

Reminder: Group

Definition

A **group** is a pair (X, \circ) , where

- X is a set and $\circ : X \times X \rightarrow X$ is a total function,

satisfying the following **axioms**:

associativity $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$ for all $a, b, c \in X$.

neutral element There exists $e \in X$ s.t. $a \circ e = e \circ a = a$ for every $a \in X$.

inverse for every $a \in X$ there exists $a^{-1} \in X$ such that $a \circ a^{-1} = a^{-1} \circ a = e$.

The group is **abelian** if additionally

commutativity $a \circ b = b \circ a$ for all $a, b \in X$.

Reminder: Field

Definition

A **field** is a triple $(F, +, \cdot)$, where

- $(F, +)$ is an abelian group,
 - let 0 denote its neutral element and $-x$ the inverse to x ,
- $(F \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is an abelian group,
 - let 1 denote its neutral element and x^{-1} the inverse to x ,
- $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ for all $a, b, c \in F$ (**distributivity**)

Examples:

- rational numbers **Q**
- real numbers **R**
- complex numbers **C**
- finite fields.

Vector space

Let \mathbf{F} be a field.

Definition

A **vector space** over \mathbf{F} is a triple $(V, +, \cdot)$, where

- $(V, +)$ is an abelian group (neutral element o , inverse $-v$) and
- $\cdot : \mathbf{F} \times V \rightarrow V$ is a total function (multiplication by a scalar),

satisfying the following **axioms** for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbf{F}$ and $u, v \in V$:

associativity $(\alpha\beta) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot v)$

neutral element $1 \cdot v = v$

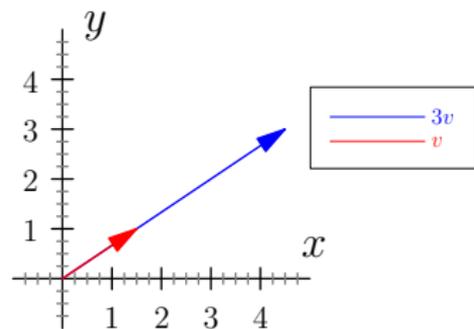
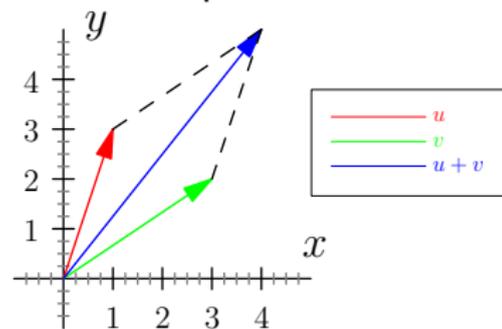
distributivity (1) $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot v + \beta \cdot v$

distributivity (2) $\alpha \cdot (u + v) = \alpha \cdot u + \alpha \cdot v$

Elements of a vector space are called **vectors**.

Examples of vector spaces

Euclidean plane:



$(\mathbf{R}^2, +, \cdot)$, where

$$(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1) + (\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_2) = (\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2)$$

$$\alpha \cdot (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\alpha \mathbf{x}, \alpha \mathbf{y})$$

Similarly: for any integer $n \geq 1$, $(\mathbf{R}^n, +, \cdot)$, where

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n) + (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n) = (\alpha_1 + \beta_1, \alpha_2 + \beta_2, \dots, \alpha_n + \beta_n)$$

$$\alpha \cdot (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n) = (\alpha\beta_1, \alpha\beta_2, \dots, \alpha\beta_n)$$

