

4.2) Null space and column space.

Given any $m \times n$ matrix A , there are two important subspaces: $(A = [\vec{a}_1 \ \vec{a}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{a}_n])$.

1) The null space of A :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Nul}(A) &= \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \} \\ &= \text{the solution set of the homogeneous system whose coefficient matrix is } A. \end{aligned}$$

2) The column space of A :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Col}(A) &= \text{span} \{ \vec{a}_1, \dots, \vec{a}_n \} \\ &= \{ A\vec{x} : \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \}. \end{aligned}$$

Thm: For A an $m \times n$ matrix A ,

$\text{Nul}(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

$\text{Col}(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .

pg: Exercise.

E.g. Find the null space of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\text{RREF}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

\uparrow
 $x_3 = \text{free}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 \\ -2x_3 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{Nul}(A) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

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Q: Is the solution set $\{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n: A\vec{x} = \vec{b}\}$ a subspace if $\vec{b} \neq \vec{0}$? ^W

A: No! $\vec{0} \notin W$ as $A\vec{0} = \vec{0} \neq \vec{b}$.

4.3) Linearly Independence & Bases

vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ in the same vector space V are linearly independent if one of them is a linear combination of the others.

~~\Leftrightarrow there is a nontrivial linear combination of them~~

\Leftrightarrow the system
$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0}$$
 has a nontrivial solution.

$\Leftrightarrow x_1 \vec{v}_1 + x_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} \Rightarrow x_i$ has a nontrivial solution

vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ linearly independent if they are not linearly dependent.

$\Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0}$ has a unique solution $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

$\Leftrightarrow x_1 \vec{v}_1 + x_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$.

E.g. 1) $P = \{\text{all polynomials}\}$.

$$\vec{v}_1 = x^2 + 1, \quad \vec{v}_2 = -x, \quad \vec{v}_3 = -x^2 + x - 1.$$

These vectors are linearly dependent.

$$\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 - \vec{v}_3 = \vec{0}.$$

$$2) \quad \vec{v}_1 = x^2 + 1 \quad \vec{v}_2 = -x \quad \vec{v}_3 = 1.$$

Consider

$$\alpha_1 \vec{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{v}_2 + \alpha_3 \vec{v}_3 = \vec{0}$$

$$\alpha_1 (x^2 + 1) + \alpha_2 (-x) + \alpha_3 = \vec{0}$$

$$\alpha_1 x^2 - \alpha_2 x + \alpha_1 + \alpha_3 = \vec{0}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = 0$$

$$\alpha_2 = 0$$

$$\text{and } \alpha_3 = 0.$$

\Rightarrow these vectors are linearly independent.

Def: Let V be a vector space, and let $H \subseteq V$ be a subspace.

A collection $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ of vectors in H is called a basis for H if

$H = \text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$
and $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ is linearly independent.

E.g. The "standard basis vectors"

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \dots \quad \vec{e}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

are a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

every row is pivotal
column is pivotal.

Fact: $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^n ;

$\Leftrightarrow [\vec{v}_1 \ \vec{v}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{v}_n]$ is invertible.

E.g. Is $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 ?

Yes!

Thru: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & 6 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

← pivots
↑ pivots

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Thm: Any basis of \mathbb{R}^n consists of exactly n column vectors. The set $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is a basis ~~iff~~
 \Leftrightarrow the matrix $[\vec{v}_1 \ \vec{v}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{v}_n]$ is invertible.

E.g. Let $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ be the set of all vectors of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a-b \\ a \end{bmatrix}, \text{ Then } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \text{ is a basis for } W.$$

Subspaces are frequently presented as the span of some collection of vectors. But those vectors may not be linearly independent.

E.g. $\mathbb{R}^2 = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

But $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is linearly dependent.

E.g. Consider $H = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

$\vec{u} \quad \vec{v} \quad \vec{w}$

since $\vec{w} = \vec{u} - \vec{v}$, $\{\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w}\}$ linearly dependent

Q: What is a \neq basis for H ?

