

Course 3

Vector spaces, subspaces



Prof. dr. Septimiu Crivei

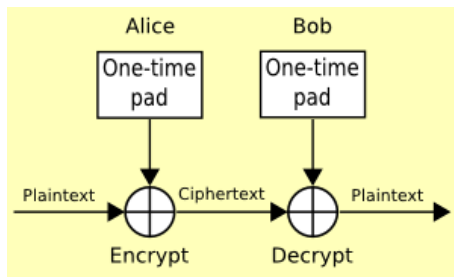
Chapter 2. Vector Spaces

1 Basic properties

2 Subspaces

Application: Vernam cipher

Following [Klein], we describe an easy, but secure cipher on binary strings, based on vector spaces over \mathbb{Z}_2 .



Throughout the present chapter K will always denote a field.

Definition

A *vector space over K* (or a *K -vector space*) is an abelian group $(V, +)$ together with a so-called *external operation* or *scalar multiplication*

$$\cdot : K \times V \rightarrow V, \quad (k, v) \mapsto k \cdot v \quad (\text{or simply } kv),$$

satisfying the following axioms:

$$(L_1) \quad k \cdot (v_1 + v_2) = k \cdot v_1 + k \cdot v_2;$$

$$(L_2) \quad (k_1 + k_2) \cdot v = k_1 \cdot v + k_2 \cdot v;$$

$$(L_3) \quad (k_1 \cdot k_2) \cdot v = k_1 \cdot (k_2 \cdot v);$$

$$(L_4) \quad 1 \cdot v = v,$$

for every $k, k_1, k_2 \in K$ and every $v, v_1, v_2 \in V$.

The elements of K are called *scalars* and the elements of V are called *vectors*.

Sometimes a vector space is also called a *linear space*.

We usually denote a vector space V over K by ${}_K V$ or $(V, K, +, \cdot)$.

(1) In the definition of a vector space there are present four operations (3 by our definition), two denoted by the same symbol “+” and two denoted by the same symbol “ \cdot ”. Of course, they are not the same, but we use the convention to denote them identically for the sake of simplicity of writing.

(2) The axioms (L_1) and (L_2) look like some distributive laws and the axiom (L_3) looks like an associative law, but they are not, since the involved elements are not taken from the same set.

(3) We have defined a *left vector space*. It is also possible to define a *right vector space* by considering an external operation

$$\cdot : V \times K \rightarrow V, \quad (v, k) \mapsto v \cdot k,$$

satisfying some similar axioms, but on the right hand side.

Examples I

(a) Let V_2 be the set of all vectors (in the classical sense) in the plane with a fixed origin O . Then V_2 is a vector space over \mathbb{R} (or a *real vector space*), where the addition is the usual addition of two vectors by the parallelogram rule and the external operation is the usual scalar multiplication of vectors by real scalars.

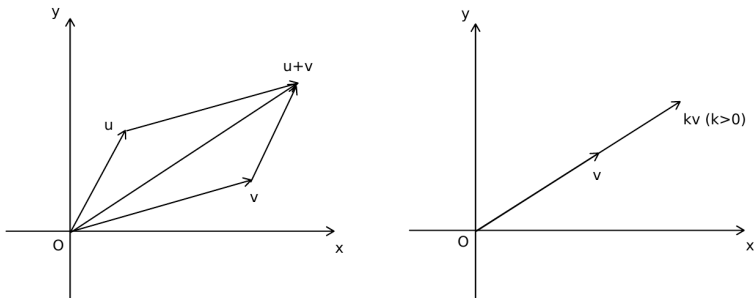


Figure: Vector addition and scalar multiplication.

Examples II

If we consider two coordinate axes Ox and Oy in the plane, each vector in V_2 is perfectly determined by the coordinates of its ending point. Therefore, the addition of vectors and the scalar multiplication of vectors by real numbers become:

$$\begin{aligned}(x, y) + (x', y') &= (x + x', y + y'), \\ k \cdot (x, y) &= (k \cdot x, k \cdot y),\end{aligned}$$

$\forall k \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\forall (x, y), (x', y') \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$. Thus, $(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space.

Similarly, one can consider the real vector space V_3 of all vectors in the space with a fixed origin. Moreover, a further, but more algebraical, generalization is possible, as we may see in the following example.

