Vector Spaces (Part I)

Conceptual knowledge

- Revise vector spaces, subspaces, span and linear independence.
- Understand null spaces, row/column spaces and bases.

Procedural knowledge

- Determine whether a set of vectors forms a vector space/subspace or not.
- Find spanning sets.
- Determine whether a vector is part of a given null/row/column space.
- Determine linear independence/dependence of vectors and writing vectors as a linear combination.
- Find bases of vector spaces. (Next week)

Vector Spaces

Vectors are encountered frequently in science and engineering.

Quite often a set of vectors which share certain properties arise, allowing us to do useful mathematics when analysing systems.

The fundamental type of sets of vectors that we will now explore is vector spaces.

You have already seen vector spaces in geometry and Fourier analysis. We now formalise these underlying structures and subject them to analysis in their own right.

Definition

A **vector space** is a nonempty set, V, of objects, called vectors, on which are defined two operations, called addition and multiplication by scalars (real numbers), subject to the ten axioms (or rules) listed below. The axioms must hold for all vectors \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} in V and for all scalars c and d.

Compose Boolean Algebra

- 1) Closed under addition: $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \in V$.
- 2) Commutative under addition: $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
- 3) Associative under addition: $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$
- 4) Additional identity: $\mathbf{0} \in V$, such that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{u}$ "Additive identity"
- 5) Additional inverse: $\forall \mathbf{u} \in V \exists (-\mathbf{u})$, such that $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$ Additive inverse
- 6) Closed under scalar multiplication: $c\mathbf{u} \in V$.
- 7) **Distributive** under vector addition: $c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$
- 8) **Distributive** under scalar addition: $(c+d)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{c}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{c}\mathbf{v}$ $\mathcal{L}\mathbf{v} + \mathcal{L}\mathbf{v}$
- 9) **Associative** under scalar multiplication: $c(d\mathbf{u}) = (cd)\mathbf{u}$
- 10) Multiplicative identity: 1u=u

Example 1.1 objects

The set of vectors, $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where n is a finite, positive number, along with vector addition and scalar multiplication is a vector space.

We can verify this by going through the list of axioms and using the definition of a vector and the properties of real numbers.

For example let us look at axioms 1 and 4.

1) Closed under addition! Let,
$$U = (v_1, v_2, ..., v_n)$$

$$V = (v_1, v_2, ..., v_n)$$

$$U + V = (v_1, v_2, ..., v_n) + (v_1, v_2, ..., v_n)$$

$$= (v_1 + v_1, v_2 + v_2, ..., v_n + v_n)$$

$$(v_i + v_i') \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall i \in [1, n]$$

$$= \sum (v_1 + v_2) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$V + O = (v_1 + v_2, ..., v_n + v_n) = U$$

$$V + O = (v_1 + v_2, ..., v_n + v_n) = U$$

$$V + O = (v_1 + v_2, ..., v_n + v_n) = U$$

objects

Operation

The set of all 2×3 matrices, M_{23} , with matrix addition and scalar multiplication

The set of all
$$2 \times 3$$
 matrices, M_{23} , with matrix addition and scalar multiplicity is a vector space.

Axioms 4) & 6)

Let, $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{pmatrix}$, $B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \end{pmatrix}$

Let, $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ we have,

$$A + O = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + 0 & a_{12} + 0 & a_{13} + 0 \\ a_{21} + 0 & a_{22} + 0 \end{pmatrix} = A$$

6) Let $C \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$CA = C \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Ca_{11} & Ca_{22} & Ca_{23} \\ Ca_{21} & Ca_{22} & Ca_{23} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Ca_{11} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall i \in [1,2], j \in [1,3]$$

$$A \in A \in A_{23} \quad \text{etc.}$$

Similarly all $m \times n$ rectangular and $n \times n$ square matrices are vector spaces.

Example 1.3

The set of all polynomials to the n^{th} degree or less, P_n , with addition and multiplication defined as follows:

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + ... + a_n x^n, q(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + ... + b_n x^n$$

$$p(x) + q(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1) x + ... + (a_n + b_n) x_n^n$$

$$C p(x) = C a_0 + C a_1 x + ... + C a_n x^n$$

The axioms can be shown to hold for these polynomials using the properties of real numbers.

For example consider axiom 7:

$$C(p(x)+q(x)) = C[(a_0+b_0)+(a_1+b_1)x + ... + (a_n+b_n)x^n]$$

$$= (ca_0+ca_1x+...+ca_nx^n)+(cb_0+cb_0x+...+cb_nx)$$

$$= c.p(x) + cq(x)$$

The set of <u>all real-valued continuous functions</u> over the real line, $C(-\infty, \infty)$, with addition and multiplication defined as follows:

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

 $(cf)(x) = c[f(x)]$ Operations

Closure under addition and multiplication is easy to show using properties of continuous functions on the real line (from basic calculus).

In order to satisfy axiom 4 we must define the additional identity as,

$$f_o(x) = 0 \quad \forall x$$

$$\implies (f + f_o)(x) = f(x) + f_o(x) = f(x) + 0 = f(x)$$

The other axioms follow from the properties of continuous functions.

The above examples are commonly occurring vector spaces. Let's now look at some examples of things which are not vector spaces.

Example 1.5

The set of integers, Z, with standard addition and multiplication is not a vector space.

space.

Space.

$$CU \in V.?$$
, $C = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{ER}{I} = I \cdot eZ$
 $Counter example$
 $CU = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{EZ}{I} \cdot$

The set of polynomials of exactly degree 2 with operations defined similarly to Example 1.3.

(2) (1) Closed under addition! $p(x) = x^2$ $q(x) = -x^2 + x + 1$ = 7 p(x) + q(x) = x + 1 + p * (degree 1).'. Not closed under addition, not a vector space,

Subspaces 1.1

Definition

A **subspace** of a vector space, V, is a subset, H, of V that has the following 3 properties:

a) The zero vector of V is in H.

b) $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ is in H. Closed under addition and Scalar multiplication

c) $c\mathbf{u}$ is in H for all scalars, c, and vectors \mathbf{u} in H.

In other words the subset must be closed under addition and scalar multiplication, containing the zero vector.

In fact if we can show b) and c) is true then a) is automatically satisfied since we can choose c = 0 so that $c\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$.

Example 1.7

Lines through the origin are subspaces of \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 .

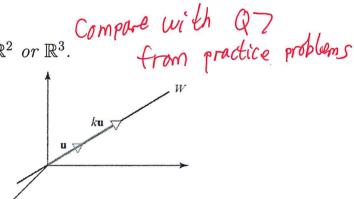


Figure 1: Lines through the origin closed under addition and scalar multiplication © Wiley, 2013.

Let W be the set of symmetric 2×2 matrices with the standard operations. Is W a subspace?

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{N} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{aa} & (a_1, a_2) + (b_1, b_2) \\ (a_3, a_4) + (b_2, b_4) \\ (a_3, a_4) + (b_2, b_4) \\ (a_1 + b_1) = A^{+} + B^{-} = (A + B^{-}) \in \mathcal{N} \\ & (a_1 + b_2) \in \mathcal{N} \end{array}$$

2) Closed under scalar multiplication;

$$(CA)^T = C(A^T) = C(A) = (CA) \in W$$

if we subspace.

Example 1.9

Let W be the set of singular 2×2 matrices with the standard operations. Is W a subspace?

I) Let,
$$\underline{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $\underline{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ Both singular $\underline{A} + \underline{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $|\underline{A} + \underline{B}| \neq 0$. invertible, Not a subspace.

1. Not a subspace.

Which of the following subsets is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 ?

1.
$$x+2y=0$$
2. $x+2y=1$ (α_{1}, y_{1}) (α_{2}, y_{2})

Addition', $\alpha_{1} + 2y_{1} = 0$, $\alpha_{2} + 2y_{2} = 0$

$$(\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2}, y_{1} + y_{2}) \Rightarrow (\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2}) + 2(y_{1} + y_{2})$$

$$= (\alpha_{1} + 2y_{1}) + (\alpha_{2} + 2y_{2}) = 0$$

Multiplication! $(c\alpha_{1}, cy_{1}) \Rightarrow c\alpha_{1} + 2cy_{1}$

$$= c(\alpha_{1} + 2y_{1}) = c(0) = 0$$
1. It is a subspace,

2) $(\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2}, y_{1} + y_{2}) \Rightarrow (\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2}) + 2(y_{1} + y_{2})$

$$= (\alpha_{1} + 2y_{1}) + (\alpha_{2} + 2y_{2}) = |1+| = 2$$

Alternatively, for the second case we could have also just observed that the zero vector is not in the subset and therefore cannot be a subspace.

.'. not a subspace.

1.2 Linear Independence & Spanning Sets

Not closed under addition

Definition

A set of vectors, $\{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, ..., \mathbf{v_p}\}$, in \mathbb{R}^n is **linearly independent** if,

$$x_1 \underline{\vee}_1 + x_2 \underline{\vee}_2 + \dots + x_p \underline{\vee}_p = 0$$

has only the trivial solution. (linearly independent)

It is *linearly dependent* if there exist values of $x_1 = c_1, x_2 = c_2, ..., x_p = c_p$, not all zero, such that the above equation holds.

The values $c_1, c_2, ..., c_p$ are the weights of each vector and the <u>sum</u> is known as a *linear combination*.

