

Applied Linear Algebra
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Chapter 3
Subspaces of R^n and Their
Dimensions

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3.1 Image and Kernal of a Linear Transformation

Definition. Image

The image of a function consists of all the values the function takes in its codomain. If f is a function from X to Y , then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{image}(f) &= \{f(x): x \in X\} \\ &= \{y \in Y: y = f(x), \text{ for some } x \in X\}\end{aligned}$$

Example. *See Figure 1.*

Example. *The image of*

$$f(x) = e^x$$

consists of all positive numbers.

Example. $b \in \text{im}(f), c \notin \text{im}(f)$ *See Figure 2.*

Example. $f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(t) \\ \sin(t) \end{bmatrix}$ *(See Figure 3.)*

Example. *If the function from X to Y is invertible, then $\text{image}(f) = Y$. For each y in Y , there is one (and only one) x in X such that $y = f(x)$, namely, $x = f^{-1}(y)$.*

Example. *Consider the linear transformation T from R^3 to R^3 that projects a vector orthogonally into the $x_1 - x_2$ -plane, as illustrate in Figure 4. The image of T is the $x_1 - x_2$ -plane in R^3 .*

Example. *Describe the image of the linear transformation T from R^2 to R^2 given by the matrix*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

$$T \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + 3x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (x_1 + 3x_2) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

See Figure 5.

Example. Describe the image of the linear transformation T from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R}^3 given by the matrix

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

Solution

$$T \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

See Figure 6.

Definition. Consider the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ in R^m . The set of all linear combinations of the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ is called their **span**:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n) \\ &= \{c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\vec{v}_n : c_i \text{ arbitrary scalars}\} \end{aligned}$$

Fact The image of a linear transformation

$$T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$$

is the span of the columns of A . We denote the image of T by $\text{im}(T)$ or $\text{im}(A)$.

Justification

$$\begin{aligned} T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} &= \left[\begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & & & & \\ & \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_n & \\ & | & & | & \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= x_1\vec{v}_1 + x_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + x_n\vec{v}_n. \end{aligned}$$

Fact: Properties of the image

(a). The zero vector is contained in $im(T)$, i.e. $\vec{0} \in im(T)$.

(b). The image is closed under addition: If $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \in im(T)$, then $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 \in im(T)$.

(c). The image is closed under scalar multiplication: If $\vec{v} \in im(T)$, then $k\vec{v} \in im(T)$.

Verification

(a). $\vec{0} \in R^m$ since $A\vec{0} = \vec{0}$.

(b). Since \vec{v}_1 and $\vec{v}_2 \in im(T)$, $\exists \vec{w}_1$ and \vec{w}_2 st. $T(\vec{w}_1) = \vec{v}_1$ and $T(\vec{w}_2) = \vec{v}_2$. Then, $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 = T(\vec{w}_1) + T(\vec{w}_2) = T(\vec{w}_1 + \vec{w}_2)$, so that $\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$ is in the image as well.

(c). $\exists \vec{w}$ st. $T(\vec{w}) = \vec{v}$. Then $k\vec{v} = kT(\vec{w}) = T(k\vec{w})$, so $k\vec{v}$ is in the image.

Example. Consider an $n \times n$ matrix A . Show that $\text{im}(A^2)$ is contained in $\text{im}(A)$.

Hint: To show \vec{w} is also in $\text{im}(A)$, we need to find some vector \vec{u} st. $\vec{w} = A\vec{u}$.

Solution

Consider a vector \vec{w} in $\text{im}(A^2)$. There exists a vector \vec{v} st. $\vec{w} = A^2\vec{v} = AA\vec{v} = A\vec{u}$ where $\vec{u} = A\vec{v}$.

Definition. *Kernel*

The kernel of a linear transformation $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$ is the set of all zeros of the transformation (i.e., the solutions of the equation $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$). See Figure 9.

We denote the kernel of T by $\ker(T)$ or $\ker(A)$.

For a linear transformation T from R^n to R^m ,

- $\text{im}(T)$ is a subset of the codomain R^m of T , and
- $\ker(T)$ is a subset of the domain R^n of T .

Example. Consider the orthogonal project onto the $x_1 - x_2$ -plane, a linear transformation T from R^3 to R^3 . See Figure 10.

The kernel of T consists of all vectors whose orthogonal projection is $\vec{0}$. These are the vectors on the x_3 -axis (the scalar multiples of \vec{e}_3).

Example. Find the kernel of the linear transformation T from R^3 to R^2 given by

$$T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

We have to solve the linear system

$$T(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$\text{rref} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{rcl} x_1 & - & x_3 = 0 \\ & x_2 & + 2x_3 = 0 \end{array} \right|$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The kernel is the line spanned by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Example. Find the kernel of the linear transformation T from R^5 to R^4 given by the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 6 & 6 & 6 & 6 \\ 1 & 7 & 8 & 10 & 12 \\ 1 & 6 & 6 & 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution We have to solve the linear system $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{0} = \vec{0}$

$$\text{rref}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -6 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The kernel of T consists of the solutions of the system

$$\left| \begin{array}{rcl} x_1 & -6x_3 & +6x_5 = 0 \\ & x_2 + 2x_3 & -2x_5 = 0 \\ & & x_4 + 2x_5 = 0 \end{array} \right|$$

The solution are the vectors

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6s - 6t \\ -2s + 2t \\ s \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix}$$

where s and t are arbitrary constants .

$$\ker(T) = \begin{bmatrix} 6s - 6t \\ -2s + 2t \\ s \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix} : s, t \text{ arbitrary scalars}$$

We can write

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6s - 6t \\ -2s + 2t \\ s \\ -2t \\ t \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This shows that

$$\ker(T) = \text{span} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Fact 3.1.6: Properties of the kernel

- (a) The zero vector $\vec{0}$ in R_n is in $\ker(T)$.
- (b) The kernel is closed under addition.
- (c) The kernel is closed under scalar multiplication.

The verification is left as Exercise 49.

Fact 3.1.7

1. Consider an $m \times n$ matrix A then

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

if (and only if) $\text{rank}(A) = n$. (This implies that $n \leq m$.)

Check exercise 2.4 (35)

2. For a square matrix A ,

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

if (and only if) A is invertible.

Summary

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. The following statements are equivalent (i.e., they are either all true or all false):

1. A is invertible.
2. The linear system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution \vec{x} , for all \vec{b} in R^n . (def 2.3.1)
3. $\text{rref}(A) = I_n$. (fact 2.3.3)
4. $\text{rank}(A) = n$. (def 1.3.2)
5. $\text{im}(A) = R^n$. (ex 3.1.3b)
6. $\text{ker}(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$. (fact 3.1.7)

Homework 3.1: 5, 6, 7, 14, 15, 16, 31, 33, 42, 43

3.2 Subspaces of R^n Bases and Linear Independence

Definition. Subspaces of R^n

A subset W of R^n is called a subspace of R^n if it has the following properties:

- (a). W contains the zero vector in R^n .
- (b). W is closed under addition.
- (c). W is closed under scalar multiplication.

Fact 3.2.2

If T is a linear transformation from R^n to R^m , then

- ◇ $\ker(T)$ is a subspace of R^n
- ◇ $\text{im}(T)$ is a subspace of R^m

Example. Is $W = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \geq 0, y \geq 0 \right\}$
a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 ?

See Figure 1, 2.

Example. Is $W = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : xy \geq 0 \right\}$ a sub-
space of \mathbb{R}^2 ?

See Figure 3, 4.

Example. Show that the only subspaces of \mathbb{R}^2 are: $\{\vec{0}\}$, any lines through the origin, and \mathbb{R}^2 itself.

Similarly, the only subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 are: $\{\vec{0}\}$, any lines through the origin, any planes through $\vec{0}$, and \mathbb{R}^3 itself.

