

Section 4.6: Rank

Definition: The **row space**, denoted $\text{Row } A$, of an $m \times n$ matrix A is the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n spanned by the rows of A .

We now have three vector spaces associated with an $m \times n$ matrix A , its column space, null space, and row space.

Theorem

If two matrices A and B are row equivalent, then their row spaces are the same.

In particular, if B is an echelon form of the matrix A , then the nonzero rows of B form a basis for Row B —and also for Row A since these are the same space.

Example

A matrix A along with its rref is shown.

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

(a) Find a basis for Row A and state the dimension \dim Row A .

We can use the non zero rows of the rref

A basis for Row A is $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

$\dim(\text{Row } A) = 3$

Example continued ...

(b) Find a basis for $\text{Col } A$ and state its dimension.

We can use the pivot columns of A which are columns 1, 2, and 4.

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

$$\dim(\text{Col } A) = 3$$

Example continued ...

(c) Find a basis for $\text{Nul } A$ and state its dimension.

From the ref, if $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ then

$$x_1 = -x_3 - x_5$$

$$x_2 = 2x_3 - 3x_5$$

$$x_4 = 5x_5$$

x_3, x_5 - free

$$\text{So } \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -x_3 - x_5 \\ 2x_3 - 3x_5 \\ x_3 \\ 5x_5 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_5 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\dim(\text{Nul } A) = 2$$

Remarks

- ▶ We can naturally associate three vector spaces with an $m \times n$ matrix A . Row A and Nul A are subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n and Col A is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .
- ▶ Careful! The rows of the rref do span Row A . **But we go back to the columns in the original matrix to get vectors that span Col A .** (Get a basis for Col A from A itself!)
- ▶ Careful Again! Just because the first three rows of the rref span Row A **does not mean** the first three rows of A span Row A . (Get a basis for Row A from the rref!)

Remarks

- ▶ Row operations preserve row space, but change linear dependence relations of rows. Row operations change column space, but preserve linear dependence relations of columns.
- ▶ Another way to obtain a basis for Row A is to take the transpose A^T and do row operations. We have the following relationships:

$$\text{Col } A = \text{Row } A^T \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Row } A = \text{Col } A^T.$$

- ▶ The dimension of the null space is called the **nullity**.

Rank

Definition: The **rank** of a matrix A (denoted $\text{rank } A$) is the dimension of the column space of A .

Theorem: For $m \times n$ matrix A , $\dim \text{Col } A = \dim \text{Row } A = \text{rank } A$.
Moreover

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

Note: This theorem states the rather obvious fact that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{number of} \\ \text{pivot columns} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{number of} \\ \text{non-pivot columns} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{total number} \\ \text{of columns} \end{array} \right\}.$$

Examples

(1) A is a 5×4 matrix with $\text{rank } A = 4$. What is $\dim \text{Nul } A$?

$$\text{rank } A + \dim(\text{Nul } A) = n = 4$$

$$4 + \dim(\text{Nul } A) = 4 \Rightarrow \dim(\text{Nul } A) = 0$$

(2) If A is 7×5 and $\dim \text{Col } A = 2$. Determine the nullity¹ of A and $\text{rank } A^T$.

$$\text{rank } A + \text{nullity} = n = 5 \quad \text{rank } A = \dim \text{Col } A = 2$$

$$2 + \text{nullity} = 5$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{nullity} = 3$$

$$\text{rank } A^T = \dim \text{Col } A^T = \dim \text{Row } A = \dim \text{Col } A = 2$$

Addendum to Invertible Matrix Theorem

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

- (m) The columns of A form a basis for \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) $\dim \text{Nul } A = 0$

Section 6.1: Inner Product, Length, and Orthogonality

Recall: A vector \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n can be considered an $n \times 1$ matrix. It follows that \mathbf{u}^T is a $1 \times n$ matrix

$$\mathbf{u}^T = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n].$$

Definition: For vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n we define the **inner product** of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} (also called the **dot product**) by the **matrix product**

$$\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = \underbrace{[u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n]}_{1 \times n} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}}_{n \times 1} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \cdots + u_n v_n.$$

Note that this product produces a scalar. It is sometimes called a *scalar product*.

Theorem (Properties of the Inner Product)

We'll use the notation $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$.

often written as $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle$

Theorem: For \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} in \mathbb{R}^n and real scalar c

(a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$

(b) $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$

(c) $c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot (c\mathbf{v})$

(d) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \geq 0$, with $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$.

The Norm

The property $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \geq 0$ means that $\sqrt{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}$ always exists as a real number.

Definition: The **norm** of the vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is the nonnegative number denoted and defined by

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2}$$

where v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n are the components of \mathbf{v} .

As a directed line segment, the norm is the same as the **length**.