For any $\vec{x} \in H$, there are some $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x} &= \alpha_1 \vec{u} + \alpha_2 \vec{v} + \alpha_3 \vec{w} \\ &= \alpha_1 \vec{u} + \alpha_2 \vec{v} + \alpha_3 (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \\ &= (\alpha_1 + \alpha_3) \vec{u} + (\alpha_2 - \alpha_3) \vec{v}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{x} \in \text{span}\{\vec{u}, \vec{v}\}.$$

$$\therefore H = \text{span}\{\vec{u}, \vec{v}\}.$$

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Thm: If $\mathcal{H} = \text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$, then some collection of these vectors is a basis for \mathcal{H} .

Thm: The pivotal columns of A form a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$.
(The coefficients expressing the non-pivotal columns in terms of this basis can be read off of $\text{REF}(A)$).

E.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -5 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

↑ ↑
pivots

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \text{ form a basis for } \text{Col}(A).$$

Remark: The pivotal columns of A , not $\text{REF}(A)$, form a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$. Typically $\text{Col}(A) \neq \text{Col}(\text{REF}(A))$.

E.g. $\mathcal{H} = \text{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ -1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \text{Col}(A).$

Find a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$.

so we know how to find a basis of $\text{Col}(A)$.
How about $\text{Nul}(A)$?

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6 & -1 & 1 & -7 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 5 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{REF}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Nul}(A) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

linearly independent.

for identifying $\text{Nul}(A)$

The above process, always produce a basis for it.

Remark: A given subspace always has many bases,
but ~~any two bases~~

Thm: Any two basis for a subspace have the same
number of vectors.

E.g. $\text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = W$, $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ basis for W .

$W = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, but $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is not a basis
for W (why?)

$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for W .

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Def: If V is a vector space, its dimension is the numbers of vectors in any basis.

E.g. $V = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{has 3 pivotal columns}$$

$$\dim(V) = 3.$$

E.g. $\mathbb{P}_3 = \{ \text{all polynomials of degree} \leq 3 \}$
 $= \text{span} \{ x^3, x^2, x, 1 \}$.

$$\Rightarrow \dim(\mathbb{P}_3) = 4.$$

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The dimension of a vector space V is the number of vectors in any basis.

E.g. $V = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a-b \\ a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$

$= \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

\vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_2 form a basis for V .

$\dim V = 2$

Other base $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

Def: Given a matrix A ,

$\text{rank}(A) := \dim(\text{Col}(A))$

$\text{nullity}(A) := \dim(\text{Nul}(A))$

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 6 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$

↑ ↑ pivots
form a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$.

$\Rightarrow \text{rank}(A) = 2$

$\text{Nul}(A) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2x_3 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \Rightarrow \text{nullity}(A) = 1$

Thm: The pivotal columns of A form a basis for $\text{Col}(A)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{rank}(A) &= \text{number of pivotal columns of } A. \\ \text{nullity}(A) &= \text{number of free variables.} \\ \text{rank}(A) + \text{nullity}(A) &= \text{number of columns of } A.\end{aligned}$$

Def: The row space of A , $\text{Row}(A)$, is the span of the rows of A .

E.g. $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -5 & 8 & 0 & -17 \\ 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 11 & -19 & 7 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 & -13 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{REF}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 2 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 20 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Row}(A) &= \text{span} \left\{ [-2 \ -5 \ 8 \ 0 \ -17], [1 \ 3 \ -5 \ 1 \ 5], \right. \\ &\quad \left. [3 \ 11 \ -19 \ 7 \ 1], [1 \ 7 \ -13 \ 5 \ -3] \right\} \\ &= \text{span} \left\{ [1 \ 3 \ -5 \ 1 \ 5], [0 \ 1 \ -2 \ 2 \ -7], \right. \\ &\quad \left. [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ -4 \ 20] \right\}.\end{aligned}$$

Thm: $\text{Row}(A) = \text{Row}(\text{RREF}(A))$.

Thm: A $n \times n$ matrix. The following statements are each equivalent to " A is an invertible matrix."

