Equating coefficients of like powers of t, we have

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 + c_2 \qquad &= 6 \\ c_1 \qquad + c_3 &= 3 \\ c_2 + c_3 &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

Solving, we find that $c_1 = 5$, $c_2 = 1$, $c_3 = -2$, and $[\,\mathbf{p}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$.

4.5 THE DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

Theorem 8 in Section 4.4 implies that a vector space V with a basis $\mathcal{B}$ containing n vectors is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$. This section shows that this number n is an intrinsic property (called the dimension) of the space V that does not depend on the particular choice of basis. The discussion of dimension will give additional insight into properties of bases.

The first theorem generalizes a well-known result about the vector space $\mathbb{R}^n$.

THEOREM 9

If a vector space V has a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$, then any set in V containing more than n vectors must be linearly dependent.

PROOF Let $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ be a set in V with more than n vectors. The coordinate vectors $[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, [\,\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ form a linearly dependent set in $\mathbb{R}^n$, because there are more vectors (p) than entries (n) in each vector. So there exist scalars $c_1, \dots, c_p$, not all zero, such that

$$c_1[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{B}} + \cdots + c_p[\,\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The zero vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Since the coordinate mapping is a linear transformation,

$$[\,c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The zero vector on the right displays the n weights needed to build the vector $c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p$ from the basis vectors in $\mathcal{B}$. That is, $c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p = 0 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + 0 \cdot \mathbf{b}_n = \mathbf{0}$. Since the c_i are not all zero, $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is linearly dependent.[1] ■

Theorem 9 implies that if a vector space V has a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$, then each linearly independent set in V has no more than n vectors.

[1] Theorem 9 also applies to infinite sets in V. An infinite set is said to be linearly dependent if some finite subset is linearly dependent; otherwise, the set is linearly independent. If S is an infinite set in V, take any subset $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ of S, with $p > n$. The proof above shows that this subset is linearly dependent, and hence so is S.

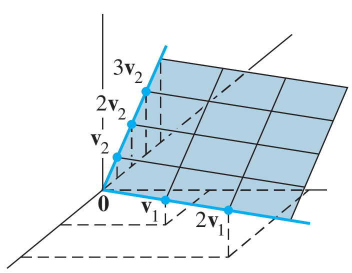
THEOREM 10 If a vector space V has a basis of n vectors, then every basis of V must consist of exactly n vectors.

PROOF Let $\mathcal{B}_1$ be a basis of n vectors and $\mathcal{B}_2$ be any other basis (of V). Since $\mathcal{B}_1$ is a basis and $\mathcal{B}_2$ is linearly independent, $\mathcal{B}_2$ has no more than n vectors, by Theorem 9. Also, since $\mathcal{B}_2$ is a basis and $\mathcal{B}_1$ is linearly independent, $\mathcal{B}_2$ has at least n vectors. Thus $\mathcal{B}_2$ consists of exactly n vectors. ∎

If a nonzero vector space V is spanned by a finite set S, then a subset of S is a basis for V, by the Spanning Set Theorem. In this case, Theorem 10 ensures that the following definition makes sense.

DEFINITION If V is spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **finite-dimensional**, and the **dimension** of V, written as $\dim V$, is the number of vectors in a basis for V. The dimension of the zero vector space $\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is defined to be zero. If V is not spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **infinite-dimensional**.

EXAMPLE 1 The standard basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ contains n vectors, so $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$. The standard polynomial basis $\{1, t, t^2\}$ shows that $\dim \mathbb{P}_2 = 3$. In general, $\dim \mathbb{P}_n = n + 1$. The space $\mathbb{P}$ of all polynomials is infinite-dimensional (Exercise 27). ∎



EXAMPLE 2 Let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$, where $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then H is the plane studied in Example 7 in Section 4.4. A basis for H is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$, since $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are not multiples and hence are linearly independent. Thus $\dim H = 2$. ∎

EXAMPLE 3 Find the dimension of the subspace

$$H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a - 3b + 6c \\ 5a + 4d \\ b - 2c - d \\ 5d \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c, d \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

SOLUTION It is easy to see that H is the set of all linear combinations of the vectors

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Clearly, $\mathbf{v}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$, $\mathbf{v}_2$ is not a multiple of $\mathbf{v}_1$, but $\mathbf{v}_3$ is a multiple of $\mathbf{v}_2$. By the Spanning Set Theorem, we may discard $\mathbf{v}_3$ and still have a set that spans H. Finally, $\mathbf{v}_4$ is not a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$. So $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is linearly independent (by Theorem 4 in Section 4.3) and hence is a basis for H. Thus $\dim H = 3$. ∎

EXAMPLE 4 The subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$ can be classified by dimension. See Fig. 1.

