

PRACTICE EXAMINATION SOLUTIONS

1. Find a basis for the row space, the column space, and the nullspace of the following matrix  $A$ . Find  $\text{rank } A$  and  $\text{nullity } A$ . Verify that every vector in the row space of  $A$  is orthogonal to every vector in the nullspace of  $A$ .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 7 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 & -6 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 16 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Reduce  $A$ , getting the  $4 \times 5$  matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 & -3/5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -2/5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3/5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The row space has as basis the three non-zero rows of the reduced matrix, i.e.  $\{(1, 0, 0, 3, -3/5), (0, 1, 0, 0, -2/5), (0, 0, 1, 0, 3/5)\}$ . The column space has basis the first three columns of the original matrix  $A$ , since the “first one’s” of the reduced matrix appear in these columns:  $\{(1, 1, -2, 0), (-1, -1, 2, 4), (7, 2, 1, 16)\}$ . For the nullspace, using the reduced matrix, we see that  $x_4$  and  $x_5$  are arbitrary, and that  $x_1 = -3x_4 + 3/5 x_5$ ,  $x_2 = 2/5 x_5$ , and  $x_3 = -3/5 x_5$ . Thus, the nullspace consists of all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^5$  of the form  $(-3x_4 + 3/5 x_5, 2/5 x_5, -3/5 x_5, x_4, x_5)$ , which we write as all vectors of the form  $x_4(-3, 0, 0, 1, 0) + x_5(3/5, 2/5, -3/5, 0, 1)$ . In other words, a basis for the nullspace is  $\{(-3, 0, 0, 1, 0), (3/5, 2/5, -3/5, 0, 1)\}$ . The rank of  $A$  is 3 and the nullity of  $A$  is 2; note that  $\text{Rank } A + \text{Nullity } A = 5$ . Finally, to verify that every vector in the row space is orthogonal to every vector in the nullspace, it is enough to check the basis vectors. So, there are 6 things to check, since there are 3 vectors in the basis of the row space and 2 vectors in the basis for the nullspace. Checking the first one:  $(1, 0, 0, 3, -3/5) \cdot (-3, 0, 0, 1, 0) = 0$ . The other 5 verifications are left to you.

2.(a). Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Find an orthogonal matrix  $P$  which diagonalizes  $A$ . Using this or otherwise, calculate  $A^8$ .

(b). Let  $A$  be a symmetric matrix, and let  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  be two, distinct eigenvalues of  $A$ . Let  $x$  be an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$  and let  $y$  be an eigenvector of  $A$  corresponding to  $\mu$ . Prove that  $x \perp y$ .

(a). **The first step** is to find the eigenvalues of  $A$ . So, solving  $\det(A - \lambda I) =$

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0,$$

we get three roots  $\lambda = 1, \lambda = 1, \lambda = 4$  (i.e. 1 is a *double* root).

The second step is to find the corresponding eigenvectors. Our goal is to find *two perpendicular eigenvectors, each of length 1, corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$ , and a third eigenvector, of length 1, corresponding to  $\lambda = 4$  which is to be perpendicular to the first two.* For  $\lambda = 1$ , we therefore consider  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , obtaining the reduced form  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , which yields the general solution  $(-x_2 - x_3, x_2, x_3)$ , where  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  are arbitrary. Letting  $x_2 = 1$  and  $x_3 = 0$ , we get  $u_1 = (-1, 1, 0)$  as an eigenvector. Then, letting  $x_2 = 0$  and  $x_3 = 1$ , we get  $u_2 = (-1, 0, 1)$  as another eigenvector. Note however, that neither  $u_1$  nor  $u_2$  has length 1; moreover,  $u_1$  is *not* orthogonal to  $u_2$ . So, we must apply the Gram-Schmidt process:

Let  $v_1 = u_1/\|u_1\|$ , obtaining  $v_1 = (-1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}, 0)$ . Then, take

$$v_2 = \frac{u_2 - \langle u_2, v_1 \rangle v_1}{\|u_2 - \langle u_2, v_1 \rangle v_1\|},$$

obtaining  $v_2 = (-1/\sqrt{6}, -1/\sqrt{6}, 2/\sqrt{6})$ . (Verify that both  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are unit vectors, that they are both eigenvectors corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$ , and finally that  $v_1 \perp v_2$ .)

