

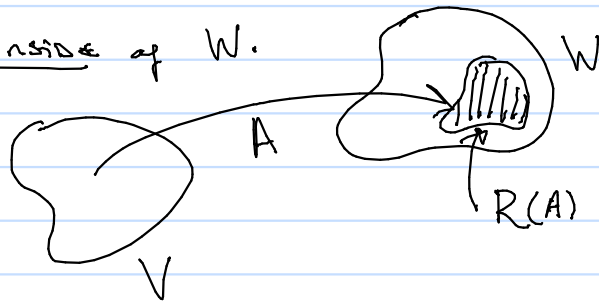
Existence and uniqueness of solutions to the problem $Ax=b$ (Chapter 3.2 of the textbook)

Let V be a vector space and pick your favorite linear operator A , mapping elements of V to some other vector space W , and fix a choice of vector b in W . What does it mean to say that "There exists a solution to $Ax=b$ "?

One way to answer this question is to define the Range of the operator A . The range is "everything in W that A can 'get to' with inputs from V ".

Defn: $R(A) = \{w \in W \text{ so that we can find an } x \text{ in } V \text{ with } Ax=w\}$

So $R(A)$ sits inside of W .



Note that:

- 1) The zero vector is in $R(A)$ since $A0=0$ (by A linear)
- 2) If $y \in R(A)$ and $w \in R(A)$ then $y=Ax$ and $w=Az$ for some $x, z \in V$. Consider $\alpha y + \beta w$ for α, β scalars. Then $\alpha y + \beta w = \alpha Ax + \beta Az = A(\alpha x) + A(\beta z) = A(\alpha x + \beta z)$ so that $\alpha y + \beta w$ is in $R(A)$.

$\Rightarrow R(A)$ is a vector subspace of W .

IDEA: When W is n -dimensional real space (\mathbb{R}^n) for some n then the vector subspaces are precisely \mathbb{R}^d for some $0 \leq d \leq n$

\Rightarrow If $W=\mathbb{R}^n$ and $R(A)=\mathbb{R}^n$ then " $Ax=b$ " has a solution for every $b \in W$.

If $R(A)=\mathbb{R}^d$ for $d < n$ then " $Ax=b$ " fails to have a solution for infinitely many $b \in W$.

Ex: Consider $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ then $A: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$. What is $\mathcal{R}(A)$?

→ if $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ then $Ax = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + 2x_2 \\ 2x_1 + 4x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot (x_1 + 2x_2) \\ 2 \cdot (x_1 + 2x_2) \end{bmatrix} = (x_1 + 2x_2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

So that every outcome is a multiple of the vector $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Hence $\mathcal{R}(A) = \{ \text{all multiples of } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \} = \text{line through origin} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(A) \text{ is one-dimensional.}$

Q: Does $Ax = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ have a solution?

Ex: Let $L_N: C_N^2[0,1] \rightarrow C[0,1]$ be defined by $L_N[u] = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} u$
where, Recall: $C_N^2[0,1] = \{ u \in C[0,1] \mid \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(0) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(1) = 0 \}$

Q: Is $\mathcal{R}(L)$ all of $C[0,1]$?

⇒ Suppose that f is in $\mathcal{R}(L)$. Then there exists u in $C_N^2[0,1]$ with $-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} u = f$ so that $\int_0^1 f = -\int_0^1 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} u = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(0) + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(1) = 0$
so we must have $\int_0^1 f \, dx = 0$.

But then $\mathcal{R}(L)$ cannot be all of $C[0,1]$ since the function $f(x) = x$ is in $C[0,1]$ but $\int_0^1 f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0$.

Uniqueness of solutions to linear operators

Uniqueness to an expression " $Ax=b$ " where $A: V \rightarrow W$ is a linear operator between vector spaces V and W means that if there is a solution x satisfying $Ax=b$ then there is only ONE such solution.