It is common to say that the vectors, $\mathbf{v_1}, ..., \mathbf{v_p}$, are linearly independent when the set of those vectors is linearly independent.

Example 1.11

Is the following set of vectors linearly independent?

$$S = \{(1,3,1), (0,1,2), (1.0,-5)\}$$
 Y_1 is linear combination of Y_2 and Y_3 .

 $Y_1 = 3 Y_2 + Y_3 = 3(0,1,2) + (1,0,-5)$
 $= (1,3,1) = Y_1$
.1, Linearly dependent,

Sometimes, as in the last example, we can see from inspection whether the vectors can be written as a linear combination of the others or not.

A more robust method is to use Gauss-Jordan elimination.

Example 1.12

Is the following set of vectors linearly independent?

$$S = \{(1,2,3), (0,1,2), (-1,0,1)\}$$

For linear independence we require,

For linear independence we require,

Require,
$$C_1(\frac{1}{2}) + C_2(\frac{0}{1}) + C_3(\frac{-1}{0}) = 0$$

only has trivial solution.

This can be written as a system of linear equations and solved as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
3 & 2 & 1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\sim
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 4 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sim
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 4 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sim
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

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\begin{pmatrix}
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Example 1.13

Can the vector (1,1,1) be written as a linear combination of the vectors in S from the previous example? If so, find the coefficients.

the previous example? If so, find the coefficients.

$$C_{1}\begin{pmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{pmatrix} + C_{2}\begin{pmatrix} 0\\2\\2 \end{pmatrix} + C_{3}\begin{pmatrix} -1\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1&0&-1&|&1\\2&1&0&|&1\\2&1&|&1 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1&0&-1&|&1\\0&1&2&|&-1\\0&2&4&|&-2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 1&0&-1&|&1\\0&2&4&|&-2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \infty \text{ Solutions}$$

$$C_{1}\begin{pmatrix} 0&1&2&|&-1\\0&1&2&|&-1\\0&1&2&|&-1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \infty \text{ Solutions}$$

$$C_{2}=-1-2c_{3}$$

$$C_{1}=1+C_{3}$$

$$C_{1}=1+C_{3}$$

$$C_{2}\begin{pmatrix} 1&+C_{3}\\-1&-2c_{3}\\C_{3}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1&+C_{3}\\-1&-2c_{3}\\C_{3}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1&-1\\1&0&1 \end{pmatrix}$$
Check! For example if $C_{2}=1=3$ $C_{1}=2$, $C_{2}=-3$

Check! For example if $c_s = 1 = 3$ G = 2, $c_1 = -3$ $2(\frac{1}{2}) - 3(\frac{0}{2}) + (\frac{-1}{90}) = (\frac{1}{1})$

$$C_1(1) + C_2(0) + C_3(1) = 0$$
 No, of extres ? Solutions
$$C_1 + C_3 = 0$$

$$C_1 + C_3 = 0$$

$$C_2 - C_3 = 0$$

$$C_2 - C_3 = 0$$

$$C_1 + C_3 = 0$$

$$C_2 - C_3 = 0$$

$$C_3 - C_3 = 0$$

$$C_4 + C_3 = 0$$

$$C_4 - C_5 = 0$$

$$C_5 - C_5 = 0$$

$$C_5 - C_5 = 0$$

$$C_7 - C_5 = 0$$

$$C_7 - C_7 = 0$$

Note that any set of vectors which has more vectors than entries in each vector is linearly dependent since the resulting homogeneous system will always have a free variable.

Definition

Given a set of vectors, $\{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, ..., \mathbf{v_p}\}$, in \mathbb{R}^n , the <u>span</u> of the set is the collection of all linear combinations of those vectors denoted by,

where the c_i , $i \in [1, p]$, are scalars.

Example 1.14

Example 1.15

Determine whether the following sets span \mathbb{R}^3 or not.

1.
$$S_1 = \{(1,2,3), (0,1,2), (-2,0,1)\}$$

2.
$$S_2 = \{(1,2,3), (0,1,2), (-1,0,1)\}$$

a de la constant de l

1)
$$C_{1}\begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 2\\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + C_{2}\begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 1\\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + C_{3}\begin{pmatrix} -2\\ 0\\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V_{1}\\ V_{2}\\ V_{3} \end{pmatrix}, V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3} \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & | & V_{1}\\ 2 & 2 & 1 & | & V_{2}\\ 3 & 2 & 1 & | & V_{3} \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & | & V_{1}\\ 0 & 1 & 4 & | & V_{2}-2V_{1}\\ 0 & 2 & 7 & | & V_{3}-3V_{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & | & V_{1}\\ 0 & 1 & 4 & | & V_{2}-2V_{1}\\ 0 & 0 & -1 & | & V_{3}-2V_{2}+V_{1} \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{V}_{1}, S_{1}, S_{1}, S_{2}$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 4 & | & V_{2}-2V_{1}\\ 0 & 0 & -1 & | & V_{3}-2V_{2}+V_{1} \end{pmatrix} = \mathcal{V}_{1}, S_{2}, S_{2}, S_{2}, S_{3}$$

