

**Linear Algebra Resit TI1206M**  
**April 13, 2016, 09.00 – 12.00 uur**

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**Important:** Do not only give the final answers (unless explicitly asked): include all the relevant calculations and arguments to arrive at the answers. Write clearly and formulate in correct English. The uses of a calculator is not permitted.

Credits: 1. **7** pts; 2. **7** pts; 3. **3** pts; 4. **7** pts; 5. **8** pts; 6. **8** pts.

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1. Given are the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \alpha & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and the vector  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

- a.** For which  $\alpha$  is  $\mathbf{b}$  an element of the column space of  $A$ ?
- b.** Calculate all the values of  $\alpha$  for which the columns of  $A$  are dependent.
- c.** Give a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$  for the case that  $\alpha = -1$ .
- d.** For which value(s) of  $\alpha$  is  $\mathbf{b}$  an element of the null space of  $A$ ?

2. Given are two matrices and a vector:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 6 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 6 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 6 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 7 \\ -7 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

- a.** Determine the determinant of  $A$ .  
(Tip: first subtract row five from the other rows.)
- b.** Also given is that  $AB = 14I$ . (Which you don't have to check!)  
Use these givens to find  $A^{-1}$ .
- c.** Solve:  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}$ . (Tip: use part **b**.)

**3.** Calculate the least-squares line  $y = \alpha + \beta x$  belonging to the points  $(0,0)$ ,  $(1,4)$ ,  $(2,5)$ ,  $(3,8)$ ,  $(4,8)$ .

4. Given is the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**a.** Show that  $\lambda = -1$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

**b.** Check that  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ .

**c.** Is  $A$  diagonalizable? If not, explain why; if so, give a matrix  $P$  and a diagonal matrix  $D$  such that  $A = PDP^{-1}$ .

5. **a.** Use the Gram-Schmidt method to find an orthonormal basis for the subspace  $S$  of  $\mathbb{R}^4$  spanned by the vectors

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{a}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

**b.** Describe (in words!) a method to find the orthogonal complement of  $S$ , and find such a basis.

**c.** Calculate the orthogonal projection of the vector  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  on  $S$ .

6. For each of the following statements, give a proof if it's true, and a counterexample if it's false:

In the first two parts,  $A$  is some  $4 \times 7$  matrix.

**a.** The system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  (always) has infinitely many solutions for every  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$

**b.** The system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , the zero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , always has at least three *independent* solutions.

**c.** If an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is diagonalizable then  $2A + I$  is also diagonalizable.

**d.** If  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3\}$  are an orthogonal set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , then the set of vectors  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\} = \{\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_1 - \mathbf{u}_2, 2\mathbf{u}_3\}$  is also orthogonal.

## SOLUTIONS

**1a** Subtract the first row from the second, and the fourth from the third.

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & \alpha & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & \alpha - 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 + 2(\alpha - 1) \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

And it's clear that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  only has solutions if  $2 + 2(\alpha - 1) = 0$ , so when  $\boxed{\alpha = 0}$ .

**1b** You can see it right away:  $\mathbf{a}_2 = \mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_4$ , independent of  $\alpha$ , the columns are *always* dependent. You can also look back at part **a.** and note that  $A$  (for every value of  $\alpha$ ) has exactly three pivots; so not every column is a pivot; so the columns are *always* dependent.

**1c** In **a.** we found that  $A \sim E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and the null spaces of  $A$  and  $E$  are equal.

There are three pivots, so  $\dim \text{Nul}(E) = 1$  and the relationship mentioned in **b.** (or taking a look at matrix  $E$ ) shows you that  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  forms a basis for  $\text{Nul}(A)$ .

**1d**  $A\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \alpha - 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  is equal to the zero vector for no values of  $\alpha$ , so  $\mathbf{b} \in \text{Nul } A$  for no values of  $\alpha$ .

**2a** Many roads lead to Rome. Following the top (why wouldn't you): subtract the bottom row from the other rows, and then add the first four columns to the fifth column (you'll see why after the first step!):

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccccc} 3 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{ccccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{ccccc} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 7 \end{array} \right| = |L|$$

And the determinant of a triangle matrix is simply the product of the elements on the diagonal:  
 $|A| = |L| = 2^4 \cdot 7 = 112$

**2b** From  $AB = 14I$  follows  $\frac{1}{14}AB = A(\frac{1}{14}B) = I$ , and that pretty much shows that  $\frac{1}{14}B$  is the inverse of  $A$  (because one of the invertible matrix rules is that, for a square matrix  $A$ : if  $AB = I$  then  $B = A^{-1}$ ).

**2c** You just need one matrix multiplication: we know that  $A$  is invertible, so

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} \iff \mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{14} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 6 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 6 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 6 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 7 \\ -7 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \\ -4 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

**3** To find  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ : calculate the least-squares solution of the system

$$\alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 8 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Normal equations:  $\left[ \begin{array}{cc|c} 5 & 10 & 25 \\ 10 & 30 & 70 \end{array} \right] \sim \dots \sim \left[ \begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$ , gives  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $\beta = 2$ .