- 1) The columns of A form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .
- 2) $\text{Col}(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$
- 3) $\dim(\text{Col}(A)) = n$
- 4) $\text{rank}(A) = n$
- 5) $\text{Nul}(A) = \{0\}$
- 6) $\dim(\text{Nul}(A)) = 0$.

4.4) Coordinates.

Thm: If $B = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ is a basis for V , then each vector $\vec{v} \in V$ has a unique expansion.

$$(*) \vec{v} = x_1 \vec{b}_1 + x_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{b}_n.$$

for some unique scalars $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

pf: Suppose there is a different expansion from (*),

$$(**) \vec{v} = y_1 \vec{b}_1 + y_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + y_n \vec{b}_n.$$

then $(*) - (**)$ implies

$$\vec{v} - \vec{v} = (x_1 - y_1) \vec{b}_1 + (x_2 - y_2) \vec{b}_2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n) \vec{b}_n$$

$$\vec{0} = (x_1 - y_1) \vec{b}_1 + (x_2 - y_2) \vec{b}_2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n) \vec{b}_n.$$

Since $\{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ linearly independent,

$$x_1 - y_1 = 0$$

$$x_1 = y_1$$

$$x_2 - y_2 = 0$$

\Rightarrow

$$x_2 = y_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_n - y_n = 0$$

$$x_n = y_n.$$

this means if V has a basis $B = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ (note $\dim(V) = n$) then we can identify V with \mathbb{R}^n by identifying each vector \vec{v} with its B-coordinate vectors. i.e.,

$$\vec{v} = x_1 \vec{b}_1 + x_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + x_n \vec{b}_n$$

$$\rightsquigarrow [\vec{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

E.g. $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, then its coordinate vector with respect to the standard basis $\mathcal{E} = \{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2\}$ is just $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

But what if we use the basis $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

$$\text{Since } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{3}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/2 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

E.g. $\mathbb{P}_4 = \{ \text{polynomials of degree } \leq 4 \} = \{ ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + f; a, b, c, d, f \in \mathbb{R} \}$.

"standard basis" $\mathcal{B} = \{x^4, x^3, x^2, x, 1\}$.

$$\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4\}.$$

Consider $p(x) = x^3 - 3x + 1$.

$$[p]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad [p]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thm: If $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ is a basis for V , then the function $T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by $T(\vec{v}) = [\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a one-to-one linear transformation from V onto \mathbb{R}^n . Such a linear transformation is called an isomorphism.

E.g. in \mathbb{P}_4 , a typical element $p(x) \in \mathbb{R} \cdot \mathbb{P}_4$ has the form

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4.$$

standard basis $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4\}$.

$$[p]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ a_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

The map $T(p) = [p]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is an isomorphism from \mathbb{P}_4 onto \mathbb{R}^5 .

Remark: isomorphisms preserve all linear properties.

Thm: Let $\{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\} = \mathcal{B}$ be a basis for V .

Then 1) $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\} \in V$ are linearly independent in V
 $\Leftrightarrow \{[\vec{v}_1]_{\mathcal{B}}, [\vec{v}_2]_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, [\vec{v}_k]_{\mathcal{B}}\}$ are linearly independent in \mathbb{R}^n .

2) $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k\}$ spans V
 $\Leftrightarrow \{[\vec{v}_1]_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, [\vec{v}_k]_{\mathcal{B}}\}$ spans \mathbb{R}^n .

E.g. show that $\{1, x-1, (x-1)^2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_2 = \{\text{all polynomials of deg} \leq 2\}$.

Standard basis $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2\}$ for \mathbb{P}_2 .

$$[1]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[x-1]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[(x-1)^2]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

\Rightarrow these vectors form a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .
 $\Rightarrow \{1, (x-1), (x-1)^2\}$ form a basis for \mathbb{P}_2 .

3.1) Determinants

Recall that for a 2×2 matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$,

its determinant is $ad - bc$

we denote $\det(A) = |A|$.

A is invertible iff $\det(A) \neq 0$

in which case

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

Q: What is the determinant of an $n \times n$ matrix A .

For any $n \times n$ matrix A , there is a quantity $\det A$ which

- 1) is a polynomial function of entries of A
- 2) determines whether A is invertible.

That is $\det(A)$, determinant of A .

* Cofactor Expansion

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= a_{11} C_{11} + a_{12} C_{12} + \dots + a_{1n} C_{1n} \\ &= a_{j1} C_{j1} + a_{j2} C_{j2} + \dots + a_{jn} C_{jn} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{True for} \\ \text{any row} \\ \text{or column } j. \end{array} \right\} \\ &= a_{1j} C_{1j} + a_{2j} C_{2j} + \dots + a_{nj} C_{nj} \end{aligned}$$

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C_{ij} is (i,j) -cofactor of A given by
$$C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ij}$$

where A_{ij} is the submatrix formed by deleting the i th row and j th column of A .

E.g. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $\det A$?

$$\det A = 1 \cdot C_{11} + 5C_{12} + 0 \cdot C_{13}$$

$$C_{11} = (-1)^2 \det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot (4 \cdot 0 - 2) = -2$$

$$C_{12} = (-1)^3 \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$C_{13} = (-1)^4 \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot (2 \cdot (-2) - 0 \cdot 4) = -2$$

$$\therefore \det A = 1(-2) + 5(0) + 0(-2) = -2$$

Alternatively, we can compute $\det A$ as follows.

$$\det A = a_{12} C_{12} + a_{22} C_{22} + a_{32} C_{32}$$

$$= 5(-1)^3 \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + 4(-1)^4 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + (-2)(-1)^5 \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= -1(0) + 1(0) + (-2)(-1)(-1)$$

$$= -2.$$

Thm: If A is a triangular matrix, then $\det A$ is the product of the entries on the main diagonal of A .

Why?
$$\begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{x} & & & \\ 0 & \textcircled{x} & & \\ 0 & 0 & x & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \textcircled{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot (-1)^2 \det \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{3} & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 1 \cdot 3 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 1 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 5.$$

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3.2) Properties of Determinants

* Determinants & Row operations.

$$\bullet \det \begin{bmatrix} k-R_1- \\ -R_2- \\ -R_3- \end{bmatrix} = k \det \begin{bmatrix} -R_1- \\ -R_2- \\ -R_3- \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet \det \begin{bmatrix} -R_1- \\ -\cancel{k}R_1 + R_2- \\ -R_3- \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} -R_1- \\ -R_2- \\ -R_3- \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bullet \det \begin{bmatrix} -R_1- \\ -R_2- \\ -R_3- \end{bmatrix} = (-1) \det \begin{bmatrix} -R_2- \\ -R_1- \\ -R_3- \end{bmatrix} \quad \curvearrowright$$

$| \cdot | = \det(\cdot)$
another notation
for determinant

E.g.

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot (-1)^3 \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} + 2 \cdot (-1)^4 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \cdot (-1)^5 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix}$$

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Thm: A square matrix A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$.

Thm: If A is $n \times n$ and has full rank (i.e., $\text{rank}(A) = n$, A invertible)

depends on how many times we interchange the rows

then $\det A = (\pm)$ product of the pivots in row reduction.

If $\text{rank}(A) < n$, $\det A = 0$.

E.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 5 & 8 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 8 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 5R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 2R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$

$\det(\downarrow) = 13$

$\Rightarrow \det A = (-1) \cdot 13 = -13$.

* Elementary Matrices:

An elementary matrix is the result of one row operation applied to the identity matrix.

E.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow 2R_1 + R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

\Leftrightarrow

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(58)

Thm: If π is a row operation and $I \xrightarrow{\pi} E$,
 then for any matrix A , if $A \xrightarrow{\pi} \tilde{A}$,
 $\tilde{A} = EA$.