Norm and Length

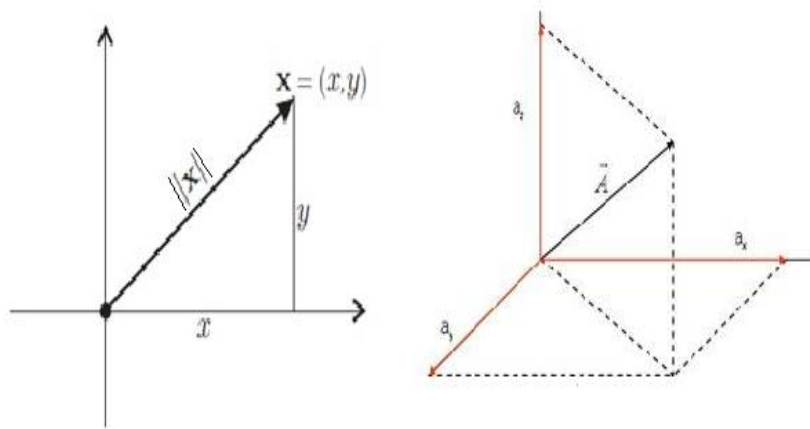


Figure: In \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 , the norm corresponds to the classic geometric property of length.

Unit Vectors and Normalizing

Theorem: For vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n and scalar c

$$\|c\mathbf{v}\| = |c|\|\mathbf{v}\|.$$

Definition: A vector \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n for which $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ is called a **unit vector**.

Remark: Given any nonzero vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n , we can obtain a unit vector \mathbf{u} in the same direction as \mathbf{v}

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}.$$

This process, of dividing out the norm, is called **normalizing** the vector \mathbf{v} .

Example

Show that $\mathbf{v}/\|\mathbf{v}\|$ is a unit vector.

Recall $\|\vec{v}\|$ is a scalar and $\|\vec{v}\| > 0$ for nonzero \vec{v} .

$$\left\| \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|} \right\| = \left\| \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \vec{v} \right\| = \left| \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \right| \|\vec{v}\|$$

$$= \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \|\vec{v}\| = \frac{\|\vec{v}\|}{\|\vec{v}\|} = 1$$

Example

Find a unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{v} = (1, 3, 2)$.

$$\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 3^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{14}$$

If we call the unit vector \vec{u} ,

$$\vec{u} = \frac{1}{\|\vec{v}\|} \vec{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Distance in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition: For vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n , the **distance between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v}** is denoted and defined by

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|.$$

Example: Find the distance between $\mathbf{u} = (4, 0, -1, 1)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, 2, 7)$.

$$\vec{u} - \vec{v} = (4, 0, -3, -6)$$

$$\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2 + (-3)^2 + (-6)^2} = \sqrt{16 + 9 + 36} = \sqrt{61}$$

Orthogonality

Definition: Two vectors are **u** and **v** orthogonal if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

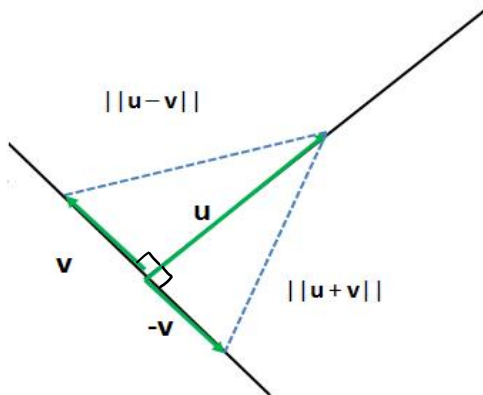


Figure: Note that two vectors are perpendicular if $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|$

Orthogonal and Perpendicular

Show that $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

Note

$$\begin{aligned}\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 &= (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \\ &= \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} - \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \\ &= \|\vec{u}\|^2 - 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2\end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2$$

If $\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|$, then $\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2$

So

$$\|\vec{u}\|^2 - 2\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + 2\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow -2\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v} = 2\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = 4\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v} \quad \text{Hence } \vec{u}\cdot\vec{v} = 0.$$

Conversely, if $\vec{u}\cdot\vec{v} = 0$, then

$$\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2$$

Since these are nonnegative

$$\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|.$$

The Pythagorean Theorem

Theorem: Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal if and only if

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2.$$

From before, $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2$.

The result follows directly.

Orthogonal Complement

Definition: Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . A vector \mathbf{z} in \mathbb{R}^n is said to be **orthogonal to W** if \mathbf{z} is orthogonal to every vector in W .

$$\text{i.e. } \vec{z} \cdot \vec{w} = 0 \text{ for every } \vec{w} \text{ in } W$$

Definition: Given a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , the set of all vectors orthogonal to W is called the **orthogonal complement** of W and is denoted by

$$W^\perp.$$

reads as "W perp"