Bases for column and row spaces

Example 112. Find a basis for col(A) with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution. Obviously, $\operatorname{col}(A) = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\4 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$. The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 2\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\4 \end{bmatrix}$ are also clearly independent, so they form a basis for $\operatorname{col}(A)$.

Solution. We can also apply the recipe from Theorem 109. Since *A* is already in echelon form, we see directly that columns 2 and 4 correspond to free variables. Columns 1 and 3, that is $\begin{bmatrix} 2\\0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\4 \end{bmatrix}$, are therefore selected as a basis.

Example 113. Find a basis for col(A) with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution. Since A is already in echelon form, we can directly apply the recipe from Theorem 109.

Columns 3 and 5 correspond to a free variable, so a basis for col(A) is $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2\\3\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\-3\\2 \end{bmatrix}$.

[Note that many other choices would also lead to a basis: for instance, columns 1, 3, 4 also form a basis. Can you see that? Likewise, columns 2, 3, 5 form a basis as well.]

Example 114. Find a basis and the dimension of $W = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\0\\3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2\\4\\1\\3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$

Solution. Is dim W = 4? No, because the third vector is the sum of the first two. Suppose we did not notice...

Γ	1	1	2	0	$R_2 - 2R_1 \Rightarrow R_2$	1	1	2	0	permute	1	1	2	0		1	1	2	0]	1	1	2	0]
	2	2	4	1	$R_4 - 3R_1 \Rightarrow R_4$	0	0	0	1	rows	0	1	1	1	$R_3 + 3R_2 \Rightarrow R_3$	0	1	1	1	$R_4 - \frac{1}{4}R_3 \Rightarrow R_4$	0	1	1	1
	0	1	1	1	~~4	0	1	1	1	~~7	0	-3	-3	1	~~7	0	0	0	4	~~7	0	0	0	4
L	3	0	3	1		0	-3	-3	1		0	0	0	1		0	0	0	1		0	0	0	0

Not a pivot in every column, hence the 4 vectors are dependent.

Hence, a basis for W is $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\0\\3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\dim W = 3$.

Example 115. Find bases for col(A) and row(A) with $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution. Obviously, $\operatorname{col}(A) = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is 1-dimensional with basis $\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix}$. Similarly, $\operatorname{row}(A) = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is 1-dimensional with basis $\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix}$.

During elimination, we usually do **row operations**. For instance, here, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \Leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

- Note that the column spaces changed: $\operatorname{col}\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc}0 & 0\\1 & 0\end{array}\right]\right) \neq \operatorname{col}\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc}1 & 0\\0 & 0\end{array}\right]\right)$
- But the row spaces did not change: $\operatorname{row}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \operatorname{row}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\right)$

Row operations preserve the row space but (generally) not the column space.

Theorem 116. Let A be a matrix and B an echelon form of A.

- (a) The columns of A corresponding to the pivot columns of B form a basis for col(A).
- (b) The nonzero rows of B form a basis for row(A).
- (c) In particular, the dimensions of col(A) and row(A) are both equal to the number of pivots.

Just for fun

Q: How fast can we solve N linear equations in N unknowns?

Estimated cost of Gaussian elimination:

 $\begin{bmatrix} \bullet & * & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & * & * & \cdots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & * & * & \cdots & * \end{bmatrix} \bullet \text{ to create the zeros below the pivot:} \\ \implies \text{ on the order of } N^2 \text{ operations} \\ \bullet \text{ if there is } N \text{ pivots:} \\ \implies \text{ on the order of } N \cdot N^2 = N^3 \text{ op's} \end{bmatrix}$

- A more careful count places the cost at $\sim \frac{1}{2}N^3$ operations.
- For large N, it is only the N^3 that matters.

It says that if $N \to 10N$ then we have to work 1000 times as hard.

That's not optimal! We can do better than Gaussian elimination:

- Strassen algorithm (1969): $N^{\log_2 7} = N^{2.807}$
- Coppersmith–Winograd algorithm (1990): N^{2.375}
- ... Stothers-Williams-Le Gall (2014): N^{2.373}
- Is $N^{2+(a \text{ tiny bit})}$ possible? We have no idea!

Good news for applications:

 Matrices typically have lots of structure and zeros which makes solving so much faster. (better is impossible; why?)