35. [M] Show that $\mathbf{w}$ is in the subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$ spanned by $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$, where

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ -4 \\ -4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -4 \\ -3 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 3 \\ -2 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ 6 \\ -5 \\ -18 \end{bmatrix}$$

36. [M] Determine if $\mathbf{y}$ is in the subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$ spanned by the columns of A, where

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ -8 \\ 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -9 \\ 8 & 7 & -6 \\ -5 & -8 & 3 \\ 2 & -2 & -9 \end{bmatrix}$$

37. [M] The vector space $H = \text{Span}\,\{1, \cos^2 t, \cos^4 t, \cos^6 t\}$ contains at least two interesting functions that will be used in a later exercise:

$$\mathbf{f}(t) = 1 - 8\cos^2 t + 8\cos^4 t$$
$$\mathbf{g}(t) = -1 + 18\cos^2 t - 48\cos^4 t + 32\cos^6 t$$

Study the graph of $\mathbf{f}$ for $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$, and guess a simple formula for $\mathbf{f}(t)$. Verify your conjecture by graphing the difference between $1 + \mathbf{f}(t)$ and your formula for $\mathbf{f}(t)$. (Hopefully, you will see the constant function 1.) Repeat for $\mathbf{g}$.

38. [M] Repeat Exercise 37 for the functions

$$\mathbf{f}(t) = 3\sin t - 4\sin^3 t$$
$$\mathbf{g}(t) = 1 - 8\sin^2 t + 8\sin^4 t$$
$$\mathbf{h}(t) = 5\sin t - 20\sin^3 t + 16\sin^5 t$$

in the vector space $\text{Span}\,\{1, \sin t, \sin^2 t, \ldots, \sin^5 t\}$.

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Take any $\mathbf{u}$ in H—say, $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$—and take any $c \neq 1$—say, $c = 2$. Then $c\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix}$. If this is in H, then there is some s such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3s \\ 2 + 5s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

That is, $s = 2$ and $s = 12/5$, which is impossible. So $2\mathbf{u}$ is not in H and H is not a vector space.

2. $\mathbf{v}_1 = 1\mathbf{v}_1 + 0\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + 0\mathbf{v}_p$. This expresses $\mathbf{v}_1$ as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p$, so $\mathbf{v}_1$ is in W. In general, $\mathbf{v}_k$ is in W because

$$\mathbf{v}_k = 0\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + 0\mathbf{v}_{k-1} + 1\mathbf{v}_k + 0\mathbf{v}_{k+1} + \cdots + 0\mathbf{v}_p$$

4.2 NULL SPACES, COLUMN SPACES, AND LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

In applications of linear algebra, subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$ usually arise in one of two ways: (1) as the set of all solutions to a system of homogeneous linear equations or (2) as the set of all linear combinations of certain specified vectors. In this section, we compare and contrast these two descriptions of subspaces, allowing us to practice using the concept of a subspace. Actually, as you will soon discover, we have been working with subspaces ever since Section 1.3. The main new feature here is the terminology. The section concludes with a discussion of the kernel and range of a linear transformation.

The Null Space of a Matrix

Consider the following system of homogeneous equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 3x_2 - 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -5x_1 + 9x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

In matrix form, this system is written as $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & -2 \\ -5 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

Recall that the set of all $\mathbf{x}$ that satisfy (1) is called the **solution set** of the system (1). Often it is convenient to relate this set directly to the matrix A and the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. We call the set of $\mathbf{x}$ that satisfy $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ the **null space** of the matrix A.

DEFINITION

The **null space** of an $m \times n$ matrix A, written as Nul A, is the set of all solutions of the homogeneous equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. In set notation,

$$\text{Nul } A = \{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \text{ is in } \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}$$

A more dynamic description of Nul A is the set of all $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ that are mapped into the zero vector of $\mathbb{R}^m$ via the linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$. See Fig. 1.

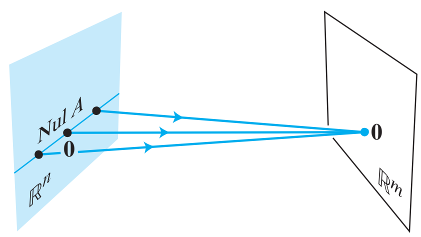


FIGURE 1

EXAMPLE 1 Let A be the matrix in (2) above, and let $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\mathbf{u}$ belongs to the null space of A.

SOLUTION To test if $\mathbf{u}$ satisfies $A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$, simply compute

$$A\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & -2 \\ -5 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 - 9 + 4 \\ -25 + 27 - 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus $\mathbf{u}$ is in Nul A. ■

The term *space* in *null space* is appropriate because the null space of a matrix is a vector space, as shown in the next theorem.

THEOREM 2

The null space of an $m \times n$ matrix A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. Equivalently, the set of all solutions to a system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ of m homogeneous linear equations in n unknowns is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$.

PROOF Certainly Nul A is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ because A has n columns. We must show that Nul A satisfies the three properties of a subspace. Of course, $\mathbf{0}$ is in Nul A. Next, let $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ represent any two vectors in Nul A. Then

$$A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$$

To show that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is in Nul A, we must show that $A(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$. Using a property of matrix multiplication, compute

$$A(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = A\mathbf{u} + A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$$

Thus $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is in Nul A, and Nul A is closed under vector addition. Finally, if c is any scalar, then

$$A(c\mathbf{u}) = c(A\mathbf{u}) = c(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$$

which shows that $c\mathbf{u}$ is in Nul A. Thus Nul A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Let H be the set of all vectors in $\mathbb{R}^4$ whose coordinates a, b, c, d satisfy the equations $a - 2b + 5c = d$ and $c - a = b$. Show that H is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$.

SOLUTION Rearrange the equations that describe the elements of H, and note that H is the set of all solutions of the following system of homogeneous linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a - 2b + 5c - d &= 0 \\ -a - b + c \phantom{{}-d} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

By Theorem 2, H is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$. ■

It is important that the linear equations defining the set H are homogeneous. Otherwise, the set of solutions will definitely *not* be a subspace (because the zero vector is not a solution of a nonhomogeneous system). Also, in some cases, the set of solutions could be empty.

An Explicit Description of Nul A

There is no obvious relation between vectors in Nul A and the entries in A. We say that Nul A is defined *implicitly*, because it is defined by a condition that must be checked. No explicit list or description of the elements in Nul A is given. However, *solving* the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ amounts to producing an *explicit* description of Nul A. The next example reviews the procedure from Section 1.5.

EXAMPLE 3 Find a spanning set for the null space of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6 & -1 & 1 & -7 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 5 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION The first step is to find the general solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ in terms of free variables. Row reduce the augmented matrix $[\, A \quad \mathbf{0} \,]$ to *reduced* echelon form in order to write the basic variables in terms of the free variables:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 \phantom{{}+x_3} - x_4 + 3x_5 &= 0 \\ x_3 + 2x_4 - 2x_5 &= 0 \\ 0 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The general solution is $x_1 = 2x_2 + x_4 - 3x_5$, $x_3 = -2x_4 + 2x_5$, with x_2, x_4, and x_5 free. Next, decompose the vector giving the general solution into a linear combination of vectors where *the weights are the free variables*. That is,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_2 + x_4 - 3x_5 \\ x_2 \\ -2x_4 + 2x_5 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \underset{\uparrow \atop \mathbf{u}}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}} + x_4 \underset{\uparrow \atop \mathbf{v}}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}} + x_5 \underset{\uparrow \atop \mathbf{w}}{\begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}$$

$$= x_2\mathbf{u} + x_4\mathbf{v} + x_5\mathbf{w} \tag{3}$$

Every linear combination of $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{w}$ is an element of Nul A. Thus $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\}$ is a spanning set for Nul A. ■

Two points should be made about the solution of Example 3 that apply to all problems of this type where Nul A contains nonzero vectors. We will use these facts later.

1. The spanning set produced by the method in Example 3 is automatically linearly independent because the free variables are the weights on the spanning vectors. For instance, look at the 2nd, 4th, and 5th entries in the solution vector in (3) and note that $x_2\mathbf{u} + x_4\mathbf{v} + x_5\mathbf{w}$ can be $\mathbf{0}$ only if the weights x_2, x_4, and x_5 are all zero.
2. When Nul A contains nonzero vectors, the number of vectors in the spanning set for Nul A equals the number of free variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

The Column Space of a Matrix

Another important subspace associated with a matrix is its column space. Unlike the null space, the column space is defined explicitly via linear combinations.

