SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS

ELEMENTARY LINEAR ALGEBRA

K. R. MATTHEWS

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

UNIVERSITY OF QUEENSLAND

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SECTION 1.6

2. (i)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
;

(ii)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 - 2R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
;

(iii)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{c} R_2 \to R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \to R_3 - R_1 \end{array} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} R_1 \to R_1 + R_3 & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3 & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} & R_2 \to R_2 + R_3 & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix};$$

(iv)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \to R_3 + 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

3. (a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 & 8 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & -8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \to R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 & -2 & -10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 - 4R_3 \\ R_2 \to R_2 + 3R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{19}{4} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{4} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The augmented matrix has been converted to reduced row-echelon form and we read off the unique solution x = -3, $y = \frac{19}{4}$, $z = \frac{1}{4}$.

(b)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 & 10 \\ 3 & -1 & 7 & 4 & 1 \\ -5 & 3 & -15 & -6 & 9 \end{bmatrix} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 & 10 \\ 0 & -4 & 10 & -2 & -29 \\ 0 & 8 & -20 & 4 & 59 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 + 2R_2 \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 1 & -1 & 2 & 10 \\ 0 & -4 & 10 & -2 & -29 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

From the last matrix we see that the original system is inconsistent.

(c)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 7 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 4 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 6 & -4 & 10 & 3 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & 4 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 3 & -1 & 7 & 0 \\ 6 & -4 & 10 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The augmented matrix has been converted to reduced row–echelon form and we read off the complete solution $x = -\frac{1}{2} - 3z$, $y = -\frac{3}{2} - 2z$, with z arbitrary.

4.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 & a \\ 3 & 1 & -5 & b \\ -5 & -5 & 21 & c \end{bmatrix} R_2 \to R_2 - R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 & a \\ 1 & 2 & -8 & b - a \\ -5 & -5 & 21 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -8 & b-a \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & a \\ -5 & -5 & 21 & c \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \to R_2 - 2R_1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -8 & b-a \\ 0 & -5 & 19 & -2b+3a \\ 0 & 5 & -19 & 5b-5a+c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} R_3 \to R_3 + R_2 \\ R_2 \to \frac{-1}{5} R_2 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & -8 & b-a \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-19}{5} & \frac{2b-3a}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3b-2a+c \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 - 2R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{-2}{5} & \frac{(b+a)}{5} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-19}{5} & \frac{2b-3a}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3b-2a+c \end{bmatrix}.$$

From the last matrix we see that the original system is inconsistent if $3b - 2a + c \neq 0$. If 3b - 2a + c = 0, the system is consistent and the solution is

$$x = \frac{(b+a)}{5} + \frac{2}{5}z, \ y = \frac{(2b-3a)}{5} + \frac{19}{5}z,$$

where z is arbitrary.

5.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ t & 1 & t \\ 1+t & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \to R_2 - tR_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1-t & 0 \\ 0 & 1-t & 2-t \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 - R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 - t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 - t \end{bmatrix} = B.$$

Case 1. $t \neq 2$. No solution.

Case 2.
$$t = 2$$
. $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

We read off the unique solution x = 1, y = 0.

6. <u>Method 1</u>.

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} R_4 \rightarrow R_4 - R_3 - R_2 - R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the given homogeneous system has complete solution

$$x_1 = x_4, \ x_2 = x_4, \ x_3 = x_4,$$

with x_4 arbitrary.

Method 2. Write the system as

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 4x_1$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 4x_2$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 4x_3$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 4x_4$$

Then it is immediate that any solution must satisfy $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4$. Conversely, if x_1 , x_2 , x_3 , x_4 satisfy $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4$, we get a solution.

7.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 3 & 1 \\ 1 & \lambda - 3 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \lambda - 3 \\ \lambda - 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_2 \to R_2 - (\lambda - 3)R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \lambda - 3 \\ 0 & -\lambda^2 + 6\lambda - 8 \end{bmatrix} = B.$$

Case 1: $-\lambda^2 + 6\lambda - 8 \neq 0$. That is $-(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 4) \neq 0$ or $\lambda \neq 2$, 4. Here B is row equivalent to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$:

$$R_2 \to \frac{1}{-\lambda^2 + 6\lambda - 8} R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \lambda - 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 - (\lambda - 3) R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence we get the trivial solution x = 0, y = 0.

Case 2: $\lambda = 2$. Then $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and the solution is x = y, with y arbitrary.

Case 3: $\lambda = 4$. Then $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and the solution is x = -y, with y arbitrary.

8.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & -1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{3} R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 5 & -1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 5R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & -\frac{8}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} & -\frac{8}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow \frac{-3}{8} R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{4} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - \frac{1}{3} R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{4} & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the solution of the associated homogeneous system is

$$x_1 = -\frac{1}{4}x_3, \ x_2 = -\frac{1}{4}x_3 - x_4,$$

with x_3 and x_4 arbitrary.

9.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - n & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & 1 - n & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 - n \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \to R_1 - R_n} \begin{bmatrix} -n & 0 & \cdots & n \\ 0 & -n & \cdots & n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ R_{n-1} \to R_{n-1} - R_n \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \to R_2 \to R_2 - R_n} \begin{bmatrix} -n & 0 & \cdots & n \\ 0 & -n & \cdots & n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 - n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\to \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & -1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 - n \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_n \to R_n - R_{n-1} \cdots - R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & -1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The last matrix is in reduced row-echelon form.

Consequently the homogeneous system with coefficient matrix A has the solution

$$x_1 = x_n, \ x_2 = x_n, \dots, x_{n-1} = x_n,$$

with x_n arbitrary.

Alternatively, writing the system in the form

$$x_1 + \dots + x_n = nx_1$$

$$x_1 + \dots + x_n = nx_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_1 + \dots + x_n = nx_n$$

shows that any solution must satisfy $nx_1 = nx_2 = \cdots = nx_n$, so $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$. Conversely if $x_1 = x_n, \ldots, x_{n-1} = x_n$, we see that x_1, \ldots, x_n is a solution.

10. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and assume that $ad - bc \neq 0$.

Case 1: $a \neq 0$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to \frac{1}{a} R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} R_2 \to R_2 - cR_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} \\ 0 & \frac{ad-bc}{a} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to \frac{a}{ad-bc} R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{b}{a} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 - \frac{b}{a} R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Case 2: a = 0. Then $bc \neq 0$ and hence $c \neq 0$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \begin{bmatrix} c & d \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{d}{c} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So in both cases, A has reduced row–echelon form equal to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

11. We simplify the augmented matrix of the system using row operations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 & 4 \\ 3 & -1 & 5 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 & a^2 - 14 & a + 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \to R_2 - 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 & 4 \\ 0 & -7 & 14 & -10 \\ 0 & -7 & a^2 - 2 & a - 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_2 \\ R_2 \rightarrow \frac{-1}{7} R_2 \\ R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 2 R_2 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & -3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & \frac{10}{7} \\ 0 & 0 & a^2 - 16 & a - 4 \end{array} \right] \quad R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 2 R_2 \quad \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & \frac{8}{7} \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & \frac{10}{7} \\ 0 & 0 & a^2 - 16 & a - 4 \end{array} \right].$$

Denote the last matrix by B.

Case 1: $a^2 - 16 \neq 0$. i.e. $a \neq \pm 4$. Then

$$\begin{array}{c} R_3 \to \frac{1}{a^2 - 16} R_3 \\ R_1 \to R_1 - R_3 \\ R_2 \to R_2 + 2R_3 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{8a + 25}{7(a + 4)} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{10a + 54}{7(a + 4)} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{1}{a + 4} \end{array} \right]$$

and we get the unique solution

$$x = \frac{8a+25}{7(a+4)}, \ y = \frac{10a+54}{7(a+4)}, \ z = \frac{1}{a+4}.$$

Case 2: a = -4. Then $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & \frac{8}{7} \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & \frac{10}{7} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$, so our system is inconsistent.

Case 3: a=4. Then $B=\begin{bmatrix}1&0&1&\frac{8}{7}\\0&1&-2&\frac{10}{7}\\0&0&0&0\end{bmatrix}$. We read off that the system is consistent, with complete solution $x=\frac{8}{7}-z,\ y=\frac{10}{7}+2z,$ where z is arbitrary.

12. We reduce the augmented array of the system to reduced row–echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_3 \to R_3 + R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 + R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 + R_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The last matrix is in reduced row–echelon form and we read off the solution of the corresponding homogeneous system:

$$x_1 = -x_4 - x_5 = x_4 + x_5$$

$$x_2 = -x_4 - x_5 = x_4 + x_5$$

$$x_3 = -x_4 = x_4,$$

where x_4 and x_5 are arbitrary elements of \mathbb{Z}_2 . Hence there are four solutions:

13. (a) We reduce the augmented matrix to reduced row-echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to 3R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to R_2 + R_1 \\ R_3 \to R_3 + 2R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} R_2 \to 4R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 + 2R_2 \\ R_3 \to R_3 + 3R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 + 2R_3 \\ R_2 \to R_2 + 3R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Consequently the system has the unique solution x = 1, y = 2, z = 0.

(b) Again we reduce the augmented matrix to reduced row-echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to R_2 + R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} R_2 \to 3R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 + 4R_2 \\ R_3 \to R_3 + R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We read off the complete solution

$$x = 1 - 3z = 1 + 2z$$

 $y = 2 - 2z = 2 + 3z$

where z is an arbitrary element of \mathbb{Z}_5 .

14. Suppose that $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ and $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$ are solutions of the system of linear equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j = b_i, \quad 1 \le i \le m.$$

Then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \alpha_j = b_i \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \beta_j = b_i$$

for $1 \le i \le m$.

Let $\gamma_i = (1-t)\alpha_i + t\beta_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$. Then $(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_n)$ is a solution of the given system. For

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \gamma_j = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \{ (1-t)\alpha_j + t\beta_j \}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} (1-t)\alpha_j + \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} t\beta_j$$

$$= (1-t)b_i + tb_i$$

$$= b_i.$$

15. Suppose that $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ is a solution of the system of linear equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j = b_i, \quad 1 \le i \le m. \tag{1}$$

Then the system can be rewritten as

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \alpha_j, \quad 1 \le i \le m,$$

or equivalently

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}(x_j - \alpha_j) = 0, \quad 1 \le i \le m.$$

So we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} y_j = 0, \quad 1 \le i \le m.$$

where $x_j - \alpha_j = y_j$. Hence $x_j = \alpha_j + y_j$, $1 \le j \le n$, where (y_1, \ldots, y_n) is a solution of the associated homogeneous system. Conversely if (y_1, \ldots, y_n) is a solution of the associated homogeneous system and $x_j = \alpha_j + y_j$, $1 \le j \le n$, then reversing the argument shows that (x_1, \ldots, x_n) is a solution of the system 1.

16. We simplify the augmented matrix using row operations, working towards row–echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ a & 1 & 1 & 1 & b \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & a & 1+a \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \to R_2 - aR_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1-a & 1+a & 1-a & b-a \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & a-3 & a-2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3 \\ R_2 \to -R_2 \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 3-a & 2-a \\ 0 & 1-a & 1+a & 1-a & b-a \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 + (a-1)R_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 3-a & 2-a \\ 0 & 0 & 4-2a & (1-a)(a-2) & -a^2+2a+b-2 \end{bmatrix} = B.$$

Case 1: $a \neq 2$. Then $4 - 2a \neq 0$ and

$$B \to \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 3 - a & 2 - a \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{a-1}{2} & \frac{-a^2 + 2a + b - 2}{4 - 2a} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence we can solve for x, y and z in terms of the arbitrary variable w.

Case 2: a = 2. Then

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{rrrrr} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & b - 2 \end{array} \right].$$

Hence there is no solution if $b \neq 2$. However if b = 2, then

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and we get the solution x = 1 - 2z, y = 3z - w, where w is arbitrary.

17. (a) We first prove that 1+1+1+1=0. Observe that the elements

$$1+0$$
, $1+1$, $1+a$, $1+b$

are distinct elements of F by virtue of the cancellation law for addition. For this law states that $1+x=1+y \Rightarrow x=y$ and hence $x \neq y \Rightarrow 1+x \neq 1+y$.

Hence the above four elements are just the elements 0, 1, a, b in some order. Consequently

$$(1+0) + (1+1) + (1+a) + (1+b) = 0+1+a+b$$

 $(1+1+1+1) + (0+1+a+b) = 0 + (0+1+a+b),$

so 1+1+1+1=0 after cancellation.

Now 1+1+1+1=(1+1)(1+1), so we have $x^2=0$, where x=1+1. Hence x=0. Then $a+a=a(1+1)=a\cdot 0=0$.

Next a + b = 1. For a + b must be one of 0, 1, a, b. Clearly we can't have a + b = a or b; also if a + b = 0, then a + b = a + a and hence b = a; hence a + b = 1. Then

$$a + 1 = a + (a + b) = (a + a) + b = 0 + b = b.$$

Similarly b+1=a. Consequently the addition table for F is

+	0	1	a	b
0	0	1	a	b
1	1	0	b	a
a	a	b	0	1
b	b	a	1	0

We now find the multiplication table. First, ab must be one of 1, a, b; however we can't have ab = a or b, so this leaves ab = 1.

Next $a^2 = b$. For a^2 must be one of 1, a, b; however $a^2 = a \Rightarrow a = 0$ or a = 1; also

$$a^{2} = 1 \Rightarrow a^{2} - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow (a - 1)(a + 1) = 0 \Rightarrow (a - 1)^{2} = 0 \Rightarrow a = 1;$$

hence $a^2 = b$. Similarly $b^2 = a$. Consequently the multiplication table for F is

X	0	1	a	b
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	a	b
a	0	a	b	1
b	0	b	1	a

(b) We use the addition and multiplication tables for F:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b & a \\ a & b & b & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & a \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \to R_2 + aR_1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b & a \\ 0 & 0 & a & a \\ 0 & b & a & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b & a \\ 0 & b & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a & a \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \to aR_2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b & a \\ 0 & 1 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \leftrightarrow R_1 + aR_2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & a & a \\ 0 & 1 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_1 \to R_1 + aR_3 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The last matrix is in reduced row–echelon form.

Section 2.4

2. Suppose
$$B = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \\ e & f \end{bmatrix}$$
 and that $AB = I_2$. Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \\ e & f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -a+e & -b+f \\ c+e & d+f \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$-a+e=1 \\ c+e=0 , \quad -b+f=0 \\ d+f=1 ;$$

$$e=a+1 \\ c=-e=-(a+1) , \quad d=1-f=1-b ;$$

$$B=\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -a-1 & 1-b \\ a+1 & b \end{bmatrix}.$$

Next,

$$(BA)^2B = (BA)(BA)B = B(AB)(AB) = BI_2I_2 = BI_2 = B$$

4. Let p_n denote the statement

$$A^n = \frac{(3^{n}-1)}{2}A + \frac{(3-3^n)}{2}I_2.$$

Then p_1 asserts that $A = \frac{(3-1)}{2}A + \frac{(3-3)}{2}I_2$, which is true. So let $n \ge 1$ and assume p_n . Then from (1),

$$\begin{split} A^{n+1} &= A \cdot A^n = A \left\{ \frac{(3^n-1)}{2} A + \frac{(3-3^n)}{2} I_2 \right\} = \frac{(3^n-1)}{2} A^2 + \frac{(3-3^n)}{2} A \\ &= \frac{(3^n-1)}{2} (4A - 3I_2) + \frac{(3-3^n)}{2} A = \frac{(3^n-1)4 + (3-3^n)}{2} A + \frac{(3^n-1)(-3)}{2} I_2 \\ &= \frac{(4\cdot 3^n-3^n)-1}{2} A + \frac{(3-3^{n+1})}{2} I_2 \\ &= \frac{(3^{n+1}-1)}{2} A + \frac{(3-3^{n+1})}{2} I_2. \end{split}$$

Hence p_{n+1} is true and the induction proceeds.

5. The equation $x_{n+1} = ax_n + bx_{n-1}$ is seen to be equivalent to

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x_{n+1} \\ x_n \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_n \\ x_{n-1} \end{array}\right]$$

or

$$X_n = AX_{n-1},$$
 where $X_n = \begin{bmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Then
$$X_n = A^n X_0$$

if $n \ge 1$. Hence by Question 3,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} \frac{(3^n - 1)}{2}A + \frac{(3 - 3^n)}{2}I_2 \end{cases} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{(3^n - 1)}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3 - 3^n}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{3 - 3^n}{2} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (3^n - 1)2 + \frac{3 - 3^n}{2} & (3^n - 1)(-3) \\ \frac{3^n - 1}{2} & \frac{3 - 3^n}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence, equating the (2,1) elements gives

$$x_n = \frac{(3^n - 1)}{2}x_1 + \frac{(3 - 3^n)}{2}x_0$$
 if $n \ge 1$

7. Note: $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = a + d$ and $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = ad - bc$. Then

$$(\lambda_{1} + \lambda_{2})k_{n} - \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}k_{n-1} = (\lambda_{1} + \lambda_{2})(\lambda_{1}^{n-1} + \lambda_{1}^{n-2}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-2} + \lambda_{2}^{n-1}) -\lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}(\lambda_{1}^{n-2} + \lambda_{1}^{n-3}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-3} + \lambda_{2}^{n-2})$$

$$= (\lambda_{1}^{n} + \lambda_{1}^{n-1}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-1}) +(\lambda_{1}^{n-1}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-1} + \lambda_{2}^{n}) -(\lambda_{1}^{n-1}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-1} + \lambda_{2}^{n} = k_{n+1}$$

If $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$, we see

$$k_n = \lambda_1^{n-1} + \lambda_1^{n-2}\lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_1\lambda_2^{n-2} + \lambda_2^{n-1}$$

= $\lambda_1^{n-1} + \lambda_1^{n-2}\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_1\lambda_1^{n-2} + \lambda_1^{n-1}$
= $n\lambda_1^{n-1}$

If $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, we see that

$$(\lambda_{1} - \lambda_{2})k_{n} = (\lambda_{1} - \lambda_{2})(\lambda_{1}^{n-1} + \lambda_{1}^{n-2}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-2} + \lambda_{2}^{n-1})$$

$$= \lambda_{1}^{n} + \lambda_{1}^{n-1}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-1}$$

$$-(\lambda_{1}^{n-1}\lambda_{2} + \dots + \lambda_{1}\lambda_{2}^{n-1} + \lambda_{2}^{n})$$

$$= \lambda_{1}^{n} - \lambda_{2}^{n}.$$

Hence $k_n = \frac{\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$.

We have to prove

$$A^n = k_n A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 k_{n-1} I_2. \quad *$$

n=1:

$$A^1 = A$$
; also $k_1 A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 k_0 I_2 = k_1 A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 0 I_2$
= A .

Let $n \ge 1$ and assume equation * holds. Then

$$A^{n+1} = A^n \cdot A = (k_n A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 k_{n-1} I_2) A$$
$$= k_n A^2 - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 k_{n-1} A.$$

Now $A^2 = (a+d)A - (ad-bc)I_2 = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A - \lambda_1\lambda_2I_2$. Hence

$$A^{n+1} = k_n(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A - \lambda_1\lambda_2I_2 - \lambda_1\lambda_2k_{n-1}A$$

= $\{k_n(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) - \lambda_1\lambda_2k_{n-1}\}A - \lambda_1\lambda_2k_nI_2$
= $k_{n+1}A - \lambda_1\lambda_2k_nI_2$,

and the induction goes through.

