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Lecture 1: 4/2/2024

A set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ where $X \neq \emptyset$ is a <u>vector space</u> if:

- \vec{x} , $\vec{y} \in X \Longrightarrow \vec{x} + \vec{y} \in X$
- $\vec{x} \in X$ and $c \in \mathbb{R} \Longrightarrow c\vec{x} \in X$.

If
$$\phi = \{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$
, then we define:
$$\operatorname{span} \phi = \operatorname{span} \{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k\} = \{c_1 \vec{x}_1 + \dots + c_k \vec{x}_k \mid c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $E = \operatorname{span} \phi$, then we say ϕ generates E.

Note that $\mathrm{span}\{\, \overrightarrow{x}_1, \ldots, \, \overrightarrow{x}_2 \}$ forms a vector space (this is trivial to check).

 $\{\overrightarrow{x}_1,\ldots,\overrightarrow{x}_k\}\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ is called <u>linearly independent</u> if:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i \vec{x}_i = 0 \Longrightarrow \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \ c_i = 0.$$

If the above implication does not hold, then we call the set <u>linearly dependent</u>.

If $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector space, then we define the <u>dimension</u> of X as:

$$\dim(X) = \sup\{k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \mid \exists \{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k\} \subset X \text{ which is linearly independent}\}.$$

Also, we define any set containing $\vec{0}$ to be automatically linearly dependent. This includes the singleton: $\{\vec{0}\}.$

 $Q = \{\overrightarrow{x}_1, \dots, \overrightarrow{x}_k\}$ is a basis for X if:

- Q is linearly independent.
- span Q = X

As an example of a basis, for \mathbb{R}^n we define the standard basis as the set $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ where e_i is the vector whose ith element is 1 and whose other elements are 0. It is pretty trivial to check that this set is in fact a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

<u>Proposition</u>: If $B = \{ \overrightarrow{x}_1, \dots, \overrightarrow{x}_k \}$ is a basis of a vector space X, then:

1.
$$\forall \overrightarrow{v} \in X, c_1, \ldots, c_k \in \mathbb{R} \ s.t. \ \overrightarrow{v} = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \overrightarrow{x_i}$$

This is true because $X=\operatorname{span} B.$ So by definition of a span, \overrightarrow{v} can be expressed as a linear combination of the vectors of B.

2. The c_i such that $\overrightarrow{v} = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \, \overrightarrow{x}_i$ are unique.

Suppose that $\overrightarrow{v} = \sum c_i \overrightarrow{x}_i = \sum \alpha_i \overrightarrow{x}_i$. Then $\overrightarrow{0} = \sum (c_i - \alpha_i) \overrightarrow{x}_i$. Then since $\{\overrightarrow{x}_1, \ldots, \overrightarrow{x}_k\}$ are linearly independent, we know for all i that $c_i - \alpha_i = 0$. Hence, $c_i = \alpha_i$ for each i.

Theorem 9.2: Let $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. If $X = \operatorname{span}\{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k\}$, then $\dim(X) \leq k$.

Proof:

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists a linearly independent set $Q = \{ \overrightarrow{y}_1, \dots, \overrightarrow{y}_{k+1} \} \subset X$ which spans X. Then, define $S_0 = \{ \overrightarrow{x}_1, \dots, \overrightarrow{x}_k \}$ and note that S_0 spans X.

Now by induction, assume for $i \in \{0,1,\ldots,k-1\}$, that S_i contains the first i vectors of Q in addition to k-i vectors of S_0 , and that $\operatorname{span} S_i = X$. Then since S_i spans X, we know that $y_{i+1} \in X$ is in the span of S_i . So, letting $\overrightarrow{x}_{n_1},\ldots,\overrightarrow{x}_{n_{k-i}}$ be the elements from S_0 in S_i , we know that there exists scalars $a_1,\ldots,a_{i+1},b_1,\ldots,b_{k-i}\in\mathbb{R}$ where $a_{i+1}=1$ such that:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{i+1} a_j \, \overrightarrow{y}_j + \sum_{j=1}^{k-i} b_j \, \overrightarrow{x}_{n_j} = \, \overrightarrow{0}$$

If all $b_j=0$, then we have a contradiction. This is because $\{\vec{y}_1,\ldots,\vec{y}_{k+1}\}$ is assumed to be linearly independent. So, having all $b_j=0$ implies that:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{i+1} a_j \, \vec{y}_j = \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} a_j \, \vec{y}_j + \sum_{j=i+2}^{k+1} 0 \cdot \, \vec{y}_j = \, \vec{0}$$

In turn this means that all $a_j=0$, which contradicts that $a_{i+1}=1$.

So, not all $b_j=0$. This means that for some j we must have that \overrightarrow{x}_{n_j} is in the span of $(S_i\setminus\{\overrightarrow{x}_{n_j}\})\cup\{\overrightarrow{y}_{i+1}\}$. Call this set S_{i+1} . Clearly, S_{i+1} contains the first i+1 vectors of Q. Also:

$$\operatorname{span} S_{i+1} = \operatorname{span} (S_i \cup \{ \overrightarrow{y}_{i+1} \}) = \operatorname{span} S_i = X.$$

So S_{i+1} satisfies the same conditions S_i did.

Now we get to the contradiction. Using the above reasoning, we will eventually construct $S_k = \{ \overrightarrow{y}_1, \dots, \overrightarrow{y}_k \}$ which still spans X. However, since $\overrightarrow{y}_{k+1} \in X$, that means that \overrightarrow{y}_{k+1} equals some linear combination of the other \overrightarrow{y} in Q. This contradicts that Q is linearly independent. \blacksquare

Corollary: If $B = \{ \vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_k \}$ is a basis for X, then $\dim(X) = k$.

Proof:

Since B is linearly independent, by definition $\dim(X) \geq k$. Meanwhile, since B spans X, we know by the above theorem that $\dim(X) \leq k$. So $\dim(X) = k$.

Theorem 9.3: Suppose X is a vector space and dim(X) = n. Then:

(A) For $E=\{\overrightarrow{x}_1,\ldots,\overrightarrow{x}_n\}\subset X$, we have that $X=\operatorname{span} E$ implies that E is linearly independent.

Proof:

First, assume E is linearly independent. Then, note that for any $\overrightarrow{y} \in X$, we must have that $E \cup \{\overrightarrow{y}\}$ is linearly dependent because $|E \cup \{\overrightarrow{y}\}| > \dim(X)$. So, there exists $c_1, \ldots, c_n, c_{n+1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that at least one c_i is nonzero and:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \, \overrightarrow{x}_i + c_{n+1} \, \overrightarrow{y} = \, \overrightarrow{0}$$

Now if $c_{n+1}=0$, we have a contradiction because E is linearly independent. So, we conclude that $c_{n+1}\neq 0$. Thus, by rearranging terms we can express y as a linear combination of the vectors of E. Therefore, $\operatorname{span} E=X$ since y can be any vector in X.

Secondly, assume E is not linearly independent. Then for some $\overrightarrow{x}_i \in E$, we have that $\operatorname{span} E = \operatorname{span}(E \setminus \{\overrightarrow{x}_i\})$. However, $|E \setminus \{\overrightarrow{x}_i\}| = n-1$. So if $X = \operatorname{span} E$, then $\dim(X) \leq |E \setminus \{\overrightarrow{x}_i\}| = n-1$, which contradicts our assumption that $\dim(X) = n$. Hence, $X \neq \operatorname{span} E$.

(B) X has a basis and every basis of X consists of n vectors.

Proof:

By the definition of $\dim(X)$, we know that there exists a linearly independent set of n vectors. By the previous part of this theorem, we also know that that set spans X. So, it is a basis of X. Meanwhile, by the corollary to theorem 9.2, we know that the number of vectors in a basis of X equals the dimension of X. Hence, all bases of X must have n vectors.

(C) If $1 \leq m \leq n$ and $\{\overrightarrow{y}_1, \ldots, \overrightarrow{y}_m\} \subset X$ is linearly independent, then X has a basis that contains $\overrightarrow{y}_1, \ldots, \overrightarrow{y}_m$.

