

This examination consists of 3 double-sided pages. You have 75 minutes to complete it. **Be sure to sign the Honor Code Acknowledgement on the last page.**

Do all of the work you want graded on the pages of this exam. Be as neat as possible, since I will ignore anything that I cannot read. Good luck.

*10 points* 1. Circle the letters of the statements that are true. In each case, give a *brief* justification for your answer or a counterexample.

a.  $\det(A + B) = \det(A) + \det(B)$ .

False.  $\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \neq \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

b. If  $G$  is symmetric and  $n$ -by- $n$ , then the formula  $(x, y) = x^T G y$  defines an inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

True. Because  $G = G^T$ , we have  $(x, y) = x^T G y = y^T G^T x = y^T G x = (y, x)$ . The other two properties,  $(x, y_1 + y_2) = (x, y_1) + (x, y_2)$  and  $(x, \lambda y) = \lambda(x, y)$ , are consequences of matrix multiplication.

c.  $\det(AB) = \det(BA)$  if  $A$  and  $B$  are any  $n$ -by- $n$  matrices.

True.  $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B) = \det(B) \det(A) = \det(BA)$ .

d. If  $A = -A^T$ , then  $\det(A) = 0$ .

False.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -A^T$  has  $\det(A) = 1$ . (It *is* true if the size of  $A$  is odd.)

e. If  $P \neq I$  is an  $n$ -by- $n$  projection matrix, then  $\det(P) = 0$ .

True. If  $P$  is a projection matrix that is not the identity, then it is a projection onto a proper subspace and hence has a nonzero kernel and is not invertible. Thus,  $\det(P) = 0$ .

*5 points* 2. Let  $A$  be an  $n$ -by- $n$  matrix with integer entries. Explain why  $\det(A) = \pm 1$  if and only if  $A$  is invertible and  $A^{-1}$  also has integer entries.

If  $\det(A) = \pm 1$ , then  $A$  is invertible and, since  $A^{-1} = (\det A)^{-1} C^T = \pm C^T$  while the entries of  $C$  (the cofactor matrix) are, up to sign, determinants of minors of  $A$ , which are also integer matrices and so have integer determinants.

If  $A$  is invertible and  $A^{-1}$  has integer entries, then both  $\det(A)$  and  $\det(A^{-1}) = 1/\det(A)$  are integers. However, the only integers whose inverses are also integers are 1 and  $-1$ .

Name (printed): \_\_\_\_\_

10 points **3.** Compute the determinant of each of the following matrices

$$(i) A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = (-1)(1) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = (-1)(2 \cdot 8 - 6 \cdot 4) = 8.$$

$$(ii) B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 & 10 \\ 1 & 4 & 10 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det B &= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 & 10 \\ 1 & 4 & 10 & 20 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 & 9 \\ 0 & 3 & 9 & 19 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 10 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

5 points **4.** Apply the Gram-Schmidt process to the vectors

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

to produce an orthonormal basis  $(u_1, u_2, u_3)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

(I'll spare you the arithmetic and just give the answer.)

$$u_1 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_2 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad u_3 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

10 points **5.** Find the line  $y = ax + b$  that best approximates the data  $(x, y) = (0, 1)$ ,  $(1, 3)$ , and  $(2, 3)$  in the sense of least squares.

The desired line  $y = ax + b$  will be found by finding the best ‘approximate solution’ to the (incompatible) system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The corresponding normal system is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -3 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{4}{3} \end{bmatrix},$$

so the line is  $y = x + \frac{4}{3}$ .

10 points **6.** Find the 3-by-3 matrix  $A$  that represents a reflection in the plane  $x_1 + 2x_2 - 2x_3 = 0$ . (Hint: First, find the projection onto the orthogonal line.)