DEFINITION

The **column space** of an $m \times n$ matrix A, written as Col A, is the set of all linear combinations of the columns of A. If $A = [\,\mathbf{a}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_n\,]$, then

$$\text{Col } A = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_n\}$$

Since Span $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_n\}$ is a subspace, by Theorem 1, the next theorem follows from the definition of Col A and the fact that the columns of A are in $\mathbb{R}^m$.

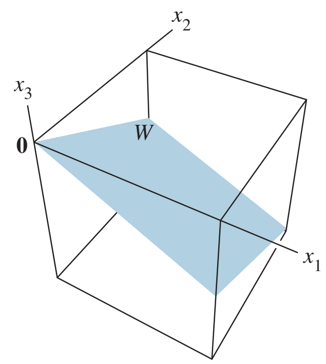
THEOREM 3

The column space of an $m \times n$ matrix A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^m$.

Note that a typical vector in Col A can be written as $A\mathbf{x}$ for some $\mathbf{x}$ because the notation $A\mathbf{x}$ stands for a linear combination of the columns of A. That is,

$$\boxed{\text{Col } A = \{\mathbf{b} : \mathbf{b} = A\mathbf{x} \text{ for some } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n\}}$$

The notation $A\mathbf{x}$ for vectors in Col A also shows that Col A is the *range* of the linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$. We will return to this point of view at the end of the section.



EXAMPLE 4 Find a matrix A such that $W = \text{Col}\, A$.

$$W = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 6a - b \\ a + b \\ -7a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

SOLUTION First, write W as a set of linear combinations.

$$W = \left\{ a \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} : a, b \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\} = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Second, use the vectors in the spanning set as the columns of A. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ -7 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then $W = \text{Col}\, A$, as desired. ∎

Recall from Theorem 4 in Section 1.4 that the columns of A span $\mathbb{R}^m$ if and only if the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution for each $\mathbf{b}$. We can restate this fact as follows:

> The column space of an $m \times n$ matrix A is all of $\mathbb{R}^m$ if and only if the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^m$.

The Contrast Between Nul A and Col A

It is natural to wonder how the null space and column space of a matrix are related. In fact, the two spaces are quite dissimilar, as Examples 5–7 will show. Nevertheless, a surprising connection between the null space and column space will emerge in Section 4.6, after more theory is available.

EXAMPLE 5 Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ -2 & -5 & 7 & 3 \\ 3 & 7 & -8 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

a. If the column space of A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^k$, what is k?

b. If the null space of A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^k$, what is k?

SOLUTION

a. The columns of A each have three entries, so Col A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^k$, where $k = 3$.

b. A vector $\mathbf{x}$ such that $A\mathbf{x}$ is defined must have four entries, so Nul A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^k$, where $k = 4$. ∎

When a matrix is not square, as in Example 5, the vectors in Nul A and Col A live in entirely different "universes." For example, no linear combination of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ can produce a vector in $\mathbb{R}^4$. When A is square, Nul A and Col A do have the zero vector in common, and in special cases it is possible that some nonzero vectors belong to both Nul A and Col A.

EXAMPLE 6 With A as in Example 5, find a nonzero vector in Col A and a nonzero vector in Nul A.

SOLUTION It is easy to find a vector in Col A. Any column of A will do, say, $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

To find a nonzero vector in Nul A, row reduce the augmented matrix $[\,A \quad \mathbf{0}\,]$ and obtain

$$[\,A \quad \mathbf{0}\,] \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 9 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, if $\mathbf{x}$ satisfies $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, then $x_1 = -9x_3$, $x_2 = 5x_3$, $x_4 = 0$, and x_3 is free. Assigning a nonzero value to x_3—say, $x_3 = 1$—we obtain a vector in Nul A, namely, $\mathbf{x} = (-9, 5, 1, 0)$. ■

EXAMPLE 7 With A as in Example 5, let $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

a. Determine if $\mathbf{u}$ is in Nul A. Could $\mathbf{u}$ be in Col A?

b. Determine if $\mathbf{v}$ is in Col A. Could $\mathbf{v}$ be in Nul A?

SOLUTION

a. An explicit description of Nul A is not needed here. Simply compute the product $A\mathbf{u}$.

$$A\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ -2 & -5 & 7 & 3 \\ 3 & 7 & -8 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Obviously, $\mathbf{u}$ is *not* a solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, so $\mathbf{u}$ is not in Nul A. Also, with four entries, $\mathbf{u}$ could not possibly be in Col A, since Col A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

b. Reduce $[\,A \quad \mathbf{v}\,]$ to an echelon form.

$$[\,A \quad \mathbf{v}\,] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 & 1 & 3 \\ -2 & -5 & 7 & 3 & -1 \\ 3 & 7 & -8 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 & -4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 17 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

At this point, it is clear that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}$ is consistent, so $\mathbf{v}$ is in Col A. With only three entries, $\mathbf{v}$ could not possibly be in Nul A, since Nul A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$. ■

The table on page 204 summarizes what we have learned about Nul A and Col A. Item 8 is a restatement of Theorems 11 and 12(a) in Section 1.9.

Kernel and Range of a Linear Transformation

Subspaces of vector spaces other than $\mathbb{R}^n$ are often described in terms of a linear transformation instead of a matrix. To make this precise, we generalize the definition given in Section 1.8.

Contrast Between Nul *A* and Col *A* for an *m* x *n* Matrix *A*

Nul A	Col A
1. Nul A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$.	**1.** Col A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^m$.
2. Nul A is implicitly defined; that is, you are given only a condition ($A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$) that vectors in Nul A must satisfy.	**2.** Col A is explicitly defined; that is, you are told how to build vectors in Col A.
3. It takes time to find vectors in Nul A. Row operations on $[\,A \quad \mathbf{0}\,]$ are required.	**3.** It is easy to find vectors in Col A. The columns of A are displayed; others are formed from them.
4. There is no obvious relation between Nul A and the entries in A.	**4.** There is an obvious relation between Col A and the entries in A, since each column of A is in Col A.
5. A typical vector $\mathbf{v}$ in Nul A has the property that $A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.	**5.** A typical vector $\mathbf{v}$ in Col A has the property that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}$ is consistent.
6. Given a specific vector $\mathbf{v}$, it is easy to tell if $\mathbf{v}$ is in Nul A. Just compute $A\mathbf{v}$.	**6.** Given a specific vector $\mathbf{v}$, it may take time to tell if $\mathbf{v}$ is in Col A. Row operations on $[\,A \quad \mathbf{v}\,]$ are required.
7. Nul $A = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ if and only if the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution.	**7.** Col $A = \mathbb{R}^m$ if and only if the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution for every $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^m$.
8. Nul $A = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ if and only if the linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ is one-to-one.	**8.** Col $A = \mathbb{R}^m$ if and only if the linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$ maps $\mathbb{R}^n$ *onto* $\mathbb{R}^m$.

DEFINITION

A **linear transformation** T from a vector space V into a vector space W is a rule that assigns to each vector $\mathbf{x}$ in V a unique vector $T(\mathbf{x})$ in W, such that

(i) $T(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = T(\mathbf{u}) + T(\mathbf{v})$ for all $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$ in V, and

(ii) $T(c\mathbf{u}) = cT(\mathbf{u})$ for all $\mathbf{u}$ in V and all scalars c.

The **kernel** (or **null space**) of such a T is the set of all $\mathbf{u}$ in V such that $T(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$ (the zero vector in W). The **range** of T is the set of all vectors in W of the form $T(\mathbf{x})$ for some $\mathbf{x}$ in V. If T happens to arise as a matrix transformation—say, $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ for some matrix A—then the kernel and the range of T are just the null space and the column space of A, as defined earlier.

It is not difficult to show that the kernel of T is a subspace of V. The proof is essentially the same as the one for Theorem 2. Also, the range of T is a subspace of W. See Fig. 2 and Exercise 30.

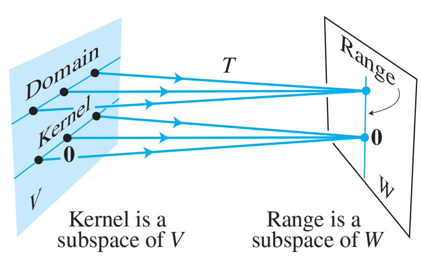


FIGURE 2 Subspaces associated with a linear transformation.

