

MA-110 Linear Algebra and Differential Equations

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Lecture 13 D3

Subspaces Associated to a Matrix

Associated to an $m \times n$ matrix A , we have four subspaces:

- The **column space** of A : $C(A) = \text{Span}\{A_{*1}, \dots, A_{*n}\} = \{v : Ax = v \text{ is consistent}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$.
- The **null space** of A : $N(A) = \{x : Ax = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.
- The **row space** of $A = \text{Span}\{A_{1*}, \dots, A_{m*}\} = C(A^T) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.
- The **left null space** of $A = \{x : x^T A = 0\} = N(A^T) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$.

Question: Why are the row space and the left null space subspaces?

Recall: Let U be the echelon form of A , and R its reduced form.

$$\text{Then } N(A) = N(U) = N(R).$$

Observe: The rows of U (and R) are linear combinations of the rows of A , and vice versa \Rightarrow their row spaces are same, i.e.,

$$C(A^T) = C(U^T) = C(R^T).$$

We compute bases and dimensions of these special subspaces.

We illustrate how to find a basis and the dimension of the Null Space $N(A)$, the Column Space $C(A)$, and the Row Space $C(A^T)$ by using the following example.

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$.

Recall:

- The reduced form of A is $R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.
- The 1st and 2nd are pivot columns $\Rightarrow \text{rank}(A) = 2$.
- $v = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \end{pmatrix}^T$ is in $C(A) \Leftrightarrow Ax = v$ is solvable $\Leftrightarrow 2a - b - c = 0$.
- We can compute special solutions to $Ax = 0$. The number of special solutions to $Ax = 0$ is the number of free variables.

The Null Space: $N(A)$

For $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, reduced form $R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$N(A) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -c + 2d \\ -c - 2d \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + d \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

$$= \text{Span} \{ w_1 = (-1 \ -1 \ 1 \ 0)^T, w_2 = (2 \ -2 \ 0 \ 1)^T \}.$$

w_1, w_2 are linearly independent (Why?)

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{B} = \{w_1, w_2\}$ forms a basis for $N(A) \Rightarrow \dim(N(A)) = 2$.

A basis for $N(A)$ is the set of special solutions.

$\dim(N(A)) = \text{no. of free variables} = \text{no. of variables} - \text{rank}(A)$

$\dim(N(A))$ is called nullity(A).

Show: $w = (-3, -7, 5, 1)^T$ is in $N(A)$. Find $[w]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

The Column Space: $C(A)$

For $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, reduced form $R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Write $A = (v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3 \ v_4)$ and $R = (w_1 \ w_2 \ w_3 \ w_4)$.

Recall: Relations between the column vectors of A are the same as the relations between column vectors of R .

$\Rightarrow Ax = v_3$ has a solution has the same solution as $Rx = w_3$, and $Ax = v_4$ has a same solution as $Rx = w_4$.

Particular solutions are $(1, 1, 0, 0)^T$ and $(-2, 2, 0, 0)^T$ respectively \Rightarrow

$v_3 = v_1 + v_2$, $v_4 = -2v_1 + 2v_2$.

Observe:

- v_1 and v_2 correspond to the pivot columns of A .
- $\{v_1, v_2\}$ are linearly independent. Why?
- $C(A) = \text{Span}\{v_1, \dots, v_4\} = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2\}$.

Thus $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, v_2\}$ is a basis of $C(A)$. **Ques:** What is $[v_i]_{\mathcal{B}}$?

The Rank-Nullity Theorem

More generally, for an $m \times n$ matrix A ,

- Let $\text{rank}(A) = r$. The r pivot columns are linearly independent since their reduced form contains an $r \times r$ identity matrix.
- Each non-pivot column A_{*j} of A can be written as a linear combination of the pivots columns, by solving $Ax = A_{*j}$. Thus

A basis for $C(A)$ is given by the pivot columns of A .

$$\dim(C(A)) = \text{no. of pivot variables} = \text{rank}(A).$$

- A basis for $N(A)$ is given by the special solutions of A . Thus

$$\dim(N(A)) = \text{no. of free variables} = \text{nullity}(A).$$

Rank-Nullity Theorem: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then

$$\dim(C(A)) + \dim(N(A)) = \text{no. of variables} = n$$

Recall: If $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, then $R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Recall: R is obtained from A by taking non-zero scalar multiples of rows and their sums $\Rightarrow C(R^T) = C(A^T)$.

Observe: The non-zero rows of R will span $C(A^T)$, and they contain an identity submatrix \Rightarrow they are linearly independent.

Thus, the non-zero rows of R form a basis for $C(R^T) = C(A^T)$.

Exercise: Give two different basis for $C(A^T)$.

Since the number of non-zero rows of R = number of pivots of A , we have:

$$\dim C(A^T) = \text{no. of pivots of } A = \text{rank}(A).$$

Recall: $\dim C(A^T) = \text{rank}(A^T)$. Thus,

$$\text{rank}(A^T) = \dim (C(A^T)) = \text{rank}(A)$$

The no. of columns of A^T is m .

By Rank-Nullity Theorem, $\text{rank}(A^T) + \dim(N(A^T)) = m$.

Hence:

$$\dim(N(A^T)) = m - \text{rank}(A).$$

Exercise: Complete the example by finding a basis for $N(A^T)$.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ reduced form } R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Question. Can you use R to compute the basis for $N(A^T)$? Why not?

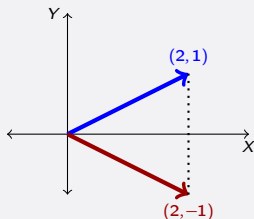
A. Need the reduced form of A^T which is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$

Matrices as Transformations: Examples

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$A \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_2 \end{pmatrix}$. Let $\mathbf{x} = (2, 1)^T$. What

is $A\mathbf{x}$? How does A transform \mathbf{x} ?
 A reflects vectors across the X -axis.

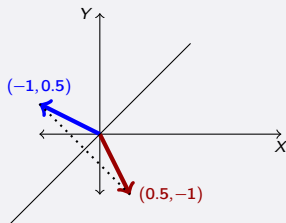


Let $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$B \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix}$. If $\mathbf{x} = (-1, 0.5)^T$,

then $B\mathbf{x} = (0.5, -1)^T$. How does B transform \mathbf{x} ?

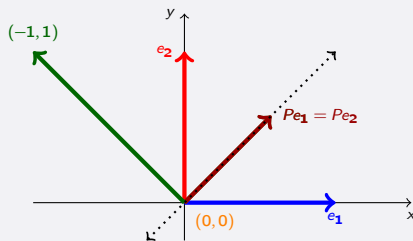
B reflects vectors across the line $x_1 = x_2$.



Q: Do reflections preserve scalar multiples? Sums of vectors?

Matrices as Transformations: Examples

- $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$ transforms $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ to $Px = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{x_1+x_2}{2} \\ \frac{x_1+x_2}{2} \end{pmatrix}$.



$$Pe_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} = Pe_2.$$

P transforms the vector $\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ to the origin.

Question: Geometrically, how is P transforming the vectors?

Answer: Projects onto the line $x_1 = x_2$.

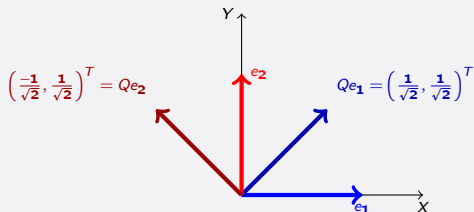
Question: What happens to sums of vectors when you project them? What about scalar multiples?

Question: Understand the effect of $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ on e_1 and e_2 and interpret what P represents geometrically!

Matrices as transformations: Examples

$$\text{Let } Q = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(45^\circ) & -\sin(45^\circ) \\ \sin(45^\circ) & \cos(45^\circ) \end{pmatrix}.$$

How does Q transform the standard basis vectors \mathbf{e}_1 and \mathbf{e}_2 ?



Q: What does the transformation $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto Q\mathbf{x}$ represent geometrically?

Rotations also map sum of vectors to sum of their images and a scalar multiple of a vector to the scalar multiple of its image.

- An $m \times n$ matrix A transforms a vector x in \mathbb{R}^n into the vector Ax in \mathbb{R}^m . Thus $T(x) = Ax$ defines a function $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$.
- The domain of T is _____. The codomain of T is _____.
- Let $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then b is in $C(A) \Leftrightarrow Ax = b$ is consistent $\Leftrightarrow T(x) = b$, i.e., b is in the image (or range) of T . Hence, the range of T is _____.

Example: Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 6 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $T(x) = Ax$ is a function with

domain \mathbb{R}^4 , codomain \mathbb{R}^3 , and range equal to $C(A) = \{(a, b, c)^T \mid 2a - b - c = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$.

Question: How does T transform sums and scalar multiples of vectors?

Ans. Nicely! For scalars a and b , and vectors x and y ,

$T(ax + by) = A(ax + by) = aAx + bAy = aT(x) + bT(y)$. Thus

T takes linear combinations to linear combinations.

Defn. Let V and W be vector spaces.

- A *linear transformation* from V to W is a function $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that for $x, y \in V$, scalars a and b ,

$$T(ax + by) = aT(x) + bT(y)$$

i.e., T takes linear combinations of vectors in V to the linear combinations of their images in W .