INTRODUCTION

TO

LINEAR

ALGEBRA

Fifth Edition

MANUAL FOR INSTRUCTORS

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Problem Set 1.1, page 8

- **1** The combinations give (a) a line in \mathbf{R}^3 (b) a plane in \mathbf{R}^3 (c) all of \mathbf{R}^3 .
- 2 v + w = (2,3) and v w = (6,-1) will be the diagonals of the parallelogram with v and w as two sides going out from (0,0).
- 3 This problem gives the diagonals v + w and v w of the parallelogram and asks for the sides: The opposite of Problem 2. In this example v = (3,3) and w = (2,-2).
- **4** 3v + w = (7, 5) and cv + dw = (2c + d, c + 2d).
- 5 u+v = (-2,3,1) and u+v+w = (0,0,0) and 2u+2v+w = (add first answers) = (-2,3,1). The vectors u, v, w are in the same plane because a combination gives (0,0,0). Stated another way: u = -v w is in the plane of v and w.
- 6 The components of every cv + dw add to zero because the components of v and of w add to zero. c = 3 and d = 9 give (3, 3, -6). There is no solution to cv+dw = (3, 3, 6) because 3 + 3 + 6 is not zero.
- 7 The nine combinations c(2, 1) + d(0, 1) with c = 0, 1, 2 and d = (0, 1, 2) will lie on a lattice. If we took all whole numbers c and d, the lattice would lie over the whole plane.
- 8 The other diagonal is v w (or else w v). Adding diagonals gives 2v (or 2w).
- **9** The fourth corner can be (4, 4) or (4, 0) or (-2, 2). Three possible parallelograms!
- **10** i j = (1, 1, 0) is in the base (x-y plane). i + j + k = (1, 1, 1) is the opposite corner from (0, 0, 0). Points in the cube have $0 \le x \le 1, 0 \le y \le 1, 0 \le z \le 1$.
- **11** Four more corners (1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1), (1, 1, 1). The center point is $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$. Centers of faces are $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0), (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 1)$ and $(0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}), (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ and $(\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}), (\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{1}{2})$.
- 12 The combinations of i = (1, 0, 0) and i + j = (1, 1, 0) fill the xy plane in xyz space.
- **13** Sum = zero vector. Sum = -2:00 vector = 8:00 vector. 2:00 is 30° from horizontal = $(\cos \frac{\pi}{6}, \sin \frac{\pi}{6}) = (\sqrt{3}/2, 1/2).$
- 14 Moving the origin to 6:00 adds j = (0, 1) to every vector. So the sum of twelve vectors changes from 0 to 12j = (0, 12).

- **15** The point $\frac{3}{4}v + \frac{1}{4}w$ is three-fourths of the way to v starting from w. The vector $\frac{1}{4}v + \frac{1}{4}w$ is halfway to $u = \frac{1}{2}v + \frac{1}{2}w$. The vector v + w is 2u (the far corner of the parallelogram).
- **16** All combinations with c + d = 1 are on the line that passes through v and w. The point V = -v + 2w is on that line but it is beyond w.
- 17 All vectors cv + cw are on the line passing through (0,0) and u = ½v + ½w. That line continues out beyond v + w and back beyond (0,0). With c ≥ 0, half of this line is removed, leaving a ray that starts at (0,0).
- 18 The combinations cv + dw with 0 ≤ c ≤ 1 and 0 ≤ d ≤ 1 fill the parallelogram with sides v and w. For example, if v = (1,0) and w = (0,1) then cv + dw fills the unit square. But when v = (a,0) and w = (b,0) these combinations only fill a segment of a line.
- 19 With c ≥ 0 and d ≥ 0 we get the infinite "cone" or "wedge" between v and w. For example, if v = (1,0) and w = (0,1), then the cone is the whole quadrant x ≥ 0, y ≥ 0. Question: What if w = -v? The cone opens to a half-space. But the combinations of v = (1,0) and w = (-1,0) only fill a line.
- 20 (a) 1/3u + 1/3v + 1/3w is the center of the triangle between u, v and w; 1/2u + 1/2w lies between u and w
 (b) To fill the triangle keep c≥0, d≥0, e≥0, and c+d+e = 1.
- **21** The sum is (v u) + (w v) + (u w) = zero vector. Those three sides of a triangle are in the same plane!
- **22** The vector $\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w})$ is *outside* the pyramid because $c + d + e = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} > 1$.
- **23** All vectors are combinations of u, v, w as drawn (not in the same plane). Start by seeing that cu + dv fills a plane, then adding ew fills all of \mathbb{R}^3 .
- 24 The combinations of u and v fill one plane. The combinations of v and w fill another plane. Those planes meet in a *line: only the vectors cv* are in both planes.
- 25 (a) For a line, choose u = v = w = any nonzero vector (b) For a plane, choose u and v in different directions. A combination like w = u + v is in the same plane.