8. Here λ_1, λ_2 are the roots of the polynomial $x^2 - 2x - 3 = (x - 3)(x + 1)$. So we can take $\lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = -1$. Then

$$k_n = \frac{3^n - (-1)^n}{3 - (-1)} = \frac{3^n + (-1)^{n+1}}{4}.$$

Hence

$$A^{n} = \left\{ \frac{3^{n} + (-1)^{n+1}}{4} \right\} A - (-3) \left\{ \frac{3^{n-1} + (-1)^{n}}{4} \right\} I_{2}$$
$$= \frac{3^{n} + (-1)^{n+1}}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + 3 \left\{ \frac{3^{n-1} + (-1)^{n}}{4} \right\} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is equivalent to the stated result.

9. In terms of matrices, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_n \\ F_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \text{ for } n \ge 1.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now λ_1, λ_2 are the roots of the polynomial $x^2 - x + 1$ here. Hence $\lambda_1 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $\lambda_2 = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and

$$k_n = \frac{\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n-1} - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n-1}}{\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)}$$
$$= \frac{\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n-1} - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n-1}}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

Hence

$$A^n = k_n A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 k_{n-1} I_2$$
$$= k_n A - k_{n-1} I_2$$

So

$$\begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{bmatrix} = (k_n A - k_{n-1} I_2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= k_n \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - k_{n-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k_n - k_{n-1} \\ k_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$F_n = k_n = \frac{\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n-1} - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n-1}}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

10. From Question 5, we know that

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x_n \\ y_n \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & r \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}\right]^n \left[\begin{array}{c} a \\ b \end{array}\right].$$

Now by Question 7, with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & r \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$,

$$A^n = k_n A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 k_{n-1} I_2$$

= $k_n A - (1 - r) k_{n-1} I_2$,

where $\lambda_1 = 1 + \sqrt{r}$ and $\lambda_2 = 1 - \sqrt{r}$ are the roots of the polynomial $x^2 - 2x + (1-r)$ and

$$k_n = \frac{\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n}{2\sqrt{r}}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = (k_n A - (1-r)k_{n-1}I_2) \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\begin{bmatrix} k_n & k_n r \\ k_n & k_n \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} (1-r)k_{n-1} & 0 \\ 0 & (1-r)k_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} k_n - (1-r)k_{n-1} & k_n r \\ k_n & k_n - (1-r)k_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a(k_n - (1-r)k_{n-1}) + bk_n r \\ ak_n + b(k_n - (1-r)k_{n-1}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence, in view of the fact that

$$\frac{k_n}{k_{n-1}} = \frac{\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n}{\lambda_1^{n-1} - \lambda_2^{n-1}} = \frac{\lambda_1^n (1 - \{\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\}^n)}{\lambda_1^{n-1} (1 - \{\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\}^{n-1})} \to \lambda_1, \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \frac{a(k_n - (1-r)k_{n-1}) + bk_n r}{ak_n + b(k_n - (1-r)k_{n-1})}$$

$$= \frac{a(\frac{k_n}{k_{n-1}} - (1-r)) + b\frac{k_n}{k_{n-1}} r}{a\frac{k_n}{k_{n-1}} + b(\frac{k_n}{k_{n-1}} - (1-r))}$$

$$\to \frac{a(\lambda_1 - (1-r)) + b\lambda_1 r}{a\lambda_1 + b(\lambda_1 - (1-r))}$$

$$= \frac{a(\sqrt{r}+r) + b(1+\sqrt{r})r}{a(1+\sqrt{r}) + b(\sqrt{r}+r)}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{r}\{a(1+\sqrt{r}) + b(1+\sqrt{r})\sqrt{r}\}}{a(1+\sqrt{r}) + b(\sqrt{r}+r)}$$

$$= \sqrt{r}.$$

Section 2.7

1.
$$[A|I_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_2 \to R_2 + 3R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 13 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to \frac{1}{13}R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3/13 & 1/13 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 - 4R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1/13 & -4/13 \\ 0 & 1 & 3/13 & 1/13 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A is non–singular and $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/13 & -4/13 \\ 3/13 & 1/13 \end{bmatrix}$.

Moreover

$$E_{12}(-4)E_2(1/13)E_{21}(3)A = I_2,$$

SO

$$A^{-1} = E_{12}(-4)E_2(1/13)E_{21}(3).$$

Hence

$$A = \{E_{21}(3)\}^{-1}\{E_{2}(1/13)\}^{-1}\{E_{12}(-4)\}^{-1} = E_{21}(-3)E_{2}(13)E_{12}(4).$$

2. Let $D = [d_{ij}]$ be an $m \times m$ diagonal matrix and let $A = [a_{jk}]$ be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then

$$(DA)_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{ij} a_{jk} = d_{ii} a_{ik},$$

as $d_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$. It follows that the *i*th row of DA is obtained by multiplying the *i*th row of A by d_{ii} .

Similarly, post–multiplication of a matrix by a diagonal matrix D results in a matrix whose columns are those of A, multiplied by the respective diagonal elements of D.

In particular,

$$\operatorname{diag}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\operatorname{diag}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)=\operatorname{diag}(a_1b_1,\ldots,a_nb_n),$$

as the left-hand side can be regarded as pre-multiplication of the matrix $\operatorname{diag}(b_1,\ldots,b_n)$ by the diagonal matrix $\operatorname{diag}(a_1,\ldots,a_n)$.

Finally, suppose that each of a_1, \ldots, a_n is non-zero. Then $a_1^{-1}, \ldots, a_n^{-1}$ all exist and we have

diag
$$(a_1, ..., a_n)$$
 diag $(a_1^{-1}, ..., a_n^{-1}) = \text{diag}(a_1 a_1^{-1}, ..., a_n a_n^{-1})$
= diag $(1, ..., 1) = I_n$.

Hence diag (a_1, \ldots, a_n) is non-singular and its inverse is diag $(a_1^{-1}, \ldots, a_n^{-1})$.

Next suppose that $a_i = 0$. Then diag (a_1, \ldots, a_n) is row-equivalent to a matix containing a zero row and is hence singular.

3.
$$[A|I_3] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 7 & 9 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 - 3R_1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -9 & 0 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -9 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to \frac{1}{2}R_3 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -9 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_1 \to R_1 - 2R_2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 24 & 0 & 7 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & -9 & 0 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 - 24R_3 \\ R_2 \to R_2 + 9R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -12 & 7 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 9/2 & -3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A is non–singular and $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -12 & 7 & -2 \\ 9/2 & -3 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Also

$$E_{23}(9)E_{13}(-24)E_{12}(-2)E_{3}(1/2)E_{23}E_{31}(-3)E_{12}A = I_3.$$

Hence

$$A^{-1} = E_{23}(9)E_{13}(-24)E_{12}(-2)E_{3}(1/2)E_{23}E_{31}(-3)E_{12},$$

so

$$A = E_{12}E_{31}(3)E_{23}E_{3}(2)E_{12}(2)E_{13}(24)E_{23}(-9).$$

4.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & k \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & k \\ 0 & -7 & 1 - 3k \\ 0 & -7 & -5 - 5k \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & k \\ 0 & -7 & 1 - 3k \\ 0 & 0 & -6 - 2k \end{bmatrix} = B.$$

Hence if $-6 - 2k \neq 0$, i.e. if $k \neq -3$, we see that B can be reduced to I_3 and hence A is non–singular.

If
$$k = -3$$
, then $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & -7 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = B$ and consequently A is singular,

as it is row-equivalent to a matrix containing a zero row

5.
$$E_{21}(2)\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Hence, as in the previous question, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ is singular.

6. Starting from the equation $A^2 - 2A + 13I_2 = 0$, we deduce

$$A(A - 2I_2) = -13I_2 = (A - 2I_2)A.$$

Hence $AB = BA = I_2$, where $B = \frac{-1}{13}(A - 2I_2)$. Consequently A is non-singular and $A^{-1} = B$.

7. We assume the equation $A^3 = 3A^2 - 3A + I_3$.

(ii)
$$A^4 = A^3A = (3A^2 - 3A + I_3)A = 3A^3 - 3A^2 + A$$

= $3(3A^2 - 3A + I_3) - 3A^2 + A = 6A^2 - 8A + 3I_3$.

(iii) $A^3 - 3A^2 + 3A = I_3$. Hence

$$A(A^2 - 3A + 3I_3) = I_3 = (A^2 - 3A + 3I_3)A.$$

Hence A is non–singular and

$$A^{-1} = A^{2} - 3A + 3I_{3}$$

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

8. (i) If $B^3 = 0$ then

$$(I_n - B)(I_n + B + B^2) = I_n(I_n + B + B^2) - B(I_n + B + B^2)$$

= $(I_n + B + B^2) - (B + B^2 + B^3)$
= $I_n - B^3 = I_n - 0 = I_n$.

Similarly $(I_n + B + B^2)(I_n - B) = I_n$.

Hence $A = I_n - B$ is non-singular and $A^{-1} = I_n + B + B^2$.

It follows that the system AX = b has the unique solution

$$X = A^{-1}b = (I_n + B + B^2)b = b + Bb + B^2b.$$

(ii) Let
$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & r & s \\ 0 & 0 & t \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
. Then $B^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & rt \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B^3 = 0$. Hence

from the preceding question

$$(I_3 - B)^{-1} = I_3 + B + B^2$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & r & s \\ 0 & 0 & t \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & rt \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & r & s + rt \\ 0 & 1 & t \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- 9. (i) Suppose that $A^2 = 0$. Then if A^{-1} exists, we deduce that $A^{-1}(AA) = A^{-1}0$, which gives A = 0 and this is a contradiction, as the zero matrix is singular. We conclude that A does not have an inverse.
 - (ii). Suppose that $A^2 = A$ and that A^{-1} exists. Then

$$A^{-1}(AA) = A^{-1}A,$$

which gives $A = I_n$. Equivalently, if $A^2 = A$ and $A \neq I_n$, then A does not have an inverse.

10. The system of linear equations

$$x + y - z = a$$

$$z = b$$

$$2x + y + 2z = c$$

is equivalent to the matrix equation AX = B, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}.$$

By Question 7, A^{-1} exists and hence the system has the unique solution

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -3 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -a - 3b + c \\ 2a + 4b - c \\ b \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence x = -a - 3b + c, y = 2a + 4b - c, z = b.

12.

$$A = E_3(2)E_{14}E_{42}(3) = E_3(2)E_{14} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= E_3(2)\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Also

$$A^{-1} = (E_{3}(2)E_{14}E_{42}(3))^{-1}$$

$$= (E_{42}(3))^{-1}E_{14}^{-1}(E_{3}(2))^{-1}$$

$$= E_{42}(-3)E_{14}E_{3}(1/2)$$

$$= E_{42}(-3)E_{14}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= E_{42}(-3)\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

13. (All matrices in this question are over \mathbb{Z}_2 .)

(a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A is non–singular and

$$A^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

(b)
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $R_4 \to R_4 + R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, so A is singular.

14.

(a)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \to \frac{1}{2}R_3} \begin{array}{c} R_3 \to \frac{1}{2}R_3 \\ R_1 \to R_1 - R_3 \\ R_2 \to R_2 + R_3 \\ R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_3 \to R_3 - R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A^{-1} exists and

$$A^{-1} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 \end{array} \right].$$

(b)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \to R_1 - 2R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_3 \to R_3 - 2R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_3 \to \frac{1}{2}R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_1 \to R_1 - R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1/2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A^{-1} exists and

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & 2 & 1\\ 0 & 0 & 1\\ 1/2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(c)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} R_2 \to \frac{1}{7}R_2 \\ R_3 \to \frac{1}{5}R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_3 \to R_3 - R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A is singular by virtue of the zero row.

(d)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -5 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \to \frac{1}{2}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ R_2 \to \frac{-1}{5}R_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1/5 & 0 \\ R_3 \to \frac{1}{7}R_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1/7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A^{-1} exists and $A^{-1} = \text{diag}(1/2, -1/5, 1/7)$.

(Of course this was also immediate from Question 2.)

(e)
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 & 6 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 2R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to R_2 - 2R_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -4 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence A^{-1} exists and

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(f)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 5 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \to R_2 - 4R_1} \xrightarrow{R_3 \to R_3 - 5R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 \to R_3 - R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence A is singular by virtue of the zero row.

15. Suppose that A is non-singular. Then

$$AA^{-1} = I_n = A^{-1}A.$$

Taking transposes throughout gives

$$(AA^{-1})^t = I_n^t = (A^{-1}A)^t$$

 $(A^{-1})^t A^t = I_n = A^t (A^{-1})^t,$

so A^t is non-singular and $(A^t)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^t$.

16. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, where ad - bc = 0. Then the equation

$$A^2 - (a+d)A + (ad - bc)I_2 = 0$$

reduces to $A^2 - (a+d)A = 0$ and hence $A^2 = (a+d)A$. From the last equation, if A^{-1} exists, we deduce that $A = (a+d)I_2$, or

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} a+d & 0 \\ 0 & a+d \end{array}\right].$$

Hence a = a + d, b = 0, c = 0, d = a + d and a = b = c = d = 0, which contradicts the assumption that A is non–singular.

17.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ -a & 1 & c \\ -b & -c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{l} R_2 \to R_2 + aR_1 \\ R_3 \to R_3 + bR_1 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 + a^2 & c + ab \\ 0 & ab - c & 1 + b^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to \frac{1}{1+a^2} R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{c+ab}{1+a^2} \\ 0 & ab - c & 1 + b^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 - (ab - c)R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{c+ab}{1+a^2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 + b^2 + \frac{(c-ab)(c+ab)}{1+a^2} \end{bmatrix} = B.$$

Now

$$1 + b^{2} + \frac{(c - ab)(c + ab)}{1 + a^{2}} = 1 + b^{2} + \frac{c^{2} - (ab)^{2}}{1 + a^{2}}$$
$$= \frac{1 + a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2}}{1 + a^{2}} \neq 0.$$

Hence B can be reduced to I_3 using four more row operations and consequently A is non–singular.

18. The proposition is clearly true when n=1. So let $n \geq 1$ and assume $(P^{-1}AP)^n = P^{-1}A^nP$. Then

$$(P^{-1}AP)^{n+1} = (P^{-1}AP)^{n}(P^{-1}AP)$$

$$= (P^{-1}A^{n}P)(P^{-1}AP)$$

$$= P^{-1}A^{n}(PP^{-1})AP$$

$$= P^{-1}A^{n}IAP$$

$$= P^{-1}(A^{n}A)P$$

$$= P^{-1}A^{n+1}P$$

and the induction goes through.

19. Let
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & 1/4 \\ 1/3 & 3/4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $P^{-1} = \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

We then verify that $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 5/12 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then from the previous question,

$$P^{-1}A^{n}P = (P^{-1}AP)^{n} = \begin{bmatrix} 5/12 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{n} = \begin{bmatrix} (5/12)^{n} & 0 \\ 0 & 1^{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (5/12)^{n} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$A^{n} = P \begin{bmatrix} (5/12)^{n} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (5/12)^{n} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} (5/12)^{n} & 3 \\ -(5/12)^{n} & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 4(5/12)^{n} + 3 & (-3)(5/12)^{n} + 3 \\ -4(5/12)^{n} + 4 & 3(5/12)^{n} + 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{7} (5/12)^{n} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notice that $A^n \to \frac{1}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ as $n \to \infty$. This problem is a special case of a more general result about Markov matrices.

20. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ be a matrix whose elements are non-negative real numbers satisfying

$$a \ge 0, \ b \ge 0, \ c \ge 0, \ d \ge 0, \ a + c = 1 = b + d.$$

Also let
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} b & 1 \\ c & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and suppose that $A \neq I_2$.

(i) det P = -b - c = -(b+c). Now $b+c \ge 0$. Also if b+c = 0, then we would have b = c = 0 and hence d = a = 1, resulting in $A = I_2$. Hence det P < 0 and P is non-singular.

Next.

$$P^{-1}AP = \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -c & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b & 1 \\ c & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -a-c & -b-d \\ -ac+bc & -cb+bd \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b & 1 \\ c & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -ac+bc & -cb+bd \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b & 1 \\ c & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -b-c & 0 \\ (-ac+bc)b+(-cb+bd)c & -ac+bc+cb-bd \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now

$$-acb + b^{2}c - c^{2}b + bdc = -cb(a+c) + bc(b+d)$$

= $-cb + bc = 0$.

Also

$$-(a+d-1)(b+c) = -ab - ac - db - dc + b + c$$

= $-ac + b(1-a) + c(1-d) - bd$
= $-ac + bc + cb - bd$.

Hence

$$P^{-1}AP = \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -(b+c) & 0 \\ 0 & -(a+d-1)(b+c) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & a+d-1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(ii) We next prove that if we impose the extra restriction that $A \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, then |a+d-1| < 1. This will then have the following consequence:

$$A = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & a+d-1 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$A^{n} = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & a+d-1 \end{bmatrix}^{n} P^{-1}$$

$$= P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & (a+d-1)^{n} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$\to P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} b & 1 \\ c & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -c & b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -c & b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{-1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} -b & -b \\ -c & -c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{b+c} \begin{bmatrix} b & b \\ c & c \end{bmatrix},$$

where we have used the fact that $(a+d-1)^n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

We first prove the inequality $|a+d-1| \le 1$:

$$a+d-1 \le 1+d-1=d \le 1$$

 $a+d-1 > 0+0-1=-1$.

Next, if a+d-1=1, we have a+d=2; so a=1=d and hence c=0=b, contradicting our assumption that $A \neq I_2$. Also if a+d-1=-1, then a+d=0; so a=0=d and hence c=1=b and hence $A=\begin{bmatrix}0&1\\1&0\end{bmatrix}$.

22. The system is inconsistent: We work towards reducing the augmented matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \to R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \to R_3 - 3R_1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_3 \to R_3 - R_2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The last row reveals inconsistency.

The system in matrix form is AX = B, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The normal equations are given by the matrix equation

$$A^t A X = A^t B.$$

Now

$$A^{t}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 18 \\ 18 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A^{t}B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 45 \\ 73 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the normal equations are

$$11x + 18y = 45$$

 $18x + 30y = 73$.

These may be solved, for example, by Cramer's rule:

$$x = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 45 & 18 \\ 73 & 30 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 11 & 18 \\ 18 & 30 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{36}{6} = 6$$

$$y = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 11 & 45 \\ 18 & 73 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} 11 & 18 \\ 18 & 30 \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{-7}{6}.$$

23. Substituting the coordinates of the five points into the parabola equation gives the following equations:

$$a = 0$$

$$a + b + c = 0$$

$$a + 2b + 4c = -1$$

$$a + 3b + 9c = 4$$

$$a + 4b + 16c = 8$$

The associated normal equations are given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 10 & 30 \\ 10 & 30 & 100 \\ 30 & 100 & 354 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 42 \\ 160 \end{bmatrix},$$

which have the solution a = 1/5, b = -2, c = 1.

24. Suppose that A is symmetric, i.e. $A^t = A$ and that AB is defined. Then

$$(B^t A B)^t = B^t A^t (B^t)^t = B^t A B,$$

so B^tAB is also symmetric.