Solution

Suppose W is a subspace of R^2 that is neither the set $\{\vec{0}\}$ nor a line through the origin. We have to show $W = R^2$.

Pick a nonzero vector \vec{v}_1 in W . (We can find such a vector, since W is not $\{\vec{0}\}$.) The subspace W contains the line L spanned by \vec{v}_1 , but W does not equal L . Therefore, we can find a vector \vec{v}_2 in W that is not on L (See Figure 5). Using a parallelogram, we can express any vector \vec{v} in R^2 as a linear combination of \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 . Therefore, \vec{v} is contained in W (Since W is closed under linear combinations). This shows that $W = R^2$, as claimed.

A plane E in R^3 is usually described either by

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

or by giving E parametrically, as the span of two vectors, for example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In other words, E is described either as

$$\ker[1 \ 2 \ 3]$$

or

$$\text{im} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, a line L in R^3 may be described either parametrically, as the span of the vector

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

or by two linear equations

$$\begin{cases} x_1 - x_2 - x_3 = 0 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Therefore

$$L = im \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = ker \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A subspace of R^n is usually presented either as the solution set of a homogeneous linear system (as a kernel) or as the span of some vectors (as an image).

Any subspace of R^n can be represented as the image of a matrix.

Bases and Linear Independence

Example. Consider the matrix

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

Find vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in R^3 that span the image of A . What is the smallest number of vectors needed to span the image of A ?

Solution

We know from Fact 3.1.3 that the image of A spanned by the columns of A ,

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 6 show that we need only \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 to span the image of A . Since $\vec{v}_3 = \vec{v}_2$ and $\vec{v}_4 = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$, the vectors \vec{v}_3 and \vec{v}_4 are redundant; that is, they are linear combinations of \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 :

$$\begin{aligned}\text{im}(A) &= \text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4) \\ &= \text{span}(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2) .\end{aligned}$$

The image of A can be spanned by two vectors, but not by one vectors alone.

Definition. Linear independence; basis

Consider a sequence $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ of vectors in a subspace V of R^n .

The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ are called **linearly independent** if none of them is a linear combination of the others.

We say that the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ form a **basis** of V if they span V and are linearly independent.

See last example. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4$ span

$$V = \text{im}(A)$$

but they are linearly dependent, because $\vec{v}_4 = \vec{v}_2 + \vec{v}_3$. Therefore, they do not form a basis of V . The vectors \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 , on the other hand, do span V and are linearly independent.

Definition. Linear relations

Consider the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in R^n . An equation of the form

$$c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m = \vec{0}$$

is called a **(linear) relation** among the vectors \vec{v}_i . There is always the trivial relation, with $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_m = 0$. Nontrivial relations may or may not exist among the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in R^n .

Fact 3.2.5

The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in R^n are linearly dependent if (and only if) there are nontrivial relations among them.

Proof

\Rightarrow If one of the \vec{v}_i s a linear combination of the others,

$$\vec{v}_i = c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_{i-1}\vec{v}_{i-1} + c_{i+1}\vec{v}_{i+1} + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m$$

then we can find a nontrivial relation by subtracting \vec{v}_i from both sides of the equations:

$$c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_{i-1}\vec{v}_{i-1} - \vec{v}_i + c_{i+1}\vec{v}_{i+1} + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m = \vec{0}$$

\Leftarrow Conversely, if there is a nontrivial relation

$$c_1\vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_i\vec{v}_i + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m = \vec{0}$$

then we can solve for \vec{v}_i and express \vec{v}_i as a linear combination of the other vectors.

Example. Determine whether the following vectors are linearly independent

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 9 \\ 16 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solution

TO find the relations among these vectors, we have to solve the vector equation

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix} + c_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 9 \\ 16 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

or

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 8 & 5 & 9 \\ 4 & 9 & 7 & 16 \\ 5 & 10 & 11 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

In other words, we have to find the *kernal* of A . To do so, we compute $rref(A)$. Using technology, we find that

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

This shows the kernel of A is $\{\vec{0}\}$, because there is a leading 1 in each column of $rref(A)$. There is only the trivial relation among the four vectors and they are therefore linearly independent.

