#### MATH 311

Lecture 7:

Vector spaces. Subspaces.

Topics in Applied Mathematics I

#### Linear operations on vectors

Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  be n-dimensional vectors, and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  be a scalar.

Vector sum: 
$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$

Scalar multiple: 
$$r\mathbf{x} = (rx_1, rx_2, \dots, rx_n)$$

*Zero vector:* 
$$\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, ..., 0)$$

Negative of a vector: 
$$-\mathbf{y} = (-y_1, -y_2, \dots, -y_n)$$

Vector difference:

$$\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} + (-\mathbf{y}) = (x_1 - y_1, x_2 - y_2, \dots, x_n - y_n)$$

## **Properties of linear operations**

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}$$
  $(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z})$ 

 $r(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = r\mathbf{x} + r\mathbf{y}$ 

 $(r+s)\mathbf{x} = r\mathbf{x} + s\mathbf{x}$ 

(rs)x = r(sx)

 $(-1)\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{x}$ 

1x = x

0 = 0

$$x + 0 = 0 + x = x$$

$$-x)$$
 -

$$x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0$$





### **Linear operations on matrices**

Let  $A=(a_{ij})$  and  $B=(b_{ij})$  be  $m\times n$  matrices, and  $r\in\mathbb{R}$  be a scalar.

Matrix sum: 
$$A + B = (a_{ij} + b_{ij})_{1 \le i \le m, \ 1 \le j \le n}$$
  
Scalar multiple:  $rA = (ra_{ij})_{1 \le i \le m, \ 1 \le j \le n}$ 

Zero matrix O: all entries are zeros

Negative of a matrix: 
$$-A = (-a_{ij})_{1 \le i \le m, \ 1 \le j \le n}$$
  
Matrix difference:  $A - B = (a_{ij} - b_{ij})_{1 \le i \le m, \ 1 \le j \le n}$ 

As far as the linear operations are concerned, the  $m \times n$  matrices have the same properties as mn-dimensional vectors.

### Vector space: informal description

Vector space = linear space = a set V of objects (called vectors) that can be added and scaled.

That is, for any 
$$\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}\in V$$
 and  $r\in\mathbb{R}$  expressions  $\boxed{\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}}$  and  $\boxed{r\mathbf{u}}$ 

should make sense.

Certain restrictions apply. For instance, 
$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}, \\ 2\mathbf{u} + 3\mathbf{u} = 5\mathbf{u}.$$

That is, addition and scalar multiplication in V should be like those of n-dimensional vectors.

#### **Vector space: definition**

Vector space is a set V equipped with two operations  $\alpha: V \times V \to V$  and  $\mu: \mathbb{R} \times V \to V$  that have certain properties (listed below).

The operation  $\alpha$  is called *addition*. For any  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ , the element  $\alpha(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$  is denoted  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ .

The operation  $\mu$  is called *scalar multiplication*. For any  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \in V$ , the element  $\mu(r, \mathbf{u})$  is denoted  $r\mathbf{u}$ .

# Properties of addition and scalar multiplication (brief)

A1. 
$$x + y = y + x$$
  
A2.  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$ 

A3. 
$$x + 0 = 0 + x = x$$

A4. 
$$x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0$$

$$\mathsf{A5}.\ \ r(\mathsf{x}+\mathsf{y})=r\mathsf{x}+r\mathsf{y}$$

$$\mathsf{A6.}\ (r+s)\mathbf{x}=r\mathbf{x}+s\mathbf{x}$$

A7. 
$$(rs)x = r(sx)$$

A8. 
$$1x = x$$

#### Properties of addition and scalar multiplication (detailed)

- A1.  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$ .
- A2. (x + y) + z = x + (y + z) for all  $x, y, z \in V$ .
- A3. There exists an element of V, called the *zero* vector and denoted  $\mathbf{0}$ , such that  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .
- A4. For any  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  there exists an element of V, denoted  $-\mathbf{x}$ , such that  $\mathbf{x} + (-\mathbf{x}) = (-\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .
- A5.  $r(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = r\mathbf{x} + r\mathbf{y}$  for all  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$ .
- A6.  $(r+s)\mathbf{x} = r\mathbf{x} + s\mathbf{x}$  for all  $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .
- A7.  $(rs)\mathbf{x} = r(s\mathbf{x})$  for all  $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .
- A8.  $1\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .

- Associativity of addition implies that a multiple sum  $\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{u}_k$  is well defined for any  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \in V$ .
- **Subtraction** in V is defined as follows:  $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} + (-\mathbf{y})$ .
- Addition and scalar multiplication are called **linear operations**.