0-dimensional subspaces. Only the zero subspace.

1-dimensional subspaces. Any subspace spanned by a single nonzero vector. Such subspaces are lines through the origin.

2-dimensional subspaces. Any subspace spanned by two linearly independent vectors. Such subspaces are planes through the origin.

3-dimensional subspaces. Only $\mathbb{R}^3$ itself. Any three linearly independent vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ span all of $\mathbb{R}^3$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem. ■

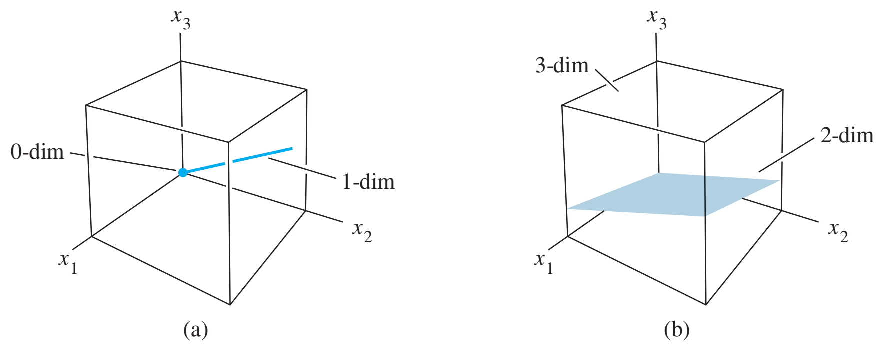


FIGURE 1 Sample subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Subspaces of a Finite-Dimensional Space

The next theorem is a natural counterpart to the Spanning Set Theorem.

THEOREM 11

Let H be a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V. Any linearly independent set in H can be expanded, if necessary, to a basis for H. Also, H is finite-dimensional and

$$\dim H \leq \dim V$$

PROOF If $H = \{\mathbf{0}\}$, then certainly $\dim H = 0 \leq \dim V$. Otherwise, let $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$ be any linearly independent set in H. If S spans H, then S is a basis for H. Otherwise, there is some $\mathbf{u}_{k+1}$ in H that is not in Span S. But then $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k, \mathbf{u}_{k+1}\}$ will be linearly independent, because no vector in the set can be a linear combination of vectors that precede it (by Theorem 4).

So long as the new set does not span H, we can continue this process of expanding S to a larger linearly independent set in H. But the number of vectors in a linearly independent expansion of S can never exceed the dimension of V, by Theorem 9. So eventually the expansion of S will span H and hence will be a basis for H, and $\dim H \leq \dim V$. ■

When the dimension of a vector space or subspace is known, the search for a basis is simplified by the next theorem. It says that if a set has the right number of elements, then one has only to show either that the set is linearly independent or that it spans the space. The theorem is of critical importance in numerous applied problems (involving differential equations or difference equations, for example) where linear independence is much easier to verify than spanning.

THEOREM 12

The Basis Theorem

Let V be a p-dimensional vector space, $p \geq 1$. Any linearly independent set of exactly p elements in V is automatically a basis for V. Any set of exactly p elements that spans V is automatically a basis for V.

PROOF By Theorem 11, a linearly independent set S of p elements can be extended to a basis for V. But that basis must contain exactly p elements, since $\dim V = p$. So S must already be a basis for V. Now suppose that S has p elements and spans V. Since V is nonzero, the Spanning Set Theorem implies that a subset S' of S is a basis of V. Since $\dim V = p$, S' must contain p vectors. Hence $S = S'$. ■

The Dimensions of Nul A and Col A

Since the pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis for Col A, we know the dimension of Col A as soon as we know the pivot columns. The dimension of Nul A might seem to require more work, since finding a basis for Nul A usually takes more time than a basis for Col A. But there is a shortcut!

