# 22m:033 Notes: 2.9 Dimension and Rank 

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## 1 Coordinate systems

Because of linear independence provision of a basis, it follows that if $B=\left\{\overrightarrow{b_{1}}, \ldots, \overrightarrow{b_{p}}\right\}$ is a basis for a subspace $H$ that every vector $\vec{x}$ in $H$ can be written uniquely as a linear combination of the basis vectors

$$
\vec{x}=c_{1} \overrightarrow{b_{1}}+\cdots+c_{p} \overrightarrow{b_{p}} .
$$

Example 1.1 Suppose $B=\left\{\overrightarrow{b_{1}}, \overrightarrow{b_{2}}\right\}$ is a basis and we have two ways of writing

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \vec{v}=c_{1} \overrightarrow{b_{1}}+c_{2} \overrightarrow{b_{2}} \\
& \vec{v}=k_{1} \overrightarrow{b_{1}}+k_{2} \overrightarrow{b_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{1} \overrightarrow{b_{1}}+c_{2} \overrightarrow{b_{2}} & =k_{1} \overrightarrow{b_{1}}+k_{2} \overrightarrow{b_{2}} \text { or } \\
\left(c_{1}-k_{1}\right) \overrightarrow{b_{1}}+\left(c_{2}-k_{2}\right) \overrightarrow{b_{2}} & =\overrightarrow{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

By definition of linear independence we must have $\left(c_{1}-k_{1}\right)=0$ and $\left(c_{2}-k_{2}\right)=0$, so $c_{1}=k_{1}$ and $c_{2}=k_{2}$ ।

Definition 1.2 The column matrix $\left(\begin{array}{c}c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ c_{p}\end{array}\right)$ is called
the coordinate vector of $\vec{x}$ with respect to basis $B$ and denoted by $(\vec{x})_{B}$

## 2 Dimension of a subspace

Proposition 2.1 If $H$ is a subspace of $R^{n}$ with one basis consisting of $p$ vectors, then every basis for $H$ also consists of $p$ vectors.

This allows us to make the following important definitions:

Definition 2.2 The dimension of any non-zero subspace $H$ of $R^{n}$ is the number of vectors in any basis for $H$. The dimension of a zero subspace is defined to be 0 .

Definition 2.3 The rank of a matrix $A$ is the dimension of the column space.

Proposition 2.4 (The Rank Theorem) If $A$ is a matrix with $n$ columns then

$$
\operatorname{rank} A+\operatorname{dim} N u l A=n .
$$

Proposition 2.5 (The Basis Theorem) If $H$ is pdimensional subspace of $R^{n}$, any linearly independent set of $p$ vectors of $H$ will be a basis for $H$.

Also any set of $p$ vectors of $H$ that span $H$ are $a$ basis for H. 1

## 3 Yet more on inverses

Proposition 3.1 (The Invertible Matrix Theorem Continued) Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix then the following are equivalent to the statement that $A$ is an invertible matrix:

1. the columns of $A$ form a basis for $R^{n}$
2. $\operatorname{Col} A=R^{n}$
3. $\operatorname{dimCol} A=n$
4. $\operatorname{rank} A=n$
5. $N u l A=\{\overrightarrow{0}\}$
6. $\operatorname{dim} N u l A=0$

## 4 The Rank Theorem and linear transformations

The contents of much of the last two sections have some important interpretations in terms of linear transformation.

Remark 4.1 Consider a linear transformation $T: R^{n} \rightarrow$ $R^{m}$ given by $T(\vec{x})=A \vec{x}$. The column space of $A$ is the same as the range(image) of $T$. A basis for the column space is therefore a basis for the range of $T$.

Example 4.2 Suppose

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

This is already in reduced echelon form and we see that rank of $A$ is 2 .

We could describe the transformation $T$ by $T(x, y, z)=$ $(x, y, 0)$. Here $T: R^{3} \rightarrow R^{3}$. It is clear that the range $P$ of $T$ is two dimensional. It is the $x y$-coordinate plane in $R^{3}$, namely the plane with equation $z=0$.

The dimension of the column space of $A$ is 2 . It is easy to calculate the null space of $A$. It is the $z$-axis which has vector equation $t\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 1\end{array}\right)$.

Given any point $\vec{b}=(x, y, 0) \in P, T^{-1}(\vec{b})$ is the line $L_{\vec{b}}$ with vector equation

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
0
\end{array}\right)+t\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

So we can say the the map $T$ maps $R^{3}$ onto $P$ by "collapsing each line $L_{\vec{b}}$ to a point-namely $\vec{b}$.

Example 4.3 Suppose

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
4 & 5 & 6 \\
7 & 8 & 9
\end{array}\right)
$$

Here $T: R^{3} \rightarrow R^{3}$.
We get $A$ into echelon form. First add -4 times row 1 to row 2 , then add -7 times row 1 to row 3 and we get:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & -3 & -6 \\
0 & -6 & -12
\end{array}\right)
$$

Finally multiply row 2 by 2 and add to row 3 and we end up with:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
0 & -3 & -6 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

From this we conclude that the column space has basis

$$
B=\left\{\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
4 \\
7
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{l}
2 \\
5 \\
8
\end{array}\right)\right\}
$$

So the range of $T$ is two dimensional (that is a plane); lets call it $P$. In particular $T$ is not an onto map.

Now let us turn our attention to the null space of $A$. To get this we continue and get the row reduced form of $A$ which is:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Writing the solutions of $A(\vec{x})=\overrightarrow{0}$ in vector parametric form we see that the solutions are:

$$
t\left(\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-2 \\
1
\end{array}\right)
$$

. So the null space is a line $N$. This null space can be thought of as $T^{-1}(\overrightarrow{0})$.

We can say that what $T$ does is "collapse this line $N$ to the point $\overrightarrow{0}$.

What about any other point $\vec{b} \in P$. What can we say about $T^{-1}(\vec{b})$ ? Equivalently $T^{-1}(\vec{b})$ is the solution set of the non-homogeneous equations $A \vec{x}=\vec{b}$. As we have learned this will be a line in $R^{3}$ parallel to $N$. So we can say that $T$ collapses lines parallel to $N$ to points of $P$.