Now, we find the third eigenvector corresponding to  $\lambda = 4$ . So, to reduce the matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$ . We obtain the matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Solving, we get  $x_3$  is arbitrary,  $x_1 = x_2 = x_3$ . Thus, for example,  $u_3 = (1, 1, 1)$  is an eigenvector. However, we need to normalise  $u_3$ , i.e. make it have length 1. So, the vector we seek is  $u_3/\|u_3\| = (1/\sqrt{3}, 1/\sqrt{3}, 1/\sqrt{3})$ .

Therefore the orthogonal matrix we seek is

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 2/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

*The point of all of this:* For this  $P$ , we have

$$P^T A P = D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus,  $A = PDP^T$ , so that  $A^8 = PD^8P^T = P \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4^8 \end{pmatrix} P^T$ .

(b).  $\lambda \langle x, y \rangle = \langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \langle Ax, y \rangle = \langle x, A^T y \rangle = \langle x, Ay \rangle$ , since  $A$  is symmetric,  $= \langle x, \mu y \rangle = \mu \langle x, y \rangle$ . Therefore,  $(\lambda - \mu) \langle x, y \rangle = 0$ . Now, we are given that  $\lambda \neq \mu$ . Thus,  $\langle x, y \rangle$  must be 0, i.e.  $x \perp y$ .

3. In each case, either explain why the set  $S$  in question is a vector space and find a basis and dimension of  $S$ , or explain why  $S$  is not a vector space.

(a).  $S = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4 : 2x_1 + x_3 - x_4 = 0 \text{ and } x_1 - x_3 - 2x_4 = 0\}$ .

(b).  $S =$  all  $4 \times 4$  matrices which are anti-symmetric. (Recall that  $A$  is anti-symmetric means that  $A^T = -A$ .)

(c).  $S =$  all functions  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f'(0) = 1$ .

**Part(a).** Since  $S$  is a subset of the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , we need only show that if  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$  and  $(y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4)$  are both in  $S$  and  $c$  is a scalar then their sum  $(x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + y_3, x_4 + y_4)$  and the scalar product  $(cx_1, cx_2, cx_3, cx_4)$  are both in  $S$  as well. For example, to verify the second condition,  $2(cx_1) + (cx_3) - (cx_4) = c(2x_1 + x_3 - x_4) = c \cdot 0 = 0$  and  $(cx_1) - (cx_3) - 2(cx_4) = c(x_1 - x_3 - 2x_4) = c \cdot 0 = 0$ . The verification of the first condition is just as simple.

$$S = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4 : \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\}.$$

Reducing, we get  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , from which the solution  $(x_4, x_2, -x_4, x_4) = x_2(0, 1, 0, 0) + x_4(1, 0, -1, 1)$  is obtained. Thus, a basis for  $S$  consists of the two vectors  $(0, 1, 0, 0), (1, 0, -1, 1)$ .  $\dim S = 2$ .

**Part (b).** We argue as in part (a). Here,  $S$  is a subset of the vector space of all  $4 \times 4$  matrices, and so we must only verify that if  $A$  and  $B$  are anti-symmetric and  $c$  is a scalar, then  $A + B$  and  $cA$  are also anti-symmetric. For example,  $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T = (-A) + (-B) = -(A + B)$ . Similarly, one shows that  $(cA)^T = -(cA)$ .

Any  $4 \times 4$  anti-symmetric matrix  $A$  is of the form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ -a_{12} & 0 & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ -a_{13} & -a_{23} & 0 & a_{34} \\ -a_{14} & -a_{24} & -a_{34} & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which we can write as a sum of 6 matrices

$$A = a_{12} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \dots + a_{34} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since it is easy to see that these six matrices are linearly independent, they form a basis for  $S$ , whose dimension is 6.

**Part (c).** Note that if  $f$  and  $g$  are in  $S$ , then  $f'(0) = g'(0) = 1$ . However,  $(f+g)'(0) = 2 \neq 1$ . Hence  $S$  is not a vector space.

4. Let  $V$  be a vector space, and let  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} \subset V$ .

(a). Define the term  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  is linearly independent.

(b). Prove: If  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$  is a linearly independent set, then so is  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ .

(c). Find all  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  such that the set  $\{(1, 2, 3), (0, -2, 1), (1, k^2, 3k - 1)\}$  is linearly independent.

Interpret geometrically.

**Part (a).** The set of vectors  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  is *linearly independent* means that the only possible solution  $c_1, \dots, c_k$  to the equation  $c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_kv_k = 0$  is  $c_1 = 0, c_2 = 0, \dots, c_k = 0$ .