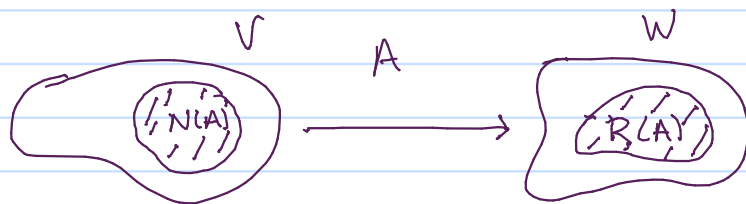
Suppose both x and z solve $Ax=b$, $Az=b$ then
 $A(x-z) = 0$

• Defn: We define the null space $N(A)$ of an operator A to be
 $N(A) = \{ z \in V \mid Az=0 \}$

• Note that since A is a linear operator then $A0=0$

this means that zero is always in $N(A)$. Now suppose that x and z are in $N(A)$ and α, β are scalars.

Then $A(\alpha x + \beta z) = A(\alpha x) + A(\beta z) = \alpha A(x) + \beta A(z) = \alpha 0 + \beta 0 = 0$
 so that $\alpha x + \beta z$ is in $N(A)$. Hence $N(A)$ is a vector subspace of V .



The Null space $N(A)$ of A lives in V .

The Range of A , $R(A)$, lives in W

Ex: Consider:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{then } Ax=b \text{ has the form } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

which by Gaussian elimination becomes:

$$x_1 + x_3 = b_1 \quad (\text{equation 1})$$

$$-2x_2 = b_2 \quad (\text{equation 2})$$

$$0 = -3b_1 + b_3 \quad (\text{equation 3})$$

This means that if $Ax=b$ is to have a solution then we must pick b such that $-3b_1 + b_3 = 0$

Also $x_1 + x_3 = b_1 + b_3 \rightarrow x_1 = b_1 + b_3 - x_3$ so x_3 can be anything. (notice there are no restrictions on x_3 in the system). Hence \vec{x} has the form:

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 - x_3 \\ -1/2 b_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ -1/2 b_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } s = x_3 \text{ is a free parameter.}$$

What does this tell us?

$$R(A) = \{ b : \text{there exists } y \text{ with } Ay=b \}$$

\rightarrow Note that it is required by (equation 3) that $b_3 = 3b_1$. So the choices of \vec{b} we can make look like $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ 3b_1 \end{bmatrix}$ so we have only two free variables, b_1 & b_2 , when

We select the vector \vec{b} . This means that $\mathcal{R}(A)$ will "look like" two-dimensional real space, \mathbb{R}^2 .

What about $N(A)$? This is where (equation 1) and (equation 2) are used. These equations say that: $x_1 + x_3 = b_1$ and $-2x_2 = b_2$. So any vector \vec{x} satisfying these requirements will give $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$.

- Recall that if \vec{x} and \vec{z} both satisfy $A\vec{x} = \vec{b} = A\vec{z}$ then the vector $(\vec{x} - \vec{z})$ satisfies $A(\vec{x} - \vec{z}) = \vec{0}$ so that $(\vec{x} - \vec{z})$ is in the subspace $N(A)$.

Notice that the equations: $x_1 + x_3 = b_1$ and $-2x_2 = b_2$ say that a vector \vec{x} will solve $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ if it has the form:

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 - x_3 \\ -b_2/2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ -b_2/2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So notice that the above says if we pick the vector $y = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ -b_2/2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ then y satisfies the equation $Ay = \vec{b}$ for $\vec{b} \in \mathcal{R}(A)$.

And it tells us that if we pick any other vector of the form $\vec{z} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ that

$A(y + s\vec{z}) = \vec{b}$ as well. So: $Ay = \vec{b}$, $A(y + s\vec{z}) = \vec{b}$ means $A(y - (y + s\vec{z})) = \vec{0} \Rightarrow A s\vec{z} = \vec{0}$

So $N(A)$ is described by all possible vectors of the form $s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ where s is some real number.

Writing this thought out in "Set notation" gives:

$$N(A) = \left\{ s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \mid s \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$