Fact 3.2.6

The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in R^n are linearly independent if (and only if)

$$\ker \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} = \{\vec{0}\}$$

or, equivalently, of

$$\text{rank} \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} = m$$

This condition implies that $m \leq n$.

Fact 3.2.7

Consider the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in a subspace V of R^n .

The vectors \vec{v}_i are a basis of V if (and only if) every vector \vec{v} in V can be expressed **uniquely** as a linear combination of the vectors \vec{v}_i .

Proof

\Rightarrow Suppose vectors \vec{v}_i are a basis of V , and consider a vector \vec{v} in V . Since the basis vectors span V , the vector \vec{v} can be written as a linear combination of the \vec{v}_i . We have to demonstrate that this representation is unique. If there are two representations:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{v} &= c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m\vec{v}_m \\ &= d_1\vec{v}_1 + d_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + d_m\vec{v}_m\end{aligned}$$

By subtraction, we find

$$\vec{0} = (c_1 - d_1)\vec{v}_1 + (c_2 - d_2)\vec{v}_2 + \dots + (c_m - d_m)\vec{v}_m$$

Since the \vec{v}_i are linearly independent, $c_i - d_i = 0$, or $c_i = d_i$, for all i .

\Leftarrow , suppose that each vector in V can be expressed uniquely as a linear combination of the vectors \vec{v}_i . Clearly, the \vec{v}_i span V . The zero vector can be expressed uniquely as a linear combination of the \vec{v}_i , namely, as

$$\vec{0} = 0\vec{v}_1 + 0\vec{v}_2 + \dots + 0\vec{v}_m$$

This means there is only the trivial relation among the \vec{v}_i : they are linearly independent.

See Figure 7. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4$ do not form a basis of E , since every vector in E can be expressed in more than one way as a linear combination of the \vec{v}_i . For example,

$$\vec{v}_4 = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 + 0\vec{v}_3 + 0\vec{v}_4$$

but also

$$\vec{v}_4 = 0\vec{v}_1 + 0\vec{v}_2 + 0\vec{v}_3 + 1\vec{v}_4.$$

Homework 3.2: 3, 5, 9, 17, 18, 19, 29, 30, 39

3.3 The Dimension of a Subspace of R^n

Fact 3.3.2

All bases of a subspace V of R^n consist of the same number of vectors.

Hint Basis: linear independent and span V
(Def 3.2.3)

Fact 3.3.1

Consider vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ and $\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ in a subspace V of R^n . If the vectors \vec{v}_i are linearly independent, and the vectors \vec{w}_j span V , then $p \leq q$.

Proof 3.3.2

Consider two bases $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ and $\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2, \dots, \vec{w}_q$ of V . Since the \vec{v}_i are linearly independent, and the vectors \vec{w}_j span V , we have $p \leq q$. Like wise, since the \vec{w}_j are linearly independent and the \vec{v}_i span V , we have $q \leq p$. Therefore, $p = q$.

Proof 3.3.1

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \vec{v}_1 & = & a_{11}\vec{w}_1 + \cdots + a_{1q}\vec{w}_q \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vec{v}_p & = & a_{p1}\vec{w}_1 + \cdots + a_{pq}\vec{w}_q \end{array}$$

Write each of these equations in matrix form:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & & & & \\ & \vec{w}_1 & \cdots & \vec{w}_q & \\ & | & & | & \\ & & & & \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{1q} \end{bmatrix} = \vec{v}_1$$

...