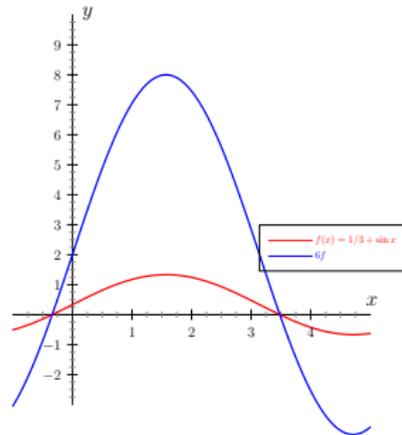
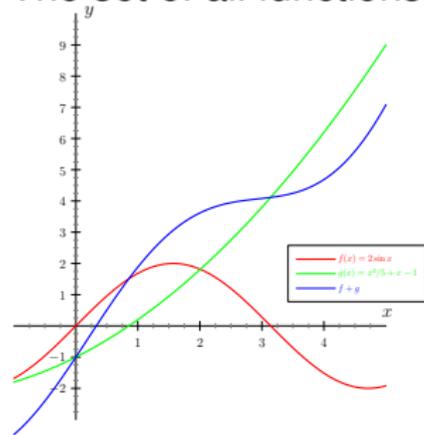
Examples of vector spaces

For any field \mathbf{F} and integers $n, m \geq 1$, the set $\mathbf{F}^{n \times m}$ of all $n \times m$ matrices with coefficients in \mathbf{F} .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 6 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples of vector spaces

The set of all functions $\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$



- $f + g$ is the function whose value at β is $f(\beta) + g(\beta)$
- αf is the function whose value at β is $\alpha f(\beta)$

Related vector spaces:

- functions from $[0, 1]$ to \mathbf{R}
- continuous functions from \mathbf{R} to \mathbf{R}
- functions from \mathbf{Q} to \mathbf{Q}

Examples of vector spaces

\mathcal{P} : polynomials with real coefficients

$$\begin{aligned}(1 + x + x^3) + 3(2 - x + x^2) &= (1 + x + x^3) + (6 - 3x + 3x^2) \\ &= 7 - 2x + 3x^2 + x^3\end{aligned}$$

Related vector spaces:

- For any $n \geq 0$, \mathcal{P}_n : polynomials of degree at most n .
- Formal infinite series

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i x^i\right) + \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta_i x^i\right) &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\alpha_i + \beta_i) x^i \\ \alpha \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta_i x^i\right) &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\alpha \beta_i) x^i\end{aligned}$$

- Infinite sequences

$$\begin{aligned}(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots) + (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots) &= (\alpha_0 + \beta_0, \alpha_1 + \beta_1, \dots) \\ \alpha(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots) &= (\alpha\beta_0, \alpha\beta_1, \dots)\end{aligned}$$

More confusing examples

- Trivial space $(\{0\}, +, \cdot)$
- Every field forms a vector space over itself.
- Complex numbers are a vector space over real numbers.
- Real numbers are a vector space over rational numbers.

Basic properties

Lemma

If \mathbf{V} is a vector space, then

$$\alpha v = o \text{ if and only if } \alpha = 0 \text{ or } v = o$$

and

$$(-1)v = -v \text{ for every } v \in \mathbf{V}.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} 0v &= 0v + o = 0v + 0v + (-(0v)) = (0 + 0)v + (-(0v)) \\ &= 0v + (-(0v)) = o \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha o &= \alpha o + o = \alpha o + \alpha o + (-(\alpha o)) = \alpha(o + o) + (-(\alpha o)) \\ &= \alpha o + (-(\alpha o)) = o \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \neq 0 \wedge \alpha v = o &\Rightarrow v = 1v = (\alpha^{-1}\alpha)v = \alpha^{-1}(\alpha v) = \alpha^{-1}o = o \\ v + (-1)v &= 1v + (-1)v = (1 + (-1))v = 0v = o \end{aligned}$$

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Linear combinations

Let \mathbf{V} be a vector space over \mathbf{F} , let $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbf{V}$ be vectors.

Definition

For any $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbf{F}$, the vector

$$\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

is a **linear combination** of v_1, \dots, v_n .

Remark: the number of terms in a linear combination must be finite.

Example

$(1, 2, 3)$ is a linear combination of

$$(-1, 2, -3), (3, -2, 0), \text{ and } (0, 0, 1/2),$$

since

$$(1, 2, 3) = 2(-1, 2, -3) + (3, -2, 0) + 18(0, 0, 1/2).$$

Example

Problem

Is $3x^2 + 1$ a linear combination of $x^2 + x$ and $x^2 + 2x + 1$?

