

Solution for Assignment 6

1. a) By using the elimination procedure on A we bring the matrix into reduced row echolon form R :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 5 & -2 \\ -3 & 3 & 12 & -3 \\ 1 & -14 & -7 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -5 & 2 \\ 0 & -3 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & -12 & -2 & -8 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 10 & -20 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} =: R.$$

Performing the same row operations on \mathbf{b} as well yields

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ -15 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ -10 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} =: \mathbf{c}.$$

From the lecture, we know that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \iff R\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4$. The only free variable is x_4 . In particular, we can rewrite our system as

$$I_3 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{c} - \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} [x_4] = \mathbf{c} - x_4 \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 6x_4 \\ -x_4 \\ -1 + 2x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} =: F$ (so that we can compare with the explanation in the blackboard notes). There-

fore, the full set of solutions is $\mathcal{L} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 6x_4 \\ -x_4 \\ -1 + 2x_4 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4 : x_4 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$.

- b) The nullspace of A contains the solutions to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Equivalently, these are the solutions to $R\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ with the R from the previous subtask. As above, we can rearrange this system to

$$I_3 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0} - \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} [x_4] = -x_4 \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6x_4 \\ -x_4 \\ 2x_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

where we again have $\begin{bmatrix} -6 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}^\top = F$. Following the blackboard notes, we can obtain one basis vector of $\mathbf{N}(A)$ from each free variable. In this case, we only have a single free variable. Setting it to 1 yields the solution $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\top$. We conclude that this single vector is a basis of $\mathbf{N}(A)$. In words, this means that every vector in $\mathbf{N}(A)$ can be obtained from this basis vector.

Now consider the column space of A . By definition, it is spanned by the columns of A . In order to find a basis for it, we have to find an independent subset of these columns that still spans the same space. Equivalently, we have to find the CR decomposition of A . Luckily, we already found R . Moreover, we know from the lecture (Section 3.2.2 in the blackboard notes) that C can now be

found by taking those columns in A that have a pivot in R . Concretely, in our case R has pivots in the first three columns. Hence, we get

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 5 \\ -3 & 3 & 12 \\ 1 & -14 & -7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The columns $\mathbf{v}_1 = [-1 \ -3 \ 1]^\top$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = [2 \ 3 \ -14]^\top$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = [5 \ 12 \ -7]^\top$ of C are a basis of $\mathbf{C}(A)$.

- c) Recall that the dimension of a subspace is the size of its basis. For $\mathbf{N}(A)$, we got 1 basis vector and hence $\mathbf{N}(A)$ has dimension 1. Similarly, $\mathbf{C}(A)$ has dimension 3. In particular, A has rank $r = 3$ and this allows us to calculate the dimensions of $\mathbf{C}(A^\top)$ and $\mathbf{N}(A^\top)$ using the formulas from the lecture as well: the dimension of $\mathbf{C}(A^\top)$ is $r = 3$ while the dimension of $\mathbf{N}(A^\top)$ is $m - r = 0$ where m is the number of rows of A .
- d) Recall that row operations preserve the row space and hence we have $\mathbf{R}(A) = \mathbf{R}(R)$. Moreover, all rows of R are linearly independent by construction. Hence, the rows of R form a basis of $\mathbf{R}(A)$. Concretely, a basis of $\mathbf{R}(A)$ is given by the three vectors

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4.$$

2. a) Let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ denote the columns of A . We can rewrite

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ to } 1\mathbf{v}_1 + 0\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

which immediately yields $\mathbf{v}_1 = [1 \ 1 \ 2]^\top$. Similarly, we get

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1\mathbf{v}_1 + 1\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and hence

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We conclude that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- b) Observe that A has $m = 3$ rows, $n = 2$ columns, and rank $r = 2$ (since the two columns of A are linearly independent). From the lecture, we know that the dimension of $\mathbf{C}(A)$ is $r = 2$, the dimension of $\mathbf{C}(A^\top)$ is $r = 2$, the dimension of $\mathbf{N}(A)$ is $n - r = 0$, and the dimension of $\mathbf{N}(A^\top)$ is $m - r = 1$.
3. a) Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be arbitrary. We prove $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(A) \iff \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(B)$ by arguing both directions separately.

“ \implies ” Assume $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(A)$, i.e. there exist coefficients $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m$. Consider adding the two terms $ca_j\mathbf{v}_i$ and $-ca_j\mathbf{v}_i$ to \mathbf{x} (we’re effectively adding $\mathbf{0}$). We then get

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{x} + ca_j\mathbf{v}_i - ca_j\mathbf{v}_i \\ &= (a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m) + ca_j\mathbf{v}_i - ca_j\mathbf{v}_i \\ &= a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_{i-1}\mathbf{v}_{i-1} + (a_i + ca_j)\mathbf{v}_i + a_{i+1}\mathbf{v}_{i+1} + \dots \\ &\quad + a_{j-1}\mathbf{v}_{j-1} + a_j(\mathbf{v}_j - c\mathbf{v}_i) + a_{j+1}\mathbf{v}_{j+1} + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m\end{aligned}$$

where we assumed $j > i$ (but the other case is symmetric). In particular, defining $b_k = a_k$ for all $k \in [m] \setminus \{i\}$ and $b_i = a_i + ca_j$ we get

$$\mathbf{x} = b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m$$

and therefore $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(B)$.

