

Section 4.5 & 4.6: Dimension & Rank

Consider subspaces of the form $H = \text{Span} \{ \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}$. When the generators $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ are linearly independent, they form a basis for H .

Theorem Let $B = \{ \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}$ be a basis of H . Then any set of more than p vectors in H is linearly dependent.

Proof: Let T be the coordinate mapping associated with this basis B , i.e., for any vector \vec{x} in H , there is a unique expression

$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_p \vec{v}_p.$$

Recall that this unique column vector of the linear relation is called the coordinate of \vec{x} relative to the basis B (or B -coordinate, in short), and is denoted by

$$[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}, \quad B\text{-coordinate of } \vec{x},$$

The coordinate mapping associated with this basis is defined as

$$T(\vec{x}) = [\vec{x}]_B : H \rightarrow R^p.$$

Now, suppose $C = \{ \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_q \}$ be a subset of H with $q > p$. Then q vectors in R^p

$$T(\vec{u}_1), T(\vec{u}_2), \dots, T(\vec{u}_q)$$

are linearly dependent. In other words, there is a nontrivial solution for

$$x_1 T(\vec{u}_1) + x_2 T(\vec{u}_2) + \dots + x_q T(\vec{u}_q) = 0$$

or

$$T(x_1 \vec{u}_1 + x_2 \vec{u}_2 + \dots + x_q \vec{u}_q) = 0.$$

Since T is one-to-one, this leads to

$$x_1 \vec{u}_1 + x_2 \vec{u}_2 + \dots + x_q \vec{u}_q = 0.$$

Conclusion: From this Theorem, if H has two bases

$$B = \{ \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p \}, \quad C = \{ \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_q \}$$

then $p = q$.

However, a subspace may have infinite many sets of basis, for instance, all of the following sets are bases:

$$\begin{aligned} & 2\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p \\ & (\vec{v}_1 + 2\vec{v}_2 + 5\vec{v}_3), \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p. \end{aligned}$$

Definition. Let H be a subspace of V with a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ of p linearly independent vectors. We call p , the number of vectors in a basis, the dimension of H , and denote it by

$$p = \dim(H).$$

Example. In R^n , the standard basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$ consists of n vectors. So, $\dim(R^n) = n$. For any vector

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in R^n, \quad [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example. Consider R^2 . Let

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Find (a) $[\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}$ and $[\vec{e}_2]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}$, (b) $[\vec{x}]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}$ for any \vec{x} .

Solution: To find $[\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}$, we need to solve $\vec{e}_1 = x\vec{v}_1 + y\vec{v}_2$, or

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

We proceed by reducing the augmented matrix:

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

Therefore,

$$\vec{e}_1 = \frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_1 + \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)\vec{v}_2, \quad [\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ -2/3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This relation can be written as

$$\vec{e}_1 = \frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_1 + \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)\vec{v}_2 = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ -2/3 \end{bmatrix} = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] [\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}.$$

Similarly, by solving $\vec{e}_2 = x\vec{v}_1 + y\vec{v}_2$, or by row operations

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

we found

$$[\vec{e}_2]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We may also write the above relations as

$$\vec{e}_2 = x\vec{v}_1 + y\vec{v}_2 = \frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_1 + \frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_2 = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix} = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] [\vec{e}_2]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}.$$

From this, we see that the 2×2 matrix with columns \vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2 ,

$$[\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2] = \left[[\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] [\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}, [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] [\vec{e}_2]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}} \right] = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] \left[[\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}, [\vec{e}_2]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}} \right] = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] V,$$

where the matrix

$$V = \left[[\vec{e}_1]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}}, [\vec{e}_2]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}} \right] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

represents changes of coordinates from the standard basis to basis $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$. In fact, for any $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x} &= x_1\vec{e}_1 + x_2\vec{e}_2 = x_1 \left(\frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_1 + \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)\vec{v}_2 \right) + x_2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_1 + \frac{1}{3}\vec{v}_2 \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{3}x_1 + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \right) \vec{v}_1 + \left(\left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)x_1 + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \right) \vec{v}_2. \end{aligned}$$

Using matrix notation,

$$\vec{x} = [\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2] \vec{x} = [\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2] V \vec{x}.$$

Hence,

$$[\vec{x}]_{\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}} = V \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 1/3 \\ -2/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3}x_1 + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \\ \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)x_1 + \frac{1}{3}x_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Theorem: Let H be a subspace of finite dimension. Then any set of linearly independent vectors can be expanded into a basis.

Theorem (The Basis Theorem). Let $\dim V = p$. Then any set of p vectors that spans V automatically forms a basis.

Definition. The dimension of the column space of a matrix A is the same as RANK of the matrix A , i.e.,

$$\text{Rank}(A) = \dim(\text{Col}(A)) \quad (\text{ or simply } R(A)).$$

As we explained in the previous lecture,

$$\text{Col}(A) = \text{Span}\{\text{pivot columns of } A\}.$$

Recall that $\text{Rank}(A) = \text{number of pivots}$. So

$$\dim(\text{Col}(A)) = \text{number of pivots}$$

On the other hand, $Null(A)$ can be expressed using parametric vector forms, in which the number of free variables is equal to the number of independent generators. So

$$\dim(Null(A)) = \text{number of free variables} = \text{number of non-pivot columns}$$

Example. Find $Rank(A)$ and $\dim(Null(A))$ if

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & -3 & -4 & 8 \\ 0 & -3 & 2 & 5 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution: We see that column#1, #2, #4 are pivot. Therefore, these three columns form a basis, and $Rank(A) = 3$. Since non-pivot columns correspond to free variables, in this case, there are two free variables in the solution set for $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$, i.e., $\dim(Null(A)) = 2$.

The above example demonstrates the following **Dimension Theorem for $A_{m \times n}$**

$$Rank(A) + \dim(Null(A)) = n$$

(number of pivots) + (number of non-pivot columns) = number of columns.

Inverse Matrix Theorem (part 2) Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. each of the following statements is equivalent to A is invertible:

1. The columns of A form a *basis* of R^n .
2. $Col(A) = R^n$.
3. $\dim(Col(A)) = n$
4. $Rank(A) = n$
5. $Null(A) = \{0\}$
6. $\dim Null(A) = 0$