

## Summary

Quick summary of today's notes. Lecture starts on next page.

- If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices with  $AB = I_n$  then  $BA = I_n$  and  $A^{-1} = B$ .
- A *subspace*  $H$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  containing the zero vector that is closed under linear combinations. This means that  $0 \in H$  and if  $u, v \in H$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $u + v \in H$  and  $cv \in H$ .

The *zero subspace* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the set  $\{0\}$  containing just the zero vector  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

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

The *column space* of  $A$  is the span of the columns of  $A$ . Denoted  $\text{Col } A$ . This is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

$$\text{Col} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbb{R}\text{-span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^4$$

The *null space* of  $A$  is the set of vectors  $\text{Nul } A = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : Av = 0\}$ . This is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\text{Nul} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x = y + 2z = 0 \right\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2z \\ z \end{bmatrix} : z \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3.$$

- A *basis* for a subspace  $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a linearly independent set of vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$H = \mathbb{R}\text{-span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}.$$

The *standard basis* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  where  $e_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the vector with 1 in row  $i$  and 0 in all other rows. Any subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis with at most  $n$  vectors.

- The pivot columns of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  form a basis for  $\text{Col } A$ .
- Both  $A$  and  $\text{RREF}(A)$  have the same null space. Usually  $\text{Col } A \neq \text{Col } \text{RREF}(A)$ .

To find a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$ , determine the indices  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_p$  of the non-pivot columns of  $A$ .

Then there are unique vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that any

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{with} \quad \text{RREF}(A)x = 0$$

can be written as  $x = x_{i_1}v_1 + x_{i_2}v_2 + \dots + x_{i_p}v_p$ . The vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p$  are a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$ .

For example, if  $\text{RREF}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  then any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^5$  with  $\text{RREF}(A)x = 0$  has

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2x_2 - 4x_4 + x_5 \\ x_2 \\ -2x_5 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_4 \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The three vectors on the right are a basis for  $\text{Nul } A = \text{Nul } \text{RREF}(A)$ .

## 1 Last time: inverses

The following all mean the same thing for a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ :

1.  $f$  is *invertible*.
2.  $f$  is one-to-one and onto.
3. For each  $b \in Y$  there is exactly one  $a \in X$  with  $f(a) = b$ .
4. There is a unique function  $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ , called the *inverse* of  $f$ , such that

$$f^{-1}(f(a)) = a \quad \text{and} \quad f(f^{-1}(b)) = b \quad \text{for all } a \in X \text{ and } b \in Y.$$

**Proposition.** If  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is linear and invertible then  $m = n$  and  $T^{-1}$  is linear and invertible.

The following all mean the same thing for an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ :

1.  $A$  is *invertible*.
2.  $A$  is the standard matrix of an invertible linear function  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ .
3. There is a unique  $n \times n$  matrix  $A^{-1}$ , called the *inverse* of  $A$ , such that

$$A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I_n \quad \text{where we define } I_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

4. For each  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the equation  $Ax = b$  has a unique solution.
5.  $\text{RREF}(A) = I_n$
6. The columns of  $A$  are linearly independent and their span is  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Proposition.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  be a  $2 \times 2$  matrix.

- (1) If  $ad - bc = 0$  then  $A$  is not invertible.
- (2) If  $ad - bc \neq 0$  then  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Proposition.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be  $n \times n$  matrices.

1. If  $A$  is invertible then  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ .
2. If  $A$  and  $B$  are both invertible then  $AB$  is invertible and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$ .
3. If  $A$  is invertible then  $A^T$  is invertible and  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$ .

Process to compute  $A^{-1}$

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Consider the  $n \times 2n$  matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} A & I_n \end{bmatrix}$ .

If  $A$  is invertible then  $\text{RREF}(\begin{bmatrix} A & I_n \end{bmatrix}) = \begin{bmatrix} I_n & A^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$ .

So to compute  $A^{-1}$ , row reduce  $\begin{bmatrix} A & I_n \end{bmatrix}$  to reduced echelon form, and then take the last  $n$  columns.

## 2 Stronger characterization of invertible matrices

Remember that a matrix can only be invertible if it has the same number of rows and columns.

**Theorem.** When  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, the following are equivalent:

- (a)  $A$  is invertible.
- (b) The columns of  $A$  are linearly independent.
- (c) The span of the columns of  $A$  is  $\mathbb{R}^n$

*Proof.* We already know that (a) implies both (b) and (c).

Assume just (b) holds. Then  $A$  has a pivot position in every column, so  $\text{RREF}(A) = I_n$  since  $A$  has the same number of rows and columns. But this implies that  $A$  is invertible.

Similarly, if (c) holds then  $A$  has a pivot position in every row, so  $\text{RREF}(A) = I_n$  and  $A$  is invertible.  $\square$

**Corollary.** Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  are both  $n \times n$  matrices. If  $AB = I_n$  then  $BA = I_n$ .