In applications, a subspace usually arises as either the kernel or the range of an appropriate linear transformation. For instance, the set of all solutions of a homogeneous linear differential equation turns out to be the kernel of a linear transformation.

Typically, such a linear transformation is described in terms of one or more derivatives of a function. To explain this in any detail would take us too far afield at this point. So we consider only two examples. The first explains why the operation of differentiation is a linear transformation.

EXAMPLE 8 (Calculus required) Let V be the vector space of all real-valued functions f defined on an interval $[a, b]$ with the property that they are differentiable and their derivatives are continuous functions on $[a, b]$. Let W be the vector space $C[a, b]$ of all continuous functions on $[a, b]$, and let $D : V \to W$ be the transformation that changes f in V into its derivative f'. In calculus, two simple differentiation rules are

$$D(f + g) = D(f) + D(g) \quad \text{and} \quad D(cf) = cD(f)$$

That is, D is a linear transformation. It can be shown that the kernel of D is the set of constant functions on $[a, b]$ and the range of D is the set W of all continuous functions on $[a, b]$. ■

EXAMPLE 9 (Calculus required) The differential equation

$$y'' + \omega^2 y = 0 \tag{4}$$

where ω is a constant, is used to describe a variety of physical systems, such as the vibration of a weighted spring, the movement of a pendulum, and the voltage in an inductance-capacitance electrical circuit. The set of solutions of (4) is precisely the kernel of the linear transformation that maps a function $y = f(t)$ into the function $f''(t) + \omega^2 f(t)$. Finding an explicit description of this vector space is a problem in differential equations. The solution set turns out to be the space described in Exercise 19 in Section 4.1. ■

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $W = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} : a - 3b - c = 0 \right\}$. Show in two different ways that W is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$. (Use two theorems.)
2. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -3 & 5 \\ -4 & 1 & -5 \\ -5 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose you know that the equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}$ and $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w}$ are both consistent. What can you say about the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$?

4.2 EXERCISES

1. Determine if $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$ is in Nul A, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -5 & -3 \\ 6 & -2 & 0 \\ -8 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

2. Determine if $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is in Nul A, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 & 4 \\ -3 & 2 & 5 \\ -5 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In Exercises 3–6, find an explicit description of Nul A, by listing vectors that span the null space.

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

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

5. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

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

In Exercises 7–14, either use an appropriate theorem to show that the given set, W, is a vector space, or find a specific example to the contrary.

7. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} : a + b + c = 2 \right\}$ **8.** $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} r \\ s \\ t \end{bmatrix} : 3r - 2 = 3s + t \right\}$

9. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} p \\ q \\ r \\ s \end{bmatrix} : \begin{matrix} p - 3q = 4s \\ 2p = s + 5r \end{matrix} \right\}$ **10.** $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{bmatrix} : \begin{matrix} 3a + b = c \\ a + b + 2c = 2d \end{matrix} \right\}$

11. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} s - 2t \\ 3 + 3s \\ 3s + t \\ 2s \end{bmatrix} : s, t \text{ real} \right\}$ **12.** $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3p - 5q \\ 4q \\ p \\ q + 1 \end{bmatrix} : p, q \text{ real} \right\}$

13. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} c - 6d \\ d \\ c \end{bmatrix} : c, d \text{ real} \right\}$ **14.** $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -s + 3t \\ s - 2t \\ 5s - t \end{bmatrix} : s, t \text{ real} \right\}$

In Exercises 15 and 16, find A such that the given set is Col A.

15. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2s + t \\ r - s + 2t \\ 3r + s \\ 2r - s - t \end{bmatrix} : r, s, t \text{ real} \right\}$

16. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} b - c \\ 2b + 3d \\ b + 3c - 3d \\ c + d \end{bmatrix} : b, c, d \text{ real} \right\}$

For the matrices in Exercises 17–20, (a) find k such that Nul A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^k$, and (b) find k such that Col A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^k$.

17. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -4 \\ -3 & 2 \\ -9 & 6 \\ 9 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$ **18.** $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 3 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & -2 \\ -5 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

19. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & -2 & 6 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

20. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 2 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$

21. With A as in Exercise 17, find a nonzero vector in Nul A and a nonzero vector in Col A.

22. With A as in Exercise 18, find a nonzero vector in Nul A and a nonzero vector in Col A.

23. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\mathbf{w}$ is in Col A. Is $\mathbf{w}$ in Nul A?

24. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -8 & -2 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & 6 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\mathbf{w}$ is in Col A. Is $\mathbf{w}$ in Nul A?

In Exercises 25 and 26, A denotes an $m \times n$ matrix. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

25. a. The null space of A is the solution set of the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.

b. The null space of an $m \times n$ matrix is in $\mathbb{R}^m$.

c. The column space of A is the range of the mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$.

d. If the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent, then Col A is $\mathbb{R}^m$.

e. The kernel of a linear transformation is a vector space.

f. Col A is the set of all vectors that can be written as $A\mathbf{x}$ for some $\mathbf{x}$.

26. a. A null space is a vector space.

b. The column space of an $m \times n$ matrix is in $\mathbb{R}^m$.

c. Col A is the set of all solutions of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

d. Nul A is the kernel of the mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$.

e. The range of a linear transformation is a vector space.

f. The set of all solutions of a homogeneous linear differential equation is the kernel of a linear transformation.

27. It can be shown that a solution of the system below is $x_1 = 3$, $x_2 = 2$, and $x_3 = -1$. Use this fact and the theory from this section to explain why another solution is $x_1 = 30$, $x_2 = 20$, and $x_3 = -10$. (Observe how the solutions are related, but make no other calculations.)

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 3x_2 - 3x_3 &= 0 \\ -2x_1 + 4x_2 + 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + 5x_2 + 7x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

28. Consider the following two systems of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} 5x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 &= 0 \\ -9x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 &= 1 \\ 4x_1 + x_2 - 6x_3 &= 9 \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{aligned} 5x_1 + x_2 - 3x_3 &= 0 \\ -9x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 &= 5 \\ 4x_1 + x_2 - 6x_3 &= 45 \end{aligned}$$

It can be shown that the first system has a solution. Use this fact and the theory from this section to explain why the second system must also have a solution. (Make no row operations.)

29. Prove Theorem 3 as follows: Given an $m \times n$ matrix A, an element in Col A has the form $A\mathbf{x}$ for some $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Let $A\mathbf{x}$ and $A\mathbf{w}$ represent any two vectors in Col A.

a. Explain why the zero vector is in Col A.

b. Show that the vector $A\mathbf{x} + A\mathbf{w}$ is in Col A.

c. Given a scalar c, show that $c(A\mathbf{x})$ is in Col A.

30. Let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation from a vector space V into a vector space W. Prove that the range of T is a subspace of W. [*Hint:* Typical elements of the range have the form $T(\mathbf{x})$ and $T(\mathbf{w})$ for some $\mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{w}$ in V.]

31. Define $T : \mathbb{P}_2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ by $T(\mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(0) \\ \mathbf{p}(1) \end{bmatrix}$. For instance, if $\mathbf{p}(t) = 3 + 5t + 7t^2$, then $T(\mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$.

a. Show that T is a linear transformation. [*Hint:* For arbitrary polynomials $\mathbf{p}$, $\mathbf{q}$ in $\mathbb{P}_2$, compute $T(\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{q})$ and $T(c\mathbf{p})$.]

b. Find a polynomial $\mathbf{p}$ in $\mathbb{P}_2$ that spans the kernel of T, and describe the range of T.

32. Define a linear transformation $T : \mathbb{P}_2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ by $T(\mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}(0) \\ \mathbf{p}(0) \end{bmatrix}$. Find polynomials $\mathbf{p}_1$ and $\mathbf{p}_2$ in $\mathbb{P}_2$ that span the kernel of T, and describe the range of T.

33. Let $M_{2\times 2}$ be the vector space of all 2×2 matrices, and define $T : M_{2\times 2} \to M_{2\times 2}$ by $T(A) = A + A^T$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$.

a. Show that T is a linear transformation.

b. Let B be any element of $M_{2\times 2}$ such that $B^T = B$. Find an A in $M_{2\times 2}$ such that $T(A) = B$.

c. Show that the range of T is the set of B in $M_{2\times 2}$ with the property that $B^T = B$.

d. Describe the kernel of T.