2)
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & | V_1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & | V_2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & | V_3 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & | V_1 \\ 0 & 2 & | V_2 - 2V_1 \\ 0 & 2 & | V_3 - 3V_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & | V_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & | V_2 - 2V_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | V_3 - 2V_2 + V_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & | V_2 - 2V_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | V_3 - 2V_2 + V_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & | V_2 - 2V_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & | V_3 - 2V_2 + V_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

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$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & | V_1 - V_1 \\ 0 & 0 & | V_3 - 2V_2 + V_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

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$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & | V_1 - V_1 \\ | V_1 - V_1 - V_1 \\ | V_2 - V_1 \\ | V_3 - V_1 - V_2 \\ | V_3 - V_1 \\ | V_3 - V_1 - V_2 \\ | V_1 - V_1 \\ | V_1 - V_2 -$$

Note that all spanning sets are subspaces by definition.

Definition

A set of vectors, $S = \{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, ... \mathbf{v_p}\}$, in a vector space, V, is called a <u>basis</u> for V if,

- 1. S spans V.
- 2. S is linearly independent.

The plural of basis is <u>bases</u> (say "bay-sees").

Example 1.16

Show that $S = \{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

K=(0,0,1) X=(0,0,1) X=-(1,0,0) Check it spons R³ and linearly independent,

(100 | Vi) => Spans R³ ', unique solution.

(100 | Vi) => No solution except trivial solution.

(100 | 0) => No solution except trivial solution.

(100 | 0) => No solution except trivial solution.

(100 | 0) => No solution except trivial solution.

(100 | 0) => No solution except trivial solution.

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(100 | 0) => No solution except trivial solution.

This particular basis is known as the **standard basis** for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Analagous standard basis can be defined similarly for other dimensions.

Example 1.17
Show that $S = \{(1,1), (1,-1)\}$ is a non-standard basis for \mathbb{R}^2 . (Standard', $\{(1,0), (0,1), (0$

Example 1.18

Show that the set of polynomials of degree 3 has a basis,

Span $S = C_1 + C_2 \times + C_3 \times^2 + C_4 \times^3$ which is also the definition of 3rd degree polynomial. S spans P_3^* .

But linear independence requires,

Proof

True only if
$$C_1 = C_2 = C_3 = C_4 = 0$$
 $\forall > C$, Only trivial solution . Linearly independent, ..., S is a basis for P_3^* .

Theorem (Uniqueness of Basis Representation)

If $S = \{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, ..., \mathbf{v_p}\}$ is a basis for the vector space V then every vector in V can be written in one, and only one, way as a linear combination of vectors in S.

S is a basis => vectors in 5, span V. So every vector in V is a linear combination of vectors in S UEV can be represented as, U= C, V, + G, V, + ... + Gp Yp Suppose there is another representation! (Mill hypothesis) リ= b, ど, + bz どっ ナットなどを then, $U-U=(b_1-c_1)V_1+(b_2-c_2)V_2+...+(b_p-c_p)V_p=0$ true for all vectors when bi= Ci ViE [1,P], . Unique representation,

It is now easy enough to see the following:



If a basis for a vector space, V, contains p vectors, then any subset of V with more than p vectors is linearly dependent.

Similarly, any other basis that can be found will also have p vectors.

1.3 Row, Column and Null Spaces

Definition

Given a matrix, \mathbf{A} , the <u>row space</u> is defined to be the subspace spanned by the rows of \mathbf{A} .

The <u>column space</u> is defined to be the subspace spanned by the columns of A.

The <u>null space</u> is defined to be the subspace corresponding with the solutions to the homogeneous equation Ax = 0.

Since we can write a matrix equation as,

$$Ax = b + x_n C_n + x_n C_n = b$$

where the c_i are the columns of A, we conclude that the system is consistent if and only if b is in the column space of A.

Furthermore, the solution to the system can be written as the sum of a <u>particular</u> solution to Ax = b and the <u>general solution</u> to Ax = 0.

In particular, if $S = \{\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, ..., \mathbf{v_k}\}$ is a basis for the null space of \mathbf{A} , then the full solution to the nonhomogeneous matrix equation is,

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_0 + (\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{L}_1 + \mathcal{A}_2 \mathcal{L}_2 + \dots + \mathcal{A}_K \mathcal{L}_K)$$
Particular Solution homogeneous post

where $\mathbf{x_0}$ is any solution to the equation.

Note that row operations do not affect the row or null space, however they do affect the column space. More on this topic next week.