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|ccc|c} & & & & \\ & \vec{w}_1 & \cdots & \vec{w}_q & \\ & | & & | & \\ & & & & \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} a_{p1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{pq} \end{bmatrix} = \vec{v}_p$$

Combine all these equations into one matrix equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \vec{w}_1 & \dots & \vec{w}_q \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{p1} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{1q} & \dots & a_{pq} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_p \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$
$$MA = N$$

Because

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{0}, MA\vec{x} = N\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

The kernel of A is contained in the kernel of N .

Since the kernel of N is $\{\vec{0}\}$ (since the \vec{v}_i are linearly independent), the kernel of A is $\{\vec{0}\}$ as well.

This implies that $\text{rank}(A) = p \leq q$ (by Fact 3.1.7).

Definition. Dimension

Consider a subspace V of R^n . The number of vectors in a basis of V is called the **dimension** of V , denoted by $\dim(V)$.

What is the dimension R^n itself?

Clearly, R^n ought to have dimension n . This is indeed the case: the vectors $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n$ form a basis of R^n called its **standard basis**.

A plane E in R^3 is two-dimensional.

Fact 3.3.4

Consider a subspace V of R^n with $\dim(V) = m$

1. We can find at most m linearly independent vectors in V .
2. We need at least m vectors to span V .
3. If m vectors in V are linearly independent, then they form a basis of V .
4. If m vectors span V , then they form a basis of V .

Proof 3.3.4 (3)

Consider linearly independent vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m$ in V . We have to show that the \vec{v}_i span V . Pick a \vec{v} in V . Then the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m, \vec{v}$ will be linearly dependent, by (1). Therefore, there is a nontrivial relation

$$c_1\vec{v}_1 + \cdots + c_m\vec{v}_m + c\vec{v} = \vec{0}$$

We can solve the relation for \vec{v} and express it as a linear combination of the \vec{v}_i . In other words, the \vec{v}_i span V .

Finding a Basis of the Kernel

Example. Find a basis of the kernel of the following matrix, and determine the dimension of the kernel:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 9 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 9 & 5 \end{bmatrix} -2(I)$$

$$\longrightarrow rref(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

This corresponds to the system

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} x_1 + 2x_2 & 3x_4 & = 0 \\ & x_3 + 3x_4 + 5x_5 & = 0 \end{array} \right|$$

with general solution

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2s - 3t \\ s \\ -3t - 5r \\ t \\ r \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + r \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\
 \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3
 \end{array}$$

The three vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$ span $\ker(A)$ and form a basis of the kernel of A (i.e. linearly independent).

$$\begin{aligned}
 \dim(\ker A) &= (\text{number of nonleading variables}) \\
 &= (\text{number of columns of } A) - (\text{number of leading variables}) \\
 &= (\text{number of columns of } A) - \text{rank}(A) \\
 &= 5 - 2 = 3
 \end{aligned}$$

Fact 3.3.5

Consider an $m \times n$ matrix A .

$$\dim(\ker A) = n - \text{rank}(A)$$

Finding a Basis of the Image

Example. Find a basis of the image of the linear transformation T from R^5 to R^4 with matrix

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

and determine the dimension of the image.

Solution

We know the columns of A span the image of A , but they are linearly dependent in this example. To construct a basis of $\text{im}(A)$, we could find a relation among the columns of A , express one of the columns as linear combination of the others, and then omit this vector as redundant.

We first find the reduced row-echelon form of A :

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

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 & \vec{v}_4 & \vec{v}_5 \end{array}$$

$$E = rref(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{w}_1 & \vec{w}_2 & \vec{w}_3 & \vec{w}_4 & \vec{w}_5 \end{array}$$

By inspection, we can express any column of $rref(A)$ that does not contain a leading 1 as a linear combination of earlier columns that do contain a leading 1.

$$\vec{w}_3 = \vec{w}_1 - 2\vec{w}_2, \text{ and } \vec{w}_4 = 2\vec{w}_1 - 3\vec{w}_2$$

It may surprise you that the same relationships hold among the corresponding columns of the matrix A .

$$\vec{v}_3 = \vec{v}_1 - 2\vec{v}_2, \text{ and } \vec{v}_4 = 2\vec{v}_1 - 3\vec{v}_2$$

Since \vec{w}_1 , \vec{w}_2 , and \vec{w}_5 are linearly independent, so are the vectors \vec{v}_1 , \vec{v}_2 , and \vec{v}_5 . (Why?)

