

## Lecture 13: Quick review from previous lecture

- A **basis** for a vector space  $V$  is a **linearly independent** set of vectors that **span**  $V$ .  $(\mathcal{U} = \text{span} \{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$ .
- $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ .  $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$ .
- If  $V$  is any vector space that has a basis with  $n$  vectors, then any other basis must also have  $n$  vectors.

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Today we will discuss

- Sec. 2.4 Dimension and basis
- Sec. 2.5 The fundamental matrix subspaces

- Lecture will be recorded -

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- Exam 1 will cover C.1 and C.2, except 1.7, 2.5, 2.6.
- “Exam 1 instructions” have been posted on Canvas homepage (click [Exam 1 Instructions](#)). “Practice Exam” can be found there.
- Exam (2/24, Wed.) is **closed book** and everyone needs to **open camera**.

① span  $\mathbb{R}^3$

② l. indep.

Example 4: Determining if  $v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  form a

basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We knew  $\dim \mathbb{R}^3 = 3$ . It's sufficient to check if  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is l. indep.

Set  $a v_1 + b v_2 + c v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Find  $a, b, c$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{homogeneous l. system})$$

If  $A$  is invertible, then  $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

To see if  $A$  is invertible,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\textcircled{1} \leftrightarrow \textcircled{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\textcircled{3} - 2\textcircled{1}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\textcircled{3} - 2\textcircled{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det A = (-1) \cdot (2 \cdot (-1) \cdot (-2)) = -4 \neq 0. \quad A \text{ is nonsingular invertible}$$

Example 5: Check if  $p_1(x) = 2x^2 + 4, p_2(x) = x^2 - x, p_3(x) = x^2$  form a basis for  $\mathcal{P}^{(2)}$ .  $\dim \mathcal{P}^{(2)} = 3$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Recall  $\{x^2, x, 1\}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{P}^{(2)}$ ). Set  $a p_1 + b p_2 + c p_3 = 0$

$$a(2x^2 + 4) + b(x^2 - x) + c(x^2) = 0.$$

$$(2a + b + c)x^2 + (-b)x + 4a = 0.$$

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

$\overset{A}{\parallel}$

$\det A = 4 \neq 0$ . Then  $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = A^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

which implies  $\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$  is a basis for  $\mathcal{P}^{(2)}$ .

**Remark:** So far we have seen that  $\{1, x, x^2\}$  and  $\{2x^2 + 4, x^2 - x, x^2\}$  are basis for  $\mathcal{P}^{(2)}$ . View  $q(x) = x^2 + 2x + 6$  as a vector  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$  in basis  $\{x^2, x, 1\}$   
 a vector  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$  in New basis  $\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$ .

**Question:** How do we determine the coefficients of a quadratic polynomial in the basis  $p_1(x) = 2x^2 + 4, p_2(x) = x^2 - x, p_3(x) = x^2$ ?

For example,

**Example 6:** Consider  $q(x) = x^2 + 2x + 6$ . Determine  $a, b, c$  in  $q = ap_1 + bp_2 + cp_3$ .

$$ap_1 + bp_2 + cp_3 = q$$

Similar as above

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ A \mid \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{matrix} \right] \xrightarrow{\textcircled{3}-2\textcircled{1}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & -2 & 4 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\textcircled{3}-2\textcircled{2}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

③  $c = 0$

②  $b = -2$

①  $a = 3/2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3/2 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

represents the vector of  $q$  in this New basis  $\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$

Actually this expression is unique.

