

# Linear Independence, Basis, and Dimension

**CS6015 / LARP - 2018**

**ACK : Linear Algebra and Its Applications - Gilbert Strang**

The goal of this section is to explain and use four ideas:

1. Linear independence or dependence.
2. Spanning a subspace.
3. Basis for a subspace (a set of vectors).
4. Dimension of a subspace (a number).

# Linear Independence

Given a set of vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_k$ , we look at their combinations

$c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_kv_k$ . The trivial combination, with all weights  $ci = 0$ , obviously produces the zero vector:  $0v_1 + \dots + 0v_k = 0$ . The question is whether this is the *only way* to produce zero. If so, the vectors are independent.

If any other combination of the vectors gives zero, they are *dependent*.

**2E** Suppose  $c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_kv_k = 0$  only happens when  $c_1 = \dots = c_k = 0$ . Then the vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  are **linearly independent**. If any  $c$ 's are nonzero, the  $v$ 's are **linearly dependent**. One vector is a combination of the others.

Linear dependence is easy to visualize in three-dimensional space, when all vectors go out from the origin. **Two vectors are dependent if they lie on the same line.** *Three vectors are dependent if they lie in the same plane.* A random choice of three vectors, without any special accident, should produce linear independence (not in a plane). Four vectors are always linearly dependent in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ .

**Example 1.** If  $v_1 =$  zero vector, then the set is linearly dependent. We may choose  $c_1 = 3$  and all other  $c_i = 0$ ; this is a nontrivial combination that produces zero.

**Example 2.** The columns of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 & 9 & 5 \\ -1 & -3 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

are linearly dependent, since the second column is three times the first. The combination of columns with weights  $-3, 1, 0, 0$  gives a column of zeros.

The rows are also linearly dependent; row 3 is two times row 2 minus five times row 1. (This is the same as the combination of  $b_1, b_2, b_3$ , that had to vanish on the right-hand side in order for  $Ax = b$  to be consistent. Unless  $b_3 - 2b_2 + 5b_1 = 0$ , the third equation would not become  $0 = 0$ .)

**Example 3.** The columns of this triangular matrix are linearly *independent*:

**No zeros on the diagonal**       $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$

Look for a combination of the columns that makes zero:

$$\text{Solve } Ac = 0 \quad c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

**We have to show that  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are all forced to be zero.** The last equation gives  $c_3 = 0$ . Then the next equation gives  $c_2 = 0$ , and substituting into the first equation forces  $c_1 = 0$ . The only combination to produce the zero vector is the trivial combination. **The null space of  $A$  contains only the zero vector  $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = 0$ .**

*The columns of  $A$  are independent exactly when  $N(A) = \{\text{zero vector}\}$ .*

A similar reasoning applies to the rows of  $A$ , which are also independent. Suppose

$$c_1(3, 4, 2) + c_2(0, 1, 5) + c_3(0, 0, 2) = (0, 0, 0).$$

From the first components we find  $3c_1 = 0$  or  $c_1 = 0$ . Then the second components give  $c_2 = 0$ , and finally  $c_3 = 0$ .

The nonzero rows of any echelon matrix  $U$  must be independent. Furthermore, if we pick out *the columns that contain the pivots*, they also are linearly independent. In our earlier example, with

**Two independent rows**

**Two independent columns**

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

the pivot columns 1 and 3 are independent. No set of three columns is independent, and certainly not all four. It is true that columns 1 and 4 are also independent, but if that last 1 were changed to 0 they would be dependent. *It is the columns with pivots that are guaranteed to be independent.*

The general rule is:

**2F** The  $r$  nonzero rows of an echelon matrix  $U$  and a reduced matrix  $R$  are linearly independent. So are the  $r$  columns that contain pivots.