The vectors \vec{v}_1 , \vec{v}_2 , and \vec{v}_5 alone span the image of A , since any vector \vec{v} in the image of A can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + c_3\vec{v}_3 + c_4\vec{v}_4 + c_5\vec{v}_5 \\ &= c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + c_3(\vec{v}_1 - 2\vec{v}_2) + c_4(2\vec{v}_1 - 3\vec{v}_2) + c_5\vec{v}_5 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the vectors \vec{v}_1 , \vec{v}_2 , and \vec{v}_5 form a basis of $\text{im}(A)$, and thus $\dim(\text{im}A) = 3$.

Definition.

A column of a matrix A is called a **pivot column** if the corresponding column of $rref(A)$ contains a leading 1.

Fact 3.3.7 The pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis of $im(A)$.

Fact 3.3.8 For any matrix A ,

$$rank(A) = dim(imA).$$

Fact 3.3.9 Rank-Nullity Theorem

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, then

$$\dim(\ker A) + \dim(\operatorname{im} A) = n.$$

The dimension of the kernel of matrix A is called the **nullity** of A :

$$\operatorname{nullity}(A) = \dim(\ker A).$$

Using this definition and Fact 3.3.8, we can write:

$$\operatorname{nullity}(A) + \operatorname{rank}(A) = n.$$

\Rightarrow The larger the kernel, the smaller the image, and vice versa.

Bases of R^n

How can we tell n given vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ in R^n form a basis?

The \vec{v}_i form a basis of R^n if every vector \vec{b} in R^n can be written uniquely as a linear combination of the \vec{v}_i :

$$\vec{b} = c_1\vec{v}_1 + c_2\vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\vec{v}_n = \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The linear system

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \vec{b}$$

has a unique solution if (only if) the $n \times n$ matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_n \end{array} \right]$$

is invertible.

Fact 3.3.10 The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ in R^n form a basis of R^n if (and only if) the matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} | & | & & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{array} \right]$$

is invertible.

Example. *Are the following vectors a basis of R^4 ?*

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 9 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 4 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 8 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

We have to check whether the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 8 & 9 \\ 9 & 4 & 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 8 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

is invertible. Using technology, we find that

$$\text{reff} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 8 & 9 \\ 9 & 4 & 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 8 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = I_4$$

Thus, the vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4$ form a basis of R^4

Summary 3.3.11

Consider an $n \times n$ matrix

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} | & | & & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \\ | & | & & | \end{array} \right]$$

Then the following statements are equivalent:

1. A is invertible.
2. The linear system $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ has a unique solution \vec{x} , for all \vec{b} for all \vec{b} in R^n .
3. $rref(A) = I_n$.
4. $rank(A) = n$.
5. $im(A) = R^n$.

6. $\ker(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$.

7. The \vec{v}_i are a basis of R^n .

8. The \vec{v}_i span R^n .

9. The \vec{v}_i are linearly independent.

Homework 3.3 6, 7, 8, 17, 18, 27, 31, 33,
39, 58, 59

Exercise 49: Find a basis of the row space of the matrix:

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

Exercise 51: Consider an arbitrary $m \times n$ matrix A .

1. What is the relationship between the row spaces of A and $E = rref(A)$?
2. What is the relationship between the dimension of the row space of A and the rank of A ?

3.4 COORDINATES

EXAMPLE 1

Let V be the plane in R^3 with equation $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$, a two-dimensional subspace of R^3 . We can describe a vector in this plane by its spatial (3D) coordinates; for example, vector

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is in plane V . However, it may be more convenient to introduce a plane coordinate system in V .