34. (*Calculus required*) Define $T : C[0, 1] \to C[0, 1]$ as follows: For $\mathbf{f}$ in $C[0, 1]$, let $T(\mathbf{f})$ be the antiderivative $\mathbf{F}$ of $\mathbf{f}$ such that $\mathbf{F}(0) = 0$. Show that T is a linear transformation, and describe the kernel of T. (See the notation in Exercise 20 of Section 4.1.)

35. Let V and W be vector spaces, and let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation. Given a subspace U of V, let $T(U)$ denote the set of all images of the form $T(\mathbf{x})$, where $\mathbf{x}$ is in U. Show that $T(U)$ is a subspace of W.

36. Given $T : V \to W$ as in Exercise 35, and given a subspace Z of W, let U be the set of all $\mathbf{x}$ in V such that $T(\mathbf{x})$ is in Z. Show that U is a subspace of V.

37. [**M**] Determine whether $\mathbf{w}$ is in the column space of A, the null space of A, or both, where

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 & -4 & 1 \\ -5 & -1 & 0 & -2 \\ 9 & -11 & 7 & -3 \\ 19 & -9 & 7 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

38. [**M**] Determine whether $\mathbf{w}$ is in the column space of A, the null space of A, or both, where

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} -8 & 5 & -2 & 0 \\ -5 & 2 & 1 & -2 \\ 10 & -8 & 6 & -3 \\ 3 & -2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

39. [**M**] Let $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_5$ denote the columns of the matrix A, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 & -1 & -12 \\ 8 & 4 & 4 & -5 & 12 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = [\, \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2 \quad \mathbf{a}_4 \,]$$

a. Explain why $\mathbf{a}_3$ and $\mathbf{a}_5$ are in the column space of B.

b. Find a set of vectors that spans Nul A.

c. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^5 \to \mathbb{R}^4$ be defined by $T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$. Explain why T is neither one-to-one nor onto.

40. [**M**] Let $H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ and $K = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$, where

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -12 \\ -28 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then H and K are subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$. In fact, H and K are planes in $\mathbb{R}^3$ through the origin, and they intersect in a line through $\mathbf{0}$. Find a nonzero vector $\mathbf{w}$ that generates that line. [*Hint:* $\mathbf{w}$ can be written as $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2$ and also as $c_3\mathbf{v}_3 + c_4\mathbf{v}_4$. To build $\mathbf{w}$, solve the equation $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 = c_3\mathbf{v}_3 + c_4\mathbf{v}_4$ for the unknown c_j's.]

SG Mastering: Vector Space, Subspace, Col A, and Nul A 4–6

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. *First method:* W is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$ by Theorem 2 because W is the set of all solutions to a system of homogeneous linear equations (where the system has only one equation). Equivalently, W is the null space of the 1×3 matrix $A = [\, 1 \quad -3 \quad -1 \,]$.

Second method: Solve the equation $a - 3b - c = 0$ for the leading variable a in terms of the free variables b and c. Any solution has the form $\begin{bmatrix} 3b + c \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$, where b and c are arbitrary, and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3b + c \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = b \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \mathbf{v}_1}}{\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}} + c \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \mathbf{v}_2}}{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}$$

This calculation shows that $W = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Thus W is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$ by Theorem 1. We could also solve the equation $a - 3b - c = 0$ for b or c and get alternative descriptions of W as a set of linear combinations of two vectors.

2. Both $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ are in Col A. Since Col A is a vector space, $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ must be in Col A. That is, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ is consistent.

4.3 LINEARLY INDEPENDENT SETS; BASES

In this section we identify and study the subsets that span a vector space V or a subspace H as "efficiently" as possible. The key idea is that of linear independence, defined as in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

An indexed set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V is said to be **linearly independent** if the vector equation

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0} \tag{1}$$

has *only* the trivial solution, $c_1 = 0, \dots, c_p = 0$.[1]

The set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is said to be **linearly dependent** if (1) has a nontrivial solution, that is, if there are some weights, $c_1, \dots, c_p$, *not all zero*, such that (1) holds. In such a case, (1) is called a **linear dependence relation** among $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p$.

Just as in $\mathbb{R}^n$, a set containing a single vector $\mathbf{v}$ is linearly independent if and only if $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Also, a set of two vectors is linearly dependent if and only if one of the vectors is a multiple of the other. And any set containing the zero vector is linearly dependent. The following theorem has the same proof as Theorem 7 in Section 1.7.

THEOREM 4

An indexed set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ of two or more vectors, with $\mathbf{v}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$, is linearly dependent if and only if some $\mathbf{v}_j$ (with $j > 1$) is a linear combination of the preceding vectors, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{j-1}$.

The main difference between linear dependence in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and in a general vector space is that when the vectors are not n-tuples, the homogeneous equation (1) usually cannot be written as a system of n linear equations. That is, the vectors cannot be made into the columns of a matrix A in order to study the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. We must rely instead on the definition of linear dependence and on Theorem 4.

EXAMPLE 1 Let $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1$, $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = t$, and $\mathbf{p}_3(t) = 4 - t$. Then $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3\}$ is linearly dependent in $\mathbb{P}$ because $\mathbf{p}_3 = 4\mathbf{p}_1 - \mathbf{p}_2$. ■

[1] It is convenient to use $c_1, \dots, c_p$ in (1) for the scalars instead of $x_1, \dots, x_p$, as we did in Chapter 1.

EXAMPLE 2 The set $\{\sin t, \cos t\}$ is linearly independent in $C[0, 1]$, the space of all continuous functions on $0 \le t \le 1$, because $\sin t$ and $\cos t$ are not multiples of one another *as vectors in* $C[0, 1]$. That is, there is no scalar c such that $\cos t = c \cdot \sin t$ for all t in $[0, 1]$. (Look at the graphs of $\sin t$ and $\cos t$.) However, $\{\sin t \cos t, \sin 2t\}$ is linearly dependent because of the identity: $\sin 2t = 2 \sin t \cos t$, for all t. ■

DEFINITION

Let H be a subspace of a vector space V. An indexed set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ in V is a **basis** for H if

(i) $\mathcal{B}$ is a linearly independent set, and

(ii) the subspace spanned by $\mathcal{B}$ coincides with H; that is,

$$H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$$

The definition of a basis applies to the case when $H = V$, because any vector space is a subspace of itself. Thus a basis of V is a linearly independent set that spans V. Observe that when $H \neq V$, condition (ii) includes the requirement that each of the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p$ must belong to H, because Span $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ contains $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p$, as shown in Section 4.1.

EXAMPLE 3 Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix—say, $A = [\,\mathbf{a}_1 \;\; \cdots \;\; \mathbf{a}_n\,]$. Then the columns of A form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ because they are linearly independent and they span $\mathbb{R}^n$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem. ■

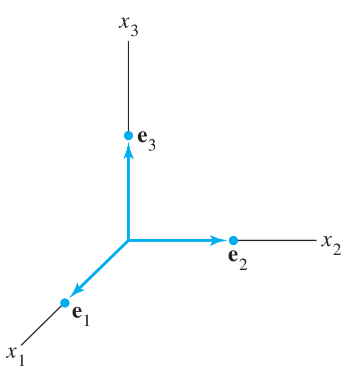


FIGURE 1
The standard basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$.

EXAMPLE 4 Let $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ be the columns of the $n \times n$ identity matrix, I_n. That is,

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \dots, \quad \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The set $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ is called the **standard basis** for $\mathbb{R}^n$ (Fig. 1). ■

EXAMPLE 5 Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$.

SOLUTION Since there are exactly three vectors here in $\mathbb{R}^3$, we can use any of several methods to determine if the matrix $A = [\,\mathbf{v}_1 \;\; \mathbf{v}_2 \;\; \mathbf{v}_3\,]$ is invertible. For instance, two row replacements reveal that A has three pivot positions. Thus A is invertible. As in Example 3, the columns of A form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. ■

EXAMPLE 6 Let $S = \{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$. Verify that S is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_n$. This basis is called the **standard basis** for $\mathbb{P}_n$.