- **26** Two equations come from the two components: c + 3d = 14 and 2c + d = 8. The solution is c = 2 and d = 4. Then 2(1, 2) + 4(3, 1) = (14, 8).
- 27 A four-dimensional cube has 2⁴ = 16 corners and 2 · 4 = 8 three-dimensional faces and 24 two-dimensional faces and 32 edges in Worked Example 2.4 A.
- **28** There are **6** unknown numbers $v_1, v_2, v_3, w_1, w_2, w_3$. The six equations come from the components of v + w = (4, 5, 6) and v w = (2, 5, 8). Add to find 2v = (6, 10, 14) so v = (3, 5, 7) and w = (1, 0, -1).
- 29 Fact: For any three vectors u, v, w in the plane, some combination cu + dv + ew is the zero vector (beyond the obvious c = d = e = 0). So if there is one combination Cu + Dv + Ew that produces b, there will be many more—just add c, d, e or 2c, 2d, 2e to the particular solution C, D, E.

The example has 3u - 2v + w = 3(1,3) - 2(2,7) + 1(1,5) = (0,0). It also has -2u + 1v + 0w = b = (0,1). Adding gives u - v + w = (0,1). In this case c, d, e equal 3, -2, 1 and C, D, E = -2, 1, 0.

Could another example have u, v, w that could NOT combine to produce b? Yes. The vectors (1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3) are on a line and no combination produces b. We can easily solve cu + dv + ew = 0 but not Cu + Dv + Ew = b.

- **30** The combinations of v and w fill the plane unless v and w lie on the same line through (0,0). Four vectors whose combinations fill 4-dimensional space: one example is the "standard basis" (1,0,0,0), (0,1,0,0), (0,0,1,0), and (0,0,0,1).
- **31** The equations $c\boldsymbol{u} + d\boldsymbol{v} + e\boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{b}$ are

2c -d = 1	So $d = 2e$	c = 3/4
-c+2d $-e=0$	then $c = 3e$	d = 2/4
-d+2e = 0	then $4e = 1$	e = 1/4