E.g. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \tilde{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{\vee}{=} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Recall that if A is invertible, $\text{RREF}(A) = I$.

$$A \xrightarrow[\substack{\pi_1 \\ E_1}]{\pi_1} A_1 \xrightarrow[\substack{\pi_2 \\ E_2}]{\pi_2} A_2 \xrightarrow[\substack{\pi_3 \\ E_3}]{\pi_3} A_3 = I$$

$$\parallel \qquad \parallel \qquad \parallel$$

$$E_1 A \qquad E_2 A_1 \qquad E_3 A_2$$

$$\therefore I = (E_3 E_2 E_1) A$$

$$(E_3 E_2 E_1)^{-1} I = A$$

$$E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1} = A$$

Thm: If A, B are $n \times n$ matrices,
 $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$

Remark: $\det(A+B) \neq \det(A) + \det(B)$ in general.

(59)

3.3) Properties of determinants; Volumes.

• $\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$ if A is invertible.

pf: $AA^{-1} = I$.

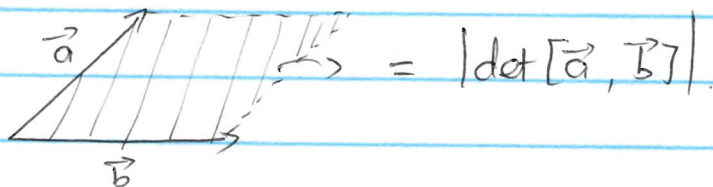
$$\det(AA^{-1}) = \det(I)$$

$$\det(A) \det(A^{-1}) = 1$$

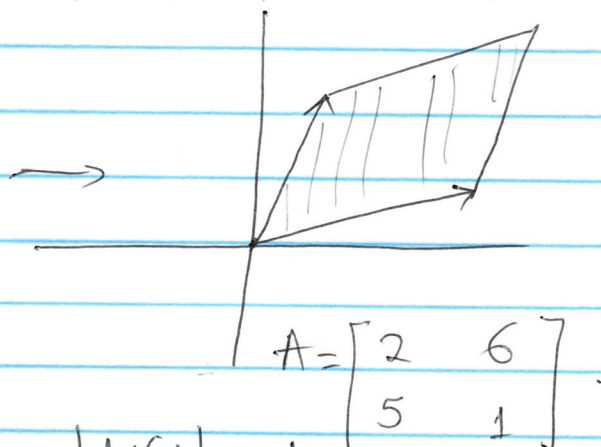
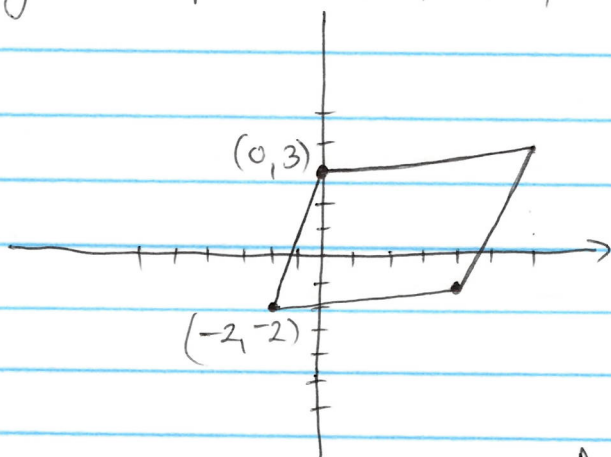
• $\det(A^T) = \det(A)$

thm: Given two vectors $\vec{a}, \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, the area of the parallelogram they determine is

$$A(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) = |\det[\vec{a} \ \vec{b}]| = \left| \det \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}^T \\ \vec{b}^T \end{bmatrix} \right|.$$



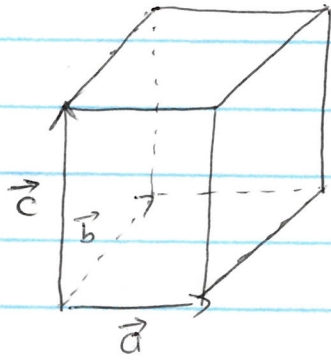
E.g. Calculate the area of the parallelogram determined by the points $(-2, -2)$, $(0, 3)$, $(4, -1)$, and $(6, 4)$.



$\rightarrow \text{Area} = |\det(A)| = |2 - 30| = 28$.

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What about $n \times n$ determinants with $n > 2$?



$$\text{Volume}(P) = \left| \det[\vec{a} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{c}] \right|.$$