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, and suppose the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has k free variables. From Section 4.2, we know that the standard method of finding a spanning set for Nul A will produce exactly k linearly independent vectors—say, $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k$—one for each free variable. So $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$ is a basis for Nul A, and the number of free variables determines the size of the basis. Let us summarize these facts for future reference.

The dimension of Nul A is the number of free variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, and the dimension of Col A is the number of pivot columns in A.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the dimensions of the null space and the column space of

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

SOLUTION Row reduce the augmented matrix $[\,A \quad \mathbf{0}\,]$ to echelon form:

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

There are three free variables—x_2, x_4, and x_5. Hence the dimension of Nul A is 3. Also, $\dim \operatorname{Col} A = 2$ because A has two pivot columns. ■

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

Decide whether each statement is True or False, and give a reason for each answer. Here V is a nonzero finite-dimensional vector space.

1. If $\dim V = p$ and if S is a linearly dependent subset of V, then S contains more than p vectors.
2. If S spans V and if T is a subset of V that contains more vectors than S, then T is linearly dependent.

4.5 EXERCISES

For each subspace in Exercises 1–8, (a) find a basis for the subspace, and (b) state the dimension.

1. $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} s-2t \\ s+t \\ 3t \end{bmatrix} : s, t \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$

2. $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ -4b \\ -2a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$

3. $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 2c \\ a-b \\ b-3c \\ a+2b \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$

4. $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} p+2q \\ -p \\ 3p-q \\ p+q \end{bmatrix} : p, q \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$

5. $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} p-2q \\ 2p+5r \\ -2q+2r \\ -3p+6r \end{bmatrix} : p, q, r \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$

6. $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 3a-c \\ -b-3c \\ -7a+6b+5c \\ -3a+c \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$

7. $\{(a, b, c) : a-3b+c=0, b-2c=0, 2b-c=0\}$

8. $\{(a, b, c, d) : a-3b+c=0\}$

9. Find the dimension of the subspace of all vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose first and third entries are equal.

10. Find the dimension of the subspace H of $\mathbb{R}^2$ spanned by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$.

In Exercises 11 and 12, find the dimension of the subspace spanned by the given vectors.

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

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

Determine the dimensions of Nul A and Col A for the matrices shown in Exercises 13–18.

13. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 & 9 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

14. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 & 3 & -2 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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

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

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

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

In Exercises 19 and 20, V is a vector space. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

19. a. The number of pivot columns of a matrix equals the dimension of its column space.
    b. A plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is a two-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
    c. The dimension of the vector space $\mathbb{P}_4$ is 4.
    d. If $\dim V = n$ and S is a linearly independent set in V, then S is a basis for V.
    e. If a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ spans a finite-dimensional vector space V and if T is a set of more than p vectors in V, then T is linearly dependent.

20. a. $\mathbb{R}^2$ is a two-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
    b. The number of variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ equals the dimension of Nul A.
    c. A vector space is infinite-dimensional if it is spanned by an infinite set.
    d. If $\dim V = n$ and if S spans V, then S is a basis of V.
    e. The only three-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$ is $\mathbb{R}^3$ itself.

21. The first four Hermite polynomials are $1, 2t, -2+4t^2$, and $-12t+8t^3$. These polynomials arise naturally in the study of certain important differential equations in mathematical physics.[2] Show that the first four Hermite polynomials form a basis of $\mathbb{P}_3$.

22. The first four Laguerre polynomials are $1, 1-t, 2-4t+t^2$, and $6-18t+9t^2-t^3$. Show that these polynomials form a basis of $\mathbb{P}_3$.

23. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the basis of $\mathbb{P}_3$ consisting of the Hermite polynomials in Exercise 21, and let $\mathbf{p}(t) = -1+8t^2+8t^3$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

24. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the basis of $\mathbb{P}_2$ consisting of the first three Laguerre polynomials listed in Exercise 22, and let $\mathbf{p}(t) = 5+5t-2t^2$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

25. Let S be a subset of an n-dimensional vector space V, and suppose S contains fewer than n vectors. Explain why S cannot span V.

26. Let H be an n-dimensional subspace of an n-dimensional vector space V. Show that $H = V$.

27. Explain why the space $\mathbb{P}$ of all polynomials is an infinite-dimensional space.

[2] See *Introduction to Functional Analysis*, 2d ed., by A. E. Taylor and David C. Lay (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1980), pp. 92–93. Other sets of polynomials are discussed there, too.

