of the axioms hold.)

b

Let \mathbb{R} denote the set of real numbers. Define scalar multiplication by $\alpha x = \alpha \cdot x$ and define addition, denoted \oplus , by $x \oplus y = \max(x, y)$.

Claim: \mathbb{R} is not a vector space.

Proof: There is no identity element of addition in \mathbb{R} . Suppose there is an identity element, $0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $v \in \mathbb{R}$. No matter what 0 is, there is always some other element ($0 - 1$ using regularly defined operations in \mathbb{R}) such that $v + 0 = 0$, contradicting the axiom that $v + 0 = v$. Therefore there can be no identity element.

It then follows that there are no inverse elements of addition.

5

Let A be an invertible 2×2 matrix and let B be a 2×1 matrix.

Claim: The inverse of $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is $\begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & A^{-1}(-B) \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Proof: Let the inverse be denoted by $X = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{bmatrix}$, then $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 & \vec{0} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Multiplying the two matrices on the right and setting equal to the left gives us the four equations

$$AX_{11} + BX_{21} = I_2 \quad (1)$$

$$AX_{12} + BX_{22} = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$X_{21} = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$X_{22} = 1. \quad (4)$$

Equation (3) can be used to find $X_{11} = A^{-1}$ from equation (1). Equation (4) can be used to find $X_{12} = A^{-1}(-B)$ from equation (2). Substituting these values into X gives us the inverse matrix in terms of A and B .

6

Claim: The set of vectors $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} h \\ -2 \\ \sqrt{3} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 57 \\ 13 \\ \sqrt{3} \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ h \\ \sqrt{3} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is linearly dependent for $h = \pm 4$.

Proof: Let us create the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} h & 57 & 0 & -8 \\ -2 & 13 & 0 & h \\ \sqrt{3} & \sqrt{3} & -1 & \sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. The set of matrices is linearly dependent if the

determinant of the matrix they comprise is zero.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \det A \\ &= -1(-1)^{3+3} \left(\det \begin{vmatrix} h & 57 & -8 \\ -2 & 13 & h \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \right) \\ &= -1 \left(3(-1)^{3+2} \left(\det \begin{vmatrix} h & -8 \\ -2 & h \end{vmatrix} \right) \right) \\ &= 3(h^2 - 16) \\ 16 &= h^2 \\ \pm 4 &= h \end{aligned}$$

7

Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices where B has n pivot positions.

Claim: If $\det(A^3 B^2) = 0$ then A must be singular.

Proof: $\det(A^3 B^2) = (\det A)(\det A)(\det A)(\det B)(\det B) = 0$. Because B is an $n \times n$ matrix and has n pivots, it is invertible by the Invertible Matrix Theorem, and so $\det B \neq 0$. Therefore to make the above equation true, $\det A = 0$, therefore also making it singular.

8

Let \mathbb{R}^+ denote the set of positive real numbers. Define a sum operation \oplus and a scalar multiplication operation \star on \mathbb{R}^+ using the following rules: $x \oplus y = xy$ and $r \star x = x^r$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and r is a real scalar.

Claim: \mathbb{R}^+ is a vector space under these operations.

Proof:

1. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $x \oplus y = xy \in \mathbb{R}^+$ because the product of two positive real numbers is a positive real number.
2. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $x \oplus y = xy = yx = y \oplus x$.
3. For any $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $(x \oplus y) \oplus z = (xy) \oplus z = (xy)z = x(yz) = x \oplus (yz) = x \oplus (y \oplus z)$.
4. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $x \oplus 1 = x$, so 1 is the zero vector.
5. For every $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $x \oplus \frac{1}{x} = 1$, so $\frac{1}{x}$ is the inverse element of addition.
6. For any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $c \star u = u^c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ because a positive real number to any real power is a positive real number.
7. For any $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $c \star (x \oplus y) = c \star (xy) = (xy)^c = x^c y^c = (x^c) \oplus (y^c) = (c \star x) \oplus (c \star y)$.
8. For any $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $(c + d) \star x = x^{c+d} = x^c x^d = x^c \oplus x^d = (c \star x) \oplus (d \star x)$.
9. For any $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $c \star (d \star x) = (d \star x)^c = (x^d)^c = x^{cd} = (cd) \star x$.
10. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $1 \star x = x^1 = x$, so 1 is the multiplicative identity element.

I affirm that I have upheld the highest principles of honesty and integrity in my academic work and have not witnessed a violation of the honor code.