Math 341 - Linear Algebra §4.1 - 4.6

Fall 2019

Pure mathematics is, in its way, the poetry of logical ideas.

- Albert Einstein

REMEMBER THE GOOD OLD DAYS...

§1.3 VECTOR EQUATIONS

Theorem (Algebraic Properties of \mathbb{R}^n)

For all vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$ in \mathbb{R}^n and all scalars c, d in \mathbb{R} :

- 1. u + v = v + u
- $2. \ (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$
- 3. u + 0 = 0 + u = u
- 4. $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = -\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$, where $-\mathbf{u}$ denotes $-1 \cdot \mathbf{u}$
- 5. $c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$
- $6. (c+d)\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{u} + d\mathbf{u}$
- 7. $c(d\mathbf{u}) = (cd)\mathbf{u}$
- 8. $1 \cdot \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$.

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A **vector space** is a nonempty set V of objects, called *vectors*, on which are defined two operations, called *addition* and *scalar multiplication*, subject to the ten axioms (or rules) listed below. The axioms must hold for all vectors \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} in V and all scalars c and $d \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Much of our intuition about \mathbb{R}^n will carry over to other abstract vector spaces (i.e. we can picture general vector spaces much as we visualize \mathbb{R}^n).

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It shouldn't be too hard to see, that in some sense $M_{m \times n}$ is essentially the same vector space as $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ (we'll make this precise later).

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Is M_n a vector space with addition defined by \oplus , and the usual scalar multiplication?

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Verify the axioms.

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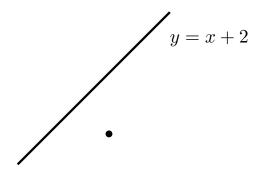
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To tell if a subset of V is a subspace, it is enough to check the above three conditions (all three must hold, if a single property fails then W is not a subspace of V).

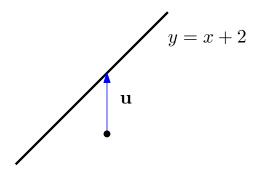
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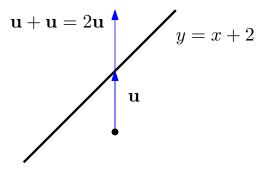
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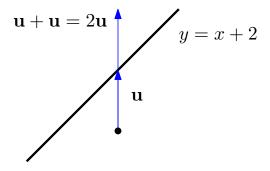


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Example: Is the line L given by y = x + 2 a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 ?



Since L doesn't contain $\mathbf{0}$, and isn't closed under scalar multiplication and vector addition it isn't a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

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§4.1 VECTOR SPACES AND SUBSPACES

Example: Does the set H form a subspace?

$$H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} t + 2r \\ 3t - r \\ 5r \end{bmatrix} : \text{ for } t, r \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

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and thus by the theorem, H is a subspace.

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The null space of an $m \times n$ matrix A is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

In other words, the set of all solutions to a system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ of m homogeneous linear equations in n unknowns is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

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- The spanning vectors will be linearly independent (because of the free variables).
- The number of vectors in the spanning set for Nul A equals the number of free variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

The **column space** of an $m \times n$ matrix A, written as Col A is the set of all linear combinations of the columns of A. If $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{a}_n]$, then

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Warning! If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then Col A is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m , while Nul A is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Example: Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 9 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

Find Nul A and Col A.

EXAMPLE (CONT.)

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- 1. Determine if $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\2\\1 \end{bmatrix}$ is in Nul A. Could it also be in Col A?
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$\operatorname{Nul} A$ $\operatorname{Col} A$			
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8. Nul $A = \{0\}$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is one-to-one.	8. Col $A = \mathbb{R}^m$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is onto \mathbb{R}^m .

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Warning! Unlike linear transformations $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, linear transformation on arbitrary vector spaces may *not* be able to be expressed in terms of a standard matrix.

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Find the kernel (or null space) and range of D.

An indexed set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V is called **linearly independent** if the vector equation

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The set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is said to be **linearly dependent** if there is a nontrivial solution to the equation above. (This means there must be some weights, c_1, \ldots, c_p not all zero, which make the equation hold).

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An indexed set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ of two or more vectors, with $\mathbf{v}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$, is linearly dependent if and only if some \mathbf{v}_j (with j > 0) is a linear combination of the preceding vectors, v_1, \dots, v_{j-1} .

Example: Let $\mathbf{p}_1 = 1 - t$, $\mathbf{p}_2 = t + t^2$, and $\mathbf{p}_3 = 2 - t + t^2$ be vectors in \mathbb{P}_3 (the set of all polynomials of degree ≤ 3).

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DEFINITION (BASIS OF A VECTOR SPACE)

Let H be a subspace of a vector space V. An indexed set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots \mathbf{b}_p\}$ in V is a **basis** for H if

- 1. \mathcal{B} is a linearly independent set, and
- 2. the vectors in \mathcal{B} span H; that is

$$H = \operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}.$$

This definition also applies to the whole space V; a basis of V is a linearly independent subset of V which spans V.

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$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are called the **standard basis** for \mathbb{R}^n .

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Example: The set $\{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$ forms a basis of \mathbb{P}_n , and is called the **standard basis** for \mathbb{P}_n .

THEOREM (SPANNING SET THEOREM)

Let $S = {\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p}$ be a set in V, and $H = Span{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p}$.

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- 1. If one of the vectors in S say, \mathbf{v}_k is a linear combination of the remaining vectors in S, then the set formed from S by removing \mathbf{v}_k still spans H.
- 2. If $H \neq \{0\}$, some subset of S is a basis for H.

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Example: Find a basis for Col B, where

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

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THEOREM

The pivot columns of a matrix A from a basis for Col A.

Warning! You have to row reduce the matrix to find the pivot columns, but the basis for Col A are the original pivot columns in A, not the row reduced matrix.

Example: Find a basis for $Col\ A$, where

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrrr} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 12 & 1 & 5 & 5 \\ 2 & 8 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 5 & 20 & 2 & 8 & 8 \end{array} \right].$$

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Hint: A is row-equivalent to the matrix B from the previous slide.

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Example: Find a basis for Nul A and Col A, where

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 12 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 8 & 1 & 3 \\ 5 & 20 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right]$$

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THEOREM (UNIQUE REPRESENTATION THEOREM)

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then for each \mathbf{x} in V, there exists a <u>unique</u> set of scalars c_1, \dots, c_n such that

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$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \ldots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n.$$

We call the weights c_1, \ldots, c_n the coordinates of x relative to the basis \mathcal{B} (or the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of x).

If c_1, \ldots, c_n are the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of \mathbf{x} , then the vector in \mathbb{R}^n

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \left[\begin{array}{c} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{array} \right]$$

is called the **coordinate vector of x** (relative to \mathcal{B}), or the \mathcal{B} -coordinate vector of \mathbf{x} .

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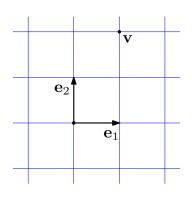
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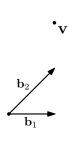
The mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the **coordinate mapping** (determined by \mathcal{B}).

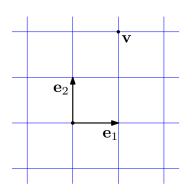


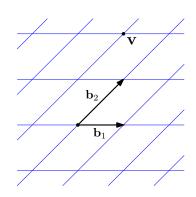


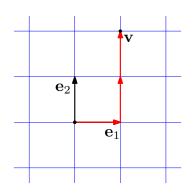


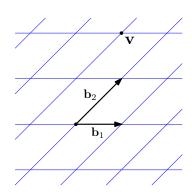


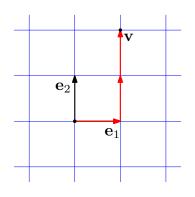


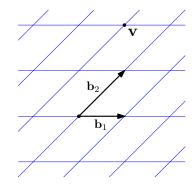




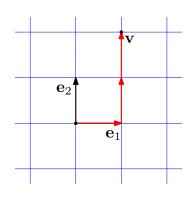


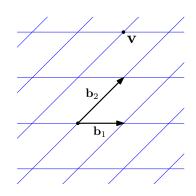






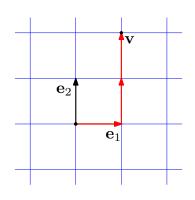
$$\mathbf{v} = 1 \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 + 2 \cdot \mathbf{e}_2$$

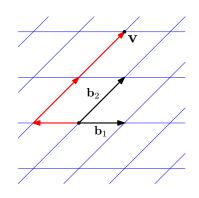




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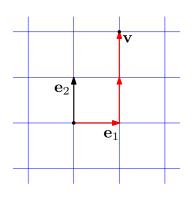
$$\Rightarrow$$
 $[\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$





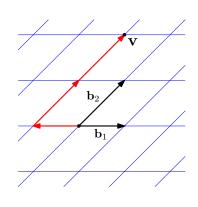
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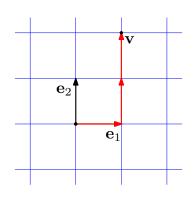


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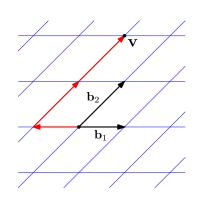


$$\mathbf{v} = -1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1 + 2 \cdot \mathbf{b}_2$$



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$$\Rightarrow \quad [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Let $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ denote the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

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For the vector

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\3\\5\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$

find the coordinate vector of \mathbf{x} relative to \mathcal{E} .

Example: Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\}$ be a the basis of \mathbb{R}^3 given by

$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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find the coordinate vector of \mathbf{x} relative to \mathcal{B} .

