

Lecture 21 - Linear systems, Column Space, and Null Space

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Goals: Define column/null space for any matrix, compute an orthogonal basis of the column space, and use it to determine if $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution.

We have discussed systems of equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ where A is square to some extent; namely, we know such a system has only one solution precisely when A is invertible, in which case $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$. Otherwise, how do we determine if there is no solution or infinitely many? Moreover, how do we answer these if our A is an $m \times n$ matrix, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$?

Definition: The column space of an $m \times n$ matrix A is the span in \mathbb{R}^m of the columns of A (remember: columns of A are m -vectors). It is denoted $C(A)$.

Important: This means that the system has a solution precisely when \mathbf{b} is in $C(A)$ (it doesn't tell us how many solutions though. More on that later).

Example 1: Does the following system have a solution?

$$\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2x - 3y + 2z &= -1 \\ x + y - 4z &= 2 \\ y - 2z &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$\vec{b} = A\vec{x} \rightarrow$ linear combination of the columns of A

$$\begin{aligned} C(A) &= \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= x \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

is $\vec{b} \in C(A)$?

note: $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \therefore \vec{b} \in C(A) \rightarrow$ there's at least one solution

Example 2: Determine the column space of the following matrix:

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

$$C(A) = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

check for dependence

① none are scalar multiples

② check linear comb

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 = -3x + 2y \rightarrow 2 = -3x - 1 \rightarrow x = -1$$

$$1 = x - 4y \rightarrow -2y = 1 \rightarrow y = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$0 = x - 2y \rightarrow x = 2y$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -1 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

\therefore vectors are linearly dependent, drop one bc $\dim = 2$

$$C(A) = \text{span} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

or just any two of the vectors

In general, we can just apply Gram-Schmidt to the columns of A to compute a basis for its span.

$$\hookrightarrow \text{find } \vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_k \rightarrow C(A) = \text{span}(\vec{w}_1, \dots, \vec{w}_k)$$

Definition: For any two sets V and W , the notation " $V \subset W$ " read as " V contained in W " or " V is a subset of W " means every object in V also belongs to W (e.g. a line V contained in a plane W).

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{span of 3 2-vectors} \quad 2$$

The following two propositions give a more geometric description about the solutions to a 2×3 or a 3×3 system.

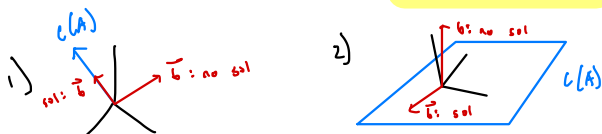
Proposition 21.2.5: Let A be a 2×3 matrix whose columns are all nonzero. The subspace $C(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is a line when all columns are multiples of one another, or equivalently, "have the same slope"; if this is not the case, then $C(A) = \mathbb{R}^2$. For any such matrix A and any $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ of 2 equations in 3 unknowns has a solution precisely in the following circumstances:

- if $C(A)$ is a line then there is a solution exactly when \mathbf{b} lies on that line (so either $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$ or the slope b_2/b_1 is the same as that of all nonzero vectors in the line $C(A)$), or
- if $C(A) = \mathbb{R}^2$, then there is a solution for any \mathbf{b} .

Proposition 21.2.6: Let A be a 3×3 matrix whose columns are all nonzero. The subspace $C(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a line when all columns are scalar multiples of each other, it is equal to \mathbb{R}^3 when the three columns are linearly independent, and in all other cases, it is a plane.

For such A and any $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ of 3 equations and 3 unknowns has a solution precisely in the following circumstances:

- if $C(A)$ is a line, then there is a solution exactly when \mathbf{b} lies in that line.
- if $C(A)$ is a plane, then there is a solution exactly when \mathbf{b} lies in that plane.
- if $C(A) = \mathbb{R}^3$, then there is a solution for any \mathbf{b} .



More generally, how can we tell if $\mathbf{b} \in C(A)$ for any $m \times n$ matrix A ? One way is as follows:

- if $\mathbf{b} \in C(A)$, then $\text{Proj}_{C(A)}(\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{b}$.

So calculating the projection will tell us exactly if there is a solution.

Example 3: Do the following systems have solutions?

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{b}_1 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{aligned} x+z &= 1 \\ x+y+z &= 0 \\ y+z &= 0 \\ z &= 0 \end{aligned} & A &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{aligned} x+z &= 2 \\ x+y+z &= -2 \\ y+z &= 2 \\ z &= 6 \end{aligned} & \vec{b}_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 2 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

step 1) find column space using Gram-Schmidt to find orthogonal basis

$$\text{result: } \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \dim C(A) = 3$$

step 2) check projections

$$1) \text{proj}_{C(A)} \vec{b}_1 = \frac{1}{2} \vec{v}_1 + \frac{-1}{6} \vec{v}_2 + \frac{1}{12} \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix} \neq \vec{b}_1 \Rightarrow \text{system 1 has no solution bc } \vec{b} \notin C(A)$$

$$2) \text{proj}_{C(A)} \vec{b}_2 = 0 \vec{v}_1 + 0 \vec{v}_2 + 2 \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{b}_2 \Rightarrow \text{system 2 has at least one solution}$$

Recall that the **image** of a linear transformation $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is the collection of vectors $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ obtained as output of f , i.e. the vectors \mathbf{b} such that $\mathbf{b} = f(\mathbf{x})$ for some \mathbf{x} .

$$= A\vec{x}$$

$$\text{image}(f) = C(A')$$

We have now discussed the question "When does $Ax = b$ have a solution?" We will now address the questions "If there is a solution, is there more than one? How do we describe the set of all solutions?"

Let \vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2 be solutions to $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$, this means $A\vec{x}_1 = \vec{b}$, $A\vec{x}_2 = \vec{b}$

$$A\vec{x}_1 - A\vec{x}_2 = \vec{b} - \vec{b} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow A(\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2) = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2 \text{ solves } A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

① $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ has one solution ($\vec{x} = \vec{0}$) $\Rightarrow \vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2 = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{x}_1 = \vec{x}_2$

② $A\vec{d} = \vec{0}$ for $\vec{d} \neq \vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2 = t\vec{d} \Rightarrow \vec{x}_1 = \vec{x}_2 + t\vec{d} \Rightarrow A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has ∞ solutions
 $\vec{d} \in N(A)$
 or $A(t\vec{d}) = \vec{0}$ scalar mult of \vec{d} still works
 $t(A\vec{d}) = \vec{0}$
 send \vec{d} can be anything

We see that the number of solutions to $Ax = b$ is closely related to whether or not there is a nonzero solution to $Ax = 0$; we call this the **homogeneous system** associated with A .

Definition: The **null space** of A , denoted $N(A)$, is the set of all solutions in \mathbb{R}^n to the homogeneous system $Ax = 0$.

In the context of linear transformations, $N(A)$ is everything that T_A sends to 0 . So if T_A is invertible, $N(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$

Example 4: Let V be a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , and $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be the projection of a vector onto V . What is $N(A)$, where A is the matrix associated with T ? null space is $T(\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$

$$T(\vec{x}) = \text{Proj}_V(\vec{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \text{Proj}_{\vec{u}_i}(\vec{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}_i}{\vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_i} \vec{u}_i \Rightarrow \vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}_i = 0 \rightarrow \vec{x} \text{ is orthogonal to all vectors in } V$$

Therefore, if $T(\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$, then $\vec{x} \in V^\perp$
 (orthogonal complement)

$$\text{conversely, if } \vec{x} \in V^\perp, \text{ then } T(\vec{x}) = \vec{0} \Rightarrow N(A) = V^\perp$$

Proposition 21.3.5: For any $m \times n$ matrix A , $N(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ contains 0 . Also, if $\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k \in N(A)$, then any linear combination $c_1\vec{x}_1 + \dots + c_k\vec{x}_k \in N(A)$.

contains $\vec{0}$. $A\vec{0} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{0} \in N(A)$

respects addition and scalar multiplication . $A(c_1\vec{x}_1 + \dots + c_k\vec{x}_k) = c_1A\vec{x}_1 + \dots + c_kA\vec{x}_k = c_1\vec{0} + \dots + c_k\vec{0} = \vec{0}$

Proposition 21.3.6: The null space $N(A)$ is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

So in general, to find $N(A)$, one needs to solve $Ax = 0$ and express x as a linear combination of vectors.

★ **Theorem 21.3.7:** If $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies (i) $0 \in V$ and (ii) for any $\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k \in V$ and all scalars c_1, \dots, c_k , $c_1\vec{x}_1 + \dots + c_k\vec{x}_k \in V$, then V is a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Proposition 21.3.10: For any $m \times n$ matrix A and $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ for which the vector equation $Ax = b$ has some solution $\vec{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the solutions to $Ax = b$ are precisely the vectors of the form $\vec{x}_0 + \vec{d}$, where $\vec{d} \in N(A)$. There are infinitely many solutions whenever $N(A)$ contains a nonzero vector.

$$A(\vec{x}_0 + \vec{d}) = A\vec{x}_0 + A\vec{d} = \vec{b} + \vec{0} = \vec{b}$$

Example 5: How many solutions does the following system of linear equations?

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= 2 \\ x - y + z &= 2 \\ 2y - z &= 0 \end{aligned} \rightarrow A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

More generally, how can we tell if $\vec{b} \in C(A)$ for any $m \times n$ matrix A ? One way is as follows:

- if $\vec{b} \in C(A)$, then $\text{Proj}_{C(A)}(\vec{b}) = \vec{b}$.

So calculating the projection will tell us exactly if there is a solution.

Is there a solution?

Gram-Schmidt: $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$, $\dim C(A) = 2$

$\text{Proj}_{C(A)} \vec{b} = 2\vec{w}_1 + 0\vec{w}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{b} \checkmark \quad \therefore \text{there's at least 1 solution}$

How many solutions?

Calculate $N(A) \rightarrow A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \rightarrow \begin{aligned} x+y &= 0 \rightarrow x = -y \rightarrow y = -x \\ x-y+z &= 0 \rightarrow x+y-2x=0 \checkmark \\ 2y-z &= 0 \rightarrow z = 2y = -2x \end{aligned}$

$A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ -x \\ -2x \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \therefore N(A) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \dim N(A) = 1$

Since $N(A)$ contains a nonzero vector, $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has infinitely many solutions

solutions: $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}$

To summarize:

Theorem 21.3.14: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. The equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has

- no solution if $\vec{b} \notin C(A)$.
- exactly one solution if $\vec{b} \in C(A)$ and $N(A)$ consists of only $\vec{0}$.
- infinitely many solutions if $\vec{b} \in C(A)$ and $N(A)$ contains a nonzero vector.

$A\vec{x}_i = \vec{0}$

★ **Theorem 21.3.16 (Rank-Nullity Theorem):** For every $m \times n$ matrix A ,

$\dim(C(A)) + \dim(N(A)) = n$

rank nullity

$\left(\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_k \right), \vec{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \vec{v}_n$

$N(A)$ $C(A)$

$n-k$ vectors

These results give a sort of "guideline" to determining the number of solutions to over/under determined systems:

Suppose $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ is a system with m equations in n unknowns (so A is $m \times n$).

- If the system is **overdetermined** ($m > n$), then it often fails to have any solution since there are "too many equations" happening simultaneously.
- If the system is **underdetermined** ($m < n$), then if there is a solution, there is automatically infinitely many since there are "too few equations" so there is not enough information to pin down exactly one solution.

Again, these are not always the case; they are simply a guideline.

P[RQ:

Depending on $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, how many solutions?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C(A) = \text{span} \left(\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \right) \text{ plane}$$

$$A\vec{x} = 0$$

$$x+y=0$$

$$y=0 \rightarrow x=0, y=0$$

$$x+y=0$$

$$N(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$$

$$x+y=1$$

$$y=0$$

no solution

$$x+y=2$$

$$x+y=1$$

$$y=0$$

one solution

$$x+y=1$$

$$x+y=1$$

$$y=-1$$

no solution

$$x+y=2$$

$$x + a_{12}y + a_{13}z = 2$$

$$-y + a_{23}z = -5$$

$$z = 3 \text{ integer}$$

$$-y + 3a_{23} = -5$$

$$y = 3a_{23} + 5, a_{23} \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ integer}$$

$$x + a_{12}(3a_{23} + 5) + a_{13}(3) = 2$$

$$x + 3a_{12}a_{23} + 5a_{12} + 3a_{13} = 2$$

$$x = 2 - 3a_{12}a_{23} - 5a_{12} - 3a_{13} \text{ integer}$$

Notice $\mathcal{C}(A)$ is the span of the nonzero rows of A . Indeed, \mathbf{v} is a basis of $\mathcal{C}(A)$ (as is any nonzero scalar multiple of \mathbf{v}). The null space $N(A)$ consists of vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^3$ that are orthogonal to each row of A (by the meaning of $A\mathbf{x}$ and of $N(A)$), but those rows are multiples of \mathbf{w}^T , so this is the same as orthogonality to \mathbf{w} . In other words, $N(A)$ is the linear subspace of \mathbf{R}^3 consisting