SOLUTION Certainly S spans $\mathbb{P}_n$. To show that S is linearly independent, suppose that $c_0, \dots, c_n$ satisfy

$$c_0 \cdot 1 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + \cdots + c_n t^n = \mathbf{0}(t) \tag{2}$$

This equality means that the polynomial on the left has the same values as the zero polynomial on the right. A fundamental theorem in algebra says that the only polynomial in $\mathbb{P}_n$ with more than n zeros is the zero polynomial. That is, equation (2) holds for all t only if $c_0 = \cdots = c_n = 0$. This proves that S is linearly independent and hence is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_n$. See Fig. 2. ■

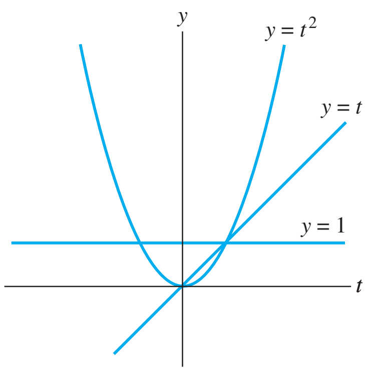


FIGURE 2
The standard basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$.

Problems involving linear independence and spanning in $\mathbb{P}_n$ are handled best by a technique to be discussed in Section 4.4.

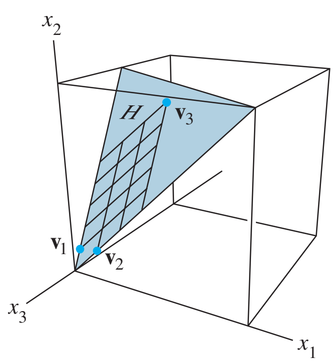
The Spanning Set Theorem

As we will see, a basis is an "efficient" spanning set that contains no unnecessary vectors. In fact, a basis can be constructed from a spanning set by discarding unneeded vectors.

EXAMPLE 7 Let

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 16 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}.$$

Note that $\mathbf{v}_3 = 5\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2$, and show that $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\} = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Then find a basis for the subspace H.



SOLUTION Every vector in $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ belongs to H because

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + 0\mathbf{v}_3$$

Now let $\mathbf{x}$ be any vector in H—say, $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + c_3\mathbf{v}_3$. Since $\mathbf{v}_3 = 5\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2$, we may substitute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + c_3(5\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2) \\ &= (c_1 + 5c_3)\mathbf{v}_1 + (c_2 + 3c_3)\mathbf{v}_2 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\mathbf{x}$ is in $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$, so every vector in H already belongs to $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. We conclude that H and $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ are actually the same set of vectors. It follows that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis of H since $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is obviously linearly independent. ■

The next theorem generalizes Example 7.

THEOREM 5

The Spanning Set Theorem

Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ be a set in V, and let $H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$.

a. If one of the vectors in S—say, $\mathbf{v}_k$—is a linear combination of the remaining vectors in S, then the set formed from S by removing $\mathbf{v}_k$ still spans H.
b. If $H \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$, some subset of S is a basis for H.

PROOF

a. By rearranging the list of vectors in S, if necessary, we may suppose that $\mathbf{v}_p$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{p-1}$—say,

$$\mathbf{v}_p = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + a_{p-1}\mathbf{v}_{p-1} \tag{3}$$

Given any $\mathbf{x}$ in H, we may write

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + c_{p-1}\mathbf{v}_{p-1} + c_p\mathbf{v}_p \tag{4}$$

for suitable scalars $c_1, \ldots, c_p$. Substituting the expression for $\mathbf{v}_p$ from (3) into (4), it is easy to see that $\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{p-1}$. Thus $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{p-1}\}$ spans H, because $\mathbf{x}$ was an arbitrary element of H.

b. If the original spanning set S is linearly independent, then it is already a basis for H. Otherwise, one of the vectors in S depends on the others and can be deleted, by part (a). So long as there are two or more vectors in the spanning set, we can repeat this process until the spanning set is linearly independent and hence is a basis for H. If the spanning set is eventually reduced to one vector, that vector will be nonzero (and hence linearly independent) because $H \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$. ■

Bases for Nul A and Col A

We already know how to find vectors that span the null space of a matrix A. The discussion in Section 4.2 pointed out that our method always produces a linearly independent set when Nul A contains nonzero vectors. So, in this case, that method produces a *basis* for Nul A.

The next two examples describe a simple algorithm for finding a basis for the column space.

EXAMPLE 8 Find a basis for Col B, where

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION Each nonpivot column of B is a linear combination of the pivot columns. In fact, $\mathbf{b}_2 = 4\mathbf{b}_1$ and $\mathbf{b}_4 = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_3$. By the Spanning Set Theorem, we may discard $\mathbf{b}_2$ and $\mathbf{b}_4$, and $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_5\}$ will still span Col B. Let

$$S = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_5\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Since $\mathbf{b}_1 \neq 0$ and no vector in S is a linear combination of the vectors that precede it, S is linearly independent (Theorem 4). Thus S is a basis for Col B. ■

What about a matrix A that is *not* in reduced echelon form? Recall that any linear dependence relationship among the columns of A can be expressed in the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, where $\mathbf{x}$ is a column of weights. (If some columns are not involved in a particular dependence relation, then their weights are zero.) When A is row reduced to a matrix B, the columns of B are often totally different from the columns of A. However, the equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ and $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ have exactly the same set of solutions. If $A = [\,\mathbf{a}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_n\,]$ and $B = [\,\mathbf{b}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_n\,]$, then the vector equations

$$x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{b}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

also have the same set of solutions. That is, the columns of A have *exactly the same linear dependence relationships* as the columns of B.

EXAMPLE 9 It can be shown that the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 12 & 1 & 5 & 5 \\ 2 & 8 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 5 & 20 & 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

is row equivalent to the matrix B in Example 8. Find a basis for Col A.

SOLUTION In Example 8 we saw that

$$\mathbf{b}_2 = 4\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b}_4 = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_3$$

so we can expect that

$$\mathbf{a}_2 = 4\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{a}_4 = 2\mathbf{a}_1 - \mathbf{a}_3$$

Check that this is indeed the case! Thus we may discard $\mathbf{a}_2$ and $\mathbf{a}_4$ when selecting a minimal spanning set for Col A. In fact, $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3, \mathbf{a}_5\}$ must be linearly independent because any linear dependence relationship among $\mathbf{a}_1$, $\mathbf{a}_3$, $\mathbf{a}_5$ would imply a linear dependence relationship among $\mathbf{b}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_3$, $\mathbf{b}_5$. But we know that $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_5\}$ is a linearly independent set. Thus $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3, \mathbf{a}_5\}$ is a basis for Col A. The columns we have used for this basis are the pivot columns of A. ■

Examples 8 and 9 illustrate the following useful fact.

THEOREM 6 The pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis for Col A.

PROOF The general proof uses the arguments discussed above. Let B be the reduced echelon form of A. The set of pivot columns of B is linearly independent, for no vector in the set is a linear combination of the vectors that precede it. Since A is row equivalent to B, the pivot columns of A are linearly independent as well, because any linear dependence relation among the columns of A corresponds to a linear dependence relation among the columns of B. For this same reason, every nonpivot column of A is a linear combination of the pivot columns of A. Thus the nonpivot columns of A may be discarded from the spanning set for Col A, by the Spanning Set Theorem. This leaves the pivot columns of A as a basis for Col A. ■

Warning: The pivot columns of a matrix A are evident when A has been reduced only to *echelon* form. But, be careful to use the *pivot columns of A itself* for the basis of Col A. Row operations can change the column space of a matrix. The columns of an echelon form B of A are often not in the column space of A. For instance, the columns of matrix B in Example 8 all have zeros in their last entries, so they cannot span the column space of matrix A in Example 9.

Two Views of a Basis

When the Spanning Set Theorem is used, the deletion of vectors from a spanning set must stop when the set becomes linearly independent. If an additional vector is deleted, it will not be a linear combination of the remaining vectors, and hence the smaller set will no longer span V. Thus a basis is a spanning set that is as small as possible.

A basis is also a linearly independent set that is as large as possible. If S is a basis for V, and if S is enlarged by one vector—say, $\mathbf{w}$—from V, then the new set cannot be linearly independent, because S spans V, and $\mathbf{w}$ is therefore a linear combination of the elements in S.

EXAMPLE 10 The following three sets in $\mathbb{R}^3$ show how a linearly independent set can be enlarged to a basis and how further enlargement destroys the linear independence of the set. Also, a spanning set can be shrunk to a basis, but further shrinking destroys the spanning property.

$$\left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix}\right\} \qquad \left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix}\right\} \qquad \left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}7\\8\\9\end{bmatrix}\right\}$$

Linearly independent but does not span $\mathbb{R}^3$ | A basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$ | Spans $\mathbb{R}^3$ but is linearly dependent ■

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix}1\\-2\\3\end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix}-2\\7\\-9\end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$?

2. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix}1\\-3\\4\end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix}6\\2\\-1\end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix}2\\-2\\3\end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix}-4\\-8\\9\end{bmatrix}$. Find a basis for the subspace W spanned by $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$.

3. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}$, and $H = \left\{\begin{bmatrix}s\\s\\0\end{bmatrix} : s \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$. Then every vector in H is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ because

$$\begin{bmatrix}s\\s\\0\end{bmatrix} = s\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix} + s\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}$$

Is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ a basis for H?

SG Mastering: Basis 4-9

4.3 EXERCISES

Determine whether the sets in Exercises 1–8 are bases for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Of the sets that are *not* bases, determine which ones are linearly independent and which ones span $\mathbb{R}^3$. Justify your answers.

1. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\1\end{bmatrix}$

2. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\1\end{bmatrix}$

3. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\-3\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}3\\1\\-4\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}-2\\-1\\1\end{bmatrix}$

4. $\begin{bmatrix}2\\-1\\1\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}2\\-3\\2\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}-8\\5\\4\end{bmatrix}$

5. $\begin{bmatrix}3\\-3\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}-3\\7\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\-3\\5\end{bmatrix}$

6. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\2\\-4\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}-4\\3\\6\end{bmatrix}$

7. $\begin{bmatrix}-2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}6\\-1\\5\end{bmatrix}$

8. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\-2\\3\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\3\\-1\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}2\\-1\\5\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\-1\end{bmatrix}$

Find bases for the null spaces of the matrices given in Exercises 9 and 10. Refer to the remarks that follow Example 3 in Section 4.2.

9. $\begin{bmatrix}1 & 0 & -2 & -2\\0 & 1 & 1 & 4\\3 & -1 & -7 & 3\end{bmatrix}$

10. $\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 5\\0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & -2\\0 & 0 & -8 & 0 & 16\end{bmatrix}$

11. Find a basis for the set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ in the plane $x - 3y + 2z = 0$. [*Hint:* Think of the equation as a "system" of homogeneous equations.]

12. Find a basis for the set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^2$ on the line $y = -3x$.

In Exercises 13 and 14, assume that A is row equivalent to B. Find bases for Nul A and Col A.

13. $A = \begin{bmatrix}-2 & 4 & -2 & -4\\2 & -6 & -3 & 1\\-3 & 8 & 2 & -3\end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix}1 & 0 & 6 & 5\\0 & 2 & 5 & 3\\0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{bmatrix}$

14. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & -4 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 8 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 10 & 9 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$,

$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -6 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 15–18, find a basis for the space spanned by the given vectors, $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_5$.

15. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -8 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 10 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ -6 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$

16. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \\ 3 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

17. [M] $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -4 \\ -6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ -3 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

18. [M] $\begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \\ 6 \\ 0 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -9 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ -14 \\ 0 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

19. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 11 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$, and also let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$. It can be verified that $4\mathbf{v}_1 + 5\mathbf{v}_2 - 3\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$. Use this information to find a basis for H. There is more than one answer.

20. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ -2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ -6 \\ -14 \end{bmatrix}$. It can be verified that $2\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$. Use this information to find a basis for $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$.

In Exercises 21 and 22, mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

21. a. A single vector by itself is linearly dependent.

b. If $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$, then $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ is a basis for H.

c. The columns of an invertible $n \times n$ matrix form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

d. A basis is a spanning set that is as large as possible.

e. In some cases, the linear dependence relations among the columns of a matrix can be affected by certain elementary row operations on the matrix.

22. a. A linearly independent set in a subspace H is a basis for H.

b. If a finite set S of nonzero vectors spans a vector space V, then some subset of S is a basis for V.

c. A basis is a linearly independent set that is as large as possible.

d. The standard method for producing a spanning set for Nul A, described in Section 4.2, sometimes fails to produce a basis for Nul A.

e. If B is an echelon form of a matrix A, then the pivot columns of B form a basis for Col A.

23. Suppose $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$. Explain why $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^4$.

24. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ be a linearly independent set in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Explain why $\mathcal{B}$ must be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

25. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and let H be the set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose second and third entries are equal. Then every vector in H has a unique expansion as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$, because

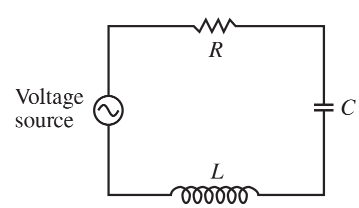
$$\begin{bmatrix} s \\ t \\ t \end{bmatrix} = s\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + (t - s)\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + s\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for any s and t. Is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ a basis for H? Why or why not?

26. In the vector space of all real-valued functions, find a basis for the subspace spanned by $\{\sin t, \sin 2t, \sin t \cos t\}$.

27. Let V be the vector space of functions that describe the vibration of a mass–spring system. (Refer to Exercise 19 in Section 4.1.) Find a basis for V.

28. (*RLC circuit*) The circuit in the figure consists of a resistor (R ohms), an inductor (L henrys), a capacitor (C farads), and an initial voltage source. Let $b = R/(2L)$, and suppose R, L, and C have been selected so that b also equals $1/\sqrt{LC}$. (This is done, for instance, when the circuit is used in a voltmeter.) Let $v(t)$ be the voltage (in volts) at time t, measured across the capacitor. It can be shown that v is in the null space H of the linear transformation that maps $v(t)$ into $Lv''(t) + Rv'(t) + (1/C)v(t)$, and H consists of all functions of the form $v(t) = e^{-bt}(c_1 + c_2 t)$. Find a basis for H.



Exercises 29 and 30 show that every basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ must contain exactly n vectors.

29. Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ be a set of k vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$, with $k < n$. Use a theorem from Section 1.4 to explain why S cannot be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

30. Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ be a set of k vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$, with $k > n$. Use a theorem from Chapter 1 to explain why S cannot be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Exercises 31 and 32 reveal an important connection between linear independence and linear transformations and provide practice using the definition of linear dependence. Let V and W be vector spaces, let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation, and let $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ be a subset of V.

31. Show that if $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is linearly dependent in V, then the set of images, $\{T(\mathbf{v}_1), \ldots, T(\mathbf{v}_p)\}$, is linearly dependent in W. This fact shows that if a linear transformation maps a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ onto a linearly *independent* set $\{T(\mathbf{v}_1), \ldots, T(\mathbf{v}_p)\}$, then the original set is linearly independent, too (because it cannot be linearly dependent).

32. Suppose that T is a one-to-one transformation, so that an equation $T(\mathbf{u}) = T(\mathbf{v})$ always implies $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$. Show that if the set of images $\{T(\mathbf{v}_1), \ldots, T(\mathbf{v}_p)\}$ is linearly dependent, then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is linearly dependent. This fact shows that *a one-to-one linear transformation maps a linearly independent set onto a linearly independent set* (because in this case the set of images cannot be linearly dependent).

33. Consider the polynomials $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1 + t^2$ and $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = 1 - t^2$. Is $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2\}$ a linearly independent set in $\mathbb{P}_3$? Why or why not?

34. Consider the polynomials $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1 + t$, $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = 1 - t$, and $\mathbf{p}_3(t) = 2$ (for all t). By inspection, write a linear dependence relation among $\mathbf{p}_1$, $\mathbf{p}_2$, and $\mathbf{p}_3$. Then find a basis for Span $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3\}$.

35. Let V be a vector space that contains a linearly independent set $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{u}_4\}$. Describe how to construct a set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ in V such that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a basis for Span $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$.

36. [**M**] Let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3\}$ and $K = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$, where

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 4 \\ 6 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find bases for H, K, and $H + K$. (See Exercises 33 and 34 in Section 4.1.)

37. [**M**] Show that $\{t, \sin t, \cos 2t, \sin t \cos t\}$ is a linearly independent set of functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$. Start by assuming that

$$c_1 \cdot t + c_2 \cdot \sin t + c_3 \cdot \cos 2t + c_4 \cdot \sin t \cos t = 0 \qquad (5)$$

Equation (5) must hold for all real t, so choose several specific values of t (say, $t = 0,\ .1,\ .2$) until you get a system of enough equations to determine that all the c_j must be zero.

38. [**M**] Show that $\{1, \cos t, \cos^2 t, \ldots, \cos^6 t\}$ is a linearly independent set of functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$. Use the method of Exercise 37. (This result will be needed in Exercise 34 in Section 4.5.)