(b) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Define

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) &= (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n), \\ k \cdot (x_1, \dots, x_n) &= (kx_1, \dots, kx_n),\end{aligned}$$

$\forall (x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in K^n$ and $\forall k \in K$. Then $(K^n, K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, called the *canonical vector space* (or *standard vector space*) over K .

For $K = \mathbb{Z}_2$, \mathbb{Z}_2^n is a vector space over \mathbb{Z}_2 . For $n = 1$, ${}_K K$ is a vector space. Hence ${}_Q \mathbb{Q}$, ${}_R \mathbb{R}$ and ${}_C \mathbb{C}$ are vector spaces.

(c) If $V = \{e\}$ is a single element set, then we know that there is a unique structure of an abelian group for V , namely that one defined by $e + e = e$. Then we can define a unique scalar multiplication, namely $k \cdot e = e$, $\forall k \in K$. Thus, V is a vector space, called the *zero (null) vector space* and denoted by $\{0\}$.

Examples IV

(d) If A is a subfield of the field K , then K is a vector space over A , where the addition and the scalar multiplication are just the addition and the multiplication of elements in the field K .

In particular, ${}_{\mathbb{Q}}\mathbb{R}$, ${}_{\mathbb{Q}}\mathbb{C}$ and ${}_{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{C}$ are vector spaces. Note that \mathbb{R} may be viewed as a vector space over \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{R} , while \mathbb{C} may be viewed as a vector space over any of the fields \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

(e) $(K[X], K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, where the addition is the usual addition of polynomials and the scalar multiplication is defined as follows: $\forall f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in K[X], \forall k \in K$,

$$kf = (ka_0) + (ka_1)X + \cdots + (ka_n)X^n.$$

(f) Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $m, n \geq 2$. Then $(M_{m,n}(K), K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, where the operations are the usual addition and scalar multiplication of matrices.

(g) Let A be a non-empty set. Denote

$$K^A = \{f \mid f : A \rightarrow K\}.$$

Then $(K^A, K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, where the addition and the scalar multiplication are defined as follows: $\forall f, g \in K^A, \forall k \in K$, we have $f + g \in K^A, kf \in K^A$, where

$$\begin{aligned}(f + g)(x) &= f(x) + g(x), \\ (kf)(x) &= kf(x)\end{aligned}$$

$\forall x \in A$. As a particular case, we obtain the vector space $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}, \mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ of real functions of a real variable.

(h) Let V and V' be K -vector spaces. Then the cartesian product $V \times V'$ is a K -vector space, called the *direct product* of V and V' , where the addition and the scalar multiplication are defined by:

$$\begin{aligned}(v_1, v'_1) + (v_2, v'_2) &= (v_1 + v_2, v'_1 + v'_2), \\ k(v_1, v'_1) &= (kv_1, kv'_1)\end{aligned}$$

$\forall (v_1, v'_1), (v_2, v'_2) \in V \times V'$ and $\forall k \in K$.

(i) We have seen that $V = K \times K$ has a canonical structure of vector space over K . Let us now see what happens if we change the addition or the scalar multiplication.

Let us first define them as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) &= (x_1 + x_2, 2y_1 + 2y_2), \\ k \cdot (x_1, y_1) &= (kx_1, ky_1)\end{aligned}$$

Examples VII

$\forall (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in V$ and $\forall k \in K$. Then V is still a vector space over K , with a different structure of vector space than the canonical one.

Now let us define them as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) &= (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2), \\ k \cdot (x_1, y_1) &= (kx_1, y_1)\end{aligned}$$

$\forall (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in V$ and $\forall k \in K$. In general, they do not define a structure of vector space for V over K , because the axiom (L_2) does not hold.

For instance, for $K = \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$(1+2) \cdot (3, 4) = 3 \cdot (3, 4) = (9, 4) \neq (9, 8) = (3, 4) + (6, 4) = 1 \cdot (3, 4) + 2 \cdot (3, 4).$$

We denote by 0 both the zero scalar and the zero vector.

Theorem

Let V be a vector space over K . Then $\forall k, k' \in K$ and $\forall v, v' \in V$:

- (i) $k \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot v = 0$.*
- (ii) $k(-v) = (-k)v = -kv$.*
- (iii) $k(v - v') = kv - kv'$.*
- (iv) $(k - k')v = kv - k'v$.*

Proof. [...]