Suppose that

$$3x^2 + 1 = \alpha(x^2 + x) + \beta(x^2 + 2x + 1).$$

Then

$$\alpha + \beta = 3 \quad \dots \text{coefficient at } x^2$$

$$\alpha + 2\beta = 0 \quad \dots \text{coefficient at } x$$

$$\beta = 1 \quad \dots \text{constant term}$$

The system has no solution, so $3x^2 + 1$ **is not** a linear combination of $x^2 + x$ and $x^2 + 2x + 1$.

Let \mathbf{V} be a vector space, let $S \subseteq \mathbf{V}$ be a set of vectors.

Definition

The **linear span** of S (denoted by $\text{span}(S)$) is the set of all linear combinations of elements of S .

- For S finite, instead of $\text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$, we sometimes write $\text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$.
- $S \subseteq \text{span}(S)$, since $1v$ is a linear combination belonging to $\text{span}(S)$ for $v \in S$.
- $o \in \text{span}(S)$, since empty linear combination is equal to o .

Examples

$$\text{span}(1, x, x^2, x^3) = \{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 + \alpha_3 x^3 : \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 \in \mathbf{R}\}$$

is the space \mathcal{P}_3 of polynomials of degree at most 3.

$$\text{span}((1, 1, 0), (1, 2, 3)) = \{(x, y, z) : 3x - 3y + z = 0\}$$

is a plane in 3-dimensional Euclidean space.

Spans and matrices

Let $a_1, \dots, a_m \in R^n$, let $A = (a_1 | a_2 | \dots | a_m)$. Then

$$\text{span}(a_1, \dots, a_m) = \{Ax : x \in R^m\}.$$

Hence,

$$b \in \text{span}(a_1, \dots, a_m)$$

if and only if the system

$$Ax = b$$

has a solution. Equivalently,

- the last column of $\text{RREF}(A|b) = (A'|b')$ is not a basis column, and
- the coefficients of the linear combination can be chosen as
 - 0 for non-basis columns
 - the entries of b' for the corresponding basis columns

Example

Problem

Does $(1, 1)$ belong to $\text{span}((1, 2), (2, 4), (1, 3), (2, 1))$?

Equivalently, does

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c|c|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{array} \right) x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

have a solution?

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right) \sim \left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & -1 \end{array} \right) \sim$$
$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 0 & 5 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

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$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 2 & 0 & 5 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

Hence,

$$(1, 1) = 2(1, 2) - 1 \cdot (1, 3).$$

Span is a vector space

Theorem

Let $\mathbf{V} = (V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space over \mathbf{F} , let $S \subseteq V$ be any set of vectors. Then

$$(\text{span}(S), +, \cdot)$$

is a vector space, satisfying $\text{span}(S) \subseteq V$.

Span is a vector space

Proof.

It suffices to prove that $+$ and \cdot are total on $\text{span}(S)$, and $o \in \text{span}(S)$.

- inverses $-v = (-1)v$ are in $\text{span}(S)$ by the totality of \cdot .

If $u, v \in \text{span}(S)$, then there exist $v_1, \dots, v_n \in S$ and $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_n \in \mathbf{F}$ such that

$$u = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

$$v = \beta_1 v_1 + \dots + \beta_n v_n$$

Then,

$$u + v = (\alpha_1 + \beta_1)v_1 + \dots + (\alpha_n + \beta_n)v_n$$

$$\alpha v = (\alpha\beta_1)v_1 + \dots + (\alpha\beta_n)v_n$$

and thus $u + v, \alpha v \in \text{span}(S)$.



Subspaces

Definition

Let $\mathbf{V} = (V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space. If $U \subseteq V$ and $\mathbf{U} = (U, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, we say that \mathbf{U} is a **subspace** of \mathbf{V} . We write $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbf{V}$.

Examples:

- the plane $\{(x, y, z) : 3x - 3y + z = 0\} \in \mathbf{R}^3$
 - More generally, any line or plane in \mathbf{R}^3 containing the origin $(0, 0, 0)$ is a subspace of \mathbf{R}^3 .
- \mathcal{P}_n (polynomials of degree at most n) form a subspace of the space \mathcal{P} of all polynomials
- \mathcal{P} , and the space of continuous functions $\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, form subspaces of the space of all functions $\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$
- trivial subspaces: $(\{0\}, +, \cdot)$ and \mathbf{V} itself.

