

## 4.1–4.3 Recap

- ▶ We defined vector spaces & subspaces.
- ▶ For an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ , we defined some associated subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (the null and row spaces) or  $\mathbb{R}^m$  (the column space).
- ▶ We generalized the concept of a **linear transformation** so that the domain and codomains can be any vector spaces (not only  $\mathbb{R}^{\text{something}}$ ), and defined the kernel and range.

## 4.1–4.3 Recap

- ▶ We defined linear dependence/independence for a set of vectors.
- ▶ We defined a **basis** (a linearly independent spanning set) for a vector space or subspace.
- ▶ We found that an rref can be used to construct bases for each of the null, row and column spaces of a matrix.

# Basis

## Definition:

Let  $H$  be a subspace of a vector space  $V$ . An indexed set of vectors  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$  in  $V$  is a **basis** of  $H$  provided

- (i)  $\mathcal{B}$  is linearly independent, and
- (ii)  $H = \text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$ .

**Remark:** A **basis** is a set of building blocks that can be used to build a vector space using just the two operations, vector addition and scalar multiplication.

**Remark:** The linear independence requirement means that every vector in the basis gives some necessary information about the vector space.

## Bases for $\text{Col}(A)$ , $\text{Row}(A)$ , and $\text{Nul}(A)$

Given a matrix  $A$ , find the rref. Then

- ▶ The pivot columns of the original matrix  $A$  give a basis for  $\text{Col}(A)$ .
- ▶ The nonzero rows of  $\text{rref}(A)$  give a basis for  $\text{Row}(A)$ .
- ▶ Use the rref to solve  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  to identify a basis for  $\text{Nul}(A)$ .

## Section 4.4: Coordinate Systems

### Theorem:

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  be an ordered basis for a vector space  $V$ . Then for each vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $V$ , there is a unique set of scalars  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n.$$

- ▶ **Remark:** It's clear that each vector can be written as a linear combination because a basis is a spanning set.
- ▶ **Remark:** This is saying that it can only be done in one way—that is, there is only one set of numbers  $c_1, \dots, c_n$ .

## Uniqueness of Coefficients

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  be an ordered basis for a vector space  $V$  and let  $\mathbf{x}$  be a vector in  $V$ . If

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{b}_1 + a_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + a_n\mathbf{b}_n,$$

show that  $a_1 = c_1, a_2 = c_2, \dots, a_n = c_n$ .

We can use a homogeneous equation  
because  $\vec{x} - \vec{x} = \vec{0}$ . Subtract

$$\vec{0} = (c_1 - a_1)\vec{b}_1 + (c_2 - a_2)\vec{b}_2 + \cdots + (c_n - a_n)\vec{b}_n$$

We have a homogeneous vector

equation in  $\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n$

Since  $\{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$  is linearly independent the coefficients must all be zero.

$$c_1 - a_1 = 0 \Rightarrow a_1 = c_1$$

$$c_2 - a_2 = 0 \Rightarrow a_2 = c_2$$

$\vdots$

$$c_n - a_n = 0 \Rightarrow a_n = c_n$$

## Consequence of Linear Independence

$$\text{Let } \mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

It is true that  $\mathbb{R}^2 = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ . Consider  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ . Note that we can write  $\mathbf{x}$  in two different ways

$$\mathbf{x} = 2\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2 + 0\mathbf{v}_3 \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = 1\mathbf{v}_1 + 2\mathbf{v}_2 + 1\mathbf{v}_3.$$

Why doesn't this contradict our theorem?

$\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3\}$  is lin. dependent



## Definition: Coordinate Vectors

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  be an **ordered** basis of the vector space  $V$ . For each  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $V$  we define the **coordinate vector of  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to the basis  $\mathcal{B}$**  to be the unique vector  $(c_1, \dots, c_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  whose entries are the weights  $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$ .

We'll use the notation  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ ; that is  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$ .

## Big Idea!

The vector  $\mathbf{x}$  can be any sort of vector (from any sort of vector space), but

$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

## Example

Consider the basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$  (in that order) for  $\mathbb{P}_3$ .

Determine  $[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  for

(a)  $\mathbf{p}(t) = 3 - 4t^2 + 6t^3$

$$[\vec{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{bmatrix} \text{ if } \vec{p}(t) = c_1(1) + c_2(t) + c_3(t^2) + c_4(t^3)$$

$$[\vec{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$$

Determine  $[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  for

(b)  $\mathbf{p}(t) = p_0 + p_1 t + p_2 t^2 + p_3 t^3$

$$[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

## An Alternative Basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$

Let  $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ . Find  $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  for \*

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}. \quad [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } \vec{x} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + c_2 \vec{b}_2$$

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

as a matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\leftarrow P_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \vec{x}$

\*If we just write  $\mathbf{x}$  with no brackets around it, the implication is that it's written with respect to the elementary basis  $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$ .

Let's use matrix inversion

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}_{\infty} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Change of Coordinates Matrix

Note in this example that

$$\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

where  $P_{\mathcal{B}}$  is the matrix having the basis vectors from  $\mathcal{B}$  as its columns.

