

# Take Home Exam 1

## Sample Solutions

**Problem A.** Let  $T : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be the linear transformation defined by

$$T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_3 - 2x_4 \\ 2x_2 - x_3 + x_4 \\ 2x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 - 3x_4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(1) Find a basis for the null space  $\mathbf{N}(T)$ .

*Solution* — The equation  $T(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = 0$  leads to the system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_3 - 2x_4 &= 0 \\ 2x_2 - x_3 + x_4 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 - 3x_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since the third equation is 2 times the first plus the second, this system is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= -x_3 + 2x_4 \\ 2x_2 &= x_3 - x_4. \end{aligned}$$

Setting,  $x_3 = s$  and  $x_4 = t$ , the general solution is

$$\begin{pmatrix} -s + 2t \\ \frac{1}{2}s - \frac{1}{2}t \\ s \\ t \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Looking at the last two coordinates, we see that the generating vectors  $v_1 = (-1, 1/2, 1, 0)$  and  $v_2 = (2, -1/2, 0, 1)$  are linearly independent. Therefore  $\{v_1, v_2\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbf{N}(T)$ .

(2) Find a basis for the range space  $\mathbf{R}(T)$ .

*Solution* — From the Claim in the proof of the Dimension Theorem from the April 9 slides, we know that if we extend the basis for  $\mathbf{N}(T)$  from part 1 to a basis  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$  for  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , then  $\{T(v_3), T(v_4)\}$  will be a basis for  $\mathbf{R}(T)$ .

The vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$  where  $v_1 = (-1, 1/2, 1, 0)$ ,  $v_2 = (2, -1/2, 0, 1)$ ,  $v_3 = (0, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $v_4 = (1, 0, 0, 0)$  span  $\mathbb{R}^4$  since

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + d \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{2b - c + d}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + (a + c - 2d) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

for any choice of scalars  $a, b, c, d$ . Since  $\mathbb{R}^4$  has dimension 4, it follows from Corollary 2(a) of Theorem 1.10 that  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . By the Claim mentioned above, the vectors

$$T(v_3) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad T(v_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix},$$

form a basis for  $\mathcal{R}(T)$ .

### Problem B.

(1) Find a basis for the subspace

$$\text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ -1 & -3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

of  $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ .

*Solution* — We proceed from left to right, eliminating elements that are linear combinations of the previous ones. Since

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ -1 & -3 \end{pmatrix} = -3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$7 \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = -4 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + 6 \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + 5 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix},$$

we eliminate the third and fifth matrices to obtain the set

$$S = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

This set is linearly independent since

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

Leads to the equations  $a = -3b = 2c$  and  $b = 4c$ , which together imply that  $a = b = c = 0$ .

Since, as we have verified above, the five given matrices are in  $\text{span}(S)$ , we conclude that  $S$  is a basis for the given subspace of  $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ .

- (2) Suppose  $\alpha = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$  and  $\beta = \{y_1, y_2, y_3\}$  are two ordered bases for a vector space  $V$  over the field  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers. Given that

$$x_1 = 2y_2 + y_3, \quad x_2 = 2y_1 + 2y_3, \quad x_2 - x_3 = y_1 - y_2,$$

find the change of coordinate matrix  $Q$  that converts  $\alpha$ -coordinates into  $\beta$ -coordinates as well as the change of coordinate matrix  $Q^{-1}$  that converts  $\beta$ -coordinates into  $\alpha$ -coordinates.

*Solution* — Since  $x_1 = 2y_2 + y_3$ ,  $x_2 = 2y_1 + 2y_3$ , and

$$x_3 = x_2 - y_1 + y_2 = y_1 + y_2 + y_3,$$

we see that

$$[x_1]_\beta = (0, 2, 1), \quad [x_2]_\beta = (2, 0, 2), \quad [x_3]_\beta = (1, 1, 1).$$

Therefore,

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

is the matrix that converts  $\alpha$ -coordinates into  $\beta$ -coordinates.

Solving the given equations for  $y_1, y_2, y_3$  in terms of  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ , we obtain

$$y_1 = -x_1 - \frac{1}{2}x_2 + 2x_3, \quad y_2 = -\frac{1}{2}x_2 + x_3, \quad y_3 = x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3.$$

Therefore

$$[y_1]_\alpha = (-1, -1/2, 2), \quad [y_2]_\alpha = (0, -1/2, 1), \quad [y_3]_\alpha = (1, 1, -2)$$

and hence

$$Q^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1/2 & -1/2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

is the matrix that converts  $\beta$ -coordinates into  $\alpha$ -coordinates.