Given 
$$\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \in V$$
 and  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k \in \mathbb{R}$ , 
$$\boxed{r_1\mathbf{u}_1 + r_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + r_k\mathbf{u}_k}$$

is called a **linear combination** of  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k$ .

### **Examples of vector spaces**

In most examples, addition and scalar multiplication are natural operations so that properties A1–A8 are easy to verify.

- $\mathbb{R}^n$ : *n*-dimensional coordinate vectors
- $\mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$ :  $m \times n$  matrices with real entries
- $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$ : infinite sequences  $(x_1, x_2, ...)$ ,  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ For any  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ...)$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, ...) \in \mathbb{R}^{\infty}$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ let  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, ...)$ ,  $r\mathbf{x} = (rx_1, rx_2, ...)$ . Then  $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, ...)$  and  $-\mathbf{x} = (-x_1, -x_2, ...)$ .
- $\{0\}$ : the trivial vector space 0 + 0 = 0, r0 = 0, -0 = 0.

#### **Functional vector spaces**

- $F(\mathbb{R})$ : the set of all functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ Given functions  $f, g \in F(\mathbb{R})$  and a scalar  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , let (f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) and (rf)(x) = rf(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Zero vector: o(x) = 0. Negative: (-f)(x) = -f(x).
- $C(\mathbb{R})$ : all continuous functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ Linear operations are inherited from  $F(\mathbb{R})$ . We only need to check that  $f,g \in C(\mathbb{R}) \implies f+g,rf \in C(\mathbb{R})$ , the zero function is continuous, and  $f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \implies -f \in C(\mathbb{R})$ .
- $C^1(\mathbb{R})$ : all continuously differentiable functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ 
  - $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ : all smooth functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$
  - $\mathcal{P}$ : all polynomials  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n$

#### Some general observations

• The zero vector is unique.

Suppose  $\mathbf{z}_1$  and  $\mathbf{z}_2$  are zero vectors. Then  $\mathbf{z}_1 + \mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{z}_2$  since  $\mathbf{z}_1$  is a zero vector and  $\mathbf{z}_1 + \mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{z}_1$  since  $\mathbf{z}_2$  is a zero vector. Hence  $\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{z}_2$ .

• For any  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , the negative  $-\mathbf{x}$  is unique.

Suppose y and y' are both negatives of x. Let us compute the sum y' + x + y in two ways:

$$(y' + x) + y = 0 + y = y,$$
  
 $y' + (x + y) = y' + 0 = y'.$ 

By associativity of the vector addition,  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}'$ .

#### Some general observations

• (cancellation law)  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}' + \mathbf{y}$  implies  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}'$  for any  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \in V$ .

If  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}' + \mathbf{y}$  then  $(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + (-\mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}' + \mathbf{y}) + (-\mathbf{y})$ . By associativity,  $(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) + (-\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{y} + (-\mathbf{y})) = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x}$  and  $(\mathbf{x}' + \mathbf{y}) + (-\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}' + (\mathbf{y} + (-\mathbf{y})) = \mathbf{x}' + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x}'$ . Hence  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}'$ .

•  $0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .

Indeed,  $0\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x} = 0\mathbf{x} + 1\mathbf{x} = (0+1)\mathbf{x} = 1\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{x}$ . By the cancellation law,  $0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

•  $(-1)\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{x}$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .

Indeed,  $\mathbf{x} + (-1)\mathbf{x} = (-1)\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x} = (-1)\mathbf{x} + 1\mathbf{x} = (-1+1)\mathbf{x} = 0\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

### Counterexample: dumb scaling

Consider the set  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  with the standard addition and a nonstandard scalar multiplication:

$$rocdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$
 for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Properties A1–A4 hold because they do not involve scalar multiplication.

A5. 
$$r \odot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = r \odot \mathbf{x} + r \odot \mathbf{y}$$
  $\iff$   $\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0}$   
A6.  $(r+s) \odot \mathbf{x} = r \odot \mathbf{x} + s \odot \mathbf{x}$   $\iff$   $\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0}$   
A7.  $(rs) \odot \mathbf{x} = r \odot (s \odot \mathbf{x})$   $\iff$   $\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$   
A8.  $1 \odot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$   $\iff$   $\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x}$ 

A8 is the only property that fails. As a consequence, property A8 does not follow from properties A1–A7.

#### Counterexample: lazy scaling

Consider the set  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  with the standard addition and a nonstandard scalar multiplication:

$$rocup rocup \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$
 for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Properties A1–A4 hold because they do not involve scalar multiplication.