**Example 4.** The columns of the  $n$  by  $n$  identity matrix are independent:

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdot & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdot & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

These columns  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  represent unit vectors in the coordinate directions; in  $\mathbf{R}^4$ ,

$$e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad e_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad e_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Most sets of four vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^4$  are independent. Those  $e$ 's might be the safest.

To check any set of vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  for independence, put them in the columns of  $A$ . Then solve the system  $Ac = 0$ ; the vectors are dependent if there is a solution other than  $c = 0$ . With no free variables (*rank*  $n$ ), there is no null space except  $c = 0$ ; the vectors are independent. If the rank is less than  $n$ , at least one free variable can be nonzero and the columns are dependent.

One case has special importance. Let the  $n$  vectors have  $m$  components, so that  $A$  is an  $m$  by  $n$  matrix. Suppose now that  $n > m$ . There are too many columns to be independent. There cannot be  $n$  pivots, since there are not enough rows to hold them. The rank will be less than  $n$ . Every system  $Ac = 0$  with more unknowns than equations has solutions  $c \neq 0$ .

**2G** A set of  $n$  vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^m$  must be linearly dependent if  $n > m$ .

The reader will recognize this as a disguised form of **2C**: Every  $m$  by  $n$  system  $Ax = 0$  has nonzero solutions if  $n > m$ .

**Example 5.** These three columns in  $\mathbf{R}^2$  cannot be independent:

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

To find the combination of the columns producing zero we solve  $Ac = 0$ :

$$A \rightarrow U = \begin{bmatrix} \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} \\ \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$




# Spanning a Subspace

Now we define what it means for a set of vectors to span a space. The column space of  $A$  is spanned by the columns. Their combinations produce the whole space:

**2H** If a vector space  $V$  consists of all linear combinations of  $w_1, \dots, w_\ell$ , then these vectors span the space. Every vector  $v$  in  $V$  is some combination of the  $w$ 's:

**Every  $v$  comes from  $w$ 's**       $v = c_1 w_1 + \dots + c_\ell w_\ell$       for some coefficients  $c_i$ .

It is permitted that a different combination of  $w$ 's could give the same vector  $v$ . The  $c$ 's need not be unique, because the spanning set might be excessively large—it could include the zero vector, or even all vectors.

**Example 6.** The vectors  $w_1 = (1,0,0)$ ,  $w_2 = (0,1,0)$ , and  $w_3 = (-2,0,0)$  span a plane (the  $x - y$  plane) in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ . The first two vectors also span this plane, whereas  $w_1$  and  $w_3$  span only a line.

# Spanning a Subspace (contd.)

**Example 7.** The column space of  $A$  is exactly **the space that is spanned by its columns**. The row space is spanned by the rows. The definition is made to order. Multiplying  $A$  by any  $x$  gives a combination of the columns; it is a vector  $Ax$  in the column space.

The coordinate vectors  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  coming from the identity matrix span  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Every vector  $b = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$  is a combination of those columns. In this example the weights are the components  $b_i$  themselves:  $b = b_1e_1 + \dots + b_n e_n$ . But the columns of other matrices also span  $\mathbf{R}^n$  !

# Basis for a Vector Space

To decide if  $b$  is a combination of the columns, we try to solve  $Ax = b$ . To decide if the columns are independent, we solve  $Ax = 0$ . **Spanning involves the column space, and independence involves the null space.** The coordinate vectors  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  span  $R^n$  and they are linearly independent. Roughly speaking, **no vectors in that set are wasted.** This leads to the crucial idea of a **basis**.

- 2I** A basis for  $V$  is a sequence of vectors having two properties at once:
1. The vectors are linearly independent (not too many vectors).
  2. They span the space  $V$  (not too few vectors).

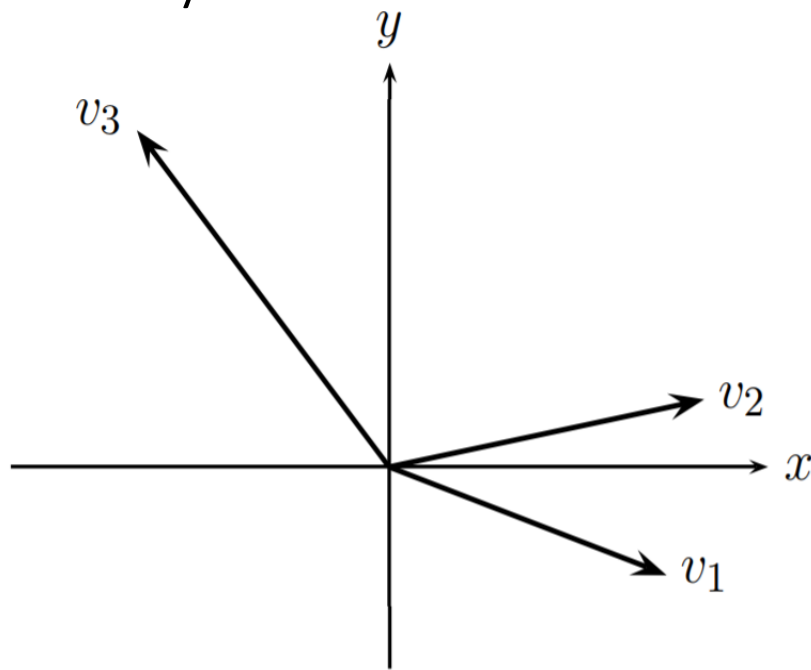
This combination of properties is absolutely fundamental to linear algebra. It means that every vector in the space is a combination of the basis vectors, because they span. It also means that the combination is unique: If  $v = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_kv_k$  and also  $v = b_1v_1 + \dots + b_kv_k$ , then subtraction gives  $0 = \sum(a_i - b_i)v_i$ . Now independence plays its part; every coefficient  $a_i - b_i$  must be zero. Therefore  $a_i = b_i$ . **There is one and only one way to write  $v$  as a combination of the basis vectors.**

# Basis for a Vector Space (contd.)

We had better say at once that the coordinate vectors  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  are not the only basis for  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . Some things in linear algebra are unique, but not this. A vector space has **infinitely many different bases**. Whenever a square matrix is invertible, its columns are independent—and they are a basis for  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . The two columns of this non-singular matrix are a basis for  $\mathbf{R}^2$

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

Every two-dimensional vector is a combination of those (independent!) columns.



**Example 8.** The  $x - y$  plane in Figure 2.4 is just  $\mathbf{R}^2$ . The vector  $v_1$  by itself is linearly independent, but it fails to span  $\mathbf{R}^2$ . The three vectors  $v_1, v_2, v_3$  certainly span  $\mathbf{R}^2$ , but are not independent. *Any two* of these vectors, say  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , have both properties—they span, and they are independent. So they form a basis. Notice again that *a vector space does not have a unique basis*.

Figure 2.4: A spanning set  $v_1, v_2, v_3$ . Bases  $v_1, v_2$  and  $v_1, v_3$  and  $v_2, v_3$ .

## Basis for a Vector Space (contd.)

**Example 9.** These four columns span the column space of  $U$ , but they are not independent:

$$\text{Echelon matrix} \quad U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

There are many possibilities for a basis, but we propose a specific choice: **The columns that contain pivots** (in this case the first and third, which correspond to the basic variables) **are a basis for the column space**. These columns are independent, and it is easy to see that they span the space. In fact, the column space of  $U$  is just the  $x - y$  plane within  $\mathbf{R}^3$ .  $C(U)$  is not the same as the column space  $C(A)$  before elimination—but the number of independent columns didn't change.

To summarize: *The columns of any matrix span its column space.* If they are independent, they are a basis for the column space—whether the matrix is square or rectangular. If we are asking the columns to be a basis for the whole space  $\mathbf{R}^n$ , then the matrix must be square and invertible.