To be sure, we can check that  $QQ^{-1} = I = Q^{-1}Q$ .

(3) Let  $T : \mathbb{P}_2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}_2(\mathbb{R})$  be the linear transformation such that

$$T(1) = 2x, \quad T(x+1) = 0, \quad T(x^2+x+1) = x^2+x+1.$$

Find the matrix representation  $[T]_\gamma$  with respect to the standard ordered basis  $\gamma = \{1, x, x^2\}$  for  $\mathbb{P}_2(\mathbb{R})$ .

*Solution* — From the given information and the fact that  $T$  is linear, we have  $T(1) = 2x$ ,

$$T(x) = T(x+1) - T(1) = -2x,$$

and

$$T(x^2) = T(x^2+x+1) - T(x+1) = x^2+x+1.$$

Therefore, after reading the  $\gamma$ -coordinates of each result,

$$[T]_\gamma = [T]_\gamma^\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

### Problem C.

(1) Show that an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  over the field  $F$  is invertible if and only if its columns form a basis for  $F^n$ .

*Solution* — There are several ways to go about this; the following are just one of hundreds of possible solutions you could do using just the material from Chapters 1 & 2.

First, suppose that  $A$  is invertible. We will show that the columns  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of  $A$  are linearly independent. Observe that, by definition of matrix multiplication,

$$Ax = x_1v_1 + x_2v_2 + \cdots + x_nv_n,$$

where  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is any vector in  $F^n$ . Therefore, we can interpret  $Ax$  as a linear combination of the columns of  $A$  with coefficients  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . If  $A$  is invertible with inverse  $A^{-1}$ , then  $Ax = 0$  implies that  $x = A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}0 = 0$ . Therefore, the only linear combination of the columns of  $A$  that yields 0 is the trivial one. Thus, if  $A$  is invertible then the columns of  $A$  are linearly independent. Since  $A$  has  $n$  columns and  $\dim(F^n) = n$ , it follows from Corollary 2(a) of Theorem 1.10 that  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  form a basis for  $F^n$ .

Next, suppose the columns of  $A$  form an ordered basis  $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  for  $F^n$ . Note that  $A = [I_{F^n}]_\beta^\alpha$ , where  $\alpha = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$  is the standard ordered basis for  $F^n$ . Thus  $A$  is the change-of-coordinate matrix from  $\beta$  to  $\alpha$ . By Theorem 2.22(a), the matrix  $A$  must be invertible. In fact,  $A^{-1} = [I_{F^n}]_\alpha^\beta$ .

(2) Determine all possible  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  for which the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & b \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

is not invertible.

*Solution* — If  $b = 2$  (and  $a$  is any real number) then the last column is twice the second and hence the matrix is not invertible by part 1.

If  $b \neq 2$ , then the span of the last two columns is

$$W = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x = z\}$$

since

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ x \end{pmatrix} = \frac{2y - bx}{2 - b} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{x - y}{2 - b} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ b \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The first column belongs to  $W$  exactly when  $a = 1$ . In all other cases, by Theorem 1.7, the three columns of the matrix are linearly independent and therefore form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by Corollary 2(b) of Theorem 1.10. So, by part 1, when  $b \neq 2$ , the matrix is not invertible if and only if  $a = 1$ .

To summarize the matrix is not invertible precisely when either  $b = 2$  or  $a = 1$ . In other words, the set of pairs  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  for which the given matrix is not invertible is the union of two lines, the line  $a = 1$  and the line  $b = 2$ .

**Problem D.** Suppose  $S : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^5$  and  $T : \mathbb{R}^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  are linear transformations that both have rank 3.

(1) Could  $T$  have a right inverse? A left inverse? Explain.

*Solution* — From the April 16 slides, we know that (i)  $T$  has a right inverse if and only if it is onto and (ii)  $T$  has a left inverse if and only if it is one-to-one.

It is definitely possible for  $T$  to be onto. In fact it must be onto, since  $\text{rank}(T) = 3 = \dim(\mathbb{R}^3)$ . Therefore, by (i),  $T$  must have a right inverse.

It is not possible for  $T$  to be one-to-one. By the Dimension Theorem,  $\text{rank}(T) + \text{nullity}(T) = \dim(\mathbb{R}^5) = 5$ . Since  $\text{rank}(T) = 3$ , we must have  $\text{nullity}(T) = 2$ . By Theorem 2.4,  $T$  is one-to-one exactly when  $\mathbf{N}(T) = \{0\}$ . Since  $\mathbf{N}(T) \neq \{0\}$ ,  $T$  is not one-to-one and hence  $T$  does not have a left inverse.

- (2) What is the smallest possible rank for  $TS$ ? Explain and find a pair of such linear transformations where this minimal rank is achieved.

*Solution* — Since  $S$  has rank 3,  $R(S)$  is a 3-dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^5$ . Also,  $N(T)$  is a 2-dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^5$  by the Dimension Theorem, since  $\text{nullity}(T) = \dim(\mathbb{R}^5) - \text{rank}(T) = 2$ . We cannot have  $R(S) \subseteq N(T)$  since the former has larger dimension than the latter. Therefore  $TS$  cannot be the zero transformation, which means that  $\text{rank}(TS) \geq 1$  because the zero transformation is the only linear transformation with rank 0.

It turns out that  $\text{rank}(TS) = 1$  is achievable. For example, if

$$S(x, y, z) = (x, 0, y, 0, z), \quad T(a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5) = (a_2, a_3, a_4),$$

both of which have rank 3, then

$$TS(x, y, z) = (0, y, 0)$$

which has rank 1 since  $R(TS) = \text{span}\{(0, 1, 0)\}$ .

- (3) What is the largest possible rank for  $ST$ ? Explain and find a pair of such linear transformations where this maximal rank is achieved.

*Solution* — Since  $R(ST) \subseteq R(S)$  (because  $S(T(x)) \in R(S)$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^5$ ) we must have  $\text{rank}(ST) \leq \text{rank}(S) = 3$ . It is possible to have  $\text{rank}(ST) = 3$ . For example, if

$$S(x, y, z) = (x, y, z, 0, 0), \quad T(a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5) = (a_1, a_2, a_3),$$

both of which have rank 3, then

$$ST(a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5) = (a_1, a_2, a_3, 0, 0)$$

has rank 3 too since  $R(ST) = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ .

In fact, since  $T$  is onto,  $R(ST) = R(S)$  and therefore  $ST$  has rank exactly 3.

- (4) Could  $ST$  be invertible? How about  $TS$ ? Explain.

*Solution* — By part 3, we know that  $\text{rank}(ST) \leq 3$ . Since an invertible linear transformation  $\mathbb{R}^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^5$  must have rank 5 by the last theorem of the April 16 slides, we see that  $ST$  couldn't be invertible.

However,  $TS$  can be invertible. This will happen if  $S$  is a right inverse of  $T$ , as we determined possible in part 1. In fact, as we observed at the end of part 3,  $TS$  is always invertible since it always has rank 3.

**Problem E.** Let  $\mathbf{V}$  be an  $n$ -dimensional vector space over the field  $F$  and let  $I$  denote the identity transformation on  $\mathbf{V}$ .

A linear transformation  $P : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  is said to have **property II** if  $P^2 = P$ , i.e.,  $P(P(x)) = P(x)$  for every  $x \in \mathbf{V}$ .

- (1) Show that if  $\alpha = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is any ordered basis for  $\mathbf{V}$  and if  $0 \leq d \leq n$ , then the linear transformation  $P_d^\alpha : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  such that

$$P_d^\alpha(v_i) = \begin{cases} v_i & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq d, \\ 0 & \text{if } d+1 \leq i \leq n, \end{cases}$$

has property II. (Note that  $P_0^\alpha = T_0$  and  $P_n^\alpha = I$ .)

*Solution* — Applying the definition of  $P_d^\alpha$  twice, we see that

$$P_d^\alpha(P_d^\alpha(v_i)) = \begin{cases} P_d^\alpha(v_i) & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq d, \\ P_d^\alpha(0) & \text{if } d+1 \leq i \leq n, \end{cases} = \begin{cases} v_i & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq d, \\ 0 & \text{if } d+1 \leq i \leq n, \end{cases}.$$

Since  $\alpha$  is a basis for  $\mathbf{V}$ , it follows from the uniqueness part of Theorem 2.6 that  $(P_d^\alpha)^2 = P_d^\alpha$ .

- (2) Show that if  $P : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  is a linear transformation with property II, then  $I - P : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  is also a linear transformation with property II.

*Solution* — Using the properties listed in Theorem 2.10, we see that

$$(I - P)^2 = (I - P)(I - P) = I(I - P) - P(I - P) = (I - P) - (P - P^2) = I - P,$$

since  $P^2 = P$ .

- (3) Show that if  $P : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}$  is a linear transformation with property II, then  $\mathbf{R}(P) = \mathbf{N}(I - P)$ .

*Solution* — Since  $(I - P)P = P - P^2 = P - P = T_0$  by the properties listed in Theorem 2.10, it follows that  $\mathbf{R}(P) \subseteq \mathbf{N}(I - P)$ . Indeed, if  $y \in \mathbf{R}(P)$  then  $y = P(x)$  for some  $x \in \mathbf{V}$  and then  $(I - P)(y) = (I - P)(P(x)) = 0$ .

To see that  $\mathbf{N}(I - P) \subseteq \mathbf{R}(P)$ , suppose  $x \in \mathbf{N}(I - P)$ . Then  $0 = (I - P)(x) = I(x) - P(x) = x - P(x)$ . But then  $P(x) = x$ , which means that  $x = P(x) \in \mathbf{R}(P)$ .

Since  $\mathbf{R}(P) \subseteq \mathbf{N}(I - P)$  and  $\mathbf{N}(I - P) \subseteq \mathbf{R}(P)$ , we conclude that  $\mathbf{R}(P) = \mathbf{N}(I - P)$ .

- (4) Show that if  $P : V \rightarrow V$  is a linear transformation with property II, then  $N(P) \cap R(P) = \{0\}$ .

*Solution* — By part 3, this is equivalent to showing that  $N(P) \cap N(I - P) = \{0\}$ . So suppose  $x \in N(P) \cap N(I - P)$ . Then  $0 = P(x)$  and  $0 = (I - P)(x) = I(x) - P(x) = x - P(x)$ . It follows from this that  $x = P(x) = 0$ . Since  $x$  was an arbitrary element of  $N(P) \cap N(I - P)$ , we conclude that  $N(P) \cap N(I - P) \subseteq \{0\}$ .

Because every subspace of  $V$  contains 0, we see that  $N(P) \cap R(P) = N(P) \cap N(I - P) = \{0\}$ .

- (5) Show that if  $P : V \rightarrow V$  is a linear transformation with property II, then there are an ordered basis  $\alpha = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  for  $V$  and  $0 \leq d \leq n$  such that  $P = P_d^\alpha$  (as defined in part 1). That is, every linear transformation with property II is of the form  $P_d^\alpha$  described in part 1 for some choice of ordered basis  $\alpha$  for  $V$  and some choice of  $0 \leq d \leq n$ .

*Solution* — Given a linear transformation  $P : V \rightarrow V$  with property II, we need to find a basis  $\alpha = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  and an integer  $0 \leq d \leq n$  such that  $P = P_d^\alpha$ . The number  $d$  will be the rank of  $P$ . Note that  $n - d$  will then be the nullity of  $P$  by the Dimension Theorem.

To choose the basis, first pick a basis  $\{v_1, \dots, v_d\}$  for  $R(P)$  and then pick a basis  $\{v_{d+1}, \dots, v_n\}$  for  $N(P)$  (note that there are appropriately  $n - d$  vectors in the latter list). By part 3,  $R(P) \cap N(P) = \{0\}$  and thus, by Special Assignment 2,  $\alpha = \{v_1, \dots, v_d, v_{d+1}, \dots, v_n\}$  forms a basis for the direct sum  $R(P) + N(P)$ . Since  $V$  has dimension  $n$  and  $\alpha$  consists of  $n$  linearly independent vectors, it follows from Corollary 2(b) of Theorem 1.10 that  $\alpha$  is actually a basis for  $V$  (and therefore that  $V = R(P) + N(P)$ ).

I claim that  $P = P_d^\alpha$ . By Theorem 2.6, it suffices to check that  $P(v_i) = P_d^\alpha(v_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . We consider two cases:

- If  $1 \leq i \leq d$ , then  $v_i \in R(P) = N(I - P)$  by part 3. Therefore,  $v_i - P(v_i) = 0$  or  $P(v_i) = v_i$ . By definition of  $P_d^\alpha$ ,  $P_d^\alpha(v_i) = v_i = P(v_i)$ , as required.
- If  $d + 1 \leq i \leq n$ , then  $v_i \in N(P)$ , which means that  $P(v_i) = 0$ . By definition of  $P_d^\alpha$ ,  $P_d^\alpha(v_i) = 0 = P(v_i)$ , as required.