WEB

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $A = [\,\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2\,]$. Row operations show that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 7 \\ 3 & -9 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Not every row of A contains a pivot position. So the columns of A do not span $\mathbb{R}^3$, by Theorem 4 in Section 1.4. Hence $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is not a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Since $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are not in $\mathbb{R}^2$, they cannot possibly be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$. However, since $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are obviously linearly independent, they are a basis for a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$, namely, Span $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$.

2. Set up a matrix A whose column space is the space spanned by $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$, and then row reduce A to find its pivot columns.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & -4 \\ -3 & 2 & -2 & -8 \\ 4 & -1 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 20 & 4 & -20 \\ 0 & -25 & -5 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The first two columns of A are the pivot columns and hence form a basis of Col $A = W$. Hence $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for W. Note that the reduced echelon form of A is not needed in order to locate the pivot columns.

3. Neither $\mathbf{v}_1$ nor $\mathbf{v}_2$ is in H, so $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ cannot be a basis for H. In fact, $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for the *plane* of all vectors of the form $(c_1, c_2, 0)$, but H is only a *line*.

4.4 COORDINATE SYSTEMS

An important reason for specifying a basis $\mathcal{B}$ for a vector space V is to impose a "coordinate system" on V. This section will show that if $\mathcal{B}$ contains n vectors, then the coordinate system will make V act like $\mathbb{R}^n$. If V is already $\mathbb{R}^n$ itself, then $\mathcal{B}$ will determine a coordinate system that gives a new "view" of V.

The existence of coordinate systems rests on the following fundamental result.

THEOREM 7

The Unique Representation Theorem

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then for each $\mathbf{x}$ in V, there exists a unique set of scalars $c_1, \dots, c_n$ such that

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n \tag{1}$$

PROOF Since $\mathcal{B}$ spans V, there exist scalars such that (1) holds. Suppose $\mathbf{x}$ also has the representation

$$\mathbf{x} = d_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

for scalars $d_1, \dots, d_n$. Then, subtracting, we have

$$\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x} = (c_1 - d_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + (c_n - d_n)\mathbf{b}_n \tag{2}$$

Since $\mathcal{B}$ is linearly independent, the weights in (2) must all be zero. That is, $c_j = d_j$ for $1 \le j \le n$. ■

DEFINITION

Suppose $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ is a basis for V and $\mathbf{x}$ is in V. The **coordinates of x relative to the basis $\mathcal{B}$** (or the **$\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of x**) are the weights $c_1, \dots, c_n$ such that $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$.

If $c_1, \dots, c_n$ are the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$, then the vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is the **coordinate vector of x (relative to $\mathcal{B}$)**, or the **$\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of x**. The mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the **coordinate mapping (determined by $\mathcal{B}$)**.[1]

[1] The concept of a coordinate mapping assumes that the basis $\mathcal{B}$ is an indexed set whose vectors are listed in some fixed preassigned order. This property makes the definition of $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ unambiguous.

EXAMPLE 1 Consider a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^2$, where $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose an $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$ has the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $\mathbf{x}$.

SOLUTION The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ tell how to build $\mathbf{x}$ from the vectors in $\mathcal{B}$. That is,

$$\mathbf{x} = (-2)\mathbf{b}_1 + 3\mathbf{b}_2 = (-2)\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 3\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

■

EXAMPLE 2 The entries in the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ are the coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the *standard basis* $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 + 6 \cdot \mathbf{e}_2$$

If $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, then $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{x}$. ■

A Graphical Interpretation of Coordinates

A coordinate system on a set consists of a one-to-one mapping of the points in the set into $\mathbb{R}^n$. For example, ordinary graph paper provides a coordinate system for the plane when one selects perpendicular axes and a unit of measurement on each axis. Figure 1 shows the standard basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1 (= \mathbf{e}_1)$ and $\mathbf{b}_2$ from Example 1, and the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$. The coordinates 1 and 6 give the location of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the standard basis: 1 unit in the $\mathbf{e}_1$ direction and 6 units in the $\mathbf{e}_2$ direction.

Figure 2 shows the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_2$, and $\mathbf{x}$ from Fig. 1. (Geometrically, the three vectors lie on a vertical line in both figures.) However, the standard coordinate grid was erased and replaced by a grid especially adapted to the basis $\mathcal{B}$ in Example 1. The coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ gives the location of $\mathbf{x}$ on this new coordinate system: -2 units in the $\mathbf{b}_1$ direction and 3 units in the $\mathbf{b}_2$ direction.

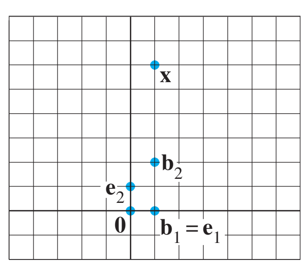


FIGURE 1 Standard graph paper.

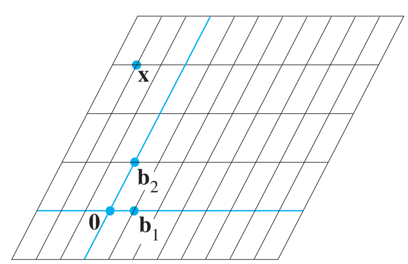
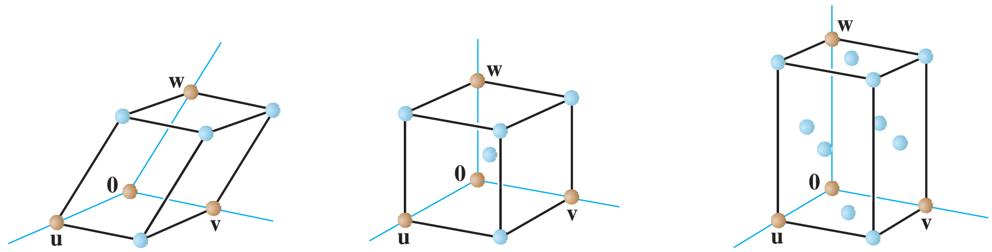


FIGURE 2 $\mathcal{B}$-graph paper.

EXAMPLE 3 In crystallography, the description of a crystal lattice is aided by choosing a basis $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^3$ that corresponds to three adjacent edges of one "unit cell" of the crystal. An entire lattice is constructed by stacking together many copies of one cell. There are fourteen basic types of unit cells; three are displayed in Fig. 3.[2]

[2] Adapted from *The Science and Engineering of Materials*, 4th Ed., by Donald R. Askeland (Boston: Prindle, Weber & Schmidt, ©2002), p. 36.



(a) Simple monoclinic

(b) Body-centered cubic

(c) Face-centered orthorhombic

FIGURE 3 Examples of unit cells.

The coordinates of atoms within the crystal are given relative to the basis for the lattice. For instance,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

identifies the top face-centered atom in the cell in Fig. 3(c). ■

Coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^n$

When a basis $\mathcal{B}$ for $\mathbb{R}^n$ is fixed, the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of a specified $\mathbf{x}$ is easily found, as in the next example.

EXAMPLE 4 Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$. Find the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

SOLUTION The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates c_1, c_2 of $\mathbf{x}$ satisfy

$$c_1 \underset{\mathbf{b}_1}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} + c_2 \underset{\mathbf{b}_2}{\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}}$$

or

$$\begin{array}{cc} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}} \tag{3}$$

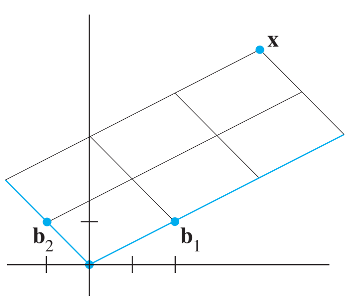


FIGURE 4
The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$ is $(3, 2)$.

This equation can be solved by row operations on an augmented matrix or by using the inverse of the matrix on the left. In any case, the solution is $c_1 = 3$, $c_2 = 2$. Thus $\mathbf{x} = 3\mathbf{b}_1 + 2\mathbf{b}_2$, and

$$[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$ ■

See Fig. 4.

The matrix in (3) changes the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of a vector $\mathbf{x}$ into the standard coordinates for $\mathbf{x}$. An analogous change of coordinates can be carried out in $\mathbb{R}^n$ for a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$. Let

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\,\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b}_n\,]$$

Then the vector equation

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

is equivalent to

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}}[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}} \tag{4}$$

We call $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ the **change-of-coordinates matrix** from $\mathcal{B}$ to the standard basis in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Left-multiplication by $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ transforms the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ into $\mathbf{x}$. The change-of-coordinates equation (4) is important and will be needed at several points in Chapters 5 and 7.