25. Let A be $m \times n$ and B be $n \times m$, where m > n. Then the homogeneous system BX = 0 has a non-trivial solution X_0 , as the number of unknowns is greater than the number of equations. Then

$$(AB)X_0 = A(BX_0) = A0 = 0$$

and the $m \times m$ matrix AB is therefore singular, as $X_0 \neq 0$.

- 26. (i) Let B be a singular $n \times n$ matrix. Then BX = 0 for some non-zero column vector X. Then (AB)X = A(BX) = A0 = 0 and hence AB is also singular.
- (ii) Suppose A is a singular $n \times n$ matrix. Then A^t is also singular and hence by (i) so is $B^t A^t = (AB)^t$. Consequently AB is also singular

Section 3.6

- 1. (a) Let S be the set of vectors [x, y] satisfying x = 2y. Then S is a vector subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 . For
 - (i) $[0, 0] \in S$ as x = 2y holds with x = 0 and y = 0.
 - (ii) S is closed under addition. For let $[x_1, y_1]$ and $[x_2, y_2]$ belong to S. Then $x_1 = 2y_1$ and $x_2 = 2y_2$. Hence

$$x_1 + x_2 = 2y_1 + 2y_2 = 2(y_1 + y_2)$$

and hence

$$[x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2] = [x_1, y_1] + [x_2, y_2]$$

belongs to S.

(iii) S is closed under scalar multiplication. For let $[x, y] \in S$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then x = 2y and hence tx = 2(ty). Consequently

$$[tx, ty] = t[x, y] \in S.$$

- (b) Let S be the set of vectors [x, y] satisfying x = 2y and 2x = y. Then S is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 . This can be proved in the same way as (a), or alternatively we see that x = 2y and 2x = y imply x = 4x and hence x = 0 = y. Hence $S = \{[0, 0]\}$, the set consisting of the zero vector. This is always a subspace.
- (c) Let S be the set of vectors [x, y] satisfying x = 2y + 1. Then S doesn't contain the zero vector and consequently fails to be a vector subspace.
- (d) Let S be the set of vectors [x, y] satisfying xy = 0. Then S is not closed under addition of vectors. For example $[1, 0] \in S$ and $[0, 1] \in S$, but $[1, 0] + [0, 1] = [1, 1] \notin S$.
- (e) Let S be the set of vectors [x, y] satisfying $x \ge 0$ and $y \ge 0$. Then S is not closed under scalar multiplication. For example $[1, 0] \in S$ and $-1 \in \mathbb{R}$, but $(-1)[1, 0] = [-1, 0] \notin S$.
- 2. Let X, Y, Z be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Then by Lemma 3.2.1

$$\langle X+Y,\,X+Z,\,Y+Z\rangle\subseteq\langle X,\,Y,\,Z\rangle,$$

as each of X + Y, X + Z, Y + Z is a linear combination of X, Y, Z.

Also

$$X = \frac{1}{2}(X+Y) + \frac{1}{2}(X+Z) - \frac{1}{2}(Y+Z),$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{2}(X+Y) - \frac{1}{2}(X+Z) + \frac{1}{2}(Y+Z),$$

$$Z = \frac{-1}{2}(X+Y) + \frac{1}{2}(X+Z) + \frac{1}{2}(Y+Z),$$

SO

$$\langle X, Y, Z \rangle \subseteq \langle X + Y, X + Z, Y + Z \rangle.$$

Hence

$$\langle X, Y, Z \rangle = \langle X + Y, X + Z, Y + Z \rangle.$$

3. Let
$$X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $X_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. We have to decide if

 X_1 , X_2 , X_3 are linearly independent, that is if the equation $xX_1 + yX_2 + zX_3 = 0$ has only the trivial solution. This equation is equivalent to the following homogeneous system

$$x + 0y + z = 0$$

$$0x + y + z = 0$$

$$x + y + z = 0$$

$$2x + 2y + 3z = 0$$

We reduce the coefficient matrix to reduced row-echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and consequently the system has only the trivial solution x = 0, y = 0, z = 0. Hence the given vectors are linearly independent.

4. The vectors

$$X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ \lambda \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

are linearly dependent for precisely those values of λ for which the equation $xX_1 + yX_2 + zX_3 = 0$ has a non-trivial solution. This equation is equivalent to the system of homogeneous equations

$$\lambda x - y - z = 0$$

$$-x + \lambda y - z = 0$$

$$-x - y + \lambda z = 0.$$

Now the coefficient determinant of this system is

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & \lambda & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda + 1)^2 (\lambda - 2).$$

So the values of λ which make X_1 , X_2 , X_3 linearly independent are those λ satisfying $\lambda \neq -1$ and $\lambda \neq 2$.

5. Let A be the following matrix of rationals:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 5 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 8 & 11 & 19 & 0 & 11 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then A has reduced row–echelon form

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right].$$

From B we read off the following:

- (a) The rows of B form a basis for R(A). (Consequently the rows of A also form a basis for R(A).)
- (b) The first four columns of A form a basis for C(A).
- (c) To find a basis for N(A), we solve AX = 0 and equivalently BX = 0. From B we see that the solution is

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= x_5 \\
 x_2 &= 0 \\
 x_3 &= -x_5 \\
 x_4 &= -3x_5,
 \end{aligned}$$

with x_5 arbitrary. Then

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_5 \\ 0 \\ -x_5 \\ -3x_5 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

so $[1, 0, -1, -3, 1]^t$ is a basis for N(A).

6. In Section 1.6, problem 12, we found that the matrix

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

has reduced row–echelon form

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

From B we read off the following:

- (a) The three non-zero rows of B form a basis for R(A).
- (b) The first three columns of A form a basis for C(A).
- (c) To find a basis for N(A), we solve AX = 0 and equivalently BX = 0. From B we see that the solution is

$$x_1 = -x_4 - x_5 = x_4 + x_5$$

$$x_2 = -x_4 - x_5 = x_4 + x_5$$

$$x_3 = -x_4 = x_4,$$

with x_4 and x_5 arbitrary elements of \mathbb{Z}_2 . Hence

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_4 + x_5 \\ x_4 + x_5 \\ x_4 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $[1, 1, 1, 1, 0]^t$ and $[1, 1, 0, 0, 1]^t$ form a basis for N(A).

7. Let A be the following matrix over \mathbb{Z}_5 :

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 2 & 4 & 3 & 2 \end{array} \right].$$

We find that A has reduced row–echelon form B:

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

From B we read off the following:

- (a) The four rows of B form a basis for R(A). (Consequently the rows of A also form a basis for R(A).
- (b) The first four columns of A form a basis for C(A).
- (c) To find a basis for N(A), we solve AX = 0 and equivalently BX = 0. From B we see that the solution is

$$x_1 = -2x_5 - 4x_6 = 3x_5 + x_6$$

$$x_2 = -4x_5 - 4x_6 = x_5 + x_6$$

$$x_3 = 0$$

$$x_4 = -3x_5 = 2x_5,$$

where x_5 and x_6 are arbitrary elements of \mathbb{Z}_5 . Hence

$$X = x_5 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_6 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

so $[3, 1, 0, 2, 1, 0]^t$ and $[1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1]^t$ form a basis for R(A).

8. Let $F = \{0, 1, a, b\}$ be a field and let A be the following matrix over F:

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & a & b & a \\ a & b & b & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & a \end{array} \right].$$

In Section 1.6, problem 17, we found that A had reduced row–echelon form

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

From B we read off the following:

- (a) The rows of B form a basis for R(A). (Consequently the rows of A also form a basis for R(A).
- (b) The first three columns of A form a basis for C(A).
- (c) To find a basis for N(A), we solve AX = 0 and equivalently BX = 0. From B we see that the solution is

$$x_1 = 0$$

 $x_2 = -bx_4 = bx_4$
 $x_3 = -x_4 = x_4$,

where x_4 is an arbitrary element of F. Hence

$$X = x_4 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ b \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

so $[0, b, 1, 1]^t$ is a basis for N(A).

9. Suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_m form a basis for a subspace S. We have to prove that

$$X_1, X_1 + X_2, \dots, X_1 + \dots + X_m$$

also form a basis for S.

First we prove the independence of the family: Suppose

$$x_1X_1 + x_2(X_1 + X_2) + \dots + x_m(X_1 + \dots + X_m) = 0.$$

Then

$$(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_m)X_1 + \dots + x_mX_m = 0.$$

Then the linear independence of X_1, \ldots, X_m gives

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_m = 0, \dots, x_m = 0,$$

form which we deduce that $x_1 = 0, \ldots, x_m = 0$.

Secondly we have to prove that every vector of S is expressible as a linear combination of $X_1, X_1 + X_2, \dots, X_1 + \dots + X_m$. Suppose $X \in S$. Then

$$X = a_1 X_1 + \dots + a_m X_m.$$

We have to find x_1, \ldots, x_m such that

$$X = x_1 X_1 + x_2 (X_1 + X_2) + \dots + x_m (X_1 + \dots + X_m)$$

= $(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_m) X_1 + \dots + x_m X_m$.

Then

$$a_1X_1 + \cdots + a_mX_m = (x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_m)X_1 + \cdots + x_mX_m$$

So if we can solve the system

$$x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_m = a_1, \dots, x_m = a_m,$$

we are finished. Clearly these equations have the unique solution

$$x_1 = a_1 - a_2, \dots, x_{m-1} = a_m - a_{m-1}, x_m = a_m.$$

10. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. If [a, b, c] is a multiple of [1, 1, 1], (that is, a = b = c), then rank A = 1. For if

$$[a, b, c] = t[1, 1, 1],$$

then

$$R(A) = \langle [a, b, c], [1, 1, 1] \rangle = \langle t[1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1] \rangle = \langle [1, 1, 1] \rangle,$$

so [1, 1, 1] is a basis for R(A).

However if [a, b, c] is not a multiple of [1, 1, 1], (that is at least two of a, b, c are distinct), then the left-to-right test shows that [a, b, c] and [1, 1, 1] are linearly independent and hence form a basis for R(A). Consequently rank A = 2 in this case.

11. Let S be a subspace of F^n with $\dim S = m$. Also suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_m are vectors in S such that $S = \langle X_1, \ldots, X_m \rangle$. We have to prove that X_1, \ldots, X_m form a basis for S; in other words, we must prove that X_1, \ldots, X_m are linearly independent.

However if X_1, \ldots, X_m were linearly dependent, then one of these vectors would be a linear combination of the remaining vectors. Consequently S would be spanned by m-1 vectors. But there exist a family of m linearly independent vectors in S. Then by Theorem 3.3.2, we would have the contradiction $m \leq m-1$.

12. Let $[x, y, z]^t \in S$. Then x + 2y + 3z = 0. Hence x = -2y - 3z and

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2y - 3z \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = y \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $[-2, 1, 0]^t$ and $[-3, 0, 1]^t$ form a basis for S.

Next
$$(-1) + 2(-1) + 3(1) = 0$$
, so $[-1, -1, 1]^t \in S$.

To find a basis for S which includes $[-1, -1, 1]^t$, we note that $[-2, 1, 0]^t$ is not a multiple of $[-1, -1, 1]^t$. Hence we have found a linearly independent family of two vectors in S, a subspace of dimension equal to 2. Consequently these two vectors form a basis for S.

13. Without loss of generality, suppose that $X_1 = X_2$. Then we have the non-trivial dependency relation:

$$1X_1 + (-1)X_2 + 0X_3 + \dots + 0X_m = 0.$$

14. (a) Suppose that X_{m+1} is a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_m . Then

$$\langle X_1, \dots, X_m, X_{m+1} \rangle = \langle X_1, \dots, X_m \rangle$$

and hence

$$\dim \langle X_1, \dots, X_m, X_{m+1} \rangle = \dim \langle X_1, \dots, X_m \rangle.$$

(b) Suppose that X_{m+1} is not a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_m . If not all of X_1, \ldots, X_m are zero, there will be a subfamily X_{c_1}, \ldots, X_{c_r} which is a basis for $\langle X_1, \ldots, X_m \rangle$.

Then as X_{m+1} is not a linear combination of X_{c_1}, \ldots, X_{c_r} , it follows that $X_{c_1}, \ldots, X_{c_r}, X_{m+1}$ are linearly independent. Also

$$\langle X_1, \ldots, X_m, X_{m+1} \rangle = \langle X_{c_1}, \ldots, X_{c_r}, X_{m+1} \rangle.$$

Consequently

$$\dim \langle X_1, \dots, X_m, X_{m+1} \rangle = r + 1 = \dim \langle X_1, \dots, X_m \rangle + 1.$$

Our result can be rephrased in a form suitable for the second part of the problem:

$$\dim \langle X_1, \dots, X_m, X_{m+1} \rangle = \dim \langle X_1, \dots, X_m \rangle$$

if and only if X_{m+1} is a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_m .

If
$$X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^t$$
, then $AX = B$ is equivalent to

$$B = x_1 A_{*1} + \dots + x_n A_{*n}.$$

So AX = B is soluble for X if and only if B is a linear combination of the columns of A, that is $B \in C(A)$. However by the first part of this question, $B \in C(A)$ if and only if $\dim C([A|B]) = \dim C(A)$, that is, $\operatorname{rank}[A|B] = \operatorname{rank} A$.

15. Let a_1, \ldots, a_n be elements of F, not all zero. Let S denote the set of vectors $[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^t$, where x_1, \ldots, x_n satisfy

$$a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = 0.$$

Then S = N(A), where A is the row matrix $[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$. Now rank A = 1 as $A \neq 0$. So by the "rank + nullity" theorem, noting that the number of columns of A equals n, we have

$$\dim N(A) = \text{nullity}(A) = n - \text{rank} A = n - 1.$$

16. (a) (Proof of Lemma 3.2.1) Suppose that each of X_1, \ldots, X_r is a linear combination of Y_1, \ldots, Y_s . Then

$$X_i = \sum_{j=1}^{s} a_{ij} Y_j, \quad (1 \le i \le r).$$

Now let $X = \sum_{i=1}^r x_i X_i$ be a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_r . Then

$$X = x_1(a_{11}Y_1 + \dots + a_{1s}Y_s) + \dots + x_r(a_{r1}Y_1 + \dots + a_{rs}Y_s) = y_1Y_1 + \dots + y_sY_s,$$

where $y_j = a_{1j}x_1 + \cdots + a_{rj}x_r$. Hence X is a linear combination of Y_1, \ldots, Y_s . Another way of stating Lemma 3.2.1 is

$$\langle X_1, \dots, X_r \rangle \subseteq \langle Y_1, \dots, Y_s \rangle, \quad (1)$$

if each of X_1, \ldots, X_r is a linear combination of Y_1, \ldots, Y_s .

(b) (Proof of Theorem 3.2.1) Suppose that each of X_1, \ldots, X_r is a linear combination of Y_1, \ldots, Y_s and that each of Y_1, \ldots, Y_s is a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_r . Then by (a) equation (1) above

$$\langle X_1, \dots, X_r \rangle \subseteq \langle Y_1, \dots, Y_s \rangle$$

and

$$\langle Y_1, \ldots, Y_s \rangle \subseteq \langle X_1, \ldots, X_r \rangle.$$

Hence

$$\langle X_1, \dots, X_r \rangle = \langle Y_1, \dots, Y_s \rangle.$$

(c) (Proof of Corollary 3.2.1) Suppose that each of Z_1, \ldots, Z_t is a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_r . Then each of $X_1, \ldots, X_r, Z_1, \ldots, Z_t$ is a linear combination of X_1, \ldots, X_r .

Also each of X_1, \ldots, X_r is a linear combination of $X_1, \ldots, X_r, Z_1, \ldots, Z_t$, so by Theorem 3.2.1

$$\langle X_1, \ldots, X_r, Z_1, \ldots, Z_t \rangle = \langle X_1, \ldots, X_r \rangle.$$

(d) (Proof of Theorem 3.3.2) Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_s be vectors in $\langle X_1, \ldots, X_r \rangle$ and assume that s > r. We have to prove that Y_1, \ldots, Y_s are linearly dependent. So we consider the equation

$$x_1Y_1 + \dots + x_sY_s = 0.$$

Now $Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^r a_{ij} X_j$, for $1 \le i \le s$. Hence

$$x_{1}Y_{1} + \dots + x_{s}Y_{s} = x_{1}(a_{11}X_{1} + \dots + a_{1r}X_{r}) + \dots + x_{r}(a_{s1}X_{1} + \dots + a_{sr}X_{r}).$$

$$= y_{1}X_{1} + \dots + y_{r}X_{r}, \quad (1)$$

where $y_j = a_{1j}x_1 + \cdots + a_{sj}x_s$. However the homogeneous system

$$y_1 = 0, \dots, y_r = 0$$

has a non-trivial solution x_1, \ldots, x_s , as s > r and from (1), this results in a non-trivial solution of the equation

$$x_1Y_1 + \dots + x_sY_s = 0.$$

Hence Y_1, \ldots, Y_s are linearly dependent.

17. Let R and S be subspaces of F^n , with $R \subseteq S$. We first prove

$$\dim R \leq \dim S$$
.

Let X_1, \ldots, X_r be a basis for R. Now by Theorem 3.5.2, because X_1, \ldots, X_r form a linearly independent family lying in S, this family can be extended to a basis $X_1, \ldots, X_r, \ldots, X_s$ for S. Then

$$\dim S = s \ge r = \dim R.$$

Next suppose that dim $R = \dim S$. Let X_1, \ldots, X_r be a basis for R. Then because X_1, \ldots, X_r form a linearly independent family in S and S is a subspace whose dimension is r, it follows from Theorem 3.4.3 that X_1, \ldots, X_r form a basis for S. Then

$$S = \langle X_1, \dots, X_r \rangle = R.$$

18. Suppose that R and S are subspaces of F^n with the property that $R \cup S$ is also a subspace of F^n . We have to prove that $R \subseteq S$ or $S \subseteq R$. We argue by contradiction: Suppose that $R \not\subseteq S$ and $S \not\subseteq R$. Then there exist vectors u and v such that

$$u \in R$$
 and $v \notin S$, $v \in S$ and $v \notin R$.

Consider the vector u+v. As we are assuming $R \cup S$ is a subspace, $R \cup S$ is closed under addition. Hence $u+v \in R \cup S$ and so $u+v \in R$ or $u+v \in S$. However if $u+v \in R$, then $v=(u+v)-u \in R$, which is a contradiction; similarly if $u+v \in S$.

Hence we have derived a contradiction on the assumption that $R \not\subseteq S$ and $S \not\subseteq R$. Consequently at least one of these must be false. In other words $R \subseteq S$ or $S \subseteq R$.

- 19. Let X_1, \ldots, X_r be a basis for S.
 - (i) First let

$$Y_1 = a_{11}X_1 + \dots + a_{1r}X_r$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Y_r = a_{r1}X_1 + \dots + a_{rr}X_r,$$

$$(2)$$

where $A = [a_{ij}]$ is non-singular. Then the above system of equations can be solved for X_1, \ldots, X_r in terms of Y_1, \ldots, Y_r . Consequently by Theorem 3.2.1

$$\langle Y_1, \dots, Y_r \rangle = \langle X_1, \dots, X_r \rangle = S.$$

It follows from problem 11 that Y_1, \ldots, Y_r is a basis for S.

(ii) We show that all bases for S are given by equations 2. So suppose that Y_1, \ldots, Y_r forms a basis for S. Then because X_1, \ldots, X_r form a basis for S, we can express Y_1, \ldots, Y_r in terms of X_1, \ldots, X_r as in 2, for some matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$. We show A is non-singular by demonstrating that the linear independence of Y_1, \ldots, Y_r implies that the rows of A are linearly independent.