Theorem

Let V be a vector space over K and let $k \in K$ and $v \in V$. Then:

$$kv = 0 \iff k = 0 \text{ or } v = 0.$$

Proof. [...]

Definition

Let V be a vector space over K and let $S \subseteq V$. Then S is a *subspace* of V if:

- (i) $S \neq \emptyset$.
- (ii) $\forall v_1, v_2 \in S, v_1 + v_2 \in S$.
- (iii) $\forall k \in K, \forall v \in S, kv \in S$.

We usually denote by $S \leq_K V$, or simply by $S \leq V$, the fact that S is a subspace of the vector space V over K .

Notice that every subspace S of a vector space V over K is a subgroup of the additive group $(V, +)$, hence S must contain 0.

Theorem

Let V be a vector space over K and let $S \subseteq V$. Then

$$S \leq V \iff \begin{cases} S \neq \emptyset & (0 \in S) \\ \forall k_1, k_2 \in K, \forall v_1, v_2 \in S, k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 \in S. \end{cases}$$

Proof. [...]

Examples I

(a) Every non-zero vector space V over K has two subspaces, namely $\{0\}$ and V . They are called the *trivial subspaces*.

(b) Let us show that

$$S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x + y + z = 0\},$$

$$T = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x = y = z\}.$$

are subspaces of the canonical real vector space \mathbb{R}^3 [...].

Note that S is a plane passing through the origin. For instance, the plane

$$\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x + y + z = 1\}$$

is not a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 over \mathbb{R} .

Note that T is a line passing through the origin.

(c) More generally, the only subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 are $\{(0, 0, 0)\}$, any line containing the origin, any plane containing the origin and \mathbb{R}^3 .

Examples II

(d) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let

$$K_n[X] = \{f \in K[X] \mid \text{degree}(f) \leq n\}.$$

Then $K_n[X]$ is a subspace of the polynomial vector space $K[X]$ over K . Note that the set $\{f \in K[X] \mid \text{degree}(f) = n\}$ is not a subspace of $K[X]$ over K .

(e) Let $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an interval. We have seen that

$$\mathbb{R}^I = \{f \mid f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$$

is a real vector space, where the addition and the scalar multiplication are defined as follows: $\forall f, g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \forall k \in K$, we have $f + g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, kf : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where

$$\begin{aligned}(f + g)(x) &= f(x) + g(x), \\ (kf)(x) &= kf(x), \forall x \in I.\end{aligned}$$

The subsets

$$C(I, \mathbb{R}) = \{f \in \mathbb{R}^I \mid f \text{ continuous on } I\},$$

$$D(I, \mathbb{R}) = \{f \in \mathbb{R}^I \mid f \text{ derivable on } I\}$$

are subspaces of \mathbb{R}^I , because they are nonempty and we have:

$$\forall k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall f, g \in C(I, \mathbb{R}), \quad k_1 f + k_2 g \in C(I, \mathbb{R}),$$

$$\forall k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall f, g \in D(I, \mathbb{R}), \quad k_1 f + k_2 g \in D(I, \mathbb{R}).$$

Extra: Vernam cipher I

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and consider the canonical vector space $V = \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ over \mathbb{Z}_2 . The vectors of V may be identified with n -bit binary strings.

Suppose that Alice needs to send an n -bit plaintext $p \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ to Bob.

Vernam cipher:

- 1 (Key establishment) Alice and Bob randomly choose a vector $k \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ as a key.
- 2 (Encryption) Alice computes the ciphertext c according to the formula $c = p + k$, where the sum is a vector in \mathbb{Z}_2^n .
- 3 (Decryption) Bob computes the plaintext p according to the formula $p = c - k = c + k$, where the sum is a vector in \mathbb{Z}_2^n .

The system satisfies perfect secrecy, but the key k must be distributed in advance.

Example

Alice wants to send to Bob the message

$$p = (0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$

Alice and Bob agree on the following vector as the key

$$k = (0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$

Alice encrypts the message by computing the ciphertext c as:

$$c = p + k = (0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$

Bob decrypts the message by computing the plaintext p as:

$$p = c + k = (0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$