Problem Set 1.2, page 18

- **1** $\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = -2.4 + 2.4 = 0, \, \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} = -.6 + 1.6 = 1, \, \boldsymbol{u} \cdot (\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}) = \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} = 0 + 1, \, \boldsymbol{w} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = 4 + 6 = 10 = \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}.$
- 2 $||\boldsymbol{u}|| = 1$ and $||\boldsymbol{v}|| = 5$ and $||\boldsymbol{w}|| = \sqrt{5}$. Then $|\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{v}| = 0 < (1)(5)$ and $|\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}| = 10 < 5\sqrt{5}$, confirming the Schwarz inequality.
- **3** Unit vectors $\boldsymbol{v}/\|\boldsymbol{v}\| = (\frac{4}{5}, \frac{3}{5}) = (0.8, 0.6)$. The vectors $\boldsymbol{w}, (2, -1)$, and $-\boldsymbol{w}$ make $0^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}, 180^{\circ}$ angles with \boldsymbol{w} and $\boldsymbol{w}/\|\boldsymbol{w}\| = (1/\sqrt{5}, 2/\sqrt{5})$. The cosine of θ is $\frac{\boldsymbol{v}}{\|\boldsymbol{v}\|} \cdot \frac{\boldsymbol{w}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|} = 10/5\sqrt{5}$.
- **4** (a) $v \cdot (-v) = -1$ (b) $(v + w) \cdot (v w) = v \cdot v + w \cdot v v \cdot w w \cdot w = 1 + () () 1 = 0$ so $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ (notice $v \cdot w = w \cdot v$) (c) $(v 2w) \cdot (v + 2w) = v \cdot v 4w \cdot w = 1 4 = -3$.
- 5 $u_1 = v/||v|| = (1,3)/\sqrt{10}$ and $u_2 = w/||w|| = (2,1,2)/3$. $U_1 = (3,-1)/\sqrt{10}$ is perpendicular to u_1 (and so is $(-3,1)/\sqrt{10}$). U_2 could be $(1,-2,0)/\sqrt{5}$: There is a whole plane of vectors perpendicular to u_2 , and a whole circle of unit vectors in that plane.
- 6 All vectors w = (c, 2c) are perpendicular to v. They lie on a line. All vectors (x, y, z) with x + y + z = 0 lie on a *plane*. All vectors perpendicular to (1, 1, 1) and (1, 2, 3) lie on a *line* in 3-dimensional space.
- 7 (a) cos θ = v w/||v||||w|| = 1/(2)(1) so θ = 60° or π/3 radians (b) cos θ = 0 so θ = 90° or π/2 radians (c) cos θ = 2/(2)(2) = 1/2 so θ = 60° or π/3 (d) cos θ = -1/√2 so θ = 135° or 3π/4.
- 8 (a) False: v and w are any vectors in the plane perpendicular to u (b) True: u · (v+2w) = u · v + 2u · w = 0 (c) True, ||u v||² = (u v) · (u v) splits into u · u + v · v = 2 when u · v = v · u = 0.
- **9** If $v_2w_2/v_1w_1 = -1$ then $v_2w_2 = -v_1w_1$ or $v_1w_1 + v_2w_2 = \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} = 0$: perpendicular! The vectors (1, 4) and $(1, -\frac{1}{4})$ are perpendicular.

- **10** Slopes 2/1 and -1/2 multiply to give -1: then $\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} = 0$ and the vectors (the directions) are perpendicular.
- 11 $v \cdot w < 0$ means angle > 90°; these w's fill half of 3-dimensional space.
- 12 (1,1) perpendicular to (1,5) c(1,1) if (1,1) ⋅ (1,5) c(1,1) ⋅ (1,1) = 6 2c = 0 or
 c = 3; v ⋅ (w cv) = 0 if c = v ⋅ w/v ⋅ v. Subtracting cv is the key to constructing a perpendicular vector.
- **13** The plane perpendicular to (1, 0, 1) contains all vectors (c, d, -c). In that plane, v = (1, 0, -1) and w = (0, 1, 0) are perpendicular.
- 14 One possibility among many: u = (1, -1, 0, 0), v = (0, 0, 1, -1), w = (1, 1, -1, -1) and (1, 1, 1, 1) are perpendicular to each other. "We can rotate those u, v, w in their 3D hyperplane and they will stay perpendicular."
- **15** $\frac{1}{2}(x+y) = (2+8)/2 = 5$ and 5 > 4; $\cos \theta = 2\sqrt{16}/\sqrt{10}\sqrt{10} = 8/10$.
- **16** $\|v\|^2 = 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = 9$ so $\|v\| = 3$; $u = v/3 = (\frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{3})$ is a unit vector in 9D; $w = (1, -1, 0, \dots, 0)/\sqrt{2}$ is a unit vector in the 8D hyperplane perpendicular to v.
- **17** $\cos \alpha = 1/\sqrt{2}, \ \cos \beta = 0, \ \cos \gamma = -1/\sqrt{2}.$ For any vector $\boldsymbol{v} = (\boldsymbol{v}_1, \boldsymbol{v}_2, \boldsymbol{v}_3)$ the cosines with (1, 0, 0) and (0, 0, 1) are $\cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \beta + \cos^2 \gamma = (v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2)/\|\boldsymbol{v}\|^2 = 1.$
- **18** $\|v\|^2 = 4^2 + 2^2 = 20$ and $\|w\|^2 = (-1)^2 + 2^2 = 5$. Pythagoras is $\|(3,4)\|^2 = 25 = 20 + 5$ for the length of the hypotenuse v + w = (3,4).
- 19 Start from the rules (1), (2), (3) for v ⋅ w = w ⋅ v and u ⋅ (v + w) and (cv) ⋅ w. Use rule (2) for (v + w) ⋅ (v + w) = (v + w) ⋅ v + (v + w) ⋅ w. By rule (1) this is v ⋅ (v + w) + w ⋅ (v + w). Rule (2) again gives v ⋅ v + v ⋅ w + w ⋅ v + w ⋅ w = v ⋅ v + 2v ⋅ w + w ⋅ w. Notice v ⋅ w = w ⋅ v! The main point is to feel free to open up parentheses.
- 20 We know that (v w) (v w) = v v 2v w + w w. The Law of Cosines writes ||v|||w|| cos θ for v w. Here θ is the angle between v and w. When θ < 90° this v w is positive, so in this case v v + w w is larger than ||v w||².