So assume

$$x_1[a_{11},\ldots,a_{1r}]+\cdots+x_r[a_{r1},\ldots,a_{rr}]=[0,\ldots,0].$$

Then on equating components, we have

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{r1}x_r = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{1r}x_1 + \dots + a_{rr}x_r = 0.$$

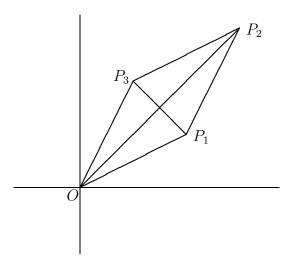
Hence

$$x_1Y_1 + \dots + x_rY_r = x_1(a_{11}X_1 + \dots + a_{1r}X_r) + \dots + x_r(a_{r1}X_1 + \dots + a_{rr}X_r)$$

$$= (a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{r1}x_r)X_1 + \dots + (a_{1r}x_1 + \dots + a_{rr}x_r)X_r$$

$$= 0X_1 + \dots + 0X_r = 0.$$

Then the linear independence of Y_1, \ldots, Y_r implies $x_1 = 0, \ldots, x_r = 0$. (We mention that the last argument is reversible and provides an alternative proof of part (i).)



Section 4.1

1. We first prove that the area of a triangle $P_1P_2P_3$, where the points are in anti-clockwise orientation, is given by the formula

$$\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left| \begin{array}{cc} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cc} x_2 & x_3 \\ y_2 & y_3 \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cc} x_3 & x_1 \\ y_3 & y_1 \end{array} \right| \right\}.$$

Referring to the above diagram, we have

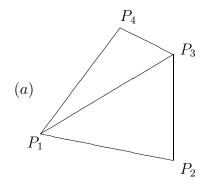
$$\text{Area } P_1 P_2 P_3 = \text{Area } OP_1 P_2 + \text{Area } OP_2 P_3 - \text{Area } OP_1 P_3 \\
 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{vmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} x_2 & x_3 \\ y_2 & y_3 \end{vmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_3 \end{vmatrix},$$

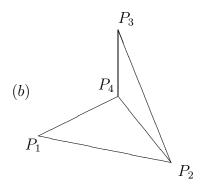
which gives the desired formula.

We now turn to the area of a quadrilateral. One possible configuration occurs when the quadrilateral is convex as in figure (a) below. The interior diagonal breaks the quadrilateral into two triangles $P_1P_2P_3$ and $P_1P_3P_4$. Then

$$\operatorname{Area} P_1 P_2 P_3 P_4 = \operatorname{Area} P_1 P_2 P_3 + \operatorname{Area} P_1 P_3 P_4$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left| \begin{array}{cc} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cc} x_2 & x_3 \\ y_2 & y_3 \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cc} x_3 & x_1 \\ y_3 & y_1 \end{array} \right| \right\}$$





$$+ \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} x_3 & x_4 \\ y_3 & y_4 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} x_4 & x_1 \\ y_4 & y_1 \end{vmatrix} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} x_2 & x_3 \\ y_2 & y_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} x_3 & x_4 \\ y_3 & y_4 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} x_4 & x_1 \\ y_4 & y_1 \end{vmatrix} \right\},$$

after cancellation.

Another possible configuration for the quadrilateral occurs when it is not convex, as in figure (b). The interior diagonal P_2P_4 then gives two triangles $P_1P_2P_4$ and $P_2P_3P_4$ and we can proceed similarly as before.

2.

$$\Delta = \left| \begin{array}{cccc} a + x & b + y & c + z \\ x + u & y + v & z + w \\ u + a & v + b & w + c \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{cccc} a & b & c \\ x + u & y + v & z + w \\ u + a & v + b & w + c \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cccc} x & y & z \\ x + u & y + v & z + w \\ u + a & v + b & w + c \end{array} \right|.$$

Now

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x+u & y+v & z+w \\ u+a & v+b & w+c \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ u+a & v+b & w+c \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ u & v & w \\ u+a & v+b & w+c \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ u & v & w \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ a & b & c \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ u & v & w \\ u & v & w \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ u & v & w \\ a & b & c \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ u & v & w \end{vmatrix}.$$

Similarly

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & y & z \\ x+u & y+v & z+w \\ u+a & v+b & w+c \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} x & y & z \\ u & v & w \\ a & b & c \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} x & y & z \\ a & b & c \\ u & v & w \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ u & v & w \end{vmatrix}.$$

Hence
$$\Delta = 2 \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ u & v & w \end{vmatrix}$$
.

3.
$$\begin{vmatrix} n^2 & (n+1)^2 & (n+2)^2 \\ (n+1)^2 & (n+2)^2 & (n+3)^2 \\ (n+2)^2 & (n+3)^2 & (n+4)^2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} C_3 \to C_3 - C_2 \\ C_2 \to C_2 - C_1 \\ (n+2)^2 & (n+3)^2 & (n+4)^2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} n^2 & 2n+1 & 2n+3 \\ (n+2)^2 & 2n+5 & 2n+7 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$C_3 \rightarrow C_3 - C_2$$
 $\begin{vmatrix} n^2 & 2n+1 & 2\\ (n+1)^2 & 2n+3 & 2\\ (n+2)^2 & 2n+5 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} R_3 \to R_3 - R_2 & n^2 & 2n+1 & 2 \\ R_2 \to R_2 - R_1 & 2n+1 & 2 & 0 \\ = & 2n+3 & 2 & 0 \\ \end{array} \right| = -8.$$

4. (a)

$$\begin{vmatrix} 246 & 427 & 327 \\ 1014 & 543 & 443 \\ -342 & 721 & 621 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 246 & 100 & 327 \\ 1014 & 100 & 443 \\ -342 & 100 & 621 \end{vmatrix} = 100 \begin{vmatrix} 246 & 1 & 327 \\ 1014 & 1 & 443 \\ -342 & 1 & 621 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 100 \begin{vmatrix} 246 & 1 & 327 \\ 768 & 0 & 116 \\ -588 & 0 & 294 \end{vmatrix} = 100(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 768 & 116 \\ -588 & 294 \end{vmatrix} = -29400000.$$

(b)

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -2 & 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 3 & -4 & -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & -2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 & 2 & 11 \\ 0 & -10 & -10 & -10 \\ 0 & -5 & -14 & -17 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 2 & 11 \\ -10 & -10 & -10 \\ -5 & -14 & -17 \end{vmatrix} = -10 \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 2 & 11 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -5 & -14 & -17 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -10 \begin{vmatrix} 5 & -3 & 6 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -5 & -9 & -12 \end{vmatrix} = -10(-1) \begin{vmatrix} -3 & 6 \\ -9 & -12 \end{vmatrix} = 900.$$

5.
$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 10 \\ 5 & 2 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 10 \\ 2 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = -13.$$

Hence A is non–singular and

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{-13} \operatorname{adj} A = \frac{1}{-13} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & C_{31} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & C_{32} \\ C_{13} & C_{23} & C_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{-13} \begin{bmatrix} -11 & -4 & 2 \\ 29 & 7 & -10 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

6. (i)

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2a & 2b & b-c \\ 2b & 2a & a+c \\ a+b & a+b & b \end{vmatrix} R_1 \to R_1 + R_2 \begin{vmatrix} 2a+2b & 2b+2a & b+a \\ 2b & 2a & a+c \\ a+b & a+b & b \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (a+b) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 2b & 2a & a+c \\ a+b & a+b & b \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} C_1 \to C_1 - C_2 \\ = (a+b) \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 2(b-a) & 2a & a+c \\ 0 & a+b & b \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= 2(a+b)(a-b) \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ a+b & b \end{vmatrix} = -2(a+b)(a-b)^2.$$

(ii)

$$\begin{vmatrix} b+c & b & c \\ c & c+a & a \\ b & a & a+b \end{vmatrix} C_1 \to C_1 - C_2 \begin{vmatrix} c & b & c \\ -a & c+a & a \\ b-a & a & a+b \end{vmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 - R_2$$
 $= \begin{vmatrix} c & b & 0 \\ -a & c + a & 1 \\ b & -c & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -2a \begin{vmatrix} c & b \\ b & -c \end{vmatrix} = 2a(c^2 + b^2).$

7. Suppose that the curve $y = ax^2 + bx + c$ passes through the points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3)$, where $x_i \neq x_j$ if $i \neq j$. Then

$$ax_1^2 + bx_1 + c = y_1$$

 $ax_2^2 + bx_2 + c = y_2$
 $ax_2^2 + bx_3 + c = y_3$

The coefficient determinant is essentially a Vandermonde determinant:

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_1^2 & x_1 & 1 \\ x_2^2 & x_2 & 1 \\ x_3^2 & x_3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} x_1^2 & x_2^2 & x_3^2 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ x_1^2 & x_2^2 & x_3^2 \end{vmatrix} = -(x_2 - x_1)(x_3 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2).$$

Hence the coefficient determinant is non–zero and by Cramer's rule, there is a unique solution for a, b, c.

8. Let
$$\Delta = \det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & k \\ 1 & k & 3 \end{vmatrix}$$
. Then

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} C_3 \to C_3 + C_1 \\ C_2 \to C_2 - C_1 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & k+2 \\ 1 & k-1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & k+2 \\ k-1 & 4 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= 4 - (k-1)(k+2) = -(k^2 - k - 6) = -(k+3)(k-2).$$

Hence det A = 0 if and only if k = -3 or k = 2.

Consequently if $k \neq -3$ and $k \neq 2$, then det $A \neq 0$ and the given system

$$x+y-z = 1$$

$$2x+3y+kz = 3$$

$$x+ky+3z = 2$$

has a unique solution. We consider the cases k = -3 and k = 2 separately. k = -3:

$$AM = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & -3 & 3 \\ 1 & -3 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} R_2 \to R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \to R_3 - R_1 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -4 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_3 \to R_3 + 4R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix},$$

from which we read off inconsistency. k = 2:

$$AM = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad R_2 \to R_2 - 2R_1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \to R_3 - R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We read off the complete solution x = 5z, y = 1 - 4z, where z is arbitrary. Finally we have to determine the solution for which $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ is least.

$$x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} = (5z)^{2} + (1 - 4z)^{2} + z^{2} = 42z^{2} - 8z + 1$$

$$= 42(z^{2} - \frac{4}{21}z + \frac{1}{42}) = 42\left\{\left(z - \frac{2}{21}\right)^{2} + \frac{1}{42} - \left(\frac{2}{21}\right)^{2}\right\}$$

$$= 42\left\{\left(z - \frac{2}{21}\right)^{2} + \frac{13}{882}\right\}.$$

We see that the least value of $x^2+y^2+z^2$ is $42\times\frac{13}{882}=\frac{13}{21}$ and this occurs when z=2/21, with corresponding values x=10/21 and $y=1-4\times\frac{2}{21}=13/21$.

9. Let
$$\Delta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & b \\ a & 0 & 2 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 be the coefficient determinant of the given system.

Then expanding along column 2 gives

$$\Delta = 2 \begin{vmatrix} a & 2 \\ 5 & 0 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & b \\ a & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -20 - 2(2 - ab)$$
$$= 2ab - 24 = 2(ab - 12).$$

Hence $\Delta = 0$ if and only if ab = 12. Hence if $ab \neq 12$, the given system has a unique solution.

If ab = 12 we must argue with care:

$$AM = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & b & 3 \\ a & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 5 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & b & 3 \\ 0 & 2a & 2 - ab & 2 - 3a \\ 0 & 12 & -5b & -14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & b & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-5b}{12} & \frac{-7}{6} \\ 0 & 2a & 2 - ab & 2 - 3a \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & b & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-5b}{12} & \frac{-7}{6} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{12 - ab}{6} & \frac{6 - 2a}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & b & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-5b}{12} & \frac{-7}{6} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{6 - 2a}{3} \end{bmatrix} = B.$$

Hence if $6 - 2a \neq 0$, i.e. $a \neq 3$, the system has no solution. If a = 3 (and hence b = 4), then

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-5}{3} & \frac{-7}{6} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2/3 & 2/3 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{-5}{3} & \frac{-7}{6} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Consequently the complete solution of the system is $x = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3}z$, $y = \frac{-7}{6} + \frac{5}{3}z$, where z is arbitrary. Hence there are infinitely many solutions.

10.

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix}
1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
2 & 4 & 7 & 2t+6 \\
2 & 2 & 6-t & t
\end{vmatrix}
\begin{vmatrix}
R_4 \to R_4 - 2R_1 \\
R_3 \to R_3 - 2R_1 \\
R_2 \to R_2 - R_1
\end{vmatrix}
\begin{vmatrix}
1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\
0 & 2 & 3 & 2t+4 \\
0 & 0 & 2-t & t-2
\end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix}
1 & 1 & 3 \\
2 & 3 & 2t+4 \\
0 & 2-t & t-2
\end{vmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2t-2 \\
2-t & t-2
\end{vmatrix}
= (t-2) \begin{vmatrix}
1 & 2t-2 \\
-1 & 1
\end{vmatrix}
= (t-2)(2t-1).$$

Hence $\Delta = 0$ if and only if t = 2 or $t = \frac{1}{2}$. Consequently the given matrix B is non-singular if and only if $t \neq 2$ and $t \neq \frac{1}{2}$.

11. Let A be a 3×3 matrix with det $A \neq 0$. Then

(i)

$$A \operatorname{adj} A = (\det A)I_3 \qquad (1)$$

$$(\det A) \det (\operatorname{adj} A) = \det (\det A \cdot I_3) = (\det A)^3.$$

Hence, as $\det A \neq 0$, dividing out by $\det A$ in the last equation gives

$$\det(\operatorname{adj} A) = (\det A)^2.$$

(ii) . Also from equation (1)

$$\left(\frac{1}{\det A}A\right) \operatorname{adj} A = I_3,$$

so $\operatorname{adj} A$ is non-singular and

$$(\operatorname{adj} A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} A.$$

Finally

$$A^{-1} \operatorname{adj} (A^{-1}) = (\det A^{-1}) I_3$$

and multiplying both sides of the last equation by A gives

$$\operatorname{adj}(A^{-1}) = A(\det A^{-1})I_3 = \frac{1}{\det A}A.$$

12. Let A be a real 3×3 matrix satisfying $A^t A = I_3$. Then

(i)
$$A^{t}(A - I_{3}) = A^{t}A - A^{t} = I_{3} - A^{t}$$

= $-(A^{t} - I_{3}) = -(A^{t} - I_{3}^{t}) = -(A - I_{3})^{t}$.

Taking determinants of both sides then gives

$$\det A^{t} \det (A - I_{3}) = \det (-(A - I_{3})^{t})$$

$$\det A \det (A - I_{3}) = (-1)^{3} \det (A - I_{3})^{t}$$

$$= -\det (A - I_{3})$$
 (1).

(ii) Also $\det AA^t = \det I_3$, so

$$\det A^t \det A = 1 = (\det A)^2.$$

Hence $\det A = \pm 1$.

(iii) Suppose that $\det A = 1$. Then equation (1) gives

$$\det(A - I_3) = -\det(A - I_3),$$

so $(1+1) \det (A - I_3) = 0$ and hence $\det (A - I_3) = 0$.

13. Suppose that column 1 is a linear combination of the remaining columns:

$$A_{*1} = x_2 A_{*2} + \dots + x_n A_{*n}.$$

Then

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} x_2 a_{12} + \dots + x_n a_{1n} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ x_2 a_{22} + \dots + x_n a_{2n} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_2 a_{n2} + \dots + x_n a_{nn} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Now det A is unchanged in value if we perform the operation

$$C_1 \to C_1 - x_2 C_2 - \dots - x_n C_n$$
:

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Conversely, suppose that det A = 0. Then the homogeneous system AX = 0 has a non-trivial solution $X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^t$. So

$$x_1 A_{*1} + \dots + x_n A_{*n} = 0.$$

Suppose for example that $x_1 \neq 0$. Then

$$A_{*1} = \left(-\frac{x_2}{x_1}\right) + \dots + \left(-\frac{x_n}{x_1}\right) A_{*n}$$

and the first column of A is a linear combination of the remaining columns.

14. Consider the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
-2x + 3y - z & = & 1 \\
x + 2y - z & = & 4 \\
-2x - y + z & = & -3
\end{array}$$

Let
$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 7 & -3 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -2 \neq 0.$$

Hence the system has a unique solution which can be calculated using Cramer's rule:

$$x = \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta}, \quad y = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta}, \quad z = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta},$$

where

$$\Delta_{1} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 4 & 2 & -1 \\ -3 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -4,$$

$$\Delta_{2} = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 \\ -2 & -3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -6,$$

$$\Delta_{3} = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ -2 & -1 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = -8.$$

Hence
$$x = \frac{-4}{-2} = 2$$
, $y = \frac{-6}{-2} = 3$, $z = \frac{-8}{-2} = 4$.

15. In Remark 4.0.4, take $A = I_n$. Then we deduce

- (a) $\det E_{ij} = -1;$
- (b) $\det E_i(t) = t;$
- (c) $\det E_{ii}(t) = 1$.

Now suppose that B is a non–singular $n \times n$ matrix. Then we know that B is a product of elementary row matrices:

$$B = E_1 \cdots E_m$$
.

Consequently we have to prove that

$$\det E_1 \cdots E_m A = \det E_1 \cdots E_m \det A.$$

We prove this by induction on m.

First the case m = 1. We have to prove $\det E_1 A = \det E_1 \det A$ if E_1 is an elementary row matrix. This follows form Remark 4.0.4:

- (a) $\det E_{ij}A = -\det A = \det E_{ij} \det A$;
- (b) $\det E_i(t)A = t \det A = \det E_i(t) \det A$;
- (c) $\det E_{ij}(t)A = \det A = \det E_{ij}(t) \det A$.

Let $m \geq 1$ and assume the proposition holds for products of m elementary row matrices. Then

$$\det E_1 \cdots E_m E_{m+1} A = \det (E_1 \cdots E_m) (E_{m+1} A)$$

$$= \det (E_1 \cdots E_m) \det (E_{m+1} A)$$

$$= \det (E_1 \cdots E_m) \det E_{m+1} \det A$$

$$= \det ((E_1 \cdots E_m) E_{m+1}) \det A$$

and the induction goes through.

Hence $\det BA = \det B \det A$ if B is non-singular.

If B is singular, problem 26, Chapter 2.7 tells us that BA is also singular. However singular matrices have zero determinant, so

$$\det B = 0 \quad \det BA = 0,$$

so the equation $\det BA = \det B \det A$ holds trivially in this case.

16.