This means that if we want to show that  $B = A^{-1}$  then it is enough to just check that  $AB = I_n$ .

*Proof.* Assume  $AB = I_n$ . Then the columns of  $A$  span  $\mathbb{R}^n$  since if  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  then  $Au = v$  for  $u = Bv \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , so  $A$  is invertible. Therefore  $B = A^{-1}AB = A^{-1}I_n = A^{-1}$  so  $BA = A^{-1}A = I_n$ .  $\square$

**Important note:** this corollary only applies to *square matrices*.

## 3 Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Write  $0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition.** Let  $H$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The subset  $H$  is a *subspace* if these three conditions hold:

1.  $0 \in H$ .
2.  $u + v \in H$  for all  $u, v \in H$ .
3.  $cv \in H$  for all  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $v \in H$ .

Common examples

$\mathbb{R}^n$  is a subspace of itself.

The set  $\{0\}$  consisting of just the zero vector is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The empty set  $\emptyset$  is *not* a subspace since it does not contain the zero vector.

A subset  $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  is a subspace if and only if  $H = \{0\}$  or  $H = \mathbb{R}^2$  or  $H = \mathbb{R}\text{-span}\{v\}$  for some  $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$

The span of a set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Later, we will see that every subspace is the span of some set of vectors.

**Example.** The set

$$X = \left\{ v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : v_1 + v_2 + v_3 = 1 \right\}$$

is *not* a subspace since  $0 \notin X$ .

**Example.** The set

$$H = \left\{ v = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : v_1 + v_2 + v_3 = 0 \right\}$$

is a subspace since if  $u, v \in H$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  then

$$(u_1 + v_1) + (u_2 + v_2) + (u_3 + v_3) = (u_1 + u_2 + u_3) + (v_1 + v_2 + v_3) = 0 + 0 = 0$$

and

$$cv_1 + cv_2 + cv_3 = c(v_1 + v_2 + v_3) = 0$$

so  $u + v \in H$  and  $cv \in H$ .

Any matrix  $A$  gives rise to two subspaces, called the *column space* and *null space*.

**Definition.** The *column space* of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  is the subspace

$$\text{Col } A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$$

given by the span of the columns of  $A$ .

**Remark.** If  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is the linear function  $T(x) = Ax$  then  $\text{Col } A = \text{range}(T)$ .

A vector  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$  belongs to  $\text{Col } A$  if and only if  $Ax = b$  has a solution.

Therefore  $\text{Col } A = \mathbb{R}^m$  if and only if  $Ax = b$  has a solution for each  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Definition.** The *null space* of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  is the subspace

$$\text{Nul } A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

given by the set of vectors  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $Av = 0$ .

*Proof that Nul  $A$  is a subspace.* If  $u, v \in \text{Nul } A$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $A(u + v) = Au + Av = 0 + 0 = 0$  and  $A(cv) = c(Av) = 0$ , so  $u + v \in \text{Nul } A$  and  $cv \in \text{Nul } A$ . Thus  $\text{Nul } A$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** If  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is the linear function  $T(x) = Ax$  then  $\text{Nul } A = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : T(x) = 0\}$ .

The column space is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  **where  $m$  is the number of rows of  $A$ .**

The null space is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  **where  $n$  is the number of columns of  $A$ .**

A subspace can be completely determined by a finite amount of data. This data will be called a *basis*.

**Definition.** Let  $H$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . A *basis* for  $H$  is a set of vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\} \subseteq H$  that are linearly independent and have span equal to  $H$ .

The empty set  $\emptyset = \{\}$  is considered to be a basis for the zero subspace  $\{0\}$ .

**Example.** The set  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , and so on, is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

We call this the *standard basis* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem.** Every subspace  $H$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a basis of size at most  $n$ .

*Proof.* If  $H = \{0\}$  then  $\emptyset$  is a basis.

Assume  $H \neq \{0\}$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a set of linearly independent vectors in  $H$  that is as large as possible. The size of  $\mathcal{B}$  must be at most  $n$  since any  $n + 1$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are linearly dependent.

Let  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k$  be the elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Since  $\mathcal{B}$  is as large as possible, if  $v \in H$  is any vector then  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k, v$  are linearly dependent so we can write

$$c_1 w_1 + c_2 w_2 + \dots + c_k w_k + cv = 0$$

for some numbers  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k, c \in \mathbb{R}$  which are not all zero.

If  $c = 0$  then this would imply that the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  are linearly dependent. But the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  are linearly independent, so we must have  $c \neq 0$ . Therefore

$$v = \frac{c_1}{c} w_1 + \frac{c_2}{c} w_2 + \dots + \frac{c_k}{c} w_k.$$

This means that  $v$  is in the span of the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$ . Since  $v \in H$  is an arbitrary vector, we conclude that the span of the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  is all of  $H$ , so  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for  $H$ .  $\square$

**Example.** Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6 & -1 & 1 & -7 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 5 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ .

How can we find a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$ ? Well, finding a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$  is more or less the same task as finding all solutions to the homogeneous equation  $Ax = 0$ . So let's first try to solve that equation.

If we row reduce the  $3 \times 6$  matrix  $[A \ 0]$ , we get

$$[A \ 0] \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{RREF}([A \ 0]).$$

This tells us that  $Ax = 0$  if and only if  $\begin{cases} x_1 - 2x_2 - x_4 + 3x_5 = 0 \\ x_3 + 2x_4 - 2x_5 = 0. \end{cases}$

Therefore  $x \in \text{Nul } A$  if and only if

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_2 + x_4 - 3x_5 \\ x_2 \\ -2x_4 + 2x_5 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_5 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The vectors

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

are a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$ : we just computed that these vectors span the null space, and they are linearly independent since each has a nonzero entry in a row (namely, either row 2, 4, or 5) where the others have zeros. (Why does this imply linear independence?)

This example is important: the procedure just described works to construct a basis of  $\text{Nul } A$  for any matrix  $A$ . The size of this basis will always be equal to the number of free variables in the linear system  $Ax = 0$ . How to find a basis for  $\text{Nul } A$  is something you should remember at the end of this course.

**Example.** Let  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

This matrix is in reduced echelon form. How to find a basis for  $\text{Col } B$ ?

The columns of  $B$  automatically span  $\text{Col } B$ , but they might not be linearly independent.

The largest linearly independent subset of the columns of  $B$  will be a basis for  $\text{Col } B$ , however.

In our example, the pivot columns 1, 2 and 5 are linearly independent since each has a row with a 1 where the others have 0s. These columns span columns 3 and 4, so a basis for  $\text{Col } B$  is

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

This example was special since the matrix  $B$  was already in reduced echelon form. To find a basis of the column space of an arbitrary matrix, we rely on the following observation:

**Proposition.** Let  $A$  be any matrix. The pivot columns of  $A$  form a basis for  $\text{Col } A$ .

*Proof sketch.* Suppose  $A$  is  $m \times n$ . The reduced echelon form of  $A$  is obtained by multiplying  $A$  by an invertible matrix  $E$  on the left, so we can write  $\text{RREF}(A) = EA$ .

If  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  are the pivot columns of  $A$ , then  $E \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_k \end{bmatrix}$  is the  $m \times k$  matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} I_k \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  where the 0 means an  $(m - k) \times k$  submatrix of zeros. These columns are linearly independent since if

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_k \end{bmatrix} v = 0$$

for  $v \in \mathbb{R}^k$  then  $0 = E \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_k \end{bmatrix} v = \begin{bmatrix} I_k \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} v = \begin{bmatrix} v \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  which implies that  $v = 0$ .

Suppose  $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a non-pivot column of  $A$ . The definition of reduced echelon form implies that the corresponding column  $EW$  of  $\text{RREF}(A) = EA$  is in the span of  $Ea_1, Ea_2, \dots, Ea_k$ . (Why?)

If  $EW = c_1 Ea_1 + \dots + c_k Ea_k$  then multiplying both sides by  $E^{-1}$  gives  $w = c_1 a_1 + \dots + c_k a_k$  so  $w$  is in the span  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$ . Therefore the span of the pivot columns of  $A$  is equal to  $\text{Col } A$ .

Since the pivot columns are linearly independent and have span equal to  $\text{Col } A$ , they form a basis.  $\square$

**Example.** The matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & 2 & -9 \\ -2 & -2 & 2 & -8 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 & 7 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & -1 & 11 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

is row equivalent to the matrix  $B$  in the previous example. Columns 1, 2, and 5 of  $A$  have pivots, so

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

is a basis for  $\text{Col } A$ .

**Next time:** we will show that if  $H$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  then all of its bases have the same size. The common size of each basis is the *dimension* of  $H$ .

## 4 Vocabulary

Keywords from today's lecture:

### 1. Subspace of $\mathbb{R}^n$

A subset  $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $0 \in H$ ; if  $u, v \in H$  then  $u + v \in H$ ; and if  $v \in H$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $cv \in H$ .

Example: Pick any vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\mathbb{R}\text{-span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$  is a subspace.

### 2. Column space of an $m \times n$ matrix $A$ .

The subspace  $\text{Col } A = \{Av : v \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ . The span of the columns of  $A$ .

Example: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  then  $\text{Col } A = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x, y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ .

### 3. Null space of an $m \times n$ matrix $A$ .

The subspace  $\text{Nul } A = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : Av = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Example: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  then  $\text{Nul } A = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x, y \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \mathbb{R}\text{-span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ .

### 4. Basis of a subspace $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

A set of linearly independent vectors in  $H$  whose span is  $H$ .

Example: The vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$  are a basis for the subspace  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : v_1 + v_2 + v_3 = 0 \right\}$ .

The **standard basis** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consists of the vectors  $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, e_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .