

# Homework Notes — Week 6

Math 24 — Spring 2014

§3.4#4b The system

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 + x_4 &= -2, \\x_1 + x_2 + x_3 - x_4 &= 2, \\x_1 + x_2 - x_3 &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

is consistent. To see this we put the matrix

$$(A|b) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -3 & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

into reduced row echelon form.

Adding  $-1$  times the first row to the second and third rows we obtain the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -3 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & -2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now we note that the second row is twice the third, so we can eliminate the third row and then multiply the second row by  $1/4$  to obtain the matrix

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

Now adding three times the second row to the first we obtain the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & -1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now since this is in reduced row echelon form exercise 3 says that the system is consistent, i.e. that it has a solution. To see what's its solution set is, we just read

off what an arbitrary solution must be from the above matrix, namely that in order for  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$  to be a solution we must have

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} -x_2 + \frac{1}{2}x_4 + 1 \\ x_2 \\ \frac{1}{2}x_4 + 1 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix}, \\ &= x_2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_4 \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Now finally by Theorem 3.15(b) the set

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

is a basis for the corresponding homogeneous system.

**§3.4#15\* Theorem.** *A matrix has only one reduced row echelon form.*

*Proof.* We will prove this by induction on  $n$ , the number of columns of a matrix. For this, let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix and suppose that  $B, C$  are  $m \times n$  matrices which are both reduced row echelon forms of  $A$ .

If  $n = 1$  then  $A, B, C$  are all just column vectors and we really only have two options,  $\text{rank } A = 0$  or  $1$ . If  $\text{rank } A = 0$  then  $A = B = C = 0$  so in particular  $B = C$ . If  $\text{rank } A = 1$  then by Theorem 3.16 we know that there is a column of  $B$  that is the column vector  $e_1$ , i.e. that  $B = e_1$ . But similar  $C = e_1$ , hence  $B = C$ .

Now suppose that  $n > 1$  and that all matrices with  $n - 1$  columns have a unique reduced row echelon form. Let  $A', B', C'$  be the matrices obtained by deleting the  $n$ th column of  $A, B, C$  respectively. Since deleting a column has no effect on the row operations in the remaining columns,  $B', C'$  are reduced row echelon forms of  $A'$  and so by the induction hypothesis we have that  $B' = C'$ .

So at the very least the first  $n - 1$  columns of  $B$  and  $C$  are the same, so the only way they could disagree is in column  $n$ . Note that adding a column to a matrix either leaves the rank the same or increases it by one we have that  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } A'$  or  $\text{rank } A = \text{rank } A' + 1$ . Throughout the rest let  $r = \text{rank } A$ .

If  $r = \text{rank } A'$  then by Theorem 3.16 part (b) there are columns  $b_{j_i} = e_i$  of  $B$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ . Now since  $B' = C'$  we know that the columns  $c_{j_i} = e_i$  as well. Since column  $n$  of  $B$  is of the form  $d_1 e_1 + \dots + d_r e_r$  for some scalars  $d_1, \dots, d_r$  we know that column  $n$  of  $A$  is  $d_1 a_{j_1} + \dots + d_r a_{j_r}$ , this is from Theorem 3.16 part (d). But similarly column  $n$  of  $C$  is of the form  $d'_1 e_1 + \dots + d'_r e_r$  for some scalars  $d'_1, \dots, d'_r$  and again column  $n$  of  $A$  is  $d'_1 a_{j_1} + \dots + d'_r a_{j_r}$ .

But Theorem 3.16 part (c) says that  $\{a_{j_1}, \dots, a_{j_r}\}$  is linearly independent, and we have just shown that

$$d_1 a_{j_1} + \dots + d_r a_{j_r} = d'_1 e_1 + \dots + d'_r e_r,$$

so by linear independence of these vectors we have  $d_1 = d'_1, d_2 = d'_2, \dots, d_r = d'_r$ . But this means exactly that the  $n$ th column of  $B$  and  $C$  are the same, so finally  $B = C$ .

If  $r = \text{rank } A' + 1$  then we will see that the column  $n$  of  $B$  and  $C$  is precisely  $e_r$ . Since  $B', C'$  are in reduced row echelon form and have rank  $r - 1$  they must have all zeros in row  $r$ . But since  $B, C$  have rank  $r$  there must be a nonzero entry in row  $r$  of these matrices, in particular the entry of column  $n$  and row  $r$  of  $B$  and  $C$  must be nonzero. Since this is the first nonzero entry in row  $r$  it must be 1 and this must be the only nonzero entry in column  $n$  as  $B$  and  $C$  are reduced row echelon forms. But this means precisely that the  $n$ th columns of  $B$  and  $C$  are  $e_r$ , hence that  $B = C$ .  $\square$

**§4.1#9** For any  $A, B \in M_{2 \times 2}(F)$  we have  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$ . We know that we can write

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix},$$

for some scalars  $a, b, \dots, h$ . By definition

$$\det(A)\det(B) = (ad - bc)(eh - fg),$$

and we can compute  $\det(AB)$  directly,

$$\begin{aligned}
\det(AB) &= \det \left( \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \right), \\
&= \det \begin{pmatrix} ae + bg & af + bh \\ ce + dg & cf + dh \end{pmatrix} \\
&= (ae + bg)(cf + dh) - (af + bh)(ce + dg), \\
&= aecf + aedh + bgcf + bgdh - afce - afdg - bhce - bhdg, \\
&= acef - acef + adeh - afdg + bcfg - bche + bdgh - bdgh, \\
&= adeh - afdg + bcfg - bche, \\
&= ad(eh - fg) - bc(eh - fg), \\
&= (ad - bc)(eh - fg).
\end{aligned}$$

**§4.1#10** Let  $A \in M_{2 \times 2}(F)$  and  $C$  the classical adjoint of  $A$ , i.e.

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} A_{2,2} & -A_{1,2} \\ -A_{2,1} & A_{1,1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

For part (a) we compute directly  $AC$  and  $CA$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
AC &= \begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{2,2} & -A_{1,2} \\ -A_{2,1} & A_{1,1} \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1}A_{2,2} - A_{1,2}A_{2,1} & -A_{1,1}A_{1,2} + A_{1,2}A_{1,1} \\ A_{2,1}A_{2,2} - A_{2,2}A_{2,1} & -A_{2,1}A_{1,2} + A_{2,2}A_{1,1} \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \det(A) & 0 \\ 0 & \det(A) \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \det(A) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.
\end{aligned}$$

The computation for  $CA$  is essentially identical.

For part (b) we just compute  $\det(C)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\det(C) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} A_{2,2} & -A_{1,2} \\ -A_{2,1} & A_{1,1} \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= A_{2,2}A_{1,1} - A_{1,2}A_{2,1}, \\
&= A_{1,1}A_{2,2} - A_{1,2}A_{2,1}, \\
&= \det(A).
\end{aligned}$$

Finally for part (c) we know that if  $\det(A) \neq 0$  if and only if  $A$  is invertible, so if  $A$  is invertible then  $A \left( \frac{1}{\det(A)} C \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , and by uniqueness of inverses we have  $A^{-1} = [\det(A)]^{-1} C$ .

**§4.1#11\*** **Theorem.** *Suppose  $\delta : M_{2 \times 2}(F) \rightarrow F$  is a function with the following three properties.*

- (i)  $\delta$  is a linear function of each row of the matrix when the other row is held fixed.
- (ii) If the two rows of  $A \in M_{2 \times 2}(F)$  are identical, then  $\delta(A) = 0$ .
- (iii) If  $I$  is the  $2 \times 2$  identity matrix, then  $\delta(I) = 1$ .

Then  $\delta(A) = \det(A)$  for every  $A \in M_{2 \times 2}(F)$ .

Suppose  $\delta$  satisfies properties (i), (ii) and (iii). For the current proof, given vectors  $x, y \in F^2$ , let's write  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  for the  $2 \times 2$  matrix whose rows are  $x$  and  $y$  as there will never be any danger to confuse this notation with that of a column vector. We will break down the argument in three lemmas.

**Lemma 1.**  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -\delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix}$ .

*Proof.* Because of property (i), we have

$$\delta \begin{pmatrix} x+y \\ x+y \end{pmatrix} = \delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x+y \end{pmatrix} + \delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x+y \end{pmatrix} = \delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x \end{pmatrix} + \delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix} + \delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Because of property (ii), we have

$$\delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x \end{pmatrix} = 0, \quad \delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \delta \begin{pmatrix} x+y \\ x+y \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Therefore,  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix} = 0$  or, equivalently,  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -\delta \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \end{pmatrix}$ . □

**Lemma 2.** We have  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$  and  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \end{pmatrix} = 1$  and therefore  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ y \end{pmatrix} = y_2$  for every  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in F^2$ .

*Proof.* The first two facts are immediate consequences of properties (ii) and (iii), respectively. By property (i), we then also have

$$\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ y_1 e_1 + y_2 e_2 \end{pmatrix} = y_1 \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_1 \end{pmatrix} + y_2 \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \end{pmatrix} = y_1(0) + y_2(1) = y_2$$

for every vector  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in F^2$ . □

**Lemma 3.** We have  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ e_1 \end{pmatrix} = -1$  and  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ e_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0$  and therefore  $\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -y_1$  for every  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in F^2$ .

*Proof.* The first fact follows from property (iii) and Lemma 1 and the second fact follows from property (ii). By property (i), we then also have

$$\delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ y_1 e_1 + y_2 e_2 \end{pmatrix} = y_1 \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ e_1 \end{pmatrix} + y_2 \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ e_2 \end{pmatrix} = y_1(-1) + y_2(0) = -y_1$$

for every vector  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in F^2$ . □

Now, by property (i), we have for any two vectors  $x = (x_1, x_2), y = (y_1, y_2) \in F^2$  that

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} &= \delta \begin{pmatrix} x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 \\ y \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1 \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ y \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \delta \begin{pmatrix} e_2 \\ y \end{pmatrix} \\ &= x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1. \end{aligned}$$

It then follows immediately from the definition of  $2 \times 2$  determinants that  $\delta(A) = \det(A)$  for every  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A$  over  $F$ .

**§4.2#23\* Theorem.** *The determinant of an upper triangular matrix is the product of its diagonal entries.*

*Proof.* This is easy to see from the alternate definition of determinants from the April 24 slides. The idea is that if  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix and  $\sigma$  is an  $n$ -permutation then

$$\text{sign}(\sigma)A_{1\sigma_1} \cdots A_{n\sigma_n} = 0$$

unless  $\sigma$  is the permutation  $(1, 2, \dots, n)$ , where every number is in order.

Indeed, given any other permutation  $\sigma$ , let  $i$  be the first number such that  $\sigma_i \neq i$ . We must then have  $\sigma_j = i$  for some  $j > i$ . But then  $A_{j\sigma_j} = A_{ji} = 0$  since  $A$  is upper triangular.  $\square$

*Proof.* Suppose that  $A = (A_{i,j})_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$  is an  $n \times n$  upper triangular matrix, meaning that  $A_{i,j} = 0$  for all  $i > j$ .

We prove this by induction on  $n$ , the number of columns (and rows) in an upper triangular matrix. If  $n = 1$  then  $A = (a)$  and  $\det(A) = a$  by definition of  $\det$  for  $1 \times 1$  matrices. Now suppose that  $n > 1$  and that the result holds for all  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  upper triangular matrices. Then we compute  $\det(A)$  by cofactor expansion along row  $n$ . Theorem 4.4 then shows that

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{n+j} A_{n,j} \cdot \det(\tilde{A}_{n,n}) = (-1)^{n+n} A_{n,n} \det(\tilde{A}_{n,n}) = A_{n,n} \det(\tilde{A}_{n,n}),$$

since  $A_{n,1} = A_{n,2} = \cdots = A_{n,n-1} = 0$ . Now if  $\tilde{A}_{n,n}$  is an  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix and is upper triangular with diagonal entries  $A_{1,1}, A_{2,2}, \dots, A_{n-1,n-1}$  so by the induction hypothesis

$$\det(A) = A_{n,n} \det(\tilde{A}_{n,n}) = A_{n,n} A_{1,1} \cdots A_{n-1,n-1} = A_{1,1} \cdots A_{n,n},$$

which is precisely the product of the diagonal entries of  $A$ .  $\square$

**§4.2#24** If an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  has a row consisting entirely of zeros then  $\det(A) = 0$ .

First write  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$  for some row vectors  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ . Then suppose that  $a_i = 0$  for some  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , then Theorem 4.3

$$\begin{aligned}
\det(A) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{i-1} \\ 0 \\ a_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{i-1} \\ 0+0 \\ a_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{i-1} \\ 0 \\ a_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} + \det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{i-1} \\ 0 \\ a_{i+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}, \\
&= \det(A) + \det(A), \\
&= 2 \det(A).
\end{aligned}$$

So subtracting  $\det(A)$  from both sides we get  $\det(A) = 0$ .

**§4.3#11** If  $M$  is skew-symmetric, then  $\det(-M) = \det(M^t) = \det(M)$  by Theorem 4.8. Since  $-M = (-I)M$ , we also have  $\det(-M) = \det(-I)\det(M) = (-1)^n \det(M)$  by Theorem 4.7 and Exercise 23 from Section 4.2. If  $n$  is odd, then it follows from  $\det(M) = -\det(M)$  that  $\det(M) = 0$ . (Since we are working over the complex numbers,  $1 + 1 \neq 0$ .)

If  $n$  is even, then the above says nothing much. A  $(2k) \times (2k)$  skew-symmetric matrix may or may not be invertible. The zero matrix is an example of a  $(2k) \times (2k)$



skew-symmetric matrix that is not invertible. The matrix  $B$  given by

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0_k & I_k \\ -I_k & 0_k \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $I_k$  is the  $k \times k$  identity matrix and  $0_k$  is the  $k \times k$  zero matrix, then  $B$  is invertible since  $\text{rank}(B) = 2k$  and  $B$  is clearly skew-symmetric.

Indeed,  $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is a skew-symmetric matrix with determinant 1.

**§4.3#12** If  $Q \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  is orthogonal then  $\det(Q) = \pm 1$ .

Recall a few facts about determinant, first we know that  $\det(I) = 1$  (where  $I$  is the identity matrix), second  $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$  for all  $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  and third that  $\det(A^t) = \det(A)$ .

Using these facts we have

$$1 = \det(I) = \det(QQ^t) = \det(Q)\det(Q^t) = \det(Q)\det(Q) = \det(Q)^2,$$

but the only numbers in  $\mathbb{R}$  whose squares are one are 1 and  $-1$ . Therefore  $\det(Q) = \pm 1$ .