16.
$$\begin{vmatrix} a+b+c & a+b & a & a \\ a+b & a+b+c & a & a \\ a & a & a+b+c & a+b \\ a & a & a+b+c & a+b \end{vmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 - R_2 \mid c -c \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$R_2 \to R_2 - R_3 \mid b \quad b+c \quad -b-c \quad -b \quad R_3 \to R_3 - R_4 \mid 0 \quad 0 \quad c \quad -c \quad -c \quad a \quad a \quad a+b \quad a+b+c \end{vmatrix}$$

$$C_2 \to C_2 + C_1 \mid c \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad b \quad 2b+c \quad -b-c \quad -b \quad 0 \quad c \quad -c \quad 2a \quad a+b \quad a+b+c \end{vmatrix}$$

$$C_3 \to C_3 + C_2 \mid c \mid 2b+c \quad -b-c \quad -2b-c \quad 0 \quad c \quad a \quad 2a \quad a+b \quad a+b+c \end{vmatrix} = c^2 \begin{vmatrix} 2b+c \quad -b-c \quad -b \quad c \quad -b \quad c \quad -c \quad 2a \quad a+b \quad a+b+c \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= c^2(2b+c) \mid 1 \quad -1 \quad 2a \quad 2a+2b+c \mid c \mid 2c^2(2b+c)(4a+2b+c).$$

17. Let
$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1+u_1 & u_1 & u_1 & u_1 \\ u_2 & 1+u_2 & u_2 & u_2 \\ u_3 & u_3 & 1+u_3 & u_3 \\ u_4 & u_4 & u_4 & 1+u_4 \end{vmatrix}$$
. Then using the operation

$$R_1 \to R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4$$

we have

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} t & t & t & t \\ u_2 & 1 + u_2 & u_2 & u_2 \\ u_3 & u_3 & 1 + u_3 & u_3 \\ u_4 & u_4 & u_4 & 1 + u_4 \end{vmatrix}$$

(where $t = 1 + u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + u_4$)

$$= (1 + u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + u_4) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ u_2 & 1 + u_2 & u_2 & u_2 \\ u_3 & u_3 & 1 + u_3 & u_3 \\ u_4 & u_4 & u_4 & 1 + u_4 \end{vmatrix}$$

The last determinant equals

$$\begin{vmatrix} C_2 \to C_2 - C_1 \\ C_3 \to C_3 - C_1 \\ C_4 \to C_4 - C_1 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ u_2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ u_3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ u_4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1.$$

18. Suppose that $A^t = -A$, that $A \in M_{n \times n}(F)$, where n is odd. Then

$$\det A^t = \det(-A)$$

$$\det A = (-1)^n \det A = -\det A.$$

Hence $(1+1) \det A = 0$ and consequently $\det A = 0$ if $1+1 \neq 0$ in F.

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ r & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ r & r & 1 & 1 \\ r & r & r & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} C_4 \to C_4 - C_3 \\ C_3 \to C_3 - C_2 \\ C_2 \to C_2 - C_1 \\ = \begin{vmatrix} r & 1 & 1 \\ r & 0 & 1 - r \\ 0 & 0 & 1 - r \end{vmatrix} = (1 - r)^3.$$

20.

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a^2 - bc & a^4 \\ 1 & b^2 - ca & b^4 \\ 1 & c^2 - ab & c^4 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} R_2 \to R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3 \to R_3 - R_1 \\ = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b^2 - ca - a^2 + bc & b^4 - a^4 \\ 0 & c^2 - ab - a^2 + bc & c^4 - a^4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} b^2 - ca - a^2 + bc & b^4 - a^4 \\ c^2 - ab - a^2 + bc & c^4 - a^4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} (b-a)(b+a) + c(b-a) & (b-a)(b+a)(b^2 + a^2) \\ (c-a)(c+a) + b(c-a) & (c-a)(c+a)(c^2 + a^2) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} (b-a)(b+a+c) & (b-a)(b+a)(b^2 + a^2) \\ (c-a)(c+a+b) & (c-a)(c+a)(c^2 + a^2) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (b-a)(c-a) \begin{vmatrix} b+a+c & (b+a)(b^2 + a^2) \\ c+a+b & (c+a)(c^2 + a^2) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (b-a)(c-a)(a+b+c) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & (b+a)(b^2 + a^2) \\ 1 & (c+a)(c^2 + a^2) \end{vmatrix}.$$

Finally

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & (b+a)(b^2+a^2) \\ 1 & (c+a)(c^2+a^2) \end{vmatrix} = (c^3+ac^2+ca^2+a^3) - (b^3+ab^2+ba^2+a^3)$$
$$= (c^3-b^3) + a(c^2-b^2) + a^2(c-b)$$
$$= (c-b)(c^2+cb+b^2+a(c+b)+a^2)$$
$$= (c-b)(c^2+cb+b^2+ac+ab+a^2).$$

Section 5.8

1.

(i)
$$(-3+i)(14-2i) = (-3)(14-2i) + i(14-2i)$$

= $\{(-3)14 - (-3)(2i)\} + i(14) - i(2i)$
= $(-42+6i) + (14i+2) = -40 + 20i$.

(ii)
$$\frac{2+3i}{1-4i} = \frac{(2+3i)(1+4i)}{(1-4i)(1+4i)}$$
$$= \frac{((2+3i)+(2+3i)(4i)}{1^2+4^2}$$
$$= \frac{-10+11i}{17} = \frac{-10}{17} + \frac{11}{17}i.$$

(iii)
$$\frac{(1+2i)^2}{1-i} = \frac{1+4i+(2i)^2}{1-i}$$
$$= \frac{1+4i-4}{1-i} = \frac{-3+4i}{1-i}$$
$$= \frac{(-3+4i)(1+i)}{2} = \frac{-7+i}{2} = -\frac{7}{2} + \frac{1}{2}i.$$

2. (i)

$$iz + (2 - 10i)z = 3z + 2i \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad z(i + 2 - 10i - 3) = 2i$$

$$= \Leftrightarrow \quad z(-1 - 9i) = 2i \Leftrightarrow z = \frac{-2i}{1 + 9i}$$

$$= \quad \frac{-2i(1 - 9i)}{1 + 81} = \frac{-18 - 2i}{82} = \frac{-9 - i}{41}.$$

(ii) The coefficient determinant is

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1+i & 2-i \\ 1+2i & 3+i \end{vmatrix} = (1+i)(3+i) - (2-i)(1+2i) = -2+i \neq 0.$$

Hence Cramer's rule applies: there is a unique solution given by

$$z = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} -3i & 2-i \\ 2+2i & 3+i \end{vmatrix}}{-2+i} = \frac{-3-11i}{-2+i} = -1+5i$$

$$w = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1+i & -3i \\ 1+2i & 2+2i \end{vmatrix}}{-2+i} = \frac{-6+7i}{-2+i} = \frac{19-8i}{5}.$$

3.

$$1 + (1+i) + \dots + (1+i)^{99} = \frac{(1+i)^{100} - 1}{(1+i) - 1}$$
$$= \frac{(1+i)^{100} - 1}{i} = -i \left\{ (1+i)^{100} - 1 \right\}.$$

Now $(1+i)^2 = 2i$. Hence

$$(1+i)^{100} = (2i)^{50} = 2^{50}i^{50} = 2^{50}(-1)^{25} = -2^{50}.$$

Hence $-i\{(1+i)^{100}-1\} = -i(-2^{50}-1) = (2^{50}+1)i$.

4. (i) Let $z^2 = -8 - 6i$ and write z=x+iy, where x and y are real. Then

$$z^2 = x^2 - y^2 + 2xyi = -8 - 6i,$$

so $x^2 - y^2 = -8$ and 2xy = -6. Hence

$$y = -3/x$$
, $x^2 - \left(\frac{-3}{x}\right)^2 = -8$,

so $x^4 + 8x^2 - 9 = 0$. This is a quadratic in x^2 . Hence $x^2 = 1$ or -9 and consequently $x^2 = 1$. Hence x = 1, y = -3 or x = -1 and y = 3. Hence z = 1 - 3i or z = -1 + 3i.

(ii) $z^2 - (3+i)z + 4 + 3i = 0$ has the solutions $z = (3+i \pm d)/2$, where d is any complex number satisfying

$$d^2 = (3+i)^2 - 4(4+3i) = -8 - 6i.$$

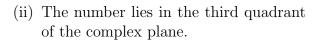
Hence by part (i) we can take d = 1 - 3i. Consequently

$$z = \frac{3+i\pm(1-3i)}{2} = 2-i$$
 or $1+2i$.

(i) The number lies in the first quadrant of the complex plane.

$$|4+i| = \sqrt{4^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{17}.$$

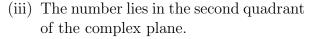
Also Arg $(4 + i) = \alpha$, where $\tan \alpha = 1/4$ and $0 < \alpha < \pi/2$. Hence $\alpha = \tan^{-1}(1/4)$.



$$\left| \frac{-3-i}{2} \right| = \frac{|-3-i|}{2}$$

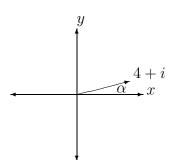
$$= \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(-3)^2 + (-1)^2} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{9+1} = \frac{\sqrt{10}}{2}.$$

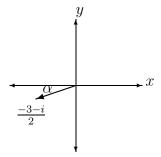
Also $\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{-3-i}{2}\right)=-\pi+\alpha,$ where $\tan\alpha=\frac{1}{2}/\frac{3}{2}=1/3$ and $0<\alpha<\pi/2.$ Hence $\alpha=\tan^{-1}(1/3).$

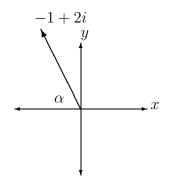


$$|-1+2i| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}.$$

Also Arg $(-1 + 2i) = \pi - \alpha$, where $\tan \alpha = 2$ and $0 < \alpha < \pi/2$. Hence $\alpha = \tan^{-1}2$.



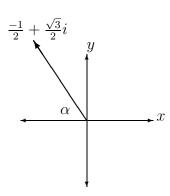




(iv) The number lies in the second quadrant of the complex plane.

$$\left| \frac{-1 + i\sqrt{3}}{2} \right| = \frac{|-1 + i\sqrt{3}|}{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(-1)^2 + (\sqrt{3})^2} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1+3} = 1.$$

Also $\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{-1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i\right) = \pi - \alpha$, where $\tan \alpha = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}/\frac{1}{2} = \sqrt{3}$ and $0 < \alpha < \pi/2$. Hence $\alpha = \pi/3$.



6. (i) Let
$$z = (1+i)(1+\sqrt{3}i)(\sqrt{3}-i)$$
. Then
$$|z| = |1+i||1+\sqrt{3}i||\sqrt{3}-i|$$
$$= \sqrt{1^2+1^2}\sqrt{1^2+(\sqrt{3})^2}\sqrt{(\sqrt{3})^2+(-1)^2}$$

 $= \sqrt{2}\sqrt{4}\sqrt{4} = 4\sqrt{2}$.

$$\operatorname{Arg} z \equiv \operatorname{Arg} (1+i) + \operatorname{Arg} (1+\sqrt{3}) + \operatorname{Arg} (\sqrt{3}-i) \pmod{2\pi}$$
$$\equiv \frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\pi}{6} \equiv \frac{5}{12}.$$

Hence $\operatorname{Arg} z = \frac{5}{12}$ and the polar decomposition of z is

$$z = 4\sqrt{2} \left(\cos \frac{5\pi}{12} + i \sin \frac{5\pi}{12} \right).$$

(ii) Let $z = \frac{(1+i)^5(1-i\sqrt{3})^5}{(\sqrt{3}+i)^4}$. Then

$$|z| = \frac{|(1+i)|^5|(1-i\sqrt{3})|^5}{|(\sqrt{3}+i)|^4} = \frac{(\sqrt{2})^5 2^5}{2^4} = 2^{7/2}.$$

$$\operatorname{Arg} z \equiv \operatorname{Arg} (1+i)^5 + \operatorname{Arg} (1-\sqrt{3}i)^5 - \operatorname{Arg} (\sqrt{3}+i)^4 \pmod{2\pi}
\equiv 5\operatorname{Arg} (1+i) + 5\operatorname{Arg} (1-\sqrt{3}i) - 4\operatorname{Arg} (\sqrt{3}+i)
\equiv 5\frac{\pi}{4} + 5\left(\frac{-\pi}{3}\right) - 4\frac{\pi}{6} \equiv \frac{-13\pi}{12} \equiv \frac{11\pi}{12}.$$

Hence $\operatorname{Arg} z = \frac{11\pi}{12}$ and the polar decomposition of z is

$$z = 2^{7/2} \left(\cos \frac{11\pi}{12} + i \sin \frac{11\pi}{12} \right).$$

7. (i) Let $z = 2(\cos\frac{\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{4})$ and $w = 3(\cos\frac{\pi}{6} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{6})$. (Both of these numbers are already in polar form.)

(a)
$$zw = 6(\cos(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{6}) + i\sin(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{6}))$$

= $6(\cos\frac{5\pi}{12} + i\sin\frac{5\pi}{12}).$

(b)
$$\frac{z}{w} = \frac{2}{3} (\cos(\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\pi}{6}) + i\sin(\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\pi}{6}))$$

= $\frac{2}{3} (\cos\frac{\pi}{12} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{12}).$

(c)
$$\frac{w}{z} = \frac{3}{2} (\cos(\frac{\pi}{6} - \frac{\pi}{4}) + i\sin(\frac{\pi}{6} - \frac{\pi}{4}))$$

= $\frac{3}{2} (\cos(\frac{-\pi}{12}) + i\sin(\frac{-\pi}{12})).$

(d)
$$\frac{z^5}{w^2} = \frac{2^5}{3^2} \left(\cos\left(\frac{5\pi}{4} - \frac{2\pi}{6}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{4} - \frac{2\pi}{6}\right)\right)$$

= $\frac{3^2}{9} \left(\cos\frac{11\pi}{12} + i\sin\frac{11\pi}{12}\right)$.

(a)
$$(1+i)^2 = 2i$$
, so

$$(1+i)^{12} = (2i)^6 = 2^6i^6 = 64(i^2)^3 = 64(-1)^3 = -64.$$

(b)
$$(\frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}})^2 = -i$$
, so

$$\left(\frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{-6} = \left(\left(\frac{1-i}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2\right)^{-3}$$
$$= (-i)^{-3} = \frac{-1}{i^3} = \frac{-1}{-i} = \frac{1}{i} = -i.$$

8. (i) To solve the equation $z^2 = 1 + \sqrt{3}i$, we write $1 + \sqrt{3}i$ in modulus–argument form:

$$1 + \sqrt{3}i = 2(\cos\frac{\pi}{3} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{3}).$$

Then the solutions are

$$z_k = \sqrt{2} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{3} + 2k\pi}{2} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{3} + 2k\pi}{2} \right) \right), \quad k = 0, 1.$$

Now k = 0 gives the solution

$$z_0 = \sqrt{2}(\cos\frac{\pi}{6} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{6}) = \sqrt{2}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{i}{2}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Clearly $z_1 = -z_0$.

(ii) To solve the equation $z^4 = i$, we write i in modulus-argument form:

$$i = \cos\frac{\pi}{2} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Then the solutions are

$$z_k = \cos\left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi}{4}\right) + i\sin\left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi}{4}\right), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3.$$

Now $\cos\left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{2}+2k\pi}{4}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{8} + \frac{k\pi}{2}\right)$, so

$$z_k = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{8} + \frac{k\pi}{2}\right) + \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{8} + \frac{k\pi}{2}\right)$$
$$= \left(\cos\frac{\pi}{2} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^k \left(\cos\frac{\pi}{8} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{8}\right)$$
$$= i^k \left(\cos\frac{\pi}{8} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{8}\right).$$

Geometrically, the solutions lie equi-spaced on the unit circle at arguments

$$\frac{\pi}{8}$$
, $\frac{\pi}{8} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{5\pi}{8}$, $\frac{\pi}{8} + \pi = \frac{9\pi}{8}$, $\frac{\pi}{8} + 3\frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{13\pi}{8}$.

Also $z_2 = -z_0$ and $z_3 = -z_1$.

(iii) To solve the equation $z^3 = -8i$, we rewrite the equation as

$$\left(\frac{z}{-2i}\right)^3 = 1.$$

Then

$$\left(\frac{z}{-2i}\right) = 1$$
, $\frac{-1+\sqrt{3}i}{2}$, or $\frac{-1-\sqrt{3}i}{2}$.

Hence z = -2i, $\sqrt{3} + i$ or $-\sqrt{3} + i$.

Geometrically, the solutions lie equi–spaced on the circle |z|=2, at arguments

$$\frac{\pi}{6}$$
, $\frac{\pi}{6} + \frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{5\pi}{6}$, $\frac{\pi}{6} + 2\frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{3\pi}{2}$.

(iv) To solve $z^4 = 2 - 2i$, we write 2 - 2i in modulus–argument form:

$$2 - 2i = 2^{3/2} \left(\cos \frac{-\pi}{4} + i \sin \frac{-\pi}{4} \right).$$

Hence the solutions are

$$z_k = 2^{3/8} \cos\left(\frac{-\pi}{4} + 2k\pi\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{-\pi}{4} + 2k\pi\right), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3.$$

We see the solutions can also be written as

$$z_k = 2^{3/8} i^k \left(\cos \frac{-\pi}{16} + i \sin \frac{-\pi}{16} \right)$$
$$= 2^{3/8} i^k \left(\cos \frac{\pi}{16} - i \sin \frac{\pi}{16} \right).$$

Geometrically, the solutions lie equi–spaced on the circle $|z|=2^{3/8}$, at arguments

$$\frac{-\pi}{16}, \ \frac{-\pi}{16} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{7\pi}{16}, \ \frac{-\pi}{16} + 2\frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{15\pi}{16}, \ \frac{-\pi}{16} + 3\frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{23\pi}{16}.$$

Also $z_2 = -z_0$ and $z_3 = -z_1$.

9.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2+i & -1+2i & 2\\ 1+i & -1+i & 1\\ 1+2i & -2+i & 1+i \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \to R_1 - R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i & 1\\ 1+i & -1+i & 1\\ i & -1 & i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \to R_2 - (1+i)R_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i & 1\\ 0 & 0 & -i\\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \to iR_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i & 1\\ 0 & 0 & 1\\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \to R_1 - R_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The last matrix is in reduced row-echelon form.

10. (i) Let p = l + im and z = x + iy. Then

$$\overline{p}z + p\overline{z} = (l - im)(x + iy) + (l + im)(x - iy)$$

$$= (lx + liy - imx + my) + (lx - liy + imx + my)$$

$$= 2(lx + my).$$

Hence $\overline{p}z + p\overline{z} = 2n \Leftrightarrow lx + my = n$.