Pythagoras changes from equality $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ to *inequality* when $\theta < 90^\circ$ or $\theta > 90^\circ$.

- **21** $2v \cdot w \le 2||v|| ||w||$ leads to $||v + w||^2 = v \cdot v + 2v \cdot w + w \cdot w \le ||v||^2 + 2||v|| ||w|| + ||w||^2$. This is $(||v|| + ||w||)^2$. Taking square roots gives $||v + w|| \le ||v|| + ||w||$.
- **22** $v_1^2 w_1^2 + 2v_1 w_1 v_2 w_2 + v_2^2 w_2^2 \le v_1^2 w_1^2 + v_1^2 w_2^2 + v_2^2 w_1^2 + v_2^2 w_2^2$ is true (cancel 4 terms) because the difference is $v_1^2 w_2^2 + v_2^2 w_1^2 2v_1 w_1 v_2 w_2$ which is $(v_1 w_2 v_2 w_1)^2 \ge 0$.
- **23** $\cos \beta = w_1 / \| \boldsymbol{w} \|$ and $\sin \beta = w_2 / \| \boldsymbol{w} \|$. Then $\cos(\beta a) = \cos \beta \cos \alpha + \sin \beta \sin \alpha = v_1 w_1 / \| \boldsymbol{v} \| \| \boldsymbol{w} \| + v_2 w_2 / \| \boldsymbol{v} \| \| \boldsymbol{w} \| = \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} / \| \boldsymbol{v} \| \| \boldsymbol{w} \|$. This is $\cos \theta$ because $\beta \alpha = \theta$.
- **24** Example 6 gives $|u_1||U_1| \le \frac{1}{2}(u_1^2 + U_1^2)$ and $|u_2||U_2| \le \frac{1}{2}(u_2^2 + U_2^2)$. The whole line becomes $.96 \le (.6)(.8) + (.8)(.6) \le \frac{1}{2}(.6^2 + .8^2) + \frac{1}{2}(.8^2 + .6^2) = 1$. True: .96 < 1.
- **25** The cosine of θ is $x/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, near side over hypotenuse. Then $|\cos \theta|^2$ is not greater than 1: $x^2/(x^2 + y^2) \le 1$.
- **26–27** (with apologies for that typo !) These two lines add to $2||v||^2 + 2||w||^2$:

$$||\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}||^2 = (\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}) \cdot (\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}) = \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} + \boldsymbol{w} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}$$
$$||\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{w}||^2 = (\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{w}) \cdot (\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{w}) = \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}$$