28. Show that the space $C(\mathbb{R})$ of all continuous functions defined on the real line is an infinite-dimensional space.

In Exercises 29 and 30, V is a nonzero finite-dimensional vector space, and the vectors listed belong to V. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer. (These questions are more difficult than those in Exercises 19 and 20.)

29. a. If there exists a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ that spans V, then $\dim V \le p$.

b. If there exists a linearly independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V, then $\dim V \ge p$.

c. If $\dim V = p$, then there exists a spanning set of $p + 1$ vectors in V.

30. a. If there exists a linearly dependent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V, then $\dim V \le p$.

b. If every set of p elements in V fails to span V, then $\dim V > p$.

c. If $p \ge 2$ and $\dim V = p$, then every set of $p - 1$ nonzero vectors is linearly independent.

Exercises 31 and 32 concern finite-dimensional vector spaces V and W and a linear transformation $T : V \to W$.

31. Let H be a nonzero subspace of V, and let $T(H)$ be the set of images of vectors in H. Then $T(H)$ is a subspace of W, by Exercise 35 in Section 4.2. Prove that $\dim T(H) \le \dim H$.

32. Let H be a nonzero subspace of V, and suppose T is a one-to-one (linear) mapping of V into W. Prove that $\dim T(H) = \dim H$. If T happens to be a one-to-one mapping of V *onto* W, then $\dim V = \dim W$. Isomorphic finite-dimensional vector spaces have the same dimension.

33. **[M]** According to Theorem 11, a linearly independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ can be expanded to a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$. One way to do this is to create $A = [\,\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_k \ \mathbf{e}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{e}_n\,]$, with $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ the columns of the identity matrix; the pivot columns of A form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

a. Use the method described to extend the following vectors to a basis for $\mathbb{R}^5$:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ -7 \\ 8 \\ -5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 7 \\ -8 \\ 5 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

b. Explain why the method works in general: Why are the original vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ included in the basis found for $\operatorname{Col} A$? Why is $\operatorname{Col} A = \mathbb{R}^n$?

34. **[M]** Let $\mathcal{B} = \{1, \cos t, \cos^2 t, \dots, \cos^6 t\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{1, \cos t, \cos 2t, \dots, \cos 6t\}$. Assume the following trigonometric identities (see Exercise 37 in Section 4.1).

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos 2t &= -1 + 2\cos^2 t \\
\cos 3t &= -3\cos t + 4\cos^3 t \\
\cos 4t &= 1 - 8\cos^2 t + 8\cos^4 t \\
\cos 5t &= 5\cos t - 20\cos^3 t + 16\cos^5 t \\
\cos 6t &= -1 + 18\cos^2 t - 48\cos^4 t + 32\cos^6 t
\end{aligned}$$

Let H be the subspace of functions spanned by the functions in $\mathcal{B}$. Then $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for H, by Exercise 38 in Section 4.3.

a. Write the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vectors of the vectors in $\mathcal{C}$, and use them to show that $\mathcal{C}$ is a linearly independent set in H.

b. Explain why $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis for H.

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. False. Consider the set $\{\mathbf{0}\}$.
2. True. By the Spanning Set Theorem, S contains a basis for V; call that basis S'. Then T will contain more vectors than S'. By Theorem 9, T is linearly dependent.

4.6 RANK

With the aid of vector space concepts, this section takes a look *inside* a matrix and reveals several interesting and useful relationships hidden in its rows and columns.

For instance, imagine placing 2000 random numbers into a 40×50 matrix A and then determining both the maximum number of linearly independent columns in A and the maximum number of linearly independent columns in A^T (rows in A). Remarkably, the two numbers are the same. As we'll soon see, their common value is the *rank* of the matrix. To explain why, we need to examine the subspace spanned by the rows of A.

The Row Space

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, each row of A has n entries and thus can be identified with a vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$. The set of all linear combinations of the row vectors is called the **row space** of A and is denoted by Row A. Each row has n entries, so Row A is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$. Since the rows of A are identified with the columns of A^T, we could also write Col A^T in place of Row A.