(ii) Let w be the complex number which results from reflecting the complex number z in the line lx + my = n. Then because p is perpendicular to the given line, we have

$$w - z = tp, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$
 (a)

Also the midpoint $\frac{w+z}{2}$ of the segment joining w and z lies on the given line, so

$$\overline{p}\left(\frac{w+z}{2}\right) + p\left(\frac{\overline{w+z}}{2}\right) = n,$$

$$\overline{p}\left(\frac{w+z}{2}\right) + p\left(\frac{\overline{w}+\overline{z}}{2}\right) = n.$$
(b)

Taking conjugates of equation (a) gives

$$\overline{w} - \overline{z} = t\overline{p}.\tag{c}$$

Then substituting in (b), using (a) and (c), gives

$$\overline{p}\left(\frac{2w-tp}{2}\right) + p\left(\frac{2\overline{z}+t\overline{p}}{2}\right) = n$$

and hence

$$\overline{p}w + p\overline{z} = n.$$

(iii) Let
$$p = b - a$$
 and $n = |b|^2 - |a|^2$. Then
$$|z - a| = |z - b| \iff |z - a|^2 = |z - b|^2$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (z - a)(\overline{z - a}) = (z - b)(\overline{z - b})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (z - a)(\overline{z} - \overline{a}) = (z - b)(\overline{z} - \overline{b})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow z\overline{z} - a\overline{z} - z\overline{a} + a\overline{a} = z\overline{z} - b\overline{z} - z\overline{b} + b\overline{b}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\overline{b} - \overline{a})z + (b - a)\overline{z} = |b|^2 - |a|^2$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \overline{p}z + p\overline{z} = n.$$

Suppose z lies on the circle $\left|\frac{z-a}{z-b}\right|$ and let w be the reflection of z in the line $\overline{p}z+p\overline{z}=n$. Then by part (ii)

$$\overline{p}w + p\overline{z} = n.$$

Taking conjugates gives $p\overline{w} + \overline{p}z = n$ and hence

$$z = \frac{n - p\overline{w}}{\overline{p}} \tag{a}$$

Substituting for z in the circle equation, using (a) gives

$$\lambda = \left| \frac{\frac{n - p\overline{w}}{\overline{p}} - a}{\frac{n - p\overline{w}}{\overline{p}} - b} \right| = \left| \frac{n - p\overline{w} - \overline{p}a}{n - p\overline{w} - \overline{p}b} \right|. \tag{b}$$

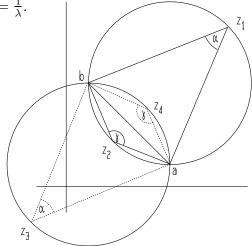
However

$$n - \overline{p}a = |b|^2 - |a|^2 - (\overline{b} - \overline{a})a$$
$$= \overline{b}b - \overline{a}a - \overline{b}a + \overline{a}a$$
$$= \overline{b}(b - a) = \overline{b}p.$$

Similarly $n - \overline{p}b = \overline{a}p$. Consequently (b) simplifies to

$$\lambda = \left| \frac{\overline{b}p - p\overline{w}}{\overline{a}p - p\overline{w}} \right| = \left| \frac{\overline{b} - \overline{w}}{\overline{a} - \overline{w}} \right| = \left| \frac{w - b}{w - a} \right|,$$

which gives $\left|\frac{w-a}{w-b}\right| = \frac{1}{\lambda}$.



- 11. Let a and b be distinct complex numbers and $0 < \alpha < \pi$.
- (i) When z_1 lies on the circular arc shown, it subtends a constant angle
- α . This angle is given by $\operatorname{Arg}(z_1 a) \operatorname{Arg}(z_1 b)$. However

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_1 - a}{z_1 - b}\right) = \operatorname{Arg}(z_1 - a) - \operatorname{Arg}(z_1 - b) + 2k\pi$$
$$= \alpha + 2k\pi.$$

It follows that k = 0, as $0 < \alpha < \pi$ and $-\pi < \text{Arg } \theta \le \pi$. Hence

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_1 - a}{z_1 - b}\right) = \alpha.$$

Similarly if z_2 lies on the circular arc shown, then

Arg
$$\left(\frac{z_2 - a}{z_2 - b}\right) = -\gamma = -(\pi - \alpha) = \alpha - \pi.$$

Replacing α by $\pi - \alpha$, we deduce that if z_4 lies on the circular arc shown, then

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_4 - a}{z_4 - b}\right) = \pi - \alpha,$$

while if z_3 lies on the circular arc shown, then

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_3-a}{z_3-b}\right) = -\alpha.$$

The straight line through a and b has the equation

$$z = (1 - t)a + tb.$$

where t is real. Then 0 < t < 1 describes the segment ab. Also

$$\frac{z-a}{z-b} = \frac{t}{t-1}.$$

Hence $\frac{z-a}{z-b}$ is real and negative if z is on the segment a, but is real and positive if z is on the remaining part of the line, with corresponding values

$$Arg\left(\frac{z-a}{z-b}\right) = \pi, \ 0,$$

respectively.

(ii) Case (a) Suppose z_1 , z_2 and z_3 are not collinear. Then these points determine a circle. Now z_1 and z_2 partition this circle into two arcs. If z_3 and z_4 lie on the same arc, then

Arg
$$\left(\frac{z_3 - z_1}{z_3 - z_2}\right) = \text{Arg}\left(\frac{z_4 - z_1}{z_4 - z_2}\right);$$

whereas if z_3 and z_4 lie on opposite arcs, then

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_3 - z_1}{z_3 - z_2}\right) = \alpha$$

and

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_4 - z_1}{z_4 - z_2}\right) = \alpha - \pi.$$

Hence in both cases

$$\operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_3-z_1}{z_3-z_2}/\frac{z_4-z_1}{z_4-z_2}\right) \equiv \operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_3-z_1}{z_3-z_2}\right) - \operatorname{Arg}\left(\frac{z_4-z_1}{z_4-z_2}\right) \pmod{2\pi}$$
$$\equiv 0 \text{ or } \pi.$$

In other words, the cross-ratio

$$\frac{z_3 - z_1}{z_3 - z_2} / \frac{z_4 - z_1}{z_4 - z_2}$$

is real.

- (b) If z_1 , z_2 and z_3 are collinear, then again the cross–ratio is real. The argument is reversible.
 - (iii) Assume that A, B, C, D are distinct points such that the cross–ratio

$$r = \frac{z_3 - z_1}{z_3 - z_2} / \frac{z_4 - z_1}{z_4 - z_2}$$

is real. Now r cannot be 0 or 1. Then there are three cases:

- (i) 0 < r < 1;
- (ii) r < 0;

(iii) r > 1.

Case (i). Here |r| + |1 - r| = 1. So

$$\left| \frac{z_4 - z_1}{z_4 - z_2} \cdot \frac{z_3 - z_2}{z_3 - z_1} \right| + \left| 1 - \left(\frac{z_4 - z_1}{z_4 - z_2} \cdot \frac{z_3 - z_2}{z_3 - z_1} \right) \right| = 1.$$

Multiplying both sides by the denominator $|z_4 - z_2||z_3 - z_1|$ gives after simplification

$$|z_4 - z_1||z_3 - z_2| + |z_2 - z_1||z_4 - z_3| = |z_4 - z_2||z_3 - z_1|,$$

or

(a)
$$AD \cdot BC + AB \cdot CD = BD \cdot AC$$
.

Case (ii). Here 1 + |r| = |1 - r|. This leads to the equation

(b)
$$BD \cdot AC + AD \cdot BC + = AB \cdot CD$$
.

Case (iii). Here 1 + |1 - r| = |r|. This leads to the equation

(c)
$$BD \cdot AC + AB \cdot CD = AD \cdot BC$$
.

Conversely if (a), (b) or (c) hold, then we can reverse the argument to deduce that r is a complex number satisfying one of the equations

$$|r| + |1 - r| = 1$$
, $1 + |r| = |1 - r|$, $1 + |1 - r| = |r|$,

from which we deduce that r is real.

Section 6.3

1. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Then A has characteristic equation $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 = 0$ or $(\lambda - 3)(\lambda - 1) = 0$. Hence the eigenvalues of A are $\lambda_1 = 3$ and $\lambda_2 = 1$. $\lambda_1 = 3$. The corresponding eigenvectors satisfy $(A - \lambda_1 I_2)X = 0$, or

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array}\right],$$

or equivalently x - 3y = 0. Hence

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 3y \\ y \end{array}\right] = y \left[\begin{array}{c} 3 \\ 1 \end{array}\right]$$

and we take $X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Similarly for $\lambda_2 = 1$ we find the eigenvector $X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Hence if $P = [X_1|X_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, then P is non-singular and

$$P^{-1}AP = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

Hence

$$A = P \left[\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] P^{-1}$$

and consequently

$$A^{n} = P \begin{bmatrix} 3^{n} & 0 \\ 0 & 1^{n} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3^{n} & 0 \\ 0 & 1^{n} \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 3^{n+1} & 1 \\ 3^{n} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 3^{n+1} - 1 & -3^{n+1} + 3 \\ 3^{n} - 1 & -3^{n} + 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{3^{n} - 1}{2} A + \frac{3 - 3^{n}}{2} I_{2}.$$

2. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3/5 & 4/5 \\ 2/5 & 1/5 \end{bmatrix}$. Then we find that the eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_2 = -1/5$, with corresponding eigenvectors

$$X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then if $P = [X_1|X_2]$, P is non-singular and

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $A = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/5 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$.

Hence

$$A^{n} = P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & (-1/5)^{n} \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$\rightarrow P \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & 2/3 \\ 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

3. The given system of differential equations is equivalent to $\dot{X} = AX$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ 5 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$.

The matrix $P = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a non-singular matrix of eigenvectors corresponding to eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = -2$ and $\lambda_2 = 1$. Then

$$P^{-1}AP = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

The substitution X = PY, where $Y = [x_1, y_1]^t$, gives

$$\dot{Y} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] Y,$$

or equivalently $\dot{x_1} = -2x_1$ and $\dot{y_1} = y_1$.

Hence $x_1 = x_1(0)e^{-2t}$ and $y_1 = y_1(0)e^t$. To determine $x_1(0)$ and $y_1(0)$, we note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1(0) \\ y_1(0) \end{bmatrix} = P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ y(0) \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 13 \\ 22 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $x_1 = 3e^{-2t}$ and $y_1 = 7e^t$. Consequently

$$x = 2x_1 + y_1 = 6e^{-2t} + 7e^t$$
 and $y = 5x_1 + y_1 = 15e^{-2t} + 7e^t$.

4. Introducing the vector $X_n = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$, the system of recurrence relations

$$x_{n+1} = 3x_n - y_n$$

$$y_{n+1} = -x_n + 3y_n,$$

becomes $X_{n+1} = AX_n$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Hence $X_n = A^nX_0$, where $X_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

To find A^n we can use the eigenvalue method. We get

$$A^{n} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2^{n} + 4^{n} & 2^{n} - 4^{n} \\ 2^{n} - 4^{n} & 2^{n} + 4^{n} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$X_{n} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2^{n} + 4^{n} & 2^{n} - 4^{n} \\ 2^{n} - 4^{n} & 2^{n} + 4^{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2^{n} + 4^{n} + 2(2^{n} - 4^{n}) \\ 2^{n} - 4^{n} + 2(2^{n} + 4^{n}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \times 2^{n} - 4^{n} \\ 3 \times 2^{n} + 4^{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (3 \times 2^{n} - 4^{n})/2 \\ (3 \times 2^{n} + 4^{n})/2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $x_n = \frac{1}{2}(3 \times 2^n - 4^n)$ and $y_n = \frac{1}{2}(3 \times 2^n + 4^n)$.

5. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ be a real or complex matrix with distinct eigenvalues λ_1, λ_2 and corresponding eigenvectors X_1, X_2 . Also let $P = [X_1 | X_2]$.

(a) The system of recurrence relations

$$x_{n+1} = ax_n + by_n$$

$$y_{n+1} = cx_n + dy_n$$

has the solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = A^n \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix} = \left(P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} \right)^n \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n \end{bmatrix} P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [X_1|X_2] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [X_1|X_2] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n \alpha \\ \lambda_2^n \beta \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1^n \alpha X_1 + \lambda_2^n \beta X_2,$$

where

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array}\right] = P^{-1} \left[\begin{array}{c} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{array}\right].$$

(b) In matrix form, the system is $\dot{X} = AX$, where $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$. We substitute X = PY, where $Y = [x_1, y_1]^t$. Then

$$\dot{X} = P\dot{Y} = AX = A(PY),$$

SO

$$\dot{Y} = (P^{-1}AP)Y = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $\dot{x_1} = \lambda_1 x_1$ and $\dot{y_1} = \lambda_2 y_1$. Then

$$x_1 = x_1(0)e^{\lambda_1 t}$$
 and $y_1 = y_1(0)e^{\lambda_2 t}$.

But

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x(0) \\ y(0) \end{array}\right] = P \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1(0) \\ y_1(0) \end{array}\right],$$

SO

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x_1(0) \\ y_1(0) \end{array}\right] = P^{-1} \left[\begin{array}{c} x(0) \\ y(0) \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array}\right].$$

Consequently $x_1(0) = \alpha$ and $y_1(0) = \beta$ and

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = P \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} = [X_1 | X_2] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha e^{\lambda_1 t} \\ \beta e^{\lambda_2 t} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \alpha e^{\lambda_1 t} X_1 + \beta e^{\lambda_2 t} X_2.$$

- 6. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ be a real matrix with non-real eigenvalues $\lambda = a + ib$ and $\overline{\lambda} = a ib$, with corresponding eigenvectors X = U + iV and $\overline{X} = U iV$, where U and V are real vectors. Also let P be the real matrix defined by P = [U|V]. Finally let $a + ib = re^{i\theta}$, where r > 0 and θ is real.
- (a) As X is an eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue λ , we have $AX = \lambda X$ and hence

$$A(U+iV) = (a+ib)(U+iV)$$

$$AU+iAV = aU-bV+i(bU+aV).$$

Equating real and imaginary parts then gives

$$AU = aU - bV$$

$$AV = bU + aV.$$

(b)

$$AP = A[U|V] = [AU|AV] = [aU - bV|bU + aV] = [U|V] \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix} = P \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence, as P can be shown to be non–singular,

$$P^{-1}AP = \left[\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ -b & a \end{array} \right].$$

(The fact that P is non–singular is easily proved by showing the columns of P are linearly independent: Assume xU + yV = 0, where x and y are real. Then we find

$$(x+iy)(U-iV) + (x-iy)(U+iV) = 0.$$

Consequently x+iy=0 as U-iV and U+iV are eigenvectors corresponding to distinct eigenvalues a-ib and a+ib and are hence linearly independent. Hence x=0 and y=0.)

(c) The system of recurrence relations

$$x_{n+1} = ax_n + by_n$$
$$y_{n+1} = cx_n + dy_n$$

has solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = A^n \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= P \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}^n P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= P \begin{bmatrix} r \cos \theta & r \sin \theta \\ -r \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= Pr^n \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= r^n [U|V] \begin{bmatrix} \cos n\theta & \sin n\theta \\ -\sin n\theta & \cos n\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= r^n [U|V] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \cos n\theta + \beta \sin n\theta \\ -\alpha \sin n\theta + \beta \cos n\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= r^n \{ (\alpha \cos n\theta + \beta \sin n\theta)U + (-\alpha \sin n\theta + \beta \cos n\theta)V \}$$

$$= r^n \{ (\cos n\theta)(\alpha U + \beta V) + (\sin n\theta)(\beta U - \alpha V) \}.$$

(d) The system of differential equations

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = ax + by$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = cx + dy$$

is attacked using the substitution X = PY, where $Y = [x_1, y_1]^t$. Then

$$\dot{Y} = (P^{-1}AP)Y,$$

so

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \dot{x_1} \\ \dot{y_1} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ -b & a \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{array}\right].$$

Equating components gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\dot{x_1} &= ax_1 + by_1 \\
\dot{y_1} &= -bx_1 + ay_1.
\end{aligned}$$

Now let $z = x_1 + iy_1$. Then

$$\dot{z} = \dot{x_1} + i\dot{y_1} = (ax_1 + by_1) + i(-bx_1 + ay_1)
= (a - ib)(x_1 + iy_1) = (a - ib)z.$$

Hence

$$z = z(0)e^{(a-ib)t}$$

$$x_1 + iy_1 = (x_1(0) + iy_1(0))e^{at}(\cos bt - i\sin bt).$$

Equating real and imaginary parts gives

$$x_1 = e^{at} \{x_1(0)\cos bt + y_1(0)\sin bt\}$$

$$y_1 = e^{at} \{y_1(0)\cos bt - x_1(0)\sin bt\}.$$

Now if we define α and β by

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array}\right] = P^{-1} \left[\begin{array}{c} x(0) \\ y(0) \end{array}\right],$$

we see that $\alpha = x_1(0)$ and $\beta = y_1(0)$. Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = P \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [U|V] \begin{bmatrix} e^{at}(\alpha \cos bt + \beta \sin bt) \\ e^{at}(\beta \cos bt - \alpha \sin bt) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= e^{at} \{ (\alpha \cos bt + \beta \sin bt)U + (\beta \cos bt - \alpha \sin bt)V \}$$

$$= e^{at} \{ \cos bt(\alpha U + \beta V) + \sin bt(\beta U - \alpha V) \}.$$

7. (The case of repeated eigenvalues.) Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and suppose that the characteristic polynomial of A, $\lambda^2 - (a+d)\lambda + (ad-bc)$, has a repeated root α . Also assume that $A \neq \alpha I_2$.

(i)

$$\lambda^{2} - (a+d)\lambda + (ad - bc) = (\lambda - \alpha)^{2}$$
$$= \lambda^{2} - 2\alpha\lambda + \alpha^{2}.$$

Hence $a + d = 2\alpha$ and $ad - bc = \alpha^2$ and

$$(a+d)^{2} = 4(ad-bc),$$

$$a^{2} + 2ad + d^{2} = 4ad - 4bc,$$

$$a^{2} - 2ad + d^{2} + 4bc = 0,$$

$$(a-d)^{2} + 4bc = 0.$$

(ii) Let $B - A - \alpha I_2$. Then

$$B^{2} = (A - \alpha I_{2})^{2} = A^{2} - 2\alpha A + \alpha^{2} I_{2}$$
$$= A^{2} - (a+d)A + (ad-bc)I_{2},$$

But by problem 3, chapter 2.4, $A^2 - (a + d)A + (ad - bc)I_2 = 0$, so $B^2 = 0$.

- (iii) Now suppose that $B \neq 0$. Then $BE_1 \neq 0$ or $BE_2 \neq 0$, as BE_i is the *i*-th column of B. Hence $BX_2 \neq 0$, where $X_2 = E_1$ or $X_2 = E_2$.
- (iv) Let $X_1 = BX_2$ and $P = [X_1|X_2]$. We prove P is non-singular by demonstrating that X_1 and X_2 are linearly independent.

Assume $xX_1 + yX_2 = 0$. Then

$$xBX_{2} + yX_{2} = 0$$

$$B(xBX_{2} + yX_{2}) = B0 = 0$$

$$xB^{2}X_{2} + yBX_{2} = 0$$

$$x0X_{2} + yBX_{2} = 0$$

$$yBX_{2} = 0.$$

Hence y = 0 as $BX_2 \neq 0$. Hence $xBX_2 = 0$ and so x = 0.

Finally, $BX_1 = B(BX_2) = B^2X_2 = 0$, so $(A - \alpha I_2)X_1 = 0$ and

$$AX_1 = \alpha X_1. \tag{2}$$

Also

$$X_1 = BX_2 = (A - \alpha I_2)X_2 = AX_2 - \alpha X_2.$$

Hence

$$AX_2 = X_1 + \alpha X_2. \tag{3}$$

Then, using (2) and (3), we have

$$AP = A[X_1|X_2] = [AX_1|AX_2]$$

$$= [\alpha X_1|X_1 + \alpha X_2]$$

$$= [X_1|X_2] \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 1 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$AP = P \left[\begin{array}{cc} \alpha & 1 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{array} \right]$$

and hence

$$P^{-1}AP = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \alpha & 1 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{array} \right].$$

8. The system of differential equations is equivalent to the single matrix equation $\dot{X} = AX$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$.