# Dimension of a Vector Space

A space has infinitely many different bases, but there is something common to all of these choices. The **number of basis vectors** is a property of the space itself:

**2J** Any two bases for a vector space  $V$  contain the same number of vectors. This number, which is shared by all bases and expresses the number of “degrees of freedom” of the space, is the **dimension** of  $V$ .

We have to prove this fact: All possible bases contain the same number of vectors. The  $x - y$  plane in Figure 2.4 has two vectors in every basis; its dimension is 2. In three dimensions we need three vectors, along the  $x - y - z$  axes or in three other (linearly independent!) directions. **The dimension of the space  $R^n$  is  $n$ .**

The column space of  $U$  in Example 9 had dimension 2; it was a “two-dimensional subspace of  $R^3$ .” The zero matrix is rather exceptional, because its column space contains only the zero vector. By convention, the empty set is a basis for that space, and its dimension is zero.

Here is our first big theorem in linear algebra:

**2K** If  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  and  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  are both bases for the same vector space, then  $m = n$ . The number of vectors is the same.

## Proof of theorem: 2K

**Proof.** Suppose there are more  $w$ 's than  $v$ 's ( $n > m$ ). We will arrive at a contradiction. Since the  $v$ 's form a basis, they must span the space.

Every  $w_j$  can be written as a combination of the  $v$ 's: If  $w_1 = a_{11}v_1 + \dots + a_{m1}v_m$ , this is the first column of a matrix multiplication  $VA$ :

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 & w_2 & \cdots & w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \cdots & v_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} = VA.$$

We don't know each  $a_{ij}$ , but we know the shape of  $A$  (it is  $m$  by  $n$ ). The second vector  $w_2$  is also a combination of the  $v$ 's. The coefficients in that combination fill the second column of  $A$ . The key is that  $A$  has a row for every  $v$  and a column for every  $w$ .  $A$  is a short, wide matrix, since  $n > m$ . There is a nonzero solution to  $Ax = 0$ . Then  $VAx = 0$  which is  $Wx = 0$ . A combination of the  $w$ 's gives zero! The  $w$ 's could not be a basis—so we cannot have  $n > m$ .

If  $m > n$  we exchange the  $v$ 's and  $w$ 's and repeat the same steps. The only way to avoid a contradiction is to have  $m = n$ . This completes the proof that  $m = n$ . To repeat: The dimension of a space is the number of vectors in every basis.

This proof was used earlier to show that every set of  $m + 1$  vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^m$  must be dependent. The  $v$ 's and  $w$ 's need not be column vectors—the proof was all about the matrix  $A$  of coefficients. In fact we can see this general result: *In a subspace of dimension  $k$ , no set of more than  $k$  vectors can be independent, and no set of more than  $k$  vectors can span the space.*

There are other “*dual*” theorems, of which we mention only one. We can start with a set of vectors that is too small or too big, and end up with a basis:

**2L** Any linearly independent set in  $V$  can be extended to a basis, by adding more vectors if necessary.

Any spanning set in  $V$  can be reduced to a basis, by discarding vectors if necessary.

The point is that a basis is a **maximal independent set**. It cannot be made larger without losing independence. A basis is also a **minimal spanning set**. It cannot be made smaller and still span the space.



You must notice that the word “dimensional” is used in two different ways. We speak about a four-dimensional **vector**, meaning a vector in  $\mathbf{R}^4$ . Now we have defined a four dimensional **subspace**; an example is the set of vectors in  $\mathbf{R}^6$  whose first and last components are zero. The members of this four-dimensional subspace are six-dimensional vectors like  $(0,5,1,3,4,0)$ .

One final note about the language of linear algebra. We never use the terms “*basis of a matrix*” or “*rank of a space*” or “*dimension of a basis.*” These phrases have no meaning. It is *the dimension of the column space that equals the rank of the matrix*, as we prove in the coming section