EXAMPLE 1 Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -5 & 8 & 0 & -17 \\ 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 11 & -19 & 7 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 & -13 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_1 &= (-2, -5, 8, 0, -17) \\ \mathbf{r}_2 &= (1, 3, -5, 1, 5) \\ \mathbf{r}_3 &= (3, 11, -19, 7, 1) \\ \mathbf{r}_4 &= (1, 7, -13, 5, -3) \end{aligned}$$

The row space of A is the subspace of $\mathbb{R}^5$ spanned by $\{\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \mathbf{r}_4\}$. That is, Row A = Span $\{\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \mathbf{r}_4\}$. It is natural to write row vectors horizontally; however, they may also be written as column vectors if that is more convenient. ■

If we knew some linear dependence relations among the rows of matrix A in Example 1, we could use the Spanning Set Theorem to shrink the spanning set to a basis. Unfortunately, row operations on A will not give us that information, because row operations change the row-dependence relations. But row reducing A is certainly worthwhile, as the next theorem shows!

THEOREM 13

If two matrices A and B are row equivalent, then their row spaces are the same. If B is in echelon form, the nonzero rows of B form a basis for the row space of A as well as for that of B.

PROOF If B is obtained from A by row operations, the rows of B are linear combinations of the rows of A. It follows that any linear combination of the rows of B is automatically a linear combination of the rows of A. Thus the row space of B is contained in the row space of A. Since row operations are reversible, the same argument shows that the row space of A is a subset of the row space of B. So the two row spaces are the same. If B is in echelon form, its nonzero rows are linearly independent because no nonzero row is a linear combination of the nonzero rows below it. (Apply Theorem 4 to the nonzero rows of B in reverse order, with the first row last.) Thus the nonzero rows of B form a basis of the (common) row space of B and A. ■

The main result of this section involves the three spaces: Row A, Col A, and Nul A. The following example prepares the way for this result and shows how *one* sequence of row operations on A leads to bases for all three spaces.

EXAMPLE 2 Find bases for the row space, the column space, and the null space of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -5 & 8 & 0 & -17 \\ 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 11 & -19 & 7 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 & -13 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION To find bases for the row space and the column space, row reduce A to an echelon form:

$$A \sim B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 2 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 20 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

By Theorem 13, the first three rows of B form a basis for the row space of A (as well as for the row space of B). Thus

$$\text{Basis for Row } A\text{: } \{(1, 3, -5, 1, 5), (0, 1, -2, 2, -7), (0, 0, 0, -4, 20)\}$$

For the column space, observe from B that the pivots are in columns 1, 2, and 4. Hence columns 1, 2, and 4 of A (not B) form a basis for Col A:

$$\text{Basis for Col } A\text{: } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 3 \\ 11 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 7 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Notice that any echelon form of A provides (in its nonzero rows) a basis for Row A and also identifies the pivot columns of A for Col A. However, for Nul A, we need the *reduced echelon form.* Further row operations on B yield

$$A \sim B \sim C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ is equivalent to $C\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, that is,

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_3 + x_5 &= 0 \\ x_2 - 2x_3 + 3x_5 &= 0 \\ x_4 - 5x_5 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So $x_1 = -x_3 - x_5$, $x_2 = 2x_3 - 3x_5$, $x_4 = 5x_5$, with x_3 and x_5 free variables. The usual calculations (discussed in Section 4.2) show that

$$\text{Basis for Nul } A\text{: } \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Observe that, unlike the basis for Col A, the bases for Row A and Nul A have no simple connection with the entries in A itself.[1] ■

[1] It is possible to find a basis for the row space Row A that uses rows of A. First form A^T, and then row reduce until the pivot columns of A^T are found. These pivot columns of A^T are rows of A, and they form a basis for the row space of A.

Warning: Although the first three rows of B in Example 2 are linearly independent, it is wrong to conclude that the first three rows of A are linearly independent. (In fact, the third row of A is 2 times the first row plus 7 times the second row.) Row operations may change the linear dependence relations among the *rows* of a matrix.

The Rank Theorem

WEB

The next theorem describes fundamental relations among the dimensions of Col A, Row A, and Nul A.

DEFINITION

The **rank** of A is the dimension of the column space of A.

Since Row A is the same as Col A^T, the dimension of the row space of A is the rank of A^T. The dimension of the null space is sometimes called the **nullity** of A, though we will not use this term.

