

Lecture 15: Quick review from previous lecture

- The **kernel** of A is

$A = m \times n$ matrix

$$\ker A = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}.$$

- The **image** of the matrix A is the set containing of all images of A , that is,

$$\text{img } A = \{A\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

- The **coimage** of A is the image of its transpose, A^T . It is denoted $\text{coimg } A$:

$$\text{coimg } A = \text{img } A^T = \{A^T \mathbf{y} : \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

- The **cokernel** of A is the kernel of its transpose, A^T . It is denoted $\text{coker } A$:

$$\text{coker } A = \ker A^T = \{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^m : A^T \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$$

Today we will discuss the kernel and image, coker, and coimg as well as inner product.

-
- Midterm 1 covers C1, C2, except 1.7, 2.5, 2.6.
 - Practice Exam is on Canvas.

✓ However, there is an alternate way of building a basis for $\text{coimg } A$. This method will let us see a **profound connection between “ $\text{img } A$ ” and “ $\text{coimg } A$ ”**.

Observation.

- The key observation is that the row operations of Gaussian elimination do not change the row space of A .
- The two operations we perform for Gaussian elimination are (a) adding a multiple of one row to another row; and (b) permuting the order of rows.
- Permuting rows obviously does not change the row span. And it is easy to see that adding a multiple of one row to another row does not change the span of the rows.
- Consequently, the row echelon matrix U resulting from Gaussian elimination will have exactly the same row space as the matrix A we started with.

Conclusion 1: The row echelon matrix U has exactly the **same row space** as the original matrix A .

$$\text{coimg } A = \text{coimg } U.$$

If a matrix is in row echelon form, the nonzero rows are linearly independent, and consequently form a basis for the row space.

Conclusion 2: Therefore, to construct **a basis for the row space $\text{coimg } A$** , we can bring A to row echelon form using Gaussian elimination, and take the **nonzero rows as the basis vectors**.

Fact: If the rank of A is r , the basis we construct for $\text{coimg } A$ will have r vectors. Thus,

$$\dim \text{img } A = \dim \text{coimg } A = r$$

§ **coker** A ($A: m \times n$ matrix)

$A^T: n \times m$ matrix
↑

To build a basis for $\text{coker } A$, solve the n -by- m homogeneous system $A^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$, and set each **free** variable to 1, and the others to zero.

In other words, apply the exact same procedure as for finding a basis for $\ker A$.

What is the dimension of $\text{coker } A$? It is the number of free variables in $A^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$. Since A^T has m columns and rank r , there are $m - r$ free variables, hence

Fact:

$$\dim \text{coker } A = m - r$$

We can summarize what we've learned about the four fundamental subspaces in the following theorem, called the *Fundamental Theorem of Linear Algebra*:

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, and let r be its rank. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \dim \text{coimg } A &= \dim \text{img } A = \text{rank } A = \text{rank } A^T = r, \\ \dim \ker A &= n - r, \quad \dim \text{coker } A = m - r. \end{aligned}$$

**Again, a very useful (and surprising) aspect of this theorem is that the column space and row space of A have the same dimension, equal to the rank r of A .

Example 4: Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find a basis for $\ker A$, $\text{img } A$, $\text{coimg } A$, $\text{coker } A$, respectively.

$$A \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{2} - 2\textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{3} - \textcircled{1} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \textcircled{3} - \textcircled{2} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & \textcircled{-1} & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

pivot pivot
✓ ✓

① Basis for $\text{img } A$: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

② Basis for $\text{coimg } A$: $\left\{ (1, 1, 2, 3)^T, (0, 1, 1, -2)^T \right\}$

③ Basis for $\ker A$:

$$Ax = 0, \quad \cup \quad x = 0$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x_2 = -x_3 - x_4$$

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

Thus, general solution for $Ax = 0$ is

$$\begin{pmatrix} -x_3 - 2x_4 \\ -x_3 - x_4 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = x_3 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_4 \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$x_3=1, x_4=0$ $x_3=0, x_4=1$

So, $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for $\ker A$.

④ Basis for $\text{coker } A \cong \ker A^T$. row echelon form.

$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}_{4 \times 3} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^T x = 0, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$x_3 \rightarrow$ free variable

$$x_2 = -x_3$$

$$x_1 = -2x_2 - x_3 = x_3.$$

General solution for $A^T x = 0$ is

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_3 \\ -x_3 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = x_3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for $\text{coker } A$.

3 Inner Products and Norms

3.1 Inner Products

§ Inner products in the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n

Definition: If $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$ are any two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then we define their *inner product*, denoted $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$, by:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

(row vector) \mathbf{x}^T (column vector) \mathbf{y}

Note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times n} \begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times 1}$$

- $$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{x} \quad (= \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y})$$

As in \mathbb{R}^2 , if $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)^T$ is a vector, then the “Pythagorean Theorem” tells us that its length is given by $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, and is denoted by

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

- We will use this to define the length of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and denote the length of a vector \mathbf{x} by

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

We call $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ the **norm** of \mathbf{x} .

- If $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$, then $\|\mathbf{x}\| > 0$. In addition, we also have

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = 0.$$

- $$\|c\mathbf{x}\| = |c| \|\mathbf{x}\|.$$

Example.

1. If $\mathbf{x} = (1, 1, 1)^T$ and $\mathbf{y} = (-2, 1, 2)^T$, then find $\|\mathbf{x}\|$, $\|\mathbf{y}\|$, $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ and also normalize \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . (Replace \mathbf{x} by $\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}$) $\rightarrow \|\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}\| = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{3}$$

$$\|\mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{(-2)^2 + 1^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{9} = 3.$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle (1, 1, 1)^T, (-2, 1, 2)^T \rangle = 1$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \right)^T.$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{y}\|} = \left(\frac{-2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right)^T. \quad \#$$