The characteristic polynomial of A is $\lambda^2 - 12\lambda + 36 = (\lambda - 6)^2$, so we can use the previous question with $\alpha = 6$. Let

$$B = A - 6I_2 = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -2 & -1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{array} \right].$$

Then $BX_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, if $X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Also let $X_1 = BX_2$. Then if $P = [X_1 | X_2]$, we have

$$P^{-1}AP = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 6 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 \end{array} \right].$$

Now make the change of variables X = PY, where $Y = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then

$$\dot{Y} = (P^{-1}AP)Y = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1\\ 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} Y,$$

or equivalently $\dot{x_1} = 6x_1 + y_1$ and $\dot{y_1} = 6y_1$. Solving for y_1 gives $y_1 = y_1(0)e^{6t}$. Consequently

$$\dot{x_1} = 6x_1 + y_1(0)e^{6t}.$$

Multiplying both side of this equation by e^{-6t} gives

$$\frac{d}{dt}(e^{-6t}x_1) = e^{-6t}\dot{x}_1 - 6e^{-6t}x_1 = y_1(0)$$
$$e^{-6t}x_1 = y_1(0)t + c,$$

where c is a constant. Substituting t = 0 gives $c = x_1(0)$. Hence

$$e^{-6t}x_1 = y_1(0)t + x_1(0)$$

and hence

$$x_1 = e^{6t}(y_1(0)t + x_1(0)).$$

However, since we are assuming x(0) = 1 = y(0), we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1(0) \\ y_1(0) \end{bmatrix} = P^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x(0) \\ y(0) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{-4} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{-4} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/4 \\ 3/2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $x_1 = e^{6t}(\frac{3}{2}t + \frac{1}{4})$ and $y_1 = \frac{3}{2}e^{6t}$. Finally, solving for x and y,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{6t}(\frac{3}{2}t + \frac{1}{4}) \\ \frac{3}{2}e^{6t} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (-2)e^{6t}(\frac{3}{2}t + \frac{1}{4}) + \frac{3}{2}e^{6t} \\ 4e^{6t}(\frac{3}{2}t + \frac{1}{4}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^{6t}(1 - 3t) \\ e^{6t}(6t + 1) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $x = e^{6t}(1 - 3t)$ and $y = e^{6t}(6t + 1)$.

9. Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/2 \end{array} \right].$$

(a) We first determine the characteristic polynomial $\operatorname{ch}_A(\lambda)$.

(b) Hence the characteristic polynomial has no repeated roots and we can use Theorem 6.2.2 to find a non–singular matrix P such that

$$P^{-1}AP = \text{diag}(1, 0, \frac{1}{4}).$$

We take $P = [X_1|X_2|X_3]$, where X_1, X_2, X_3 are eigenvectors corresponding to the respective eigenvalues 1, 0, $\frac{1}{4}$.

Finding X_1 : We have to solve $(A - I_3)X = 0$. we have

$$A - I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/4 & -3/4 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the eigenspace consists of vectors $X = [x, y, z]^t$ satisfying x = z and

y=z, with z arbitrary. Hence

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} z \\ z \\ z \end{bmatrix} = z \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and we can take $X_1 = [1, 1, 1]^t$.

Finding X_2 : We solve AX = 0. We have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the eigenspace consists of vectors $X = [x, y, z]^t$ satisfying x = -y and z = 0, with y arbitrary. Hence

$$X = \left[\begin{array}{c} -y \\ y \\ 0 \end{array} \right] = y \left[\begin{array}{c} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right]$$

and we can take $X_2 = [-1, 1, 0]^t$. Finding X_3 : We solve $(A - \frac{1}{4}I_3)X = 0$. We have

$$A - \frac{1}{4}I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/4 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the eigenspace consists of vectors $X = [x, y, z]^t$ satisfying x = -2zand y = z, with z arbitrary. Hence

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

and we can take $X_3 = [-2, 1, 1]^t$. Hence we can take $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

(c) $A = P \operatorname{diag}(1, 0, \frac{1}{4}) P^{-1}$ so $A^n = P \operatorname{diag}(1, 0, \frac{1}{4^n}) P^{-1}$.

Hence

$$A^{n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{4^{n}} \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\frac{2}{4^{n}} \\ 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{4^{n}} \\ 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{4^{n}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{2}{4^{n}} & 1 + \frac{2}{4^{n}} & 1 - \frac{4}{4^{n}} \\ 1 - \frac{1}{4^{n}} & 1 - \frac{1}{4^{n}} & 1 + \frac{2}{4^{n}} \\ 1 - \frac{1}{4^{n}} & 1 - \frac{1}{4^{n}} & 1 + \frac{2}{4^{n}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4^{n}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -4 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

10. Let

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrr} 5 & 2 & -2 \\ 2 & 5 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 5 \end{array} \right].$$

(a) We first determine the characteristic polynomial $\operatorname{ch}_A(\lambda)$.

$$\operatorname{ch}_{A}(\lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 5 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & \lambda - 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & \lambda - 5 \end{vmatrix} R_{3} \to R_{3} + R_{2} \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 5 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & \lambda - 5 & 2 \\ 0 & \lambda - 3 & \lambda - 3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (\lambda - 3) \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 5 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & \lambda - 5 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$C_{3} \to C_{3} - C_{2} = (\lambda - 3) \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 5 & -2 & 4 \\ -2 & \lambda - 5 & -\lambda + 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -(\lambda - 3) \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 5 & 4 \\ -2 & -\lambda + 7 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -(\lambda - 3) \{(\lambda - 5)(-\lambda + 7) + 8\}$$

$$= -(\lambda - 3)(-\lambda^{2} + 5\lambda + 7\lambda - 35 + 8)$$

$$= -(\lambda - 3)(-\lambda^{2} + 12\lambda - 27)$$

$$= -(\lambda - 3)(-1)(\lambda - 3)(\lambda - 9)$$

= $(\lambda - 3)^2(\lambda - 9)$.

We have to find bases for each of the eigenspaces $N(A-9I_3)$ and $N(A-3I_3)$. First we solve $(A-3I_3)X=0$. We have

$$A - 3I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -2 \\ 2 & 2 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the eigenspace consists of vectors $X = [x, y, z]^t$ satisfying x = -y + z, with y and z arbitrary. Hence

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -y + z \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = y \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

so $X_1 = [-1, 1, 0]^t$ and $X_2 = [1, 0, 1]^t$ form a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue 3.

Next we solve $(A - 9I_3)X = 0$. We have

$$A - 9I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 & -2 \\ 2 & -4 & -2 \\ -2 & -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence the eigenspace consists of vectors $X = [x, y, z]^t$ satisfying x = -z and y = -z, with z arbitrary. Hence

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -z \\ -z \\ z \end{bmatrix} = z \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and we can take $X_3 = [-1, -1, 1]^t$ as a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue 9.

Then Theorem 6.2.3 assures us that $P = [X_1|X_2|X_3]$ is non–singular and

$$P^{-1}AP = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{array} \right].$$

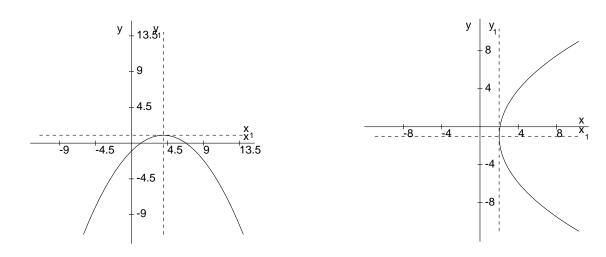


Figure 1: (a): $x^2 - 8x + 8y + 8 = 0$; (b): $y^2 - 12x + 2y + 25 = 0$

Section 7.3

1. (i) $x^2 - 8x + 8y + 8 = (x-4)^2 + 8(y-1)$. So the equation $x^2 - 8x + 8y + 8 = 0$ becomes

$$x_1^2 + 8y_1 = 0 (1)$$

if we make a translation of axes $x - 4 = x_1$, $y - 1 = y_1$.

However equation (1) can be written as a standard form

$$y_1 = -\frac{1}{8}x_1^2,$$

which represents a parabola with vertex at (4, 1). (See Figure 1(a).)

(ii) $y^2 - 12x + 2y + 25 = (y+1)^2 - 12(x-2)$. Hence $y^2 - 12x + 2y + 25 = 0$ becomes

$$y_1^2 - 12x_1 = 0 (2)$$

if we make a translation of axes $x - 2 = x_1$, $y + 1 = y_1$.

However equation (2) can be written as a standard form

$$y_1^2 = 12x_1,$$

which represents a parabola with vertex at (2, -1). (See Figure 1(b).)

2. $4xy - 3y^2 = X^t A X$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$. The eigenvalues of A are the roots of $\lambda^2 + 3\lambda - 4 = 0$, namely $\lambda_1 = -4$ and $\lambda_2 = 1$.

The eigenvectors corresponding to an eigenvalue λ are the non–zero vectors $[x, y]^t$ satisfying

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & -3 - \lambda \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array}\right].$$

 $\lambda_1 = -4$ gives equations

$$4x + 2y = 0$$
$$2x + y = 0$$

which has the solution y = -2x. Hence

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ -2x \end{array}\right] = x \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ -2 \end{array}\right].$$

A corresponding unit eigenvector is $[1/\sqrt{5}, -2/\sqrt{5}]^t$.

 $\lambda_2 = 1$ gives equations

$$-x + 2y = 0$$
$$2x - 4y = 0$$

which has the solution x = 2y. Hence

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2y \\ y \end{array}\right] = y \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 1 \end{array}\right].$$

A corresponding unit eigenvector is $[2/\sqrt{5}, 1/\sqrt{5}]^t$.

Hence if

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \end{bmatrix},$$

then P is an orthogonal matrix. Also as $\det P = 1$, P is a proper orthogonal matrix and the equation

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = P \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{array}\right]$$

represents a rotation to new x_1 , y_1 axes whose positive directions are given by the respective columns of P. Also

$$P^t A P = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

Then $X^tAX=-4x_1^2+y_1^2$ and the original equation $4xy-3y^2=8$ becomes $-4x_1^2+y_1^2=8$, or the standard form

$$\frac{-x_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1^2}{8} = 1,$$

which represents an hyperbola.

The asymptotes assist in drawing the curve. They are given by the equations

$$\frac{-x_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1^2}{8} = 0, \quad \text{or} \quad y_1 = \pm 2x_1.$$

Now

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} = P^t \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix},$$

SO

$$x_1 = \frac{x - 2y}{\sqrt{5}}, \quad y_1 = \frac{2x + y}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

Hence the asymptotes are

$$\frac{2x+y}{\sqrt{5}} = \pm 2\left(\frac{x-2y}{\sqrt{5}}\right),$$

which reduces to y = 0 and y = 4x/3. (See Figure 2(a).)

3. $8x^2 - 4xy + 5y^2 = X^tAX$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -2 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ and $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$. The eigenvalues of A are the roots of $\lambda^2 - 13\lambda + 36 = 0$, namely $\lambda_1 = 4$ and $\lambda_2 = 9$. Corresponding unit eigenvectors turn out to be $[1/\sqrt{5}, 2/\sqrt{5}]^t$ and $[-2/\sqrt{5}, 1/\sqrt{5}]^t$. Hence if

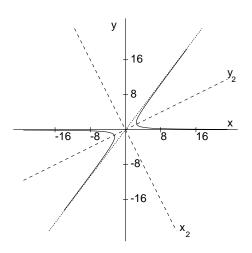
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \end{bmatrix},$$

then P is an orthogonal matrix. Also as $\det P = 1$, P is a proper orthogonal matrix and the equation

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = P \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{array}\right]$$

represents a rotation to new x_1 , y_1 axes whose positive directions are given by the respective columns of P. Also

$$P^t A P = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 \end{array} \right].$$



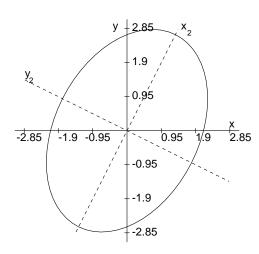


Figure 2: (a): $4xy - 3y^2 = 8$; (b): $8x^2 - 4xy + 5y^2 = 36$

Then $X^tAX = 4x_1^2 + 9y_1^2$ and the original equation $8x^2 - 4xy + 5y^2 = 36$ becomes $4x_1^2 + 9y_1^2 = 36$, or the standard form

$$\frac{x_1^2}{9} + \frac{y_1^2}{4} = 1,$$

which represents an ellipse as in Figure 2(b).

The axes of symmetry turn out to be y = 2x and x = -2y.

4. We give the sketch only for parts (i), (iii) and (iv). We give the working for (ii) only. See Figures 3(a) and 4(b), respectively.

(ii) We have to investigate the equation

$$5x^2 - 4xy + 8y^2 + 4\sqrt{5}x - 16\sqrt{5}y + 4 = 0.$$
 (3)

Here $5x^2 - 4xy + 8y^2 = X^t A X$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ and $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$.

The eigenvalues of A are the roots of $\lambda^2 - 13\lambda + 36 = 0$, namely $\lambda_1 = 9$ and $\lambda_2 = 4$. Corresponding unit eigenvectors turn out to be $[1/\sqrt{5}, -2/\sqrt{5}]^t$ and $[2/\sqrt{5}, 1/\sqrt{5}]^t$. Hence if

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \end{bmatrix},$$

then P is an orthogonal matrix. Also as $\det P = 1$, P is a proper orthogonal matrix and the equation

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = P \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{array}\right]$$

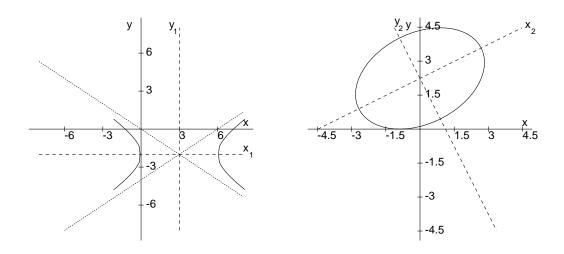


Figure 3: (a): $4x^2 - 9y^2 - 24x - 36y - 36 = 0$; (b): $5x^2 - 4xy + 8y^2 + \sqrt{5}x - 16\sqrt{5}y + 4 = 0$

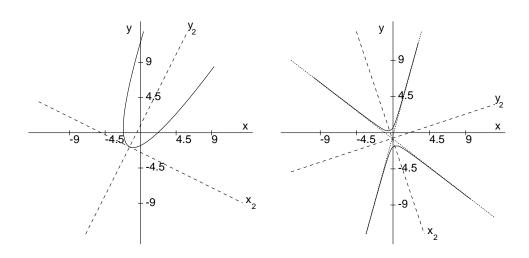


Figure 4: (a):
$$4x^2 + y^2 - 4xy - 10y - 19 = 0$$
; (b): $77x^2 + 78xy - 27y^2 + 70x - 30y + 29 = 0$

represents a rotation to new x_1 , y_1 axes whose positive directions are given by the respective columns of P. Also

$$P^t A P = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{array} \right].$$

Moreover

$$5x^2 - 4xy + 8y^2 = 9x_1^2 + 4y_1^2.$$

To get the coefficients of x_1 and y_1 in the transformed form of equation (3), we have to use the rotation equations

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(x_1 + 2y_1), \quad y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(-2x_1 + y_1).$$

Then equation (3) transforms to

$$9x_1^2 + 4y_1^2 + 36x_1 - 8y_1 + 4 = 0$$

or, on completing the square,

$$9(x_1+2)^2 + 4(y_1-1)^2 = 36,$$

or in standard form

$$\frac{x_2^2}{4} + \frac{y_2^2}{9} = 1,$$

where $x_2 = x_1 + 2$ and $y_2 = y_1 - 1$. Thus we have an ellipse, centre $(x_2, y_2) = (0, 0)$, or $(x_1, y_1) = (-2, 1)$, or $(x, y) = (0, \sqrt{5})$.

The axes of symmetry are given by $x_2 = 0$ and $y_2 = 0$, or $x_1 + 2 = 0$ and $y_1 - 1 = 0$, or

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(x-2y)+2=0$$
 and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(2x+y)-1=0$,

which reduce to $x - 2y + 2\sqrt{5} = 0$ and $2x + y - \sqrt{5} = 0$. See Figure 3(b).

5. (i) Consider the equation

$$2x^2 + y^2 + 3xy - 5x - 4y + 3 = 0. (4)$$

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3/2 & -5/2 \\ 3/2 & 1 & -2 \\ -5/2 & -2 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 8 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 & -5 \\ 3 & 2 & -4 \\ -5 & -4 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = 8 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & -4 \\ -2 & -2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Let $x = x_1 + \alpha$, $y = y_1 + \beta$ and substitute in equation (4) to get

$$2(x_1+\alpha)^2 + (y_1+\beta)^2 + 3(x_1+\alpha)(y_1+\beta) - 5(x_1+\alpha) - 4(y_1+\beta) + 3 = 0$$
 (5).

Then equating the coefficients of x_1 and y_1 to 0 gives

$$4\alpha + 3\beta - 5 = 0$$

$$3\alpha + 2\beta - 4 = 0,$$

which has the unique solution $\alpha = 2$, $\beta = -1$. Then equation (5) simplifies to

$$2x_1^2 + y_1^2 + 3x_1y_1 = 0 = (2x_1 + y_1)(x_1 + y_1).$$

So relative to the x_1 , y_1 coordinates, equation (4) describes two lines: $2x_1 + y_1 = 0$ and $x_1 + y_1 = 0$. In terms of the original x, y coordinates, these lines become 2(x-2) + (y+1) = 0 and (x-2) + (y+1) = 0, i.e. 2x + y - 3 = 0 and x + y - 1 = 0, which intersect in the point

$$(x, y) = (\alpha, \beta) = (2, -1).$$

(ii) Consider the equation

$$9x^2 + y^2 - 6xy + 6x - 2y + 1 = 0. (6)$$

Here

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 9 & -3 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

as $\operatorname{column} 3 = -\operatorname{column} 2$.

Let $x = x_1 + \alpha$, $y = y_1 + \beta$ and substitute in equation (6) to get

$$9(x_1 + \alpha)^2 + (y_1 + \beta)^2 - 6(x_1 + \alpha)(y_1 + \beta) + 6(x_1 + \alpha) - 2(y_1 + \beta) + 1 = 0.$$

Then equating the coefficients of x_1 and y_1 to 0 gives

$$18\alpha - 6\beta + 6 = 0$$
$$-6\alpha + 2\beta - 2 = 0.$$

or equivalently $-3\alpha + \beta - 1 = 0$. Take $\alpha = 0$ and $\beta = 1$. Then equation (6) simplifies to

$$9x_1^2 + y_1^2 - 6x_1y_1 = 0 = (3x_1 - y_1)^2. (7)$$

In terms of x, y coordinates, equation (7) becomes

$$(3x - (y - 1))^2 = 0$$
, or $3x - y + 1 = 0$.

(iii) Consider the equation

$$x^{2} + 4xy + 4y^{2} - x - 2y - 2 = 0.$$
 (8)

Arguing as in the previous examples, we find that any translation

$$x = x_1 + \alpha$$
, $y = y_1 + \beta$

where $2\alpha + 4\beta - 1 = 0$ has the property that the coefficients of x_1 and y_1 will be zero in the transformed version of equation (8). Take $\beta = 0$ and $\alpha = 1/2$. Then (8) reduces to

$$x_1^2 + 4x_1y_1 + 4y_1^2 - \frac{9}{4} = 0,$$

or $(x_1 + 2y_1)^2 = 3/2$. Hence $x_1 + 2y_1 = \pm 3/2$, with corresponding equations

$$x + 2y = 2$$
 and $x + 2y = -1$.