Proof:

Let $S_0 = \{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_n\}$ be a basis of X and $Q = \{\vec{y}_1, \dots, \vec{y}_m\}$. Then by the same induction which we used to prove theorem 9.2, we can construct a basis: S_m , of X which contains $\vec{y}_1, \dots, \vec{y}_m$.

Let X and Y be vector spaces. A map $\mathbf{A}: X \longrightarrow Y$ is <u>linear</u> if $\mathbf{A}(c_1 \overrightarrow{x}_1 + c_2 \overrightarrow{x}_2) = c_1 \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) + c_2 \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_2)$ for all $\overrightarrow{x}_1, \overrightarrow{x}_2 \in X$ and $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Observations:

1. A linear map sends $\vec{0}$ to $\vec{0}$. This is because:

$$\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{0}) = \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{v} - \overrightarrow{v}) = \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{v}) - \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{v}) = \overrightarrow{0}.$$

2. If $\mathbf{A}: X \longrightarrow Y$ is a linear map and $B = \{\overrightarrow{x}_1, \dots, \overrightarrow{x}_k\}$ is a basis of X, then $\mathbf{A}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k (c_i \overrightarrow{x}_i)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_i)$ for all $c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$.

Given two vector spaces X and Y, we define L(X,Y) to be the set of all linear transformations from X into Y. Also, we shall abbreviate L(X,X) as L(X).

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{"null space of } \mathbf{A} = \{ \overrightarrow{x} \in X \mid \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}) = \overrightarrow{0} \}.$$

$$\mathscr{R}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{"range of } \mathbf{A} \text{"} = \{\, \overrightarrow{y} \in Y \mid \exists\, \overrightarrow{x} \in X \ \ s.t. \ \ \mathbf{A}\, \overrightarrow{x} = \, \overrightarrow{y} \,\}.$$

<u>Proposition</u>: For any linear map $\mathbf{A}: X \longrightarrow Y$, $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ and $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ are vector spaces.

Proof:

- Assume $\overrightarrow{x}_1, \overrightarrow{x}_2 \in \mathscr{N}(\mathbf{A}) \subset X$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:
 - $\circ \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1 + \overrightarrow{x}_2) = \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) + \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_2) = \overrightarrow{0} + \overrightarrow{0} = \overrightarrow{0}, \text{ which means that } \overrightarrow{x}_1 + \overrightarrow{x}_2 \in \mathscr{N}(\mathbf{A}).$
 - $\circ \mathbf{A}(c\overrightarrow{x}_1) = c\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) = c\overrightarrow{0} = \overrightarrow{0}. \text{ So } c\overrightarrow{x}_1 \in \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}).$

This shows that $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ is a vector space.

- Assume $\vec{y}_1, \vec{y}_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A}) \subset Y$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:
 - \circ We know there exists $\overrightarrow{x}_1, \overrightarrow{x}_2 \in X$ such that $\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) = \overrightarrow{y}_1$ and $\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_2) = \overrightarrow{y}_2$. In turn, $\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1 + \overrightarrow{x}_2) = \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) + \mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_2) = \overrightarrow{y}_1 + \overrightarrow{y}_2$. So $\overrightarrow{y}_1 + \overrightarrow{y}_2 \in \mathscr{R}(\mathbf{A})$.
 - \circ Now continue letting $\overrightarrow{x}_1 \in X$ be a vector such that $\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) = \overrightarrow{y}_1$. Then $\mathbf{A}(c\overrightarrow{x}_1) = c\mathbf{A}(\overrightarrow{x}_1) = c\overrightarrow{y}_1$. So $c\overrightarrow{y}_1 \in \mathscr{R}(\mathbf{A})$.

This shows that $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$ is a vector space.

$$\operatorname{rk}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{"rank of } \mathbf{A} \text{"} = \dim(\mathscr{R}(\mathbf{A})).$$

$$\operatorname{null}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{"nullity of } \mathbf{A} \text{"} = \dim(\mathscr{N}(\mathbf{A})).$$

Rank-Nullity Theorem: Given any $\mathbf{A} \in L(X,Y)$, we have that $\dim(X) = \mathrm{rk}(\mathbf{A}) + \mathrm{null}(\mathbf{A})$.

Proof: