Exam 1

- This exam covers Topics 1 3, Topic 4 will not be covered here.
- I will write (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) in place of $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$ to save space on occasion. The book writes $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix}^T$ for the same purpose.
- I use NS(A) for the null space of A, RS(A) for the row space of A, CS(A) for the column space of A. Note that CS(A) = rng(A) is the range of A.
- When I say you can use some fact from another part of the exam, this means that you can use the fact whether or not you have completed that part of the exam correctly.
- If you have questions ask via Remind or email.
- Use only arguments that you fully understand. I am aware that you can find solutions to some of these online. I am also aware that some of these solutions use concepts and theorems far past what we have covered in Ch 1 3. If you use such ideas, then I will ask you to verbally explain your solution so that I can verify that you understand what you have submitted as your own work. In short, **this is an exam** and the usual expectations of academic honesty apply.

Part I: True/False (5 points each; 25 points)

For each of the following mark as true or false.

a) $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \operatorname{tr}(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(BA)$ for an $n \times n$ matrices A and B, where

$$\operatorname{tr}(C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_{ii} = \text{the sum of the diagonal elements of } C.$$

This is true. This is just a computation. $(AB)_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} B_{ki}$, so

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} B_{ki}$$

and

$$\operatorname{tr}(BA) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{ik} A_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ki} B_{ik} = \operatorname{tr}(AB).$$

b) $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \operatorname{tr}(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(A)\operatorname{tr}(B)$ for an $n \times n$ matrices A, B, and C.

Interestingly, this is false, as an example can show. In fact, generating any three random 2×2 matrices with entries from $\{-1,0,1\}$ are likely to work. Try this using MATLAB: round(rand(2)). The first three matrices I got this way were:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad AB = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, tr(AB) = -1 while tr(A) tr(B) = (-1)(0) = 0.

c) _____ If W is a subspace of a vector space V and \mathcal{B} is a basis for V, then B can be restricted to a basis for W.

This is false. Let $W = \text{span}\{(1,1)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 = V$. The standard basis for \mathbb{R}^2 can not be restricted to a basis for W.

d) ____ If W is a subspace of a vector space V, then there is a subspace U so that $V = W \oplus U$.

This notation is a little hard to find in your text: V = U + W means that for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$, there is $\mathbf{u} \in U$ and $\mathbf{w} \in W$ so that $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$. $V = U \oplus V$ means V = U + V and $U \cap W = \{\mathbf{0}\}$, equivalently, for every $\mathbf{v} \in V$, there is a **unique** $\mathbf{u} \in U$ and $\mathbf{w} \in W$ so that $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$.

This is true. Let \mathcal{B}_W be a basis for W and extend \mathcal{B}_W to \mathcal{B}_V a basis for V. Then let $U = \operatorname{span}(\mathcal{B}_V - \cap \mathcal{B}_W)$. It is clear that $V = W \oplus U$.

e) _____ For any $m \times n$ matrices A and B,

$$B = EA$$
 for some invertible $E \iff NS(A) = NS(B)$.

This is true. (\Rightarrow) is trivial, since if B = EA, then $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \iff EA\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \iff A\mathbf{x} = E^{-1}\mathbf{0} = 0$. (\Leftarrow) is discussed below in the "Proofs" section.

Part II: Definitions and Theorems (5 points each; 25 points)

a) Define what it means for a set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ from a real vector space V to span V.

 $\{\boldsymbol{v}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{v}_n\}$ spans V iff for all $\boldsymbol{v}\in V$, \boldsymbol{v} is a linear combination of the vectors in \mathcal{B} , that is $\boldsymbol{v}=\sum_{i=1}^n\alpha_i\boldsymbol{v}_i$ for some coefficients $\alpha_i\in\mathbb{R}$.

b) Define what it means for a set of vectors $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ from a real vector space V to be linearly independent.

A set of vectors \mathcal{B} is **linearly independent** iff $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{0}$, then $\alpha_i = 0$ for all i. Equivalently, any linear combination of the vectors that gives $\mathbf{0}$ must be trivial.

There are equivalent definitions, but essentially, this is what you need. You can say something like, for all $i, v_i \notin \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_n\}$

c) Define what it means for a set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ to be a basis for a vector space V.

 \mathcal{B} has must be a linearly independent and span V.

d) State the Rank-Nullity Theorem.

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then $n = \dim(RS(A)) + \dim(NS(A)) = \operatorname{rank}(A) + \operatorname{nullity}(A)$.

e) What conditions must be checked to verify that $W\subseteq V$ is a subspace of a vector space. V

Closure under addition and scalar multiplication must be checked.

Part III: Computational (15 points each; 45 point)

a) Given that A is a 3×4 matrix and

$$NS(A) = \operatorname{span}\left(\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{0} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}\right)$$

compute rref(A). Make sure to explain how you arrive at your result. You may use (a) from the "Proofs" part below.

Notation: rref(A) means the reduced row echelon form of A. This is unique, a general echelon form is not unique. From rref(A) there is a simple way to read off a basis for NS(A), this exercise asks you to reverse that process.

We know $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \iff \operatorname{rref}(A)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \iff \mathbf{x} \in \operatorname{NS}(A)$. From what we are given we see $\mathbf{x} \in \operatorname{NS}(A)$ iff

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = r \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r+2s \\ -2r+3s \\ r \\ s \end{bmatrix}$$

Working backwards from what we usually do we see $x_4 = s, x_3 = r$, and so $x_2 = -2x_3 + 3x_4$ and $x_1 = x_3 + 2x_4$. This gives the system

$$x_1 - x_3 - 2x_4 = 0$$
$$x_2 + 2x_3 - 3x_4 = 0$$

This corresponds to Bx = 0 for

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

B is rref and so by Proofs (a) B = rref(A).

b) For the same (unknown) A used in (a) for each of RS(A) and CS(A) find a basis if possible and explain how you know that you have found a basis; if it is not possible to find a basis, then explain why it is not.

RS(A): Here we know RS(A) = RS(rref(A)) so the non-zero rows of rref(A) form a basis for RS(A).

CS(A): You know that the first two columns of rref(A) are where the pivots are and so the first two columns of A would be a basis for CS(A), but you have no way of finding these and you know nothing about CS(A) other than dim(CS(A)) = 2. For example, $rref(A_1) = rref(A_2) = B$ for

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & -5 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & -8 \end{bmatrix},$$

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but

$$\operatorname{CS}(A_1) = \operatorname{span}\left(\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}\right\}\right) \text{ and } \operatorname{CS}(A_2) = \operatorname{span}\left(\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\2 \end{bmatrix}\right\}\right),$$
 and
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\2 \end{bmatrix} \not\in \operatorname{CS}(A_1) \text{ so } \operatorname{CS}(A_1) \neq \operatorname{CS}(A_2).$$

c) Show that the upper-triangular $n \times n$ matrices form a subspace of all $n \times n$ matrices and find a basis for this subspace.

Let U be the collection of upper-triangular $n \times n$ matrices, that is $A \in U \iff A(i,j) = 0$ for $n \ge i > j \ge 1$.

It is clear that $A + B \in U$ and $\alpha A \in U$ for any $A, B \in U$. Let $A, B \in U$:

$$(A+B)(i,j) = A(i,j) + B(i,j) = 0 + 0 = 0 \text{ for } n \ge i > j \ge 1$$

 $(\alpha A)(i,j) = \alpha A(i,j) = 0 \text{ for } n \ge i > j \ge 1$

A basis for U is $\{E_{i,j} \mid 1 \leq i \leq j \leq n\}$ where $E_{i,j}(l,m) = \delta_{(i,j),(l,m)}$. It is clear that if $A \in U$, then $A = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n} A(i,j) E_{i,j}$.

Note:
$$\delta_{a,b} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
.

Part IV: Proofs (15 points each; 60 points)

Provide complete arguments/proofs for the following.

a) Show that if A and B are 3×4 rref matrices, then

$$A = B \iff NS(A) = NS(B).$$

Note: the 3×4 is a red-herring, this holds for arbitrary $m \times n$ matrices. If this helps you, then just prove this more general result. Also notice that this actually gives

$$\operatorname{rref}(A) = \operatorname{rref}(B) \iff \operatorname{NS}(A) = \operatorname{NS}(B)$$

since NS(rref(A)) = NS(A), trivially.

(⇒) is trivial. For (⇐) we prove the contrapositive, namely, suppose $A \neq B$, then $NS(A) \neq NS(B)$. To start recall $RS(A) = NS(A)^{\perp} = NS(B)^{\perp} = RS(B)$. We also know that if A is in rref form, then the non-zero rows of A are a basis for RS(A) and hence for RS(B).

Suppose $A \neq B$ and let i be the first row on which they differ. Let r = rank(A), this is dim(A) and as A is rref we know this is the number of non-zero rows of A.

Claim 1: The pivots (leading 1's) occur at the same places in A and B.

If this fails, let i be the first row where $R_i(A) \neq R_i(B)$, where $R_i(A) = i^{\text{th}}$ row of A. We may assume the first 1 of $R_i(A)$ occurs before the first 1 of $R_i(B)$. (Else just swap the roles of A and B.) Let k be the position of the pivot (leading 1) in $R_i(A)$. We know $R_i(A) = \sum_{i=1}^r c_j R_j(B)$, then clearly $c_j = 0$ for $j = 1, \ldots, i-1$. This is because all entries up to k-1 are 0's in $R_i(A)$ while all of $R_j(B)$ for j < k have a leading 1 before k.

So $R_i(A) = \sum_{j=k}^r c_j R_j(B)$, but for $j \geq k$ we know the first k entries of $R_j(B)$ are 0's so it is impossible to get a 1 in the kth position.

Claim 2: $R_i(A) = R_i(B)$ for all $i \leq r$.

This claim is actually trivial given the first. We know $R_i(A) = \sum_{j=1}^r c_j R_j(B)$, but $R_i(A)$ has 0 at all pivot places except for that of $R_i(B)$, so we must have $R_i(A) = c_i R_i(B)$. Since the leading non-zero element is 1 we have $C_i = 1$, so $R_i(A) = R_i(B)$.

b) **Prove:** For $m \times n$ matrices A and B define $A \sim B$ to mean that you can get from A to B by a series of elementary row operations. Use the $m \times n$ version of (a), namely: $\operatorname{rref}(A) = \operatorname{rref}(B) \iff \operatorname{NS}(A) = \operatorname{NS}(B)$ to show that

$$A \underset{\text{row}}{\sim} B \iff \text{rref}(A) = \text{rref}(B)$$

Remark: Using elementary matrices one can show

$$A \sim_{\text{row}} B \iff A = EB$$
 for some invertible matrix E

This is done in the text and in my notes. So you get here

$$A \underset{\text{row}}{\sim} B \iff \text{rref}(A) = \text{rref}(B) \iff A = EB \text{ for some invertible matrix } E$$

- (⇒) Clearly if $A \sim_{\text{row}} B$, then NS(A) = NS(B) since elementary row ops generate equivalent systems of equations. (This was the whole point of row operations in the first place!)
- (\Leftarrow) , this is really trivial. Do a series of operations to get from A to $\operatorname{rref}(A)$ and from B to $\operatorname{rref}(B)$, then just reverse the series from B to $\operatorname{rref}(B) = \operatorname{rref}(A)$ to get back to B. Combining these you get a series of row ops that goes from A to $\operatorname{rref}(A)$ and then from $\operatorname{rref}(A) = \operatorname{rref}(B)$ back to B.
- c) **Prove:** Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, $\mathbb{R}^n = NS(A) \oplus RS(A)$.

Recall: $V = U \oplus W$ means $V = U + W = \{ \boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{w} \mid \boldsymbol{u} \in U \text{ and } \boldsymbol{w} \in W \}$ and $U \cap W = \{ \boldsymbol{0} \}$.

By the rank-nullity theorem if \mathcal{B} a basis for RS(A) and \mathcal{C} a basis for NS(A), then $\mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}$ has size n.

If we can show that $\mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}$ is linearly independent, then we have that $\mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^n and so $RS(A) \oplus NS(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$.

We just need to see that $RS(A) \cap NS(A) = \{0\}$. The simplest thing here is to note that since $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ for an $\mathbf{x} \in NS(A)$, then $\mathbf{r}_i \perp \mathbf{x}$ where \mathbf{r}_i^T is the i^{th} row of A. So $RS(A) \perp NS(A)$.

d) **Prove:** If A is an $n \times n$ matrix and $A^k = \mathbf{0}$ for any k, then $A^n = \mathbf{0}$.

Proof 1: To do this show

- i) Show $NS(A^{m+1}) \supseteq NS(A^m)$ for all m.
- ii) Show that if $NS(A^{m+1}) = NS(A^m)$, then $NS(A^n) = NS(A^m)$ for all $n \ge m$.

It is clear that $NS(A^{m+1}) \supseteq NS(A^m)$, since $A^m \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \implies A(A^m \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \implies A^{m+1} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. So (i) is shown,

For (ii) suppose $NS(A^m) = NS(A^{m+1})$, then $A^{m+2}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0} \implies A^{m+1}(A\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{0} \implies A^m(A\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{0} \implies A^{m+1}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$. So $NS(A^{m+2}) \subseteq NS(A^{m+1})$, but then $NS(A^{m+2}) = NS(A^{m+1}) = NS(A^m)$. Now just keep going to get $NS(A^k) = NS(A^m)$ for all $k \ge m$.

This means we have

$$NS(A^0) \subsetneq NS(A^1) \subsetneq NS(A^2) \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq NS(A^{m-1}) \subsetneq NS(A^m) = NS(A^{m+1}) = \cdots$$

The m at which $NS(A^k) = NS(A^m)$ for all $m \ge k$ must itself be $\le n$.

If $A^k = \mathbf{0}$ for any k, then $NS(A^k) = \mathbb{R}^n$ is maximal and thus $m \le k$ and $NS(A^m) = \mathbb{R}^n$. Since $m \le n$, $NS(A^n) = \mathbb{R}^n$ and so $A^n = \mathbf{0}$.

Proof 2: You can use induction. To do this we need to prove something that sounds slightly stronger:

 P_n : For any $n \times n$ matrix A, if $A^m = \mathbf{0}$ for any m > n, then $A^n = 0$.

base case: (n = 1) If $A^m = [a]^m = [a^m] = [0]$, for m>1, then a = 0, so $A^1 = [a] = [0]$ as needed.

inductive step: Suppose P_{n-1} : For any m > n-1, $A^m = \mathbf{0} \implies A^{n-1} = \mathbf{0}$ for all $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrices. We want to prove P_n .

Assume A is an $n \times n$ matrix and $A^m = 0$ for some m > n. Notice that $\ker(A) \neq \{0\}$, since if $\ker(A) = \{0\}$, then $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is injective and thus A^m is also injective, so $\ker(A^m) = \{0\}$. This obviously contradicts $A^m = \mathbf{0}$.

Let $\mathbf{v}_1 \in \ker(A)$ and let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ be a basis for \mathbb{R}^n . So letting $B = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_n]$ we have

$$A = BA'B^{-1}$$

where

$$A' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a'_{12} & a'_{13} & \cdots & a'_{1n} \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & \hat{A} & & \\ 0 & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

where \hat{A} is the indicated $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ submatrix of A'.

A' is the matrix of $L(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ with respect to the basis \mathcal{B} . Notice that $A^m = \mathbf{0}$ means $L^m(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ for all \mathbf{x} and hence $A'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ for all \mathbf{x} , a finally this means $A'^m = \mathbf{0}$.

Notice that A' has the block form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \boldsymbol{b}^T \\ \mathbf{0} & \hat{A} \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$(A')^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \boldsymbol{b}^T \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \hat{A} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \boldsymbol{b}^T \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \hat{A} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \boldsymbol{b}^T \hat{A} \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \hat{A}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

By a second, obvious induction,

$$(A')^k = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \boldsymbol{b}^T \hat{A}^{k-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \hat{A}^k \end{bmatrix}$$

We assume $\hat{A}^{m} = \mathbf{0}$ so $\hat{A}^{m} = \mathbf{0}$ and by induction $\hat{A}^{n-1} = \mathbf{0}$ and thus

$$(A')^n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{b}^T \hat{A}^{n-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \hat{A}^n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

Proof 3: This is not a proof, I would expect to see, it uses stuff we have not covered. However, it seems some students find this proof and then can't quite carry it out, so I will also indicate the main error.

It is true that is λ is an eigenvalue for A and \boldsymbol{x} and eigenvector for λ , then $A^k \boldsymbol{x} = \lambda^n \boldsymbol{x} = 0$, so $\lambda^n = 0$ and hence $\lambda = 0$. But this does not mean that A = 0. In fact, here is a matrix where $A^n = 0$,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

You can think about what A "does"

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{A} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{A} \cdots \xrightarrow{A} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ x_1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{A} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So $A^n = 0$, but $A^m \neq 0$ for any m < n and the only eigenvalue is $\lambda = 0$.

What you can argue is that if $p(t) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ is the characteristic function, then p(A) = 0, Cayley-Hamilton theorem. Since 0 is the only eigenvalue $p(x) = a_n x^n$, so we know $a_n A^n = 0$, thus $A^n = 0$.