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2]$$

## Definition

Given an ordered basis  $\mathcal{B}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the matrix

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_n].$$

is called the **change of coordinates matrix** for the basis  $\mathcal{B}$  (or from the basis  $\mathcal{B}$  to the standard basis).

# Change of Coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^n$

## Theorem

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  be an ordered basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the change of coordinate mapping  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is the linear transformation defined by

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} \mathbf{x}$$

where the matrix

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b}_n].$$

**Remark:** By the Invertible Matrix Theorem, we know that a change of coordinates mapping is a **one to one** transformation of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  **onto**  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## Example

For  $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ , we have

$$P_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad P_B^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) Find  $[\mathbf{x}]_B$  for  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$[\vec{x}]_B = P_B^{-1} \vec{x} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{x} = P_B [\vec{x}]_B$$

$$[\vec{x}]_B = P_B^{-1} \vec{x}$$



(b) Find  $[\mathbf{x}]_B$  for  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\vec{x} = P_B [\vec{x}]_B$$
$$[\vec{x}]_B = P_B^{-1} \vec{x}$$

$$[\vec{x}]_B = P_B^{-1} \vec{x} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{2}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(c) Find  $\mathbf{x}$  if  $[\mathbf{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

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

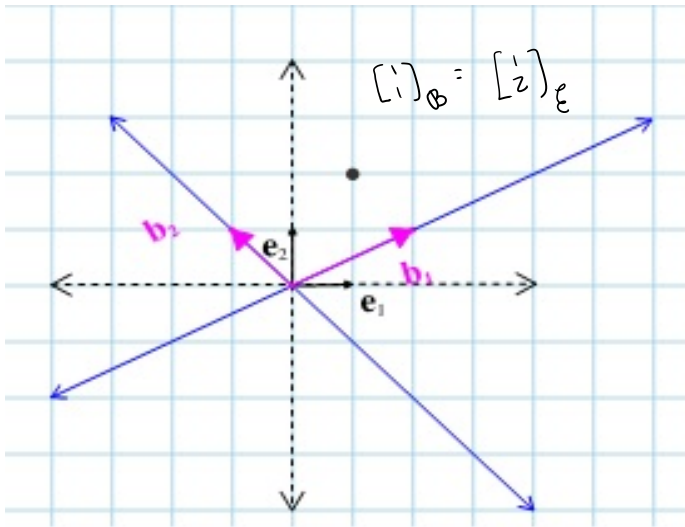


Figure:  $\mathbb{R}^2$  shown using elementary basis  $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$  and with the alternative basis  $\{(2, 1), (-1, 1)\}$ .

We can make new graph paper using this basis.

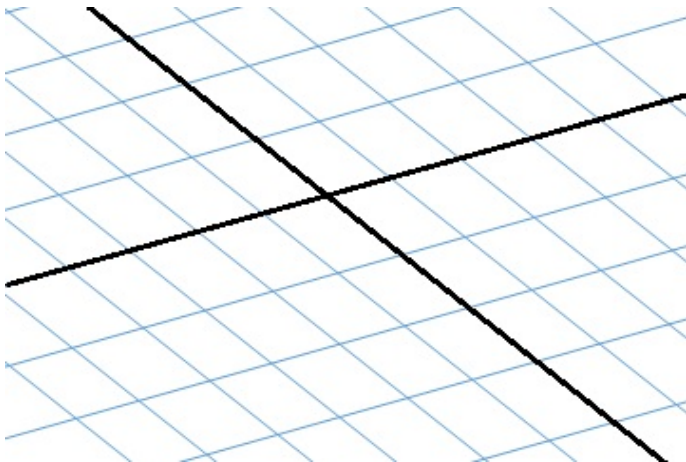


Figure: Graph paper constructed using the basis  $\{(2, 1), (-1, 1)\}$ .

# Theorem: Coordinate Mapping

## Theorem

Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$  be an ordered basis for a vector space  $V$ . Then the coordinate mapping  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is a **one to one** mapping of  $V$  **onto**  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## Remark:

- ▶ For a vector space  $V$ , if there exists a coordinate mapping from  $V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , we say that  $V$  is **isomorphic** to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- ▶ Properties of subsets of  $V$ , such as linear dependence, can be discerned from the coordinate vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## $\mathbb{P}_3$ is Isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^4$

We saw that using the ordered basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$  that any vector

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = p_0 + p_1 t + p_2 t^2 + p_3 t^3$$

in  $\mathbb{P}_3$  has coordinate vector

$$[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

## Example

Use coordinate vectors to determine if the set  $\{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{r}\}$  is linearly dependent or independent in  $\mathbb{P}_2$ .