Since the columns of $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$, $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is invertible (by the Invertible Matrix Theorem). Left-multiplication by $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ converts $\mathbf{x}$ into its $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector:

$$P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

The correspondence $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$, produced here by $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$, is the coordinate mapping mentioned earlier. Since $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ is an invertible matrix, the coordinate mapping is a one-to-one linear transformation from $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem. (See also Theorem 12 in Section 1.9.) This property of the coordinate mapping is also true in a general vector space that has a basis, as we shall see.

The Coordinate Mapping

Choosing a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ for a vector space V introduces a coordinate system in V. The coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ connects the possibly unfamiliar space V to the familiar space $\mathbb{R}^n$. See Fig. 5. Points in V can now be identified by their new “names.”

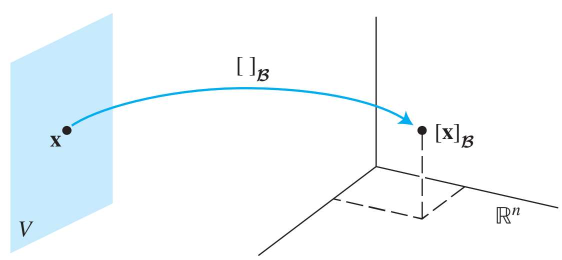


FIGURE 5 The coordinate mapping from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$.

THEOREM 8

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a one-to-one linear transformation from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$.

PROOF Take two typical vectors in V, say,

$$\mathbf{u} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$$
$$\mathbf{w} = d_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

Then, using vector operations,

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} = (c_1 + d_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + (c_n + d_n)\mathbf{b}_n$$

It follows that

$$[\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{w}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1+d_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n+d_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} + [\mathbf{w}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

So the coordinate mapping preserves addition. If r is any scalar, then

$$r\mathbf{u} = r(c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n) = (rc_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + (rc_n)\mathbf{b}_n$$

So

$$[r\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} rc_1 \\ \vdots \\ rc_n \end{bmatrix} = r\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = r[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

Thus the coordinate mapping also preserves scalar multiplication and hence is a linear transformation. See Exercises 23 and 24 for verification that the coordinate mapping is one-to-one and maps V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. ■

The linearity of the coordinate mapping extends to linear combinations, just as in Section 1.8. If $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p$ are in V and if $c_1, \ldots, c_p$ are scalars, then

$$[c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p]_{\mathcal{B}} = c_1[\mathbf{u}_1]_{\mathcal{B}} + \cdots + c_p[\mathbf{u}_p]_{\mathcal{B}} \tag{5}$$

In words, (5) says that the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of a linear combination of $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p$ is the *same* linear combination of their coordinate vectors.

The coordinate mapping in Theorem 8 is an important example of an *isomorphism* from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. In general, a one-to-one linear transformation from a vector space V onto a vector space W is called an **isomorphism** from V onto W (*iso* from the Greek for "the same," and *morph* from the Greek for "form" or "structure"). The notation and terminology for V and W may differ, but the two spaces are indistinguishable as vector spaces. *Every vector space calculation in V is accurately reproduced in W, and vice versa.* In particular, any real vector space with a basis of n vectors is indistinguishable from $\mathbb{R}^n$. See Exercises 25 and 26.

SG Isomorphic Vector Spaces 4–11

EXAMPLE 5 Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the standard basis of the space $\mathbb{P}_3$ of polynomials; that is, let $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$. A typical element $\mathbf{p}$ of $\mathbb{P}_3$ has the form

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + a_3t^3$$

Since $\mathbf{p}$ is already displayed as a linear combination of the standard basis vectors, we conclude that

$$[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{p} \mapsto [\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is an isomorphism from $\mathbb{P}_3$ onto $\mathbb{R}^4$. All vector space operations in $\mathbb{P}_3$ correspond to operations in $\mathbb{R}^4$. ■

If we think of $\mathbb{P}_3$ and $\mathbb{R}^4$ as displays on two computer screens that are connected via the coordinate mapping, then every vector space operation in $\mathbb{P}_3$ on one screen is exactly duplicated by a corresponding vector operation in $\mathbb{R}^4$ on the other screen. The vectors on the $\mathbb{P}_3$ screen look different from those on the $\mathbb{R}^4$ screen, but they "act" as vectors in exactly the same way. See Fig. 6.

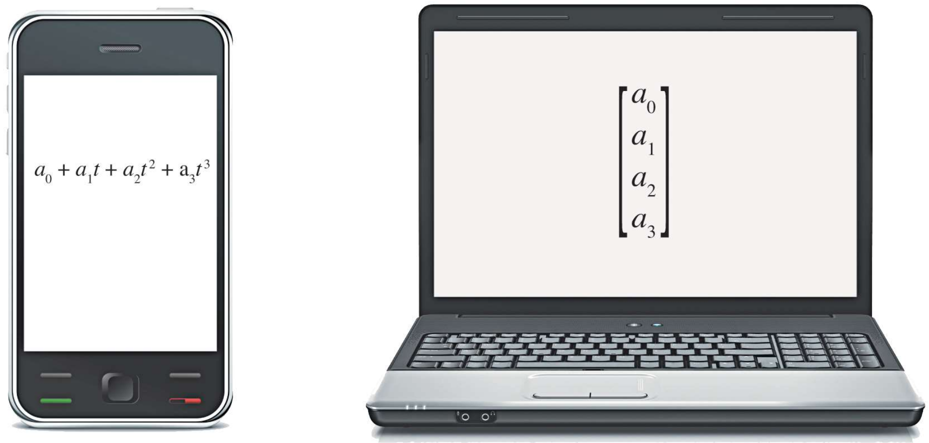


FIGURE 6 The space $\mathbb{P}_3$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^4$.

EXAMPLE 6 Use coordinate vectors to verify that the polynomials $1 + 2t^2$, $4 + t + 5t^2$, and $3 + 2t$ are linearly dependent in $\mathbb{P}_2$.

SOLUTION The coordinate mapping from Example 5 produces the coordinate vectors $(1, 0, 2)$, $(4, 1, 5)$, and $(3, 2, 0)$, respectively. Writing these vectors as the *columns* of a matrix A, we can determine their independence by row reducing the augmented matrix for $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The columns of A are linearly dependent, so the corresponding polynomials are linearly dependent. In fact, it is easy to check that column 3 of A is 2 times column 2 minus 5 times column 1. The corresponding relation for the polynomials is

$$3 + 2t = 2(4 + t + 5t^2) - 5(1 + 2t^2)$$

■

The final example concerns a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$ that is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$.

EXAMPLE 7 Let

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix},$$

and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Then $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Determine if $\mathbf{x}$ is in H, and if it is, find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

SOLUTION If $\mathbf{x}$ is in H, then the following vector equation is consistent:

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

The scalars c_1 and c_2, if they exist, are the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$. Using row operations, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 3 \\ 6 & 0 & 12 \\ 2 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus $c_1 = 2$, $c_2 = 3$, and $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The coordinate system on H determined by $\mathcal{B}$ is shown in Fig. 7. ■

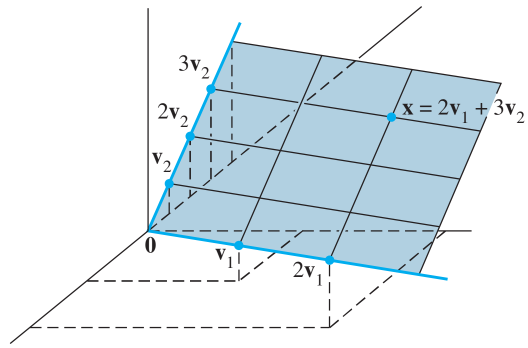


FIGURE 7 A coordinate system on a plane H in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

If a different basis for H were chosen, would the associated coordinate system also make H isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$? Surely, this must be true. We shall prove it in the next section.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

a. Show that the set $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

b. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to the standard basis.

c. Write the equation that relates $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ to $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

d. Find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$, for the $\mathbf{x}$ given above.

2. The set $\mathcal{B} = \{1 + t, 1 + t^2, t + t^2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}(t) = 6 + 3t - t^2$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

4.4 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–4, find the vector $\mathbf{x}$ determined by the given coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ and the given basis $\mathcal{B}$.

1. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

2. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

4. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 5–8, find the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the given basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$.

5. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

6. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$

7. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 4 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -9 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$