**Part (b).** Suppose that  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$  is a linearly independent set, and let us show that the subset  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is also linearly independent. So, consider the equation  $c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + c_3v_3 = 0$ . If  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  were not linearly independent (i.e. if it were linearly dependent) then there would be a solution where not all the  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  were 0. Then, if we were to set  $c_4 = 0$  and  $c_5 = 0$ , there would be a solution to the equation  $c_1v_1 + \dots + c_5v_5 = 0$  where not all the  $c_i$ 's are zero. But, this contradicts our assumption that  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$  is a linearly independent.

**Part (c).** The set of  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  such that the set  $\{(1, 2, 3), (0, -2, 1), (1, k^2, 3k - 1)\}$  is linearly

independent is the same as the set of  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & k^2 & 3k-1 \end{pmatrix} \neq 0$ . Solving  $k^2 + 6k - 10 = 0$ , we get  $k = -3 \pm \sqrt{19}$ . Thus, for *all other*  $k$ ,  $\{(1, 2, 3), (0, -2, 1), (1, k^2, 3k-1)\}$  is linearly independent. The geometric interpretation is that if  $k = -3 \pm \sqrt{19}$ , then the three vectors  $\{(1, 2, 3), (0, -2, 1), (1, k^2, 3k-1)\}$  lie on the same plane (and hence they are not linearly independent). For all other values of  $k$ ,  $\{(1, 2, 3), (0, -2, 1), (1, k^2, 3k-1)\}$  are not co-planar.

5. In each case, either diagonalise the matrix or explain why the matrix cannot be diagonalised.

$$(a). A = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (b). A = \begin{pmatrix} 9 & -9 & 0 \\ 8 & -8 & 0 \\ -14 & 14 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Part (a).** It is easy to see that the only eigenvalue of  $A$  is the *double root*  $\lambda = -3$ . Now, reducing the matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} -3-\lambda & 2 \\ 0 & -3-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$  with  $\lambda = -3$ , we get the matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Thus, we get as eigenvector any vector of the form  $(x_1, 0)$ . However, there is not a set of *two* linearly independent eigenvectors corresponding to this double root. Hence, the matrix is not diagonalisable.

**Part (b).** First, the eigenvalues of  $A$  are obtained, as usual, by solving  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ . That is, one must solve the cubic  $\lambda^2(\lambda - 1) = 0$ .

Second, let's find two-if possible-linearly independent eigenvectors corresponding to the double root  $\lambda = 0$ : We get  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  are arbitrary, and  $x_1 = x_2$ . Thus, there are indeed 2 linearly independent eigenvectors,  $(1, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)$ . Corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$ , we find a third eigenvector  $(-9, -8, 14)$ . Thus, if we take  $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -9 \\ 1 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & 1 & 14 \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $P^{-1}AP$  will be the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

6. Let  $S : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be defined as rotation by an angle  $\theta$  and let  $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be the projection onto the  $x$ -axis.

(a). Find the standard matrices corresponding to  $S$  and  $T$ .

(b). Find the real eigenvalues, if any, of  $S$  and of  $T$ . Interpret your answers geometrically.

(c). Determine whether  $S \circ T = T \circ S$ .

**Part(a).**  $S \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$ , and  $T \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

**Part(b).**  $S$  has no real eigenvalues, unless  $\theta$  is a multiple of  $\pi$ . The geometric reason is that a rotation will not take a vector into a multiple of itself (unless the rotation is through a very special angle of  $0$  or  $\pm\pi$  or  $\pm 2\pi$  or ...).

$T$  has eigenvalues  $0$  and  $1$ , with corresponding eigenvectors  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ , respectively. Note that  $T$  takes  $(1, 0)$  to  $1$  times itself, while  $T$  takes  $(0, 1)$  to  $0$  times itself.

**Part (c).**  $S \circ T$  is (almost) never equal to  $T \circ S$ . One way to see this is to simply multiply the two matrices  $S \cdot T$  and  $T \cdot S$ , and verify that the resulting products are indeed different. Another way is to realise that, geometrically,  $T \circ S(x_1, x_2)$  is always a vector on the  $x$ -axis. On the other hand,  $S \circ T(x_1, x_2)$  does not lie on the  $x$ -axis (unless the angle of rotation  $\theta$  is a multiple of  $\pi$ . can be any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . So the two compositions,  $S \circ T$  and  $T \circ S$ , are different.