An alert reader may have already discovered part or all of the next theorem while working the exercises in Section 4.5 or reading Example 2 above.

THEOREM 14

The Rank Theorem

The dimensions of the column space and the row space of an $m \times n$ matrix A are equal. This common dimension, the rank of A, also equals the number of pivot positions in A and satisfies the equation

$$\text{rank } A + \dim \text{Nul } A = n$$

PROOF By Theorem 6 in Section 4.3, rank A is the number of pivot columns in A. Equivalently, rank A is the number of pivot positions in an echelon form B of A. Furthermore, since B has a nonzero row for each pivot, and since these rows form a basis for the row space of A, the rank of A is also the dimension of the row space.

From Section 4.5, the dimension of Nul A equals the number of free variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Expressed another way, the dimension of Nul A is the number of columns of A that are *not* pivot columns. (It is the number of these columns, not the columns themselves, that is related to Nul A.) Obviously,

$$\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{number of}\\ \text{pivot columns}\end{matrix}\right\} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{number of}\\ \text{nonpivot columns}\end{matrix}\right\} = \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{number of}\\ \text{columns}\end{matrix}\right\}$$

This proves the theorem. ■

The ideas behind Theorem 14 are visible in the calculations in Example 2. The three pivot positions in the echelon form B determine the basic variables and identify the basis vectors for Col A and those for Row A.

EXAMPLE 3

a. If A is a 7×9 matrix with a two-dimensional null space, what is the rank of A?

b. Could a 6×9 matrix have a two-dimensional null space?

SOLUTION

a. Since A has 9 columns, $(\text{rank } A) + 2 = 9$, and hence rank $A = 7$.

b. No. If a 6×9 matrix, call it B, had a two-dimensional null space, it would have to have rank 7, by the Rank Theorem. But the columns of B are vectors in $\mathbb{R}^6$, and so the dimension of Col B cannot exceed 6; that is, rank B cannot exceed 6. ■

The next example provides a nice way to visualize the subspaces we have been studying. In Chapter 6, we will learn that Row A and Nul A have only the zero vector in common and are actually "perpendicular" to each other. The same fact will apply to Row A^T ($=$ Col A) and Nul A^T. So Fig. 1, which accompanies Example 4, creates a good mental image for the general case. (The value of studying A^T along with A is demonstrated in Exercise 29.)

EXAMPLE 4 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. It is readily checked that Nul A is the x_2-axis, Row A is the x_1x_3-plane, Col A is the plane whose equation is $x_1 - x_2 = 0$, and Nul A^T is the set of all multiples of $(1, -1, 0)$. Figure 1 shows Nul A and Row A in the domain of the linear transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto A\mathbf{x}$; the range of this mapping, Col A, is shown in a separate copy of $\mathbb{R}^3$, along with Nul A^T. ■

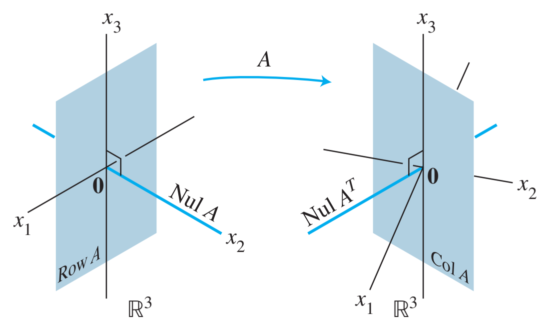


FIGURE 1 Subspaces determined by a matrix A.

Applications to Systems of Equations

The Rank Theorem is a powerful tool for processing information about systems of linear equations. The next example simulates the way a real-life problem using linear equations might be stated, without explicit mention of linear algebra terms such as matrix, subspace, and dimension.

EXAMPLE 5 A scientist has found two solutions to a homogeneous system of 40 equations in 42 variables. The two solutions are not multiples, and all other solutions can be constructed by adding together appropriate multiples of these two solutions. Can the scientist be *certain* that an associated nonhomogeneous system (with the same coefficients) has a solution?

SOLUTION Yes. Let A be the 40×42 coefficient matrix of the system. The given information implies that the two solutions are linearly independent and span Nul A. So dim Nul $A = 2$. By the Rank Theorem, dim Col $A = 42 - 2 = 40$. Since $\mathbb{R}^{40}$ is the only subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{40}$ whose dimension is 40, Col A must be all of $\mathbb{R}^{40}$. This means that every nonhomogeneous equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a solution. ■

Rank and the Invertible Matrix Theorem

The various vector space concepts associated with a matrix provide several more statements for the Invertible Matrix Theorem. The new statements listed here follow those in the original Invertible Matrix Theorem in Section 2.3.

THEOREM

The Invertible Matrix Theorem (continued)

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Then the following statements are each equivalent to the statement that A is an invertible matrix.

m. The columns of A form a basis of $\mathbb{R}^n$.
n. $\text{Col}\, A = \mathbb{R}^n$
o. $\dim \text{Col}\, A = n$
p. $\text{rank}\, A = n$
q. $\text{Nul}\, A = \{\mathbf{0}\}$
r. $\dim \text{Nul}\, A = 0$

PROOF Statement (m) is logically equivalent to statements (e) and (h) regarding linear independence and spanning. The other five statements are linked to the earlier ones of the theorem by the following chain of almost trivial implications:

$$(g) \Rightarrow (n) \Rightarrow (o) \Rightarrow (p) \Rightarrow (r) \Rightarrow (q) \Rightarrow (d)$$

Statement (g), which says that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has at least one solution for each $\mathbf{b}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, implies (n), because $\text{Col}\, A$ is precisely the set of all $\mathbf{b}$ such that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent. The implications (n) $\Rightarrow$ (o) $\Rightarrow$ (p) follow from the definitions of dimension and rank. If the rank of A is n, the number of columns of A, then $\dim \text{Nul}\, A = 0$, by the Rank Theorem, and so $\text{Nul}\, A = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. Thus (p) $\Rightarrow$ (r) $\Rightarrow$ (q). Also, (q) implies that the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has only the trivial solution, which is statement (d). Since statements (d) and (g) are already known to be equivalent to the statement that A is invertible, the proof is complete. ■

SG Expanded Table for the IMT 4–19

We have refrained from adding to the Invertible Matrix Theorem obvious statements about the row space of A, because the row space is the column space of A^T. Recall from statement (l) of the Invertible Matrix Theorem that A is invertible if and only if A^T is invertible. Hence every statement in the Invertible Matrix Theorem can also be stated for A^T. To do so would double the length of the theorem and produce a list of over 30 statements!

NUMERICAL NOTE

Many algorithms discussed in this text are useful for understanding concepts and making simple computations by hand. However, the algorithms are often unsuitable for large-scale problems in real life.

Rank determination is a good example. It would seem easy to reduce a matrix to echelon form and count the pivots. But unless exact arithmetic is performed on a matrix whose entries are specified exactly, row operations can change the apparent rank of a matrix. For instance, if the value of x in the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 5 & x \end{bmatrix}$ is not stored exactly as 7 in a computer, then the rank may be 1 or 2, depending on whether the computer treats $x - 7$ as zero.

In practical applications, the effective rank of a matrix A is often determined from the singular value decomposition of A, to be discussed in Section 7.4. This decomposition is also a reliable source of bases for Col A, Row A, Nul A, and Nul A^T.

WEB

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

The matrices below are row equivalent.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 & -6 & 8 \\ 1 & -2 & -4 & 3 & -2 \\ -7 & 8 & 10 & 3 & -10 \\ 4 & -5 & -7 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & -4 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 & 9 & -12 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

1. Find rank A and dim Nul A.
2. Find bases for Col A and Row A.
3. What is the next step to perform to find a basis for Nul A?
4. How many pivot columns are in a row echelon form of A^T?

4.6 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–4, assume that the matrix A is row equivalent to B. Without calculations, list rank A and dim Nul A. Then find bases for Col A, Row A, and Nul A.

1. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 9 & -7 \\ -1 & 2 & -4 & 1 \\ 5 & -6 & 10 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$,

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

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

$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 & -6 & 6 & 3 & 6 \\ -2 & -3 & 6 & -3 & 0 & -6 \\ 4 & 9 & -12 & 9 & 3 & 12 \\ -2 & 3 & 6 & 3 & 3 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$,

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

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

$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & -3 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -13 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$