The projection matrix is given by

$$P = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} (1 \ 2 \ -2) = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -2 \\ 2 & 4 & -4 \\ -2 & -4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The reflection matrix is then

$$R = I - 2P = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -4 & 4 \\ -4 & 1 & 8 \\ 4 & 8 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

10 points 7. Let  $V$  be a vector space with basis  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  and let  $(,)$  be an inner product on  $V$ . Define the matrix  $G = (G_{ij})$  by

$$G_{ij} = (v_i, v_j).$$

Explain why  $G$  is symmetric. If

$$x = x_1 v_1 + \dots + x_n v_n, \quad y = y_1 v_1 + \dots + y_n v_n,$$

show that

$$(x, y) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n G_{ij} x_i y_j$$

and explain why  $(,)$  is nondegenerate if and only if  $G$  is invertible. What is the relationship between the kernel of  $G$  and the subspace  $V^\perp = \{y \in V \mid (x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } x \in V\}$ ?

Since  $G_{ji} = (v_j, v_i) = (v_i, v_j) = G_{ij}$ , it is clear that  $G$  is symmetric. Now, using the above formulae for  $x$  and  $y$  above and the linearity of  $(,)$  in both arguments, we see

$$(x, y) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i, \sum_{i=1}^n y_i v_i \right) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n x_i y_j (v_i, v_j) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n G_{ij} x_i y_j.$$

If  $G$  is not invertible, then there are numbers  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ , not all zero, such that  $\sum_{j=1}^n G_{ij} y_j = 0$  for all  $i$ . But then the vector  $y = y_1 v_1 + \dots + y_n v_n$  will be nonzero and satisfy  $(x, y) = 0$  for all  $x \in V$ , so  $(,)$  will be degenerate. Conversely, if  $(,)$  is nondegenerate, then, for any numbers  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ , not all zero, the vector  $y = y_1 v_1 + \dots + y_n v_n$  in  $V$  is nonzero, so there will be an  $x = x_1 v_1 + \dots + x_n v_n$  in  $V$  such that  $(x, y) \neq 0$ . By the above formula, it then follows that we cannot have  $\sum_{j=1}^n G_{ij} y_j = 0$  for all  $i$ . Thus  $G$  has no kernel and hence is invertible.

By the discussion in the previous paragraph, it follows that  $y = y_1 v_1 + \dots + y_n v_n$  lies in  $V^\perp$  if and only if the vector  $(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  lies in the kernel of  $G$ . In fact, the linear map  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow V$  given by  $F(y_1, \dots, y_n) = y_1 v_1 + \dots + y_n v_n$ , which is one-to-one and onto because  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  is a basis of  $V$ , carries the kernel of  $G$  onto  $V^\perp$ . In particular, the dimension of  $V^\perp$  is  $n-r$ , where  $r$  is the rank of  $G$ .

10 points **8.** The point of this problem is to show that, if  $A$  is an  $n$ -by- $n$  matrix that satisfies  $A^2 = 0$ , then  $\det(I_n + A) = 1$ . Let  $p(t) = \det(I_n + tA)$ . Supply justifications for the following statements:

(i)  $p(t)$  is a polynomial in  $t$  of degree at most  $n$ .

By our formula for the determinant,  $p(t)$  is a sum of  $n!$  terms, each of which is a product of  $n$  entries from  $(I_n + tA)$ . Since each of these factors is linear in  $t$ , the product has degree at most  $n$  in  $t$ .

(ii)  $p(t)^2 = p(2t)$ .

Since  $A^2 = 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} p(t)^2 &= \det(I_n + tA)^2 = \det((I_n + tA)^2) = \det((I_n + 2tA + t^2A^2)) \\ &= \det(I_n + 2tA) = p(2t). \end{aligned}$$

(iii)  $p$  has degree 0.

If  $p(t)$  has degree  $d$  in  $t$ , then  $p(t)^2$  will have degree  $2d$  in  $t$  while  $p(2t)$  will still have degree  $d$  in  $t$ . Thus  $2d = d$ , i.e.,  $d = 0$ .