**Fact 4:** The elements  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  form a basis of a vector space  $V$  if and only if every  $x \in V$  can be written **uniquely** as a linear combination of the basis elements:

$(\Rightarrow)$  Since  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  is a basis, we have  $x = c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_n v_n$

Suppose  $x = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$

$$0 = x - x = (c_1 - a_1) v_1 + \dots + (c_n - a_n) v_n$$

Since  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  are l. indep,  $c_k - a_k = 0, 1 \leq k \leq n$

## 2.5 The Fundamental Matrix Subspaces

$$c_k = a_k, \quad 1 \leq k \leq n. \neq$$

$$A_{m \times n} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

### § Kernel and Image

We can associate to a matrix  $A = A_{m \times n}$  a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , called the *kernel* or *null space* of  $A$ .

ker A

A

$\mathbb{R}^m$

**Definition:** The **kernel** of  $A$  is the set of all solutions  $\mathbf{x}$  to the homogeneous equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . We denote the kernel of  $A$  by  $\ker A$ :

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

**Fact 1:**  $\ker A$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

[To see this:]

①  $A \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ . so  $\mathbf{0} \in \ker A$   
 $\mathbb{R}^m$        $\mathbb{R}^n$        $\mathbb{R}^m$

② For  $x, y \in \ker A$ , check  $x + y \in \ker A$ :

$$\begin{aligned} A(x+y) &= Ax + Ay \\ &= \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} \\ &= \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} Ax = \mathbf{0} \\ Ay = \mathbf{0} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow x+y \in \ker A.$$

③  $c \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \ker A$ . check  $cx \in \ker A$ :

$$A(cx) = cAx = c\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}. \text{ so } cx \in \ker A.$$

Let's observe that if  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2$  are two solutions to the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ , then what can we say about their difference,  $\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2$ ?

$$A\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{b}$$

$$A\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{b}$$

$$\text{Then } A(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) = A\mathbf{x}_1 - A\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}.$$

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2 \in \ker A}$$

**Fact 2:** Suppose the linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a solution  $\mathbf{x}^*$ . Then  $\mathbf{x}$  is a solution to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{z}$ , where  $\mathbf{z} \in \ker A$ .

[To see this:]

( $\implies$ ) We know both  $\mathbf{x}^*$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  are solutions of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .  
Based on observation above,

$$\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^* \in \ker A,$$

Let  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*$ . Then  $\mathbf{z} \in \ker A$ . So we get

$$\mathbf{x} = \underbrace{\mathbf{x}^*}_{\text{sol. to } Ax=b} + \underbrace{\mathbf{z}}_{\in \ker A}$$

$$(\Leftarrow) \quad A(\mathbf{x}) = A(\mathbf{x}^* + \mathbf{z})$$

$$= A\mathbf{x}^* + A\mathbf{z} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} A\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{z} \in \ker A \end{array} \right.$$

$$= \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{0}$$

$$= \mathbf{b}$$

This gives  $\mathbf{x}$  is a solution to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .

**Remark.** In other words, *any* solution to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  can be generated by starting with a *particular* solution  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , and adding to  $\mathbf{x}^*$  vectors in the kernel of  $A$ .

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{x}^*}_{\text{particular}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{z}}_{\in \ker A}$$

**Example 1.** Write the general solution to the following linear system in the form of  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^* + z$ , where  $z \in \ker A$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & -4 \\ 2 & -1 & -2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -6 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left( A \mid \begin{matrix} -1 \\ -6 \\ -4 \end{matrix} \right) \xrightarrow[\textcircled{3} -2\textcircled{1}]{\textcircled{2} -2\textcircled{1}} \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & -2 \end{array} \right) \xrightarrow{\textcircled{3} -\frac{1}{2}\textcircled{2}} \left( \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & -4 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Free variable =  $c$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad 2b - 4c = -4 \Rightarrow \underline{b = 2c - 2}$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad a - b = -1 \Rightarrow a = -1 + b = \underline{2c - 3}$$

all solutions are

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

ker A

$\mathbf{x}^*$ , a solution to  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .

**Fact 3:** If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix, then the following conditions are equivalent:

1.  $\ker A = \{\mathbf{0}\}$  (homogeneous system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  has the unique solution  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ );
2.  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ ;
3. The linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has no free variables;
4. The linear system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique solution for each  $\mathbf{b} \in \text{img } A$ .