**4a** To check:  $A\mathbf{x} = (-1)\mathbf{x}$ , so  $(A - (-1)I)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , has a solution  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

$$[A - (-1)I | \mathbf{0}] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

It's clear there are two independent solutions to this system.

**4b**

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

Shown here is that the matrix has 2 as eigenvalue.

**4c** From **a.** it follows that there are two independent eigenvectors for eigenvalue -1, and part **b.** delivers a third (automatically independent) eigenvector at e.w. 2. These three form a basis of eigenvectors, and that's one of the characteristics of diagonalizability.

$$A = PDP^{-1}, \text{ for (e.g.) } D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(The first two columns of  $P$  are eigenvectors for eigenvalue  $\lambda = -1$ , following from the reduced matrix from part **a.**)

**5a**

$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{a}_1.$$

$$\mathbf{b}_2 = \mathbf{a}_2 - \frac{\mathbf{a}_2 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1}{\mathbf{b}_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1} \mathbf{b}_1 = [0 \ 3 \ 1 \ -1]^T.$$

$$\mathbf{b}_3 = [1 \ -3 \ 0 \ 2]^T - \frac{3}{3} [1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1]^T - \frac{-11}{11} [0 \ 3 \ 1 \ -1]^T = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]^T.$$

It's clear that  $\mathbf{a}_3$  is dependent on  $\mathbf{a}_1$  and  $\mathbf{a}_2$ .

Normalization gives the orthonormal basis

$$\{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{11}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \right\}$$

**5b** The orthogonal complement consists of all vectors that are orthogonal to  $\mathbf{a}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_2$  and  $\mathbf{a}_3$  (or  $\mathbf{b}_1$  en  $\mathbf{b}_2$ ). If we work with the  $\mathbf{b}$ -basis then those are the solutions of the augmented matrix

$$\left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \sim \left[ \begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{1}{3} & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

This system has the solutions  $\mathbf{x} = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -\frac{1}{3} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2$ .

And an obvious basis is (alongside, of course, an infinite amount of others):  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2\}$ .

**5c**  $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2$  lies in  $S$ , so  $\text{proj}_S(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}$ .

If you didn't see this, you can still use the non-normalized **orthogonal** basis

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{from part a.}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}_2}{\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2} \mathbf{u}_2 = \frac{9}{3} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{11}{11} \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

**6a**  $A$  has four rows and seven columns. The proposition is **false**: in general, the seven columns can span the whole  $\mathbb{R}^4$  but they don't have to. Silly example: take the zero matrix for  $A$  !

**6b** This is true: reducing  $A$  gives an echelon matrix with at most four pivots (because there are only four rows); that means that there are at least three columns without pivots, and there are at least three variables in the solution to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , which implies that there are at least three independent solutions.

**6c** This is true: take  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  as a basis of eigenvectors for the eigenvalues  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$ , which is then also a basis for  $2A + I$ , since  $(2A + I)\mathbf{v}_i = 2A\mathbf{v}_i + I\mathbf{v}_i = 2d_i\mathbf{v}_i + \mathbf{v}_i = (2d_i + 1)\mathbf{v}_i$ . (A bit) shorter:  $A = PDP^{-1} \Rightarrow 2A + I = 2PDP^{-1} + I = 2PDP^{-1} + PIP^{-1} = P(2D + I)P^{-1}$ , and the final step gives a diagonalization for  $2A + I$ , because  $2D + I$  is another diagonal matrix.

**6d** This is true: the given is equivalent to  $\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_i = 1$ , and  $\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ , if  $i \neq j$ .

To show:  $\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ .

$$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = (\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2) \cdot (\mathbf{u}_1 - \mathbf{u}_2) = \mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 - \mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 + \mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 - \mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 = 1 - 0 + 0 - 1 = 0,$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = (\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2) \cdot (2\mathbf{u}_3) = 2\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_3 + 2\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_3 = 2 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 0 = 0,$$

and, analogously,  $\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 0$ .

## NORMEN

**1a** 3 pt. foute conclusie door niet ‘doorvegen’: **0** pt.

**1b** 1 pt.

**1c** 2 pt. Alleen ‘algemene opl.’ gegeven: **0.5** pt eraf.

**1d** 1 pt.

**2a** 3 pt. Alternatieve aanpak: per rekenfout **1.5** pt eraf.

**2b** 2 pt.

**2c** 2 pt.

**3** 3 pt. **2** voor normaalvergelijkingen

**4a** 2 pt.

**4b** 2 pt.

**4c** 3 pt.

**5a** 3 pt. nulvector in basis opgenomen: **1** eraf; niet genormeerd: ook **1** eraf.

**5b** 3 pt. Geen goed geformuleerde uitleg (of uitleg die niet past bij de uiteindelijke berekening) **1** pt. eraf;

**5c** 2 pt. Projectieformule voor niet-orthogonale basis gebruikt: **0** pt.

**6** 8 pt. **2** pt per onderdeel

ad **a.**: indien alleen opgemerkt ‘stelsel kan strijdig zijn’: max **1** pt.

ad **b.**: indien beweerd ‘ $A$  heeft vier pivots’ **1** pt. eraf

**cijfer**  $:= \frac{\text{totaal} + 4}{4.4}$ , afgerond op halven.