(iv)  $p(1) = p(0)$ .

Since  $p(t)$  has degree 0 in  $t$ , it must be constant. In particular,  $p(t) = p(0)$  for all  $t$ .

(v)  $\det(I_n + A) = 1$ .

$$\det(I_n + A) = p(1) = p(0) = \det(I_n + 0) = 1.$$

Remark: This argument can be generalized to show that  $\det(I_n + A) = 1$  for any matrix  $A$  that satisfies  $A^{k+1} = 0$  for some  $k \geq 0$ . The point is that the polynomial  $p(t) = \det(I_n + tA)$ , which has some degree  $d \leq n$  in  $t$ , has the property that, for any  $m \geq 1$ , the power  $p(t)^m$ , which has degree  $md$ , also has an expression as a polynomial in  $t$  of degree at most  $kn$ , since, by the binomial theorem and the assumption  $A^{k+1} = 0$ ,

$$p(t)^m = \det((I_n + tA)^m) = \det\left(I_n + mtA + \binom{m}{2}t^2A^2 + \cdots + \binom{m}{k}t^kA^k\right).$$

If  $d > 0$ , then as soon as you take  $m > kn/d$ , you get a contradiction.

Remark: Also, the equation  $p(t)^2 = p(2t)$ , by itself, does not force  $p$  to be a constant function. Consider  $p(t) = e^t$ .

10 points **9.** Let  $(,)$  be an inner product on the vector space  $V$ . For any  $v \in V$ , the map  $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = (v, x)$  is linear. The point of this problem is to prove a (partial) converse: If  $(,)$  is nondegenerate and  $V$  is finite dimensional, then any linear map  $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  can be written as  $f(x) = (v, x)$  for some unique  $v \in V$ . Supply explanations and/or descriptions as required:

(i) Let  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  be a basis of  $V$  and define the linear map  $F : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  by

$$F(x) = ((e_1, x), (e_2, x), \dots, (e_n, x)).$$

Describe the kernel and range of  $F$ . (In particular, why is nondegeneracy important?)

The kernel of  $F$  is the zero subspace and the range of  $F$  is all of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The reason is as follows: If  $F(x) = 0$ , then  $x$  is perpendicular to each of the vectors  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  and hence is perpendicular to their span, which is all of  $V$ . In other words  $x \in V^\perp$ , but since  $(,)$  is nondegenerate,  $V^\perp = 0$ . Thus,  $x = 0$ . This shows that the kernel of  $F$  is the zero subspace. By the rank equation,

$$n = \dim V = \dim \ker(F) + \dim \text{range}(F) = 0 + \dim \text{range}(F),$$

so  $\text{range}(F) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  has dimension  $n$  and so  $\text{range}(F) = \mathbb{R}^n$ , as claimed.

(ii) Explain why there is a unique vector  $v \in V$  such that

$$F(v) = (f(e_1), f(e_2), \dots, f(e_n)).$$

Because  $F$  is one-to-one (since  $\ker(F) = 0$ ) and onto (since  $\text{range}(F) = \mathbb{R}^n$ ), there is only one vector  $v \in V$  that gets sent to  $(f(e_1), f(e_2), \dots, f(e_n))$  by  $F$ .

(iii) Explain why  $f(x) = (v, x)$  for all  $x \in V$ .

Let  $v \in V$  be the unique solution to the above equation. Then  $f(e_i) = (v, e_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Any vector  $x \in V$  can be written uniquely in the form  $x = x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n$  and hence

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n) = x_1 f(e_1) + \dots + x_n f(e_n) \\ &= x_1 (v, e_1) + \dots + x_n (v, e_n) = (v, x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n) = (v, x). \end{aligned}$$

(Note that  $v$  is unique because  $(,)$  is nondegenerate.)

**Honor Code Statement:** I have neither given nor received nor will I provide unacknowledged aid on this examination.