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = 1 - 2t^2, \quad \mathbf{q}(t) = 3t + t^2, \quad \mathbf{r}(t) = 1 + t$$

Let's use the elementary basis in  $\mathbb{P}_2$

$\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2\}$  in that order.

$$[\vec{\mathbf{p}}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad [\vec{\mathbf{q}}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad [\vec{\mathbf{r}}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } A = \left[ [\vec{\mathbf{p}}]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad [\vec{\mathbf{q}}]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad [\vec{\mathbf{r}}]_{\mathcal{B}} \right]$$

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

lets compute  $\det(A)$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= 1 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ -2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 1(0-1) + 1(0+6) = 5 \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

So the columns of  $A$  are linearly independent in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Hence  $\{\vec{p}, \vec{q}, \vec{r}\}$  is linearly independent in  $\mathbb{P}_2$ .



## Section 4.5: Dimension of a Vector Space

### Theorem:

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

This extends our result in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that said that a set with more vectors than entries in each vector had to be linearly dependent.

For example,

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 10 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

is linearly dependent because there are 4 vectors from  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

## Example

Recall that a basis for  $\mathbb{P}_3$  is  $\{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$ .

Is the set below linearly dependent or linearly independent?

$$\{1 + t, 2t - 3t^3, 1 + t + t^2, 1 + t + t^2 + t^3, 2 - t + 2t^3\}$$

This set contains 5 vectors.

A basis for  $\mathbb{P}_3$  has 4 vectors.

This set is linearly dependent.

# All Bases are the same Size

Our theorem gives the immediate corollary:

## Corollary:

If vector space  $V$  has a basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ , then every basis of  $V$  consist of exactly  $n$  vectors.

**Remark:** This makes sense. If one basis had more vectors than another basis, it couldn't be linearly independent.

# Dimension

Consider a vector space  $V$ .

## Definition:

If  $V$  is spanned by a finite set, then  $V$  is called **finite dimensional**. In this case, the dimension of  $V$

$\dim V =$  the number of vectors in any basis of  $V$ .

The dimension of the vector space  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$  containing only the zero vector is defined to be zero—i.e.

$$\dim\{\mathbf{0}\} = 0.$$

If  $V$  is not spanned by a finite set<sup>a</sup>, then  $V$  is said to be **infinite dimensional**.

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<sup>a</sup> $C^0(\mathbb{R})$  is an example of an infinite dimensional vector space.

## Examples

(a) Determine  $\dim(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .

The elementary basis  
has  $n$  vectors  
in it.

$$\dim(\mathbb{R}^n) = n$$

(b) Determine  $\dim \text{Col}(A)$  where  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

There are two pivot columns, so a  
basis has two vectors in it.

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

## Some Geometry in $\mathbb{R}^3$

We can describe all of the subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  geometrically. The subspace(s) of dimension

- (a) **zero**: is just the origin (one point),  $(0, 0, 0)$ .
- (b) **one**: are lines through the origin.  $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$  where  $\mathbf{u}$  is not the zero vector.
- (c) **two**: are planes that contain the origin and two other, noncolinear points.  $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\}$  with  $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\}$  linearly independent.
- (d) **three**: is all of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

# Subspaces and Dimension

## Theorem:

Let  $H$  be a subspace of a finite dimensional vector space  $V$ . Then  $H$  is finite dimensional and

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

Moreover, any linearly independent subset of  $H$  can be expanded if needed to form a basis for  $H$ .

**Remark:** We said before that we can take a spanning set and remove extra vectors to get a basis. This follow up statement says if we start with a linearly independent set, we can add to it as needed to get a basis.

# Subspaces and Dimension

## Theorem:

Let  $V$  be a vector space with  $\dim V = p$  where  $p \geq 1$ . Any linearly independent set in  $V$  containing exactly  $p$  vectors is a basis for  $V$ . Similarly, any spanning set consisting of exactly  $p$  vectors in  $V$  is necessarily a basis for  $V$ .

**Remark:** this connects two properties **spanning** and **linear independence**. If  $\dim V = p$  and a set contains  $p$  vectors then

- ▶ linear independence  $\implies$  spanning
- ▶ spanning  $\implies$  linear independence

Again, this is **IF** the number of vectors matches the dimension of the vector space.



# Column and Null Spaces

## Theorem:

Let  $A$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. Then

$\dim \text{Nul } A =$  the number of free variables in the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ ,

and

$\dim \text{Col } A =$  the number of pivot positions in  $A$ .

## Example

A matrix  $A$  is show along with its rref. Find the dimensions of the null space and column space of  $A$ .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 & -7 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\dim(\text{Col } A) = \# \text{ pivot columns}$

$\dim(\text{Nul } A) = \# \text{ free variables in } A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$

$$\dim(\text{Col } A) = 3, \quad \dim(\text{Nul } A) = 1$$

## 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  $\dim$  Row  $A$ .

$$\text{Row}(A) = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

this is a basis  $\rightarrow$

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

## Example continued ...

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

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

$$\text{Col}(A) = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 3 \\ 11 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 7 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

this is a basis.

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

## Example continued ...

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

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

From the rref

$$x_1 = -x_3 - x_5$$

$$x_2 = 2x_3 - 3x_5$$

$$x_4 = 5x_5$$

$x_3, x_5$  - are free

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

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

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