“ \impliedby ” Assume $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(B)$, i.e. there exist coefficients $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbf{x} = b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m$. No new ideas are needed for this direction (i.e. we just reverse the argument above and in particular, one could prove both directions at once). Define $a_k = b_k$ for all $k \in [m] \setminus \{i\}$ and $a_i = b_i - cb_j$. We then get

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} &= b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m \\ &= (b_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{v}_m) - cb_j\mathbf{v}_i \\ &= a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m\end{aligned}$$

and therefore $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(A)$.

b) Concretely, switching rows i and j implies that $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{w}_j$, $\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{w}_i$, and $\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{w}_k$ for all $k \in [m] \setminus \{i, j\}$. Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be arbitrary. If there exist coefficients $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m$, then the coefficients defined as $b_k = a_k$ for all $k \in [m] \setminus \{i, j\}$, $b_i = a_j$, and $b_j = a_i$, yield $\mathbf{x} = b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m$. The converse is also true, i.e. from coefficients $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathbf{x} = b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m$ we can derive coefficients $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m$ by switching b_i and b_j . We conclude $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(A)$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(B)$ and hence $\mathbf{R}(A) = \mathbf{R}(B)$.

c) Concretely, we have $\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{w}_k$ for all $k \in [m] \setminus \{i\}$ and $\mathbf{w}_i = c\mathbf{v}_i$. Now let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be arbitrary. Recall that $c \neq 0$. Thus, given coefficients $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m$, we define $b_k = a_k$ for $k \in [m] \setminus \{i\}$ and $b_i = \frac{a_i}{c}$ to get $\mathbf{x} = b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m$. Conversely, if we are given coefficients $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathbf{x} = b_1\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + b_m\mathbf{w}_m$, then defining $a_k = b_k$ for $k \in [m] \setminus \{i\}$ and $a_i = cb_i$ yields $\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_m\mathbf{v}_m$. In other words, we have $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(A)$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}(B)$ and hence $\mathbf{R}(A) = \mathbf{R}(B)$.

d) Recall that the elimination procedure uses exactly the three row operations from above, i.e. in each step we can either add a multiple of one row to another, switch two rows, or multiply a row with a scalar. As we proved above, each of these operations preserves the row space. Hence, any sequence of these operations also preserves the row space. We conclude $\mathbf{R}(A) = \mathbf{R}(R)$.

4. We want to prove that $U \cup W$ is a subspace of V if and only if $U \subseteq W$ or $W \subseteq U$.

“ \impliedby ” If $U \subseteq W$, then $U \cup W = W$ is a subspace of V by assumption. The same reasoning applies in the case $W \subseteq U$.

“ \implies ” We provide an indirect proof, i.e. assuming that we have $U \not\subseteq W$ and $W \not\subseteq U$, we want to prove that $U \cup W$ is not a subspace of V . Consider arbitrary vectors $\mathbf{u} \in U \setminus W$ and $\mathbf{w} \in W \setminus U$ that must exist by assumption. Clearly, we have $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \in U \cup W$. We claim that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \notin U \cup W$ which implies that $U \cup W$ is not closed under vector addition and hence it is not a subspace.

Indeed, if we had $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \in U \cup W$ then either $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \in U$ or $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \in W$. Assume first $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \in U$. Since U is a subspace containing both \mathbf{u} and $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$ we get $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{w} \in U$ since U must be closed under vector addition. But this is impossible by our assumption $\mathbf{w} \in W \setminus U$. Analogously, the case $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} \in W$ is impossible as well. Hence, $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$ is not in $U \cup W$, as desired.

5. Recall that the dimension of a subspace is defined as the size of a basis of that subspace. So to solve this exercise, it suffices to come up with a basis of \mathcal{S}_n . We already saw a basis of \mathcal{S}_2 in the lecture. In particular, the three matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

are such a basis. None of the matrices can be obtained from the others because each of the three matrices has a non-zero entry at a place where none of the other matrices has a non-zero entry (i.e. the three matrices are linearly independent). Moreover, every symmetric 2×2 matrix can be obtained as linear combination of those three matrices because it must have the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + d \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

for some $a, b, d \in \mathbb{R}$ (i.e. the three matrices span all of \mathcal{S}_2).

This idea generalizes to \mathcal{S}_n . In particular, for $i, j \in [n]$ with $i \leq j$, define the $n \times n$ matrix $B^{(ij)}$ by

$$B_{\ell k}^{(ij)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \ell = i \text{ and } k = j \\ 1 & \text{if } \ell = j \text{ and } k = i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for all $\ell, k \in [n]$. Observe that for $i = j$, $B^{(ij)}$ contains a single 1 on its diagonal and is zero everywhere else. For $i < j$, we find exactly two 1s in $B^{(ij)}$ and zeroes everywhere else. We claim that the set of matrices

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B^{(ij)} : i, j \in [n], i \leq j\}$$

is a basis of \mathcal{S}_n .