- **28** The vectors $\boldsymbol{w} = (x, y)$ with $(1, 2) \cdot \boldsymbol{w} = x + 2y = 5$ lie on a line in the *xy* plane. The shortest \boldsymbol{w} on that line is (1, 2). (The Schwarz inequality $\|\boldsymbol{w}\| \ge \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} / \|\boldsymbol{v}\| = \sqrt{5}$ is an equality when $\cos \theta = 0$ and $\boldsymbol{w} = (1, 2)$ and $\|\boldsymbol{w}\| = \sqrt{5}$.)
- 29 The length ||v − w|| is between 2 and 8 (triangle inequality when ||v|| = 5 and ||w|| =
 3). The dot product v ⋅ w is between −15 and 15 by the Schwarz inequality.
- 30 Three vectors in the plane could make angles greater than 90° with each other: for example (1,0), (-1,4), (-1,-4). Four vectors could *not* do this (360° total angle). How many can do this in R³ or Rⁿ? Ben Harris and Greg Marks showed me that the answer is n + 1. The vectors from the center of a regular simplex in Rⁿ to its n + 1 vertices all have negative dot products. If n+2 vectors in Rⁿ had negative dot products, project them onto the plane orthogonal to the last one. Now you have n + 1 vectors in Rⁿ⁻¹ with negative dot products. Keep going to 4 vectors in R²: no way!
- **31** For a specific example, pick v = (1, 2, -3) and then w = (-3, 1, 2). In this example $\cos \theta = v \cdot w/||v|| ||w|| = -7/\sqrt{14}\sqrt{14} = -1/2$ and $\theta = 120^{\circ}$. This always happens when x + y + z = 0:

Solutions to Exercises

$$v \cdot w = xz + xy + yz = \frac{1}{2}(x + y + z)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$

This is the same as $v \cdot w = 0 - \frac{1}{2} \|v\| \|w\|$. Then $\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2}$.

32 Wikipedia gives this proof of geometric mean G = ³√xyz ≤ arithmetic mean A = (x + y + z)/3. First there is equality in case x = y = z. Otherwise A is somewhere between the three positive numbers, say for example z < A < y.

Use the known inequality $g \le a$ for the *two* positive numbers x and y + z - A. Their mean $a = \frac{1}{2}(x + y + z - A)$ is $\frac{1}{2}(3A - A) =$ same as A! So $a \ge g$ says that $A^3 \ge g^2A = x(y + z - A)A$. But (y + z - A)A = (y - A)(A - z) + yz > yz. Substitute to find $A^3 > xyz = G^3$ as we wanted to prove. Not easy!

There are many proofs of $G = (x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n)^{1/n} \le A = (x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n)/n$. In calculus you are maximizing G on the plane $x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n = n$. The maximum occurs when all x's are equal.

33 The columns of the 4 by 4 "Hadamard matrix" (times $\frac{1}{2}$) are perpendicular unit vectors:

34 The commands V = randn (3,30); D = sqrt (diag (V' * V)); U = V\D; will give 30 random unit vectors in the columns of U. Then u' * U is a row matrix of 30 dot products whose average absolute value should be close to 2/π.