All subspaces are spans

Lemma

Let $\mathbf{V} = (V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space, and let U be a subset of V . Then $(U, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space if and only if $\text{span}(U) = U$.

Proof.

If $\text{span}(U) = U$: As we observed before, $\text{span}(U)$ is a vector space; hence, U is a vector space.

If $\text{span}(U) \neq U$: Then $+$ or \cdot is not total on U , and thus U is not a vector space.



We say that S **generates** \mathbf{U} if $\mathbf{U} = \text{span}(S)$.

Intersection of subspaces

Lemma

Let $\mathbf{V} = (V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space over \mathbf{F} , let I be an arbitrary set, and for $i \in I$, let \mathbf{U}_i be a subspace of \mathbf{V} . Then

$$\mathbf{U}_I = \bigcap_{i \in I} \mathbf{U}_i$$

is a subspace of \mathbf{V} .

Proof.

Note that $o \in \mathbf{U}_I$. It suffices to show that $+$ and \cdot are total on \mathbf{U}_I . If $u, v \in \mathbf{U}_I$ and $\alpha \in \mathbf{F}$, then

- $u, v \in \mathbf{U}_i$ for every $i \in I$, hence
- $u + v, \alpha \cdot v \in \mathbf{U}_i$ for every $i \in I$, hence
- $u + v, \alpha \cdot v \in \mathbf{U}_I$



Example

Problem

Describe the intersection of spaces

$$\mathbf{U}_1 = \text{span}((1, 1, 0), (1, 2, 3)) \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mathbf{U}_2 = \text{span}((1, 0, -1), (1, -1, 0)).$$

If $(x, y, z) \in \mathbf{U}_1 \cap \mathbf{U}_2$, then there exist $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbf{R}$ such that

$$(x, y, z) = \alpha(1, 1, 0) + \beta(1, 2, 3) \quad \dots v \text{ is in } \mathbf{U}_1$$

$$(x, y, z) = \gamma(1, 0, -1) + \delta(1, -1, 0) \quad \dots v \text{ is in } \mathbf{U}_2$$

Comparing the coefficients, we get

$$\alpha + \beta - \gamma - \delta = 0 \quad \text{at } x$$

$$\alpha + 2\beta + \delta = 0 \quad \text{at } y$$

$$3\beta + \gamma = 0 \quad \text{at } z$$

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The set of solutions is $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta) \in \{(-3t, t, -3t, t) : t \in \mathbf{R}\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{U}_1 \cap \mathbf{U}_2 &= \{\alpha(1, 1, 0) + \beta(1, 2, 3)\} \\ &= \{-3t(1, 1, 0) + t(1, 2, 3) : t \in \mathbf{R}\} \\ &= \{t(-2, -1, 3) : t \in \mathbf{R}\} = \text{span}((-2, -1, 3)). \end{aligned}$$

Example

Problem

Describe the intersection of spaces

$$\mathbf{U}_1 = \text{span}((1, 1, 0), (1, 2, 3)) \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mathbf{U}_2 = \text{span}((1, 0, -1), (1, -1, 0)).$$

$$\mathbf{U}_1 \cap \mathbf{U}_2 = \text{span}((-2, -1, 3))$$

Span as an intersection

Lemma

Let $\mathbf{V} = (V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space and let S be a subset of V . Then $\text{span}(S)$ is the smallest subspace of \mathbf{V} containing S , that is,

$$\text{span}(S) = \bigcap_{\mathbf{U} \in \mathcal{V}, S \subseteq \mathbf{U}} \mathbf{U}.$$

Proof.

Let

$$\mathbf{W} = \bigcap_{\mathbf{U} \in \mathcal{V}, S \subseteq \mathbf{U}} \mathbf{U}.$$

- Since $S \subseteq \mathbf{W}$, we have $\text{span}(S) \subseteq \text{span}(\mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{W}$.
- Since $S \subseteq \text{span}(S)$, the subspace $\text{span}(S)$ is one of the spaces in the intersection, hence $\mathbf{W} \subseteq \text{span}(S)$.