We first check linear independence. Let $i, j \in [n]$ with $i \leq j$ be arbitrary. Then $B_{ij}^{(ij)} = 1$ but none of the other matrices in the set has a non-zero entry at position (i, j) . So $B^{(ij)}$ cannot be obtained as a linear combination of the other matrices. We conclude that set of matrices \mathcal{B} is independent.

Let now $S \in \mathcal{S}_n$ be an arbitrary symmetric $n \times n$ matrix. For all $i, j \in [n]$, we must have $S_{ij} = S_{ji}$ by symmetry. Thus, we can write

$$S = \sum_{i, j \in [n]: i \leq j} S_{ij} B^{(ij)}$$

and therefore we conclude that \mathcal{B} spans all of \mathcal{S}_n .

Finally, observe that $|\mathcal{B}| = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$. Hence, the dimension of \mathcal{S}_n is $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

6. 1. Which of the following statements is true for all $n \times n$ matrices A ?

✓ (a) $\mathbf{N}(A) = \mathbf{N}(2A)$

Explanations: We know from the lecture that the nullspace of an $n \times n$ matrix is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . In particular, any nullspace is closed under scalar multiplication. Therefore, $\mathbf{N}(A) = \mathbf{N}(2A)$.

(b) $\mathbf{N}(A) = \mathbf{N}(A^2)$

Explanations: Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be arbitrary. If we have $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, we also get $A^2\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. But the converse is not necessarily true. Consider the 2×2 matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Clearly, there exists $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ with $A\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and hence $\mathbf{N}(A) \neq \mathbb{R}^2$. But we have $A^2 = 0$ and therefore $\mathbf{N}(A^2) = \mathbb{R}^2$.

(c) $\mathbf{N}(A) = \mathbf{N}(A + I)$

Explanations: Consider again the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. The matrix $A + I$ has rank 2 while the matrix A has rank 1. Therefore, their nullspaces cannot be the same.

(d) $\mathbf{N}(A) = \mathbf{N}(A^\top)$

Explanations: For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ we get $A^\top = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Now consider the standard unit vector $\mathbf{e}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We have $A\mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{e}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $A^\top\mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{0}$ and therefore $\mathbf{N}(A) \neq \mathbf{N}(A^\top)$.

2. Which of the following statements is true for all square matrices A ?

✓ (a) $C(A) = C(2A)$

Explanations: We know that the column space of an $n \times n$ matrix is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . In particular, any column space is closed under scalar multiplication. Therefore, $C(A) = C(2A)$.

(b) $C(A) = C(A^2)$

Explanations: For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ we get $A^2 = 0$. As before, this implies that A has rank 1 while A^2 has rank 0 and hence they have different column spaces (the dimensions of the column spaces must be different, so the spaces themselves must be different as well).

(c) $C(A) = C(A + I)$

Explanations: For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ we get that A has rank 1 while $A + I$ has rank 2. Therefore, the two column spaces must be different.

(d) $C(A) = C(A^\top)$

Explanations: The column space of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is spanned by the standard unit vector e_1 while the column space of A^\top is spanned by the standard unit vector e_2 . In particular, we have $e_1 \in C(A)$ but $e_1 \notin C(A^\top)$.

3. The following equations each describe a plane in \mathbb{R}^3 :

$$\begin{aligned}x - y - z &= 0 \\2x - 5y + 3z &= 0 \\3x &+ 4z = 0.\end{aligned}$$

Which of the following statements is true?

(a) The intersection of all three planes is empty.

✓ (b) The intersection of all three planes contains exactly one element.

(c) The intersection of all three planes is a line.

Explanations: For a point to be in the intersection of all three planes, it has to be a solution to all three equations. Thus, we want to understand the set of solutions of the linear system

$$A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & -5 & 3 \\ 3 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}.$$

As it turns out, A has full rank (i.e. its rank is 3) and hence this linear system has a unique solution (which is the zero-vector). Therefore, the intersection of all three planes contains exactly one element.

4. Consider the linear system

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 + (b - 1)x_2 &= 3 \\ -3x_1 - (2b - 8)x_2 &= -5\end{aligned}$$

with variables x_1, x_2 and parameter $b \in \mathbb{R}$. For which values of b is the set of solutions to the above system empty (i.e. there is no solution)?

- (a) Only for $b = 0$.
- ✓ (b) Only for $b = -5$.
- (c) For all possible values of b (i.e. for all of \mathbb{R}).
- (d) The system always has a solution regardless of the value of b .

Explanations: Adding the first equation 3 times to the second equation, we get $(3b - 3 - 2b + 8)x_2 = 4$ and thus $(b + 5)x_2 = 4$. This equation has a solution whenever $b \neq -5$. But there is no solution if $b = -5$.