Consider any two vectors in plane V that aren't parallel, e.g.

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

See Figure 1, where we label the new axes c_1 and c_2 , with the new coordinate grid defined by vectors \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 .

Note that the $c_1 - c_2$ coordinates of vector \vec{v}_1 is $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and the coordinates of vector \vec{v}_2 is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, respectively.

For a vector \vec{x} in plane V , we can find the scalars c_1 and c_2 such that

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

For example, $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Therefore, the $c_1 - c_2$ coordinates of \vec{x} are

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

See Figure 3.

Let's denote the basis v_1, v_2 of V by B (Fraktur B). Then, the coordinate vector of \vec{x} with respect to B is denoted by $[\vec{x}]_B$:

$$\text{If } \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ then } [\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition 3.4.1

Coordinates in a subspace of R^n

Consider a basis B of a subspace V of R^n , consisting of vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m$. Any vector \vec{x} in V can be written uniquely as

$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_m \vec{v}_m$$

The scalars c_1, c_1, \dots, c_m are called the B -coordinates of \vec{x} , and the vector

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \dots \\ c_m \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the B -coordinate vector of \vec{x} , denoted by $\begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B$.

Note that

$$\vec{x} = S \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B$$

where $S = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$, an $n \times m$ matrix.

EXAMPLE 2

Consider the basis B of R^2 consisting of vectors

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

a. If $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$, find $[\vec{x}]_B$

b. If $[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, find \vec{x}

Solution

a. To find the coordinates of vector \vec{x} , we need to write \vec{x} as a linear combination of the basis vectors:

$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2, \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Alternatively, we can solve the equation

$$\vec{x} = S [\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} [\vec{x}]_B$$

for $[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} [\vec{x}]_B &= S^{-1}\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

b. By definition of coordinates, $[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ means that

$$\vec{x} = 2\vec{v}_1 + (-1)\vec{v}_2 = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + (-1) \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Alternatively, use the formula

$$\vec{x} = S [\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE 3

Let L be the line in R^2 spanned by vector $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Let T be the linear transformation from R^2 to R^2 that projects any vector orthogonally onto line L , as shown in Figure 5.

1. In $\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2$ coordinate system (See Figure 5): Sec 2.2 (pp. 59).

2. In $c_1 - c_2$ coordinate system (See Figure 6):
 T transforms vector $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$ into $\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

That is, T is given by the matrix $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, since $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

The transforms from $\begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B$ into $\begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}) \end{bmatrix}_B$ is called the B -matrix of T :

$$\begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}) \end{bmatrix}_B = B \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B$$

Definition 3.4.2

The B -matrix of a linear transformation

Consider a linear transformation T from R^n to R^n and a basis B of R^n . The $n \times n$ matrix B that transforms $\begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B$ into $\begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}) \end{bmatrix}_B$ is called the B -matrix of T :

$$\begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}) \end{bmatrix}_B = B \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B$$

for all \vec{x} in R^n .

Fact 3.4.3 The columns of the B -matrix of a linear transformation

Consider a linear transformation T from R^n to R^n and a basis B of R^n consisting of vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$. Then, the B -matrix of T is

$$B = \left[\begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{v}_1) \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{v}_2) \end{bmatrix}_B \dots \begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{v}_n) \end{bmatrix}_B \right]$$

That is, the columns of B are the B -coordinate vectors of $T(\vec{v}_1), T(\vec{v}_2), \dots, T(\vec{v}_n)$.

EXAMPLE 4

Consider two perpendicular unit vectors \vec{v}_1 and \vec{v}_2 in R^3 . Form the basis $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3 = \vec{v}_1 \times \vec{v}_2$ of R^3 ; let's denote this basis by B . Find the B -matrix B of the linear transformation $T(\vec{x}) = \vec{v}_1 \times \vec{x}$.