Section 8.8

1. The given line has equations

$$x = 3 + t(13 - 3) = 3 + 10t,$$

 $y = -2 + t(3 + 2) = -2 + 5t,$
 $z = 7 + t(-8 - 7) = 7 - 15t.$

The line meets the plane y = 0 in the point (x, 0, z), where 0 = -2 + 5t, or t = 2/5. The corresponding values for x and z are 7 and 1, respectively.

2.
$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}), \mathbf{F} = (1 - t)\mathbf{A} + t\mathbf{E}, \text{ where}$$

$$t = \frac{AF}{AE} = \frac{AF}{AF + FE} = \frac{AF/FE}{(AF/FE) + 1} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{A} + \frac{2}{3}\left(\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{3}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C})$$
$$= \frac{1}{3}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}).$$

3. Let $A=(2,1,4),\ B=(1,-1,2),\ C=(3,3,6).$ Then we prove $\overrightarrow{AC}=t\ \overrightarrow{AB}$ for some real t. We have

$$\overrightarrow{AC} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \overrightarrow{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $\overrightarrow{AC} = (-1)$ \overrightarrow{AB} and consequently C is on the line AB. In fact A is between C and B, with AC = AB.

4. The points P on the line AB which satisfy $AP = \frac{2}{5}PB$ are given by

$${\bf P} = {\bf A} + t \; \overrightarrow{AB}$$
, where $|t/(1-t)| = 2/5$. Hence $t/(1-t) = \pm 2/5$.

The equation t/(1-t)=2/5 gives t=2/7 and hence

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\3\\-1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{2}{7} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\4\\5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 16/7\\29/7\\3/7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence P = (16/7, 29/7, 3/7).

The equation t/(1-t) = -2/5 gives t = -2/3 and hence

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\3\\-1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{2}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\4\\5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4/3\\1/3\\-13/3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence P = (4/3, 1/3, -13/3).

5. An equation for \mathcal{M} is $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + t \; \overrightarrow{BC}$, which reduces to

$$x = 1 + 6t$$

$$y = 2 - 3t$$

$$z = 3 + 7t$$

An equation for \mathcal{N} is $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{E} + s \ \overrightarrow{EF}$, which reduces to

$$x = 1 + 9s$$

$$y = -1$$

$$z = 8 + 3s.$$

To find if and where \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} intersect, we set P=Q and attempt to solve for s and t. We find the unique solution $t=1,\ s=2/3$, proving that the lines meet in the point

$$(x, y, z) = (1+6, 2-3, 3+7) = (7, -1, 10).$$

6. Let A = (3, 5, 6), B = (-2, 7, 9), C = (2, 1, 7). Then (i)

$$\cos \angle ABC = (\overrightarrow{BA} \cdot \overrightarrow{BC})/(BA \cdot BC),$$

where $\overrightarrow{BA} = [-1, -2, -3]^t$ and $\overrightarrow{BC} = [4, -6, -2]^t$. Hence

$$\cos \angle ABC = \frac{-4 + 12 + 6}{\sqrt{14}\sqrt{56}} = \frac{14}{\sqrt{14}\sqrt{56}} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Hence $\angle ABC = \pi/3$ radians or 60° .

(ii)

$$\cos \angle BAC = (\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \overrightarrow{AC})/(AB \cdot AC),$$

where $\overrightarrow{AB} = [1, 2, 3]^t$ and $\overrightarrow{AC} = [5, -4, 1]^t$. Hence

$$\cos \angle BAC = \frac{5 - 8 + 3}{\sqrt{14}\sqrt{42}} = 0.$$

Hence $\angle ABC = \pi/2$ radians or 90°.

(iii)

$$\cos \angle ACB = (\overrightarrow{CA} \cdot \overrightarrow{CB})/(CA \cdot CB),$$

where $\overrightarrow{CA} = [-5, 4, -1]^t$ and $\overrightarrow{CB} = [-4, 6, 2]^t$. Hence

$$\cos \angle ACB = \frac{20 + 24 - 2}{\sqrt{42}\sqrt{56}} = \frac{42}{\sqrt{42}\sqrt{56}} = \frac{\sqrt{42}}{\sqrt{56}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

Hence $\angle ACB = \pi/6$ radians or 30°.

7. By Theorem 8.5.2, the closest point P on the line AB to the origin O is given by $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + t \ \overrightarrow{AB}$, where

$$t = \frac{\overrightarrow{AO} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB}}{AB^2} = \frac{-\mathbf{A} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB}}{AB^2}.$$

Now

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = -2.$$

Hence t = 2/11 and

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} -2\\1\\3 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{2}{11} \begin{bmatrix} 3\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -16/11\\13/11\\35/11 \end{bmatrix}$$

and P = (-16/11, 13/11, 35/11).

Consequently the shortest distance OP is given by

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{-16}{11}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{13}{11}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{35}{11}\right)^2} = \frac{\sqrt{1650}}{11} = \frac{\sqrt{15} \times 11 \times 10}{11} = \frac{\sqrt{150}}{\sqrt{11}}.$$

Alternatively, we can calculate the distance OP^2 , where P is an arbitrary point on the line AB and then minimize OP^2 :

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + t \overrightarrow{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 + 3t \\ 1 + t \\ 3 + t \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$OP^{2} = (-2+3t)^{2} + (1+t)^{2} + (3+t)^{2}$$

$$= 11t^{2} - 4t + 14$$

$$= 11\left(t^{2} - \frac{4}{11}t + \frac{14}{11}\right)$$

$$= 11\left(\left\{t - \frac{2}{11}\right\}^{2} + \frac{14}{11} - \frac{4}{121}\right)$$

$$= 11\left(\left\{t - \frac{2}{11}\right\}^{2} + \frac{150}{121}\right).$$

Consequently

$$OP^2 \ge 11 \times \frac{150}{121}$$

for all t; moreover

$$OP^2 = 11 \times \frac{150}{121}$$

when t = 2/11.

8. We first find parametric equations for \mathcal{N} by solving the equations

$$x + y - 2z = 1$$
$$x + 3y - z = 4.$$

The augmented matrix is

$$\left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & -1 & 4 \end{array}\right],$$

which reduces to

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & -5/2 & -1/2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1/2 & 3/2 \end{array}\right].$$

Hence $x = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{5}{2}z$, $y = \frac{3}{2} - \frac{z}{2}$, with z arbitrary. Taking z = 0 gives a point $A = (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, 0)$, while z = 1 gives a point B = (2, 1, 1).

Hence if C = (1, 0, 1), then the closest point on \mathcal{N} to C is given by $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + t \overrightarrow{AB}$, where $t = (\overrightarrow{AC} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB})/AB^2$.

Now

$$\overrightarrow{AC} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/2 \\ -3/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\overrightarrow{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} 5/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$,

SO

$$t = \frac{\frac{3}{2} \times \frac{5}{2} + \frac{-3}{2} \times \frac{-1}{2} + 1 \times 1}{\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{-1}{2}\right)^2 + 1^2} = \frac{11}{15}.$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ 3/2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{11}{15} \begin{bmatrix} 5/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4/3 \\ 17/15 \\ 11/15 \end{bmatrix},$$

so P = (4/3, 17/15, 11/15).

Also the shortest distance PC is given by

$$PC = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\right)^2 + \left(0 - \frac{17}{15}\right)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{11}{15}\right)^2} = \frac{\sqrt{330}}{15}.$$

9. The intersection of the planes x + y - 2z = 4 and 3x - 2y + z = 1 is the line given by the equations

$$x = \frac{9}{5} + \frac{3}{5}z, \ y = \frac{11}{5} + \frac{7}{5}z,$$

where z is arbitrary. Hence the line \mathcal{L} has a direction vector $[3/5, 7/5, 1]^t$ or the simpler $[3, 7, 5]^t$. Then any plane of the form 3x + 7y + 5z = d will be perpendicualr to \mathcal{L} . The required plane has to pass through the point (6, 0, 2), so this determines d:

$$3 \times 6 + 7 \times 0 + 5 \times 2 = d = 28.$$

10. The length of the projection of the segment AB onto the line CD is given by the formula

$$\frac{\mid \overrightarrow{CD} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB} \mid}{CD}$$
.

Here $\overrightarrow{CD} = [-8, 4, -1]^t$ and $\overrightarrow{AB} = [4, -4, 3]^t$, so

$$\frac{|\overrightarrow{CD} \cdot \overrightarrow{AB}|}{CD} = \frac{|(-8) \times 4 + 4 \times (-4) + (-1) \times 3|}{\sqrt{(-8)^2 + 4^2 + (-1)^2}}$$
$$= \frac{|-51|}{\sqrt{81}} = \frac{51}{9} = \frac{17}{3}.$$

11. A direction vector for \mathcal{L} is given by $\overline{BC} = [-5, -2, 3]^t$. Hence the plane through A perpendicular to \mathcal{L} is given by

$$-5x - 2y + 3z = (-5) \times 3 + (-2) \times (-1) + 3 \times 2 = -7.$$

The position vector \mathbf{P} of an arbitrary point P on \mathcal{L} is given by $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{B} + t \; \overrightarrow{BC}$, or

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix},$$

or equivalently x = 2 - 5t, y = 1 - 2t, z = 4 + 3t.

To find the intersection of line \mathcal{L} and the given plane, we substitute the expressions for x, y, z found in terms of t into the plane equation and solve the resulting linear equation for t:

$$-5(2-5t) - 2(1-2t) + 3(4+3t) = -7,$$

which gives t = -7/38. Hence $P = (\frac{111}{38}, \frac{52}{38}, \frac{131}{38})$ and

$$AP = \sqrt{\left(3 - \frac{111}{38}\right)^2 + \left(-1 - \frac{52}{38}\right)^2 + \left(2 - \frac{131}{38}\right)^2}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{11134}}{38} = \frac{\sqrt{293 \times 38}}{38} = \frac{\sqrt{293}}{\sqrt{38}}.$$

12. Let P be a point inside the triangle ABC. Then the line through P and parallel to AC will meet the segments AB and BC in D and E, respectively. Then

$$\mathbf{P} = (1-r)\mathbf{D} + r\mathbf{E}, \quad 0 < r < 1;$$

 $\mathbf{D} = (1-s)\mathbf{B} + s\mathbf{A}, \quad 0 < s < 1;$
 $\mathbf{E} = (1-t)\mathbf{B} + t\mathbf{C}, \quad 0 < t < 1.$

Hence

$$\mathbf{P} = (1 - r) \{ (1 - s)\mathbf{B} + s\mathbf{A} \} + r \{ (1 - t)\mathbf{B} + t\mathbf{C} \}
= (1 - r)s\mathbf{A} + \{ (1 - r)(1 - s) + r(1 - t) \} \mathbf{B} + rt\mathbf{C}
= \alpha \mathbf{A} + \beta \mathbf{B} + \gamma \mathbf{C},$$

where

$$\alpha = (1 - r)s$$
, $\beta = (1 - r)(1 - s) + r(1 - t)$, $\gamma = rt$.

Then $0 < \alpha < 1, \ 0 < \gamma < 1, \ 0 < \beta < (1 - r) + r = 1$. Also

$$\alpha + \beta + \gamma = (1 - r)s + (1 - r)(1 - s) + r(1 - t) + rt = 1.$$

13. The line AB is given by $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + t[3, 4, 5]^t$, or

$$x = 6 + 3t$$
, $y = -1 + 4t$, $z = 11 + 5t$.

Then B is found by substituting these expressions in the plane equation

$$3x + 4y + 5z = 10.$$

We find t = -59/50 and consequently

$$B = \left(6 - \frac{177}{50}, -1 - \frac{236}{50}, 11 - \frac{295}{50}\right) = \left(\frac{123}{50}, \frac{-286}{50}, \frac{255}{50}\right).$$

Then

$$AB = || \overrightarrow{AB} || = ||t \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} ||$$
$$= |t|\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2} = \frac{59}{50} \times \sqrt{50} = \frac{59}{\sqrt{50}}.$$

14. Let A = (-3, 0, 2), B = (6, 1, 4), C = (-5, 1, 0). Then the area of triangle ABC is $\frac{1}{2}||\overrightarrow{AB} \times \overrightarrow{AC}||$. Now

$$\overrightarrow{AB} \times \overrightarrow{AC} = \begin{bmatrix} 9\\1\\2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} -2\\1\\-2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4\\14\\11 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $||\overrightarrow{AB} \times \overrightarrow{AC}|| = \sqrt{333}$.

15. Let $A_1=(2,\,1,\,4),\ A_2=(1,\,-1,\,2),\ A_3=(4,\,-1,\,1).$ Then the point $P=(x,\,y,\,z)$ lies on the plane $A_1A_2A_3$ if and only if

$$\overrightarrow{A_1P} \cdot (\overrightarrow{A_1A_2} \times \overrightarrow{A_1A_3}) = 0,$$

or

$$\begin{vmatrix} x-2 & y-1 & z-4 \\ -1 & -2 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = 2x - 7y + 6z - 21 = 0.$$

16. Non-parallel lines \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{M} in three dimensional space are given by equations

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + sX, \quad \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{B} + tY.$$

(i) Suppose \overrightarrow{PQ} is orthogonal to both X and Y. Now

$$\overrightarrow{PQ} = \mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{B} + tY) - (\mathbf{A} + sX) = \overrightarrow{AB} + tY - sX.$$

Hence

$$(\overrightarrow{AB} + tY + sX) \cdot X = 0$$
$$(\overrightarrow{AB} + tY + sX) \cdot Y = 0.$$

More explicitly

$$t(Y \cdot X) - s(X \cdot X) = -\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot X$$

$$t(Y \cdot Y) - s(X \cdot Y) = -\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot Y.$$

However the coefficient determinant of this system of linear equations in t and s is equal to

$$\begin{vmatrix} Y \cdot X & -X \cdot X \\ Y \cdot Y & -X \cdot Y \end{vmatrix} = -(X \cdot Y)^2 + (X \cdot X)(Y \cdot Y)$$
$$= ||X \times Y||^2 \neq 0,$$

as $X \neq 0$, $Y \neq 0$ and X and Y are not proportional (\mathcal{L} and \mathcal{M} are not parallel).

(ii) P and Q can be viewed as the projections of C and D onto the line PQ, where C and D are arbitrary points on the lines \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{M} , respectively. Hence by equation (8.14) of Theorem 8.5.3, we have

$$PQ \leq CD$$
.

Finally we derive a useful formula for PQ. Again by Theorem 8.5.3

$$PQ = \frac{|\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \overrightarrow{PQ}|}{PQ} = |\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \hat{n}|,$$

where $\hat{n} = \frac{1}{PQ} \overrightarrow{PQ}$ is a unit vector which is orthogonal to X and Y. Hence

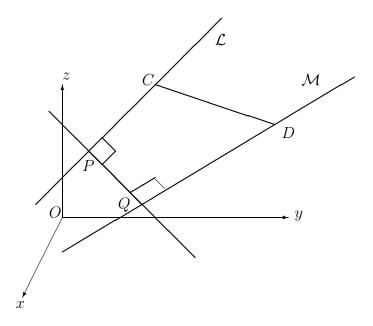
$$\hat{n} = t(X \times Y),$$

where $t = \pm 1/||X \times Y||$. Hence

$$PQ = \frac{|\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot (X \times Y)|}{||X \times Y||}.$$

17. We use the formula of the previous question. Line \mathcal{L} has the equation $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A} + sX$, where

$$X = \overrightarrow{AC} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$



Line \mathcal{M} has the equation $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{B} + tY$, where

$$Y = \overrightarrow{BD} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence $X \times Y = [-6, 1, 5]^t$ and $||X \times Y|| = \sqrt{62}$.

Hence the shortest distance between lines AC and BD is equal to

$$\frac{|\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot (X \times Y)|}{||X \times Y||} = \frac{\left| \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right|}{\sqrt{62}} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{62}}.$$

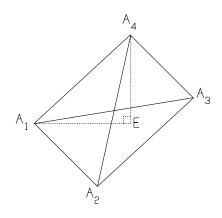
18. Let E be the foot of the perpendicular from A_4 to the plane $A_1A_2A_3$. Then

$$\operatorname{vol} A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4 = \frac{1}{3} (\operatorname{area} \Delta A_1 A_2 A_3) \cdot A_4 E.$$

Now

area
$$\Delta A_1 A_2 A_3 = \frac{1}{2} || \overrightarrow{A_1 A_2} \times \overrightarrow{A_1 A_3} ||.$$

Also A_4E is the length of the projection of A_1A_4 onto the line A_4E . See figure below.)



Hence $A_4E = |\overrightarrow{A_1A_4} \cdot X|$, where X is a unit direction vector for the line A_4E . We can take

$$X = \frac{\overrightarrow{A_1 A_2} \times \overrightarrow{A_1 A_3}}{||\overrightarrow{A_1 A_2} \times \overrightarrow{A_1 A_3}||}.$$

Hence

$$\operatorname{vol} A_{1}A_{2}A_{3}A_{4} = \frac{1}{6} || \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{2}} \times \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{3}} || \frac{|\overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{4}} \cdot (\overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{2}} \times \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{3}})|}{|| \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{2}} \times \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{3}} ||}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} || \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{4}} \cdot (\overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{2}} \times \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{3}})|$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} || (\overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{2}} \times \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{3}}) \cdot \overrightarrow{A_{1}A_{4}} ||.$$

19. We have
$$\overrightarrow{CB} = [1, 4, -1]^t$$
, $\overrightarrow{CD} = [-3, 3, 0]^t$, $\overrightarrow{AD} = [3, 0, 3]^t$. Hence $\overrightarrow{CB} \times \overrightarrow{CD} = 3\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 15\mathbf{k}$,

so the vector $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$ is perpendicular to the plane BCD.

Now the plane BCD has equation x + y + 5z = 9, as B = (2, 2, 1) is on the plane.

Also the line through A normal to plane BCD has equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = (1+t) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence x = 1 + t, y = 1 + t, z = 5(1 + t).

[We remark that this line meets plane BCD in a point E which is given by a value of t found by solving

$$(1+t) + (1+t) + 5(5+5t) = 9.$$

So t = -2/3 and E = (1/3, 1/3, 5/3).

The distance from A to plane BCD is

$$\frac{|1 \times 1 + 1 \times 1 + 5 \times 5 - 9|}{1^2 + 1^2 + 5^2} = \frac{18}{\sqrt{27}} = 2\sqrt{3}.$$

To find the distance between lines AD and BC, we first note that

(a) The equation of AD is

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\5 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 3\\0\\3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+3t\\1\\5+3t \end{bmatrix};$$

(b) The equation of BC is

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2+s \\ 2+4s \\ 1-s \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then $\overrightarrow{PQ} = [1 + s - 3t, 1 + 4s, -4 - s - 3t]^t$ and we find s and t by solving the equations $\overrightarrow{PQ} \cdot \overrightarrow{AD} = 0$ and $\overrightarrow{PQ} \cdot \overrightarrow{BC} = 0$, or

$$(1+s-3t)3 + (1+4s)0 + (-4-s-3t)3 = 0$$

$$(1+s-3t) + 4(1+4s) - (-4-s-3t) = 0.$$

Hence t = -1/2 = s.

Correspondingly, P = (-1/2, 1, 7/2) and Q = (3/2, 0, 3/2).

Thus we have found the closest points P and Q on the respective lines AD and BC. Finally the shortest distance between the lines is

$$PQ = ||\overrightarrow{PQ}|| = 3.$$

