

Linear Algebra With Application.

HW 5

Selected problems

§ 4.1 #4, #22

§ 4.2 #5, #13, #17, #25

§ 4.1

#4

• Let $A \in \text{Mat}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$, $B \in \text{Mat}_{n,\ell}(\mathbb{R})$ such that $AB = 0$

Note that columns of B are exactly $Be_1, \dots, Be_\ell$ where

$$e_j = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)^t \quad (j=1, \dots, \ell)$$

↑ j -th entry.

$$\text{Now } AB=0 \Rightarrow A(Be_j) = (AB)e_j = 0$$

$\Rightarrow Be_j$'s are in the kernel of A .

Similarly, rows of A are exactly $f_1 A, \dots, f_m A$ where

$$f_i = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0) \quad (i=1, \dots, m)$$

↑ i -th entry

$$\text{Again, } AB=0 \Rightarrow (f_i A)B = f_i(AB) = 0$$

Hence $f_i A$'s are in the left null space of B .

• Suppose $A, B \in \text{Mat}_{3,3}(\mathbb{R})$, $AB=0$ and $\text{rk}(A) = \text{rk}(B) = 2$.

By dimension thm, $\text{Null}(A) + \text{rk}(A) = 3$ so $\text{Null}(A) = 1$.

On the other hand, by previous observation, $\text{Ker}(A)$ already contains the column space of B , which is 2-dimensional since $\text{rk}(B) = 2$. And we get $\text{Null}(A) = \dim \text{Ker}(A) \geq 2 \rightarrow \leftarrow$.

#22

$$P = \{ (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0 \}$$

$$= \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid \vec{n} \cdot \vec{x} = 0 \} \text{ where } \vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4), \vec{n} = (1, 1, 1, 1)$$

Hence this is a hyperplane in $\mathbb{R}^4$ passing through the origin whose normal vector is $\vec{n}$. So $P^\perp = \langle (1, 1, 1, 1) \rangle$

• In order that a matrix A has P as its kernel, By Fundamental thm of Linear algebra (cf. p198 of textbook), row space of A should be $P^\perp = \langle (1, 1, 1, 1) \rangle$.

Examples: $(1, 1, 1, 1)$, $\begin{pmatrix} 2, 2, 2, 2 \\ 0, 0, 0, 0 \end{pmatrix}$, etc.

§ 4.2

#5

$$a_1 = (-1, 2, 2)^t$$

$$a_1^t a_1 = (-1)^2 + 2^2 + 2^2 = 9$$

$$a_1 a_1^t = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot (-1, 2, 2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\therefore P_1 = \frac{a_1 a_1^t}{a_1^t a_1} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$a_2 = (2, 2, -1)^t$$

$$a_2^t a_2 = 2^2 + 2^2 + (-1)^2 = 9$$

$$a_2 a_2^t = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot (2, 2, -1) = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 4 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\therefore P_2 = \frac{a_2 a_2^t}{a_2^t a_2} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 4 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_1 P_2 = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -2 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \\ -2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 4 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

Interpretation. What is the map " $\vec{x} \mapsto P_1 P_2 \vec{x}$ "?

Multiplying P_i on the left corresponds to projecting that vector on the "line generated by $\vec{a}_i$ " = $\langle \vec{a}_i \rangle$ ($i=1,2$)

Observe that $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2$ are orthogonal. ($\therefore \vec{a}_1 \cdot \vec{a}_2 = 0$)

Let $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Then $P_2 \vec{x}$ is a projection of x to $\langle \vec{a}_2 \rangle$. In particular, $P_2 \vec{x} \parallel \vec{a}_2$ and hence $P_2 \vec{x} \perp \vec{a}_1$. $\therefore P_1(P_2 x) = 0$ which explains why $P_1 P_2$ should be identically 0.

#13

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

i) We can use the formula directly to get

$$P = A \cdot (A^t A)^{-1} \cdot A^t = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right]^{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \text{Id}_{3 \times 3} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{and that } P_b = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \text{Id}_{3 \times 3} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(ii) Or, notice that in this case, the projection map we are looking for is easy to see, namely $\mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$

$$(x, y, z, w) \mapsto (x, y, z, 0)$$

Which corresponds to $\left(\begin{array}{c|c} \text{Id}_{3 \times 3} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \in \text{Mat}_{4,4}(\mathbb{R})$

#17 $P^2 = P$

$$\Rightarrow (I-P)^2 = I - 2P + P^2 = I - 2P + P = I - P.$$

I claim that $\text{Ran}(I-P) = \text{Ker } P$.

Proof. ($\subseteq$) Let $y \in \text{Ran}(I-P)$. Then $y = (I-P)x$ for some x .

$$\Rightarrow Py = P(I-P)x = (P-P^2)x = 0 \quad (\because P=P^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in \text{Ker } P$$

($\supseteq$) Let $x \in \text{Ker } P$. Then $Px = 0 \Rightarrow x = x - Px = (I-P)x$

$$\Rightarrow x \in \text{Ran}(I-P)$$

□ Claim.

Hence $I-P$ projects onto the Kernel of P .

#25 $\text{rk}(P) \leq n$ because $\text{Ran } P$ is contained in n -dimensional subspace, let's call this S .

On the other hand, for $\forall v \in S$, $Pv = v$ so $\text{Ran } P \supseteq S$ which means $\text{rk}(P) \geq n$. Hence P has rank n .

[S is the image (range) of P]