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis, and suppose

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We call $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ the **change-of-coordinates matrix** from \mathcal{B} to the standard basis in \mathbb{R}^n .

Example: Let
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Find the change of coordinate matrix $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{B}}$, and use it to find the coordinate vector of \mathbf{x} relative to the basis \mathcal{B} .

THEOREM

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a **one-to-one** linear transformation from V **onto** \mathbb{R}^n .

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In this case, even though the vector spaces V and W may look different, they are essentially the same.

Thus if a vector space V has a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ then it is essentially "the same" as \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF.

Proof.

Let $T_{\mathcal{B}}: V \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be the coord. map which sends $\mathbf{v} = v_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + v_n \mathbf{b}_n$ to

$$T_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbf{v}) = [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

Proof.

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Let $\mathbf{w} = w_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots w_n \mathbf{b}_n$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof.

Let $T_{\mathcal{B}}: V \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be the coord. map which sends $\mathbf{v} = v_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + v_n \mathbf{b}_n$ to

$$T_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbf{v}) = [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Let $\mathbf{w} = w_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots w_n \mathbf{b}_n$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (v_1 + w_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + (v_n + w_n)\mathbf{b}_n$$

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Also,

$$c \cdot \mathbf{v} = cv_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + cv_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

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Thus $T_{\mathcal{B}}$ is linear.

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$$T_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{b},$$

and hence $T_{\mathcal{B}}$ is onto.

Example: The set $\mathcal{P} = \{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{P}_n .

§4.4 Coordinate Systems

Example: The set $\mathcal{P} = \{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{P}_n . For any polynomial $\mathbf{p} = a_0 + a_1 t + \dots + a_n t^n$ we have

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Caution: Not every vector space has a basis of the form $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$. For example, the space $C(\mathbb{R})$ has no such basis. It does have a basis with infinitely many basis vectors though.

Example: Using the coordinate vectors of the polynomials $\mathbf{p}_1 = t^2 + t + 1$, $\mathbf{p}_2 = t^2 + 2t$, and $\mathbf{p}_3 = t^2 - 2$, determine whether they are linearly independent.

THEOREM

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THEOREM

If a vector space V has a basis of n vectors, then every basis of V must consist of exactly n vectors.

DEFINITION

If V is spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **finite-dimensional**, and the **dimension** of V, written as dim V, is the number of vectors in a basis for V.

§4.5 THE DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

DEFINITION

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The dimension of the zero vector space $\{0\}$ is defined to be zero.

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The dimension of the zero vector space $\{0\}$ is defined to be zero.

If V is not spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **infinite** dimensional.

Example: The standard basis $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ has n vectors, and hence dim $\mathbb{R}^n = n$.

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Example: Find the dimension of the subspace

$$H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a - 3b + 6c \\ 5a + 4d \\ b - 2c - d \\ 5d \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

THEOREM

Let H be a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V. Any linearly independent set in H can be expanded, if necessary, to a basis for H. Also H is finite-dimensional and

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Let V be a p-dimensional vector space, for $p \ge 1$. Any linearly independent set of exactly p elements in V is automatically a basis for V. Any set of exactly p elements that spans V is automatically a basis for V.

Fact: The dimension of Nul A is the number of free variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$,

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Example: Find the dimension of Nul A and Col A, where

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 2 & -1 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right].$$

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, each row of A has n entries, and thus can be identified with a vector in \mathbb{R}^n .

§4.6 Rank

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THEOREM

If two matrices A and B are row equivalent, then their row spaces are the same. If B is in echelon form, the nonzero rows of B form a basis for the row space of A as well as for that of B.

Example: Find a basis for Row A, Col A, and Nul A, where

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrr} -2 & -5 & 8 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 \\ 3 & 11 & -19 & 7 \end{array} \right].$$

DEFINITION (RANK)

The **rank** of a matrix A is the dimension of the column space of A.

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 $\operatorname{rank} A + \dim \operatorname{Nul} A = n.$

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Example: A scientist has found two solutions to a homogeneous system of linear 40 equations in 42 variables. The two solutions are not multiples, and all other solutions can be constructed by adding together appropriate multiples of these two solutions. Can the scientist be *certain* that an associated non homogeneous system (with the same coefficients) has a solution?

THEOREM (THE INVERTIBLE MATRIX THEOREM (CONTINUED))

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Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Then the following statements are each equivalent to the statement that A is an invertible matrix.

47. The columns of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

THEOREM (THE INVERTIBLE MATRIX THEOREM (CONTINUED))

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- 48. Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- 49. dim Col A = n

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- 47. The columns of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- 48. Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$
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- 50. rank A =

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- 47. The columns of A form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
- 48. Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- 49. dim Col A = n
- 50. rank A = n
- 51. Nul A =

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- 48. Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$
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