(see Exercise 2.1: 44 on pp. 49,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3 \\ a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 \end{bmatrix})$$

Solution

Use Fact 3.4.3 to construct B column by column:

$$\begin{aligned} B &= \left[\begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}_1) \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}_2) \end{bmatrix}_B \cdots \begin{bmatrix} T(\vec{x}_n) \end{bmatrix}_B \right] \\ &= \left[\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \times \vec{v}_1 \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \times \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 \times \vec{v}_3 \end{bmatrix}_B \right] \\ &= \left[\begin{bmatrix} \vec{0} \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_3 \end{bmatrix}_B \begin{bmatrix} -\vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}_B \right] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 5

Let T be the linear transformation from R^2 to R^2 that projects any vector orthogonally onto the line L spanned by $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. In Example 3, we found that the matrix of T with respect to the basis B consisting of $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

What is the relationship between B and the standard matrix A of T (such that $T(\vec{x})=A\vec{x}$)?

Solution

Recall from Definition 3.4.1 that

$$\vec{x} = S \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_B, \text{ where } S = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and consider the following diagram: (Figure 7)

Note that $T(\vec{x}) = AS \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \\ \end{bmatrix}_B$
 and also $T(\vec{x}) = SB \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \\ \end{bmatrix}_B$,
 so that $AS \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \\ \end{bmatrix}_B = SB \begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \\ \end{bmatrix}_B$ for all \vec{x} .

Thus,

$$AS = SB \text{ and } A = SBS^{-1}$$

Now we can find the standard matrix A of T :

$$\begin{aligned} A &= SBS^{-1} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{10} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.3 \\ 0.3 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, we could use Fact 2.2.5 to construct matrix A . The point here was to explore the relationship between matrices A and B .

Fact 3.4.4

Standard matrix versus B -matrix of a linear transformation

Consider a linear transformation T from R^n to R^n and a basis B of R^n consisting of vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$. Let B be the B -matrix of T and let A be the standard matrix of T (such that $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$). Then, $AS = SB$, $B = S^{-1}AS$, and $A = SBS^{-1}$, where

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition 3.4.5 Similar matrices

Consider two $n \times n$ matrices A and B . We say that A is similar to B if there is an invertible matrix S such that

$$AS = SB, \text{ or } B = S^{-1}AS$$

EXAMPLE 6

Is matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ similar to $B = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$?

Solution

We are looking for a matrix $S = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & t \end{bmatrix}$ such that $AS=SB$, or

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

These equations simplify to

$$z = 2x, t = -y,$$

so that any invertible matrix of the form

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ 2x & -y \end{bmatrix}$$

does the job. Note that $\det(S) = -3xy$. Matrix S is invertible if $\det(S) \neq 0$ (i.e., if neither x nor y is zero).

EXAMPLE 7

Show that if matrix A is similar to B , then its power A^t is similar to B^t for all positive integers t . (That is, A^2 is similar to B^2 , A^3 is similar to B^3 , etc.)

Solution

We know that $B = S^{-1}AS$ for some invertible matrix S . Now, B^t

$$\begin{aligned} &= \underbrace{(S^{-1}AS)(S^{-1}AS)\dots(S^{-1}AS)(S^{-1}AS)}_{t - \text{times}} \\ &= S^{-1}A^tS, \end{aligned}$$

proving our claims. Note the cancellation of many terms of the form SS^{-1} .

Fact 3.4.6

Similarity is an equivalence relation

1. An $n \times n$ matrix A is similar to itself (Reflexivity).
2. If A is similar to B , then B is similar to A (Symmetry).
3. If A is similar to B and B is similar to C , then A is similar to C (Transitivity).

Proof

A is similar to B : $B = P^{-1}AP$

B is similar to C : $C = Q^{-1}BQ$, then

$$C = Q^{-1}BQ = Q^{-1}P^{-1}APQ = (PQ)^{-1}A(PQ)$$

that is, A is similar to C by matrix PQ .

Homework Exercise 3.4: 5, 6, 9, 10, 13, 14, 19, 31, 39