A5. 
$$r \odot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = r \odot \mathbf{x} + r \odot \mathbf{y} \iff \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$$
  
A6.  $(r+s) \odot \mathbf{x} = r \odot \mathbf{x} + s \odot \mathbf{x} \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}$   
A7.  $(rs) \odot \mathbf{x} = r \odot (s \odot \mathbf{x}) \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$   
A8.  $1 \odot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ 

The only property that fails is A6.

#### Weird example

Consider the set  $V = \mathbb{R}_+$  of positive numbers with a nonstandard addition and scalar multiplication:

A1. 
$$x \oplus y = y \oplus x \iff xy = yx$$

A2. 
$$(x \oplus y) \oplus z = x \oplus (y \oplus z)$$
  $\iff$   $(xy)z = x(yz)$ 

A3. 
$$x \oplus \zeta = \zeta \oplus x = x \iff x\zeta = \zeta x = x \text{ (holds for } \zeta = 1\text{)}$$

A4. 
$$x \oplus \eta = \eta \oplus x = 1 \iff x\eta = \eta x = 1 \text{ (holds for } \eta = x^{-1}\text{)}$$

A5. 
$$r \odot (x \oplus y) = (r \odot x) \oplus (r \odot y) \iff (xy)^r = x^r y^r$$

A6. 
$$(r+s) \odot x = (r \odot x) \oplus (s \odot x) \iff x^{r+s} = x^r x^s$$

A7. 
$$(rs) \odot x = r \odot (s \odot x) \iff x^{rs} = (x^s)^r$$

A8. 
$$1 \odot x = x \iff x^1 = x$$

#### Subspaces of vector spaces

Definition. A vector space  $V_0$  is a **subspace** of a vector space V if  $V_0 \subset V$  and the linear operations on  $V_0$  agree with the linear operations on V.

#### Examples.

- $F(\mathbb{R})$ : all functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$
- $C(\mathbb{R})$ : all continuous functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  $C(\mathbb{R})$  is a subspace of  $F(\mathbb{R})$ .
  - $\mathcal{P}$ : polynomials  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_k x^k$
  - $\mathcal{P}_n$ : polynomials of degree less than n

 $\mathcal{P}_n$  is a subspace of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

#### Subspaces of vector spaces

#### Counterexamples.

- $\mathcal{P}$ : polynomials  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n$
- $P_n^*$ : polynomials of degree n (n > 0)

 $P_n^*$  is not a subspace of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

 $-x^n + (x^n + 1) = 1 \notin P_n^* \implies P_n^*$  is not a vector space (addition is not well defined).

- ullet R with the standard linear operations
- ullet  $\mathbb{R}_+$  with the operations  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$

 $\mathbb{R}_+$  is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$  since the linear operations do not agree.

If S is a subset of a vector space V then S inherits from V addition and scalar multiplication. However S need not be closed under these operations.

**Proposition** A subset S of a vector space V is a subspace of V if and only if S is **nonempty** and **closed under linear operations**, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S \implies \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in S,$$
  
 $\mathbf{x} \in S \implies r\mathbf{x} \in S \text{ for all } r \in \mathbb{R}.$ 

Proof: "only if" is obvious.

"if": properties like associative, commutative, or distributive law hold for S because they hold for V. We only need to verify properties A3 and A4. Take any  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  (note that S is nonempty). Then  $\mathbf{0} = 0\mathbf{x} \in S$ . Also,  $-\mathbf{x} = (-1)\mathbf{x} \in S$ . Thus  $\mathbf{0}$  and  $-\mathbf{x}$  in S are the same as in V.

#### Example. $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ .

• The line x - y = 0 is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

The line consists of all vectors of the form (t,t),  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $(t,t)+(s,s)=(t+s,t+s) \implies$  closed under addition  $r(t,t)=(rt,rt) \implies$  closed under scaling

• The parabola  $y = x^2$  is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

It is enough to find one explicit counterexample.

Counterexample 1: (1,1) + (-1,1) = (0,2).

(1,1) and (-1,1) lie on the parabola while (0,2) does not  $\implies$  not closed under addition

Counterexample 2: 2(1,1) = (2,2).

(1,1) lies on the parabola while (2,2) does not  $\implies$  not closed under scaling

Example.  $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ .

- The plane z = 0 is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
- The plane z = 1 is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
- The line t(1,1,0),  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and a subspace of the plane z=0.
- The line (1,1,1)+t(1,-1,0),  $t\in\mathbb{R}$  is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  as it lies in the plane x+y+z=3, which does not contain  $\mathbf{0}$
- In general, a straight line or a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is a subspace if and only if it passes through the origin.