Problem Set 1.3, page 29

1 $3s_1 + 4s_2 + 5s_3 = (3, 7, 12)$. The same vector **b** comes from S times x = (3, 4, 5):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (\operatorname{row} 1) \cdot \boldsymbol{x} \\ (\operatorname{row} 2) \cdot \boldsymbol{x} \\ (\operatorname{row} 2) \cdot \boldsymbol{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- **2** The solutions are $y_1 = 1$, $y_2 = 0$, $y_3 = 0$ (right side = column 1) and $y_1 = 1$, $y_2 = 3$, $y_3 = 5$. That second example illustrates that the first *n* odd numbers add to n^2 .
- $y_{1} = B_{1} \qquad y_{1} = B_{1}$ $y_{1} + y_{2} = B_{2} \quad \text{gives} \quad y_{2} = -B_{1} + B_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_{1} \\ B_{2} \\ B_{3} \end{bmatrix}$ $y_{1} + y_{2} + y_{3} = B_{3} \qquad y_{3} = -B_{2} + B_{3} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_{1} \\ B_{2} \\ B_{3} \end{bmatrix}$ The inverse of $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$: independent columns in A and S!
- 4 The combination 0w₁ + 0w₂ + 0w₃ always gives the zero vector, but this problem looks for other *zero* combinations (then the vectors are *dependent*, they lie in a plane):
 w₂ = (w₁ + w₃)/2 so one combination that gives zero is w₁ 2w₂ + w₃ = 0.
- 5 The rows of the 3 by 3 matrix in Problem 4 must also be *dependent*: $\mathbf{r}_2 = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{r}_1 + \mathbf{r}_3)$. The column and row combinations that produce 0 are the same: this is unusual. Two solutions to $y_1\mathbf{r}_1 + y_2\mathbf{r}_2 + y_3\mathbf{r}_3 = \mathbf{0}$ are $(Y_1, Y_2, Y_3) = (1, -2, 1)$ and (2, -4, 2).

$$6 \ c = 3 \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 7 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has column } 3 = \text{column } 1 - \text{column } 2$$
$$c = -1 \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 - 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has column } 3 = - \text{ column } 1 + \text{column } 2$$
$$c = 0 \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ has column } 3 = 3 \text{ (column } 1) - \text{column } 2$$

7 All three rows are perpendicular to the solution x (the three equations r₁ · x = 0 and r₂·x = 0 and r₃·x = 0 tell us this). Then the whole plane of the rows is perpendicular to x (the plane is also perpendicular to all multiples cx).

9 The cyclic difference matrix C has a line of solutions (in 4 dimensions) to Cx = 0:

	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} $	$= \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix} \text{ when }$	$\operatorname{en} \boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} c \\ c \\ c \\ c \end{bmatrix}$	= any constant vector.
10	$z_2 - z_1 = b_1$ $z_3 - z_2 = b_2$ $0 - z_3 = b_3$	$z_1 = -b_1 - z_2 = - z_3 = - z_3$	$b_2 - b_3$ $b_2 - b_3 = -b_3$	$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \Delta^{-1} \boldsymbol{b}$

- 11 The forward differences of the squares are (t + 1)² t² = t² + 2t + 1 t² = 2t + 1.
 Differences of the nth power are (t + 1)ⁿ tⁿ = tⁿ tⁿ + ntⁿ⁻¹ + ···. The leading term is the derivative ntⁿ⁻¹. The binomial theorem gives all the terms of (t + 1)ⁿ.
- 12 Centered difference matrices of *even size* seem to be invertible. Look at eqns. 1 and 4:

ſ	0	1	0	0	$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \end{bmatrix}$		b_1	First	$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \end{bmatrix}$	$[-b_2 - b_4]$	
	-1	0	1	0	x_2	_	b_2	solve	x_2	b_1	
	0	-1	0	1	x_3	_	b_3	$x_2 = b_1$	x_3	$-b_4$	
	0	0	-1	0	$\lfloor x_4 \rfloor$		b_4	$-x_3 = b_4$	x_4	$b_1 + b_3$	

13 Odd size: The five centered difference equations lead to $b_1 + b_3 + b_5 = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} x_2 &= b_1 \\ x_3 - x_1 &= b_2 \\ x_4 - x_2 &= b_3 \\ x_5 - x_3 &= b_4 \\ - x_4 &= b_5 \end{aligned}$$
 Add equations 1, 3, 5
The left side of the sum is zero
The right side is $b_1 + b_3 + b_5$
There cannot be a solution unless $b_1 + b_3 + b_5 = 0.$

14 An example is (a, b) = (3, 6) and (c, d) = (1, 2). We are given that the ratios a/c and b/d are equal. Then ad = bc. Then (when you divide by bd) the ratios a/b and c/d must also be equal!