

Lecture 2 — Notes (simple terms + examples)

1) What is a Vector Space? (intuition first)

A vector space is a set of “things” (vectors) where you can:

- Add two vectors and still stay in the set.
- Scale a vector by any real number and still stay in the set.

Think of usual vectors in \mathbb{R}^n (like (x,y,z)), but they can also be matrices, polynomials, etc., as long as the rules below hold.

Rules that must hold (over \mathbb{R}):

- Addition behaves nicely: commutative, associative; there's a zero vector; every vector has an additive inverse.
- Scaling (multiplying by a real number) behaves nicely:
- Distributive over vector addition: $\lambda(x+y) = \lambda x + \lambda y$
- Distributive over scalar addition: $(\lambda + \mu)x = \lambda x + \mu x$
- Associative with scalars: $\lambda(\mu x) = (\lambda\mu)x$
- Identity: $1 \cdot x = x$

Examples:

- \mathbb{R}^n with usual addition and scaling.
- $\mathbb{R}^{(m \times n)}$ (all $m \times n$ real matrices) with elementwise addition and scalar multiplication.

2) Subspaces (how to test quickly)

A subspace U of a vector space V is a subset that is itself a vector space under the same operations.

Quick 2-step test (over \mathbb{R}):

- U is nonempty and contains 0 (usually implied by step 2).
- Closed under addition and scaling:

If $u, v \in U$ then $u+v \in U$; if $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\lambda u \in U$.

Good examples:

- y -axis in \mathbb{R}^2 : $\{(0,y) : y \in \mathbb{R}\} \rightarrow$ closed under $+$ and scaling \Rightarrow subspace.
- Nullspace of a matrix A : $\{x : Ax = 0\} \Rightarrow$ always a subspace.

Not a subspace:

- The vertical line $x=1$: scaling $(1,2)$ by 2 gives $(2,4)$ (not on $x=1$). Fails closure.

3) Linear Combination & Linear Independence (why it matters)

- A linear combination of x_1, \dots, x_k is $\lambda_1 x_1 + \dots + \lambda_k x_k$.
- Vectors x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly independent if the only way to make the zero vector is with all coefficients zero:

$$\lambda_1 x_1 + \dots + \lambda_k x_k = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_k = 0.$$

If there is any non-trivial solution, they're dependent.

Mini-examples:

- In \mathbb{R}^2 , $(1,2)$ and $(2,4)$ are dependent because $(2,4)=2(1,2)$.
- In \mathbb{R}^2 , $(1,2)$ and $(2,3)$ are independent (no scalar makes one a multiple of the other).

Practical test (matrices):

- Put the vectors as columns of a matrix and perform Gaussian elimination.
- If every column becomes a pivot column (has a leading 1 in RREF), they're independent.
- If some column is non-pivot, it can be written from earlier pivot columns \rightarrow dependence.

Quick determinant test (square case):

- For n vectors in \mathbb{R}^n : Put them as columns of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{(n \times n)}$.
- If $\det(A) \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ columns are independent. If $\det(A) = 0 \Rightarrow$ dependent.

4) Span, Basis, and Dimension

- $\text{Span}[x_1, \dots, x_k]$: all linear combinations of those vectors.
- A basis of a space V is a linearly independent set that spans V .
- Dimension $\dim(V)$: number of vectors in any basis of V (well-defined).

Examples:

- In \mathbb{R}^3 , the standard basis is $e_1=(1,0,0)$, $e_2=(0,1,0)$, $e_3=(0,0,1)$.
 $\dim(\mathbb{R}^3)=3$.
- If $U=\text{span}\{(1,0,0), (1,1,0)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, then $\dim(U)=2$. A basis is $\{(1,0,0), (1,1,0)\}$ (they're independent).

How to find a basis from a spanning set:

- Put spanning vectors as columns of a matrix A .
- Row-reduce to RREF.
- Columns of the original A that correspond to pivot columns in RREF form a basis of the span.

5) Determinant (only what you need + Sarrus' Rule)

Determinant tells you volume scaling and invertibility:

- $\det(A) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow A$ invertible \Leftrightarrow columns are independent \Leftrightarrow unique solution to $Ax = b$.

Row operations effect:

- Swap two rows \rightarrow multiply det by -1 .
- Multiply a row by $\lambda \rightarrow$ det scales by λ .
- Add multiple of one row to another \rightarrow det unchanged.

(5A) Sarrus' Rule (only for 3×3):

For $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$,

$$\det(A) = (a \cdot e \cdot i + b \cdot f \cdot g + c \cdot d \cdot h) - (c \cdot e \cdot g + a \cdot f \cdot h + b \cdot d \cdot i).$$

Worked example (Sarrus):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Down-right sum: } 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 + 3 \cdot 0 \cdot 6 = 0 + 40 + 0 = 40$$

$$\text{Up-right sum: } 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 5 + 1 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 + 2 \cdot 0 \cdot 0 = 15 + 24 + 0 = 39$$

$$\det(A) = 40 - 39 = 1 \text{ (non-zero } \Rightarrow \text{ columns are independent).}$$

(5B) 2×2 determinant & inverse (recall):

For $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$:

- $\det(A) = a \cdot d - b \cdot c$
- If $\det(A) \neq 0$ then $A^{-1} = (1/(a \cdot d - b \cdot c)) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$

6) Nullspace (kernel) — example

The nullspace $N(A) = \{ x : A x = 0 \}$ is always a subspace.

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x = [x_1, x_2, x_3]^T$$

Equations:

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

$$2x_1 + 4x_2 + 6x_3 = 0 \text{ (same constraint)}$$

Let $x_2 = s$, $x_3 = t$. Then $x_1 = -2s - 3t$.

$$N(A) = \{ [-2s-3t, s, t]^T : s, t \in \mathbb{R} \} = \text{span}\{ [-2, 1, 0]^T, [-3, 0, 1]^T \} \text{ (2D).}$$