

Dilla University

Department of Mathematics

Advanced Linear Algebra Lecture Note

by

Dereje Kifle (Dr.)

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Chapter 1

Vector Spaces

1.1 Vector Spaces

Definition 1.1.1. Let F be a field. A *vector space* over F is a nonempty set V together with two operations:

- addition: assigns to each pair $(u, v) \in V \times V$ a vector $u + v \in V$.
- scalar multiplication: assigns to each pair $(r, u) \in F \times V$ a vector ru in V .

Furthermore, the following properties must be satisfied:

- *Associativity of addition:* For all vectors $u, v, w \in V$, $u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w$.
- *Commutativity of addition:* For all vectors $u, v \in V$, $u + v = v + u$.
- *Existence of zero:* There is a zero vector $0 \in V$ with the property that $0 + u = u + 0 = u$ for all vectors $u \in V$.
- *Existence of additive inverses:* For each vector $u \in V$, there is a vector in V , denoted by $-u$, with the property that $u + (-u) = (-u) + u = 0$.
- *Properties of scalar multiplication:* For all scalars $a, b \in F$ and for all vectors $u, v \in V$,

$$a(u + v) = au + av$$

$$(a + b)u = au + bu$$

$$(ab)u = a(bu)$$

$$1u = u$$

In the above definition

- Elements of F (resp. V) are referred to as *scalars* (resp. *vectors*).
- The first four properties are equivalent to $(V, +)$ is an abelian group.
- V is sometimes called an F -space.
- If $F = \mathbb{R}$ (resp. \mathbb{C}), then V is a *real* (resp. *complex*) vector space.

1.2 Examples of a vector space

- 1) Let F be a field. The set V_F of all functions from F to F is a vector space over F , under the operations of ordinary addition and scalar multiplication of functions:

$$(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x), \text{ and } (af)(x) = a(f(x)).$$

- 2) The set $M_{m \times n}(F)$ of all $m \times n$ matrices with entries in a field F is a vector space over F , under the operations of matrix addition and scalar multiplication.
- 3) $\mathbb{R}^n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is an n -dimensional vector space. The vector (a_1, \dots, a_n) is called an n -tuple.
- 4) $\mathbb{C}^n = \{(c_1, \dots, c_n) \mid c_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is an n -dimensional vector space.
- 5) The set

$$P_n = \{f = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x^i \mid a_i \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \deg f \leq n\}$$

of all polynomials (with coefficients in \mathbb{R}) of degree at most n is an \mathbb{R} -vector space.

1.3 Subspaces, Linear combinations and Generators

Most algebraic structures contain substructures.

Definition 1.3.1. A *subspace* of a vector space V is a subset S of V that is a vector space in its own right under the operations obtained by restricting the operations of V to S . To indicate that S is a subspace of V , we use the notation $S \leq V$. If S is a subspace of V but $S \neq V$, we say that S is a proper subspace of V and it is denoted by $S < V$. The zero subspace of V is $\{0\}$.

Definition 1.3.2. Let S be a nonempty subset of a vector space V . A *linear combination* (L.C) of vectors in S is an expression of the form

$$a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$$

where $v_1 \dots v_n \in S$ and $a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$. The scalars a_i are called the *coefficients* of the linear combination. A L.C is trivial if every coefficient a_i is zero. Otherwise, it is non trivial.

Theorem 1.3.3. *A non-empty subset S of a vector space V is a subspace of V if and only if S is closed under addition and scalar multiplication or equivalently, S is closed under linear combinations, that is,*

$$a, b \in F, u, v \in S \implies au + bv \in S.$$

Example 1.3.4. Consider the vector space $V(n, 2)$ of all binary n -tuples, that is, n -tuples of 0's and 1's. The weight $\mathcal{W}(v)$ of a vector $v \in V(n, 2)$ is the number of non-zero coordinates in v . Let E_n be the set of all vectors in $V(n, 2)$ of even weight. Then $E_n \leq V(n, 2)$.

Proof. For vectors $u, v \in V(n, 2)$, show that

$$\mathcal{W}(u + v) = \mathcal{W}(u) + \mathcal{W}(v) - 2\mathcal{W}(u \cap v) \quad (1.1)$$

where $u \cap v$ is the vector in $V(n, 2)$ whose i^{th} component is the product of the i^{th} components of u and v , that is, $(u \cap v)_i = u_i \cdot v_i$. Let u and v be elements of E_n . Then by definition $\mathcal{W}(u)$ and $\mathcal{W}(v)$ are even which by (1.1) implies $\mathcal{W}(u + v)$ is even, that is, $u + v \in E_n$. Let $a \in \mathbb{F}_2$ and let $u \in E_n$. Clearly, $\mathcal{W}(au)$ is even which implies $au \in E_n$. Thus $E_n \leq V(n, 2)$, known as the even weight subspace of $V(n, 2)$. \square

Example 1.3.5. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^3$.

- i) The subset $U = \{(a, b, 0) \in V \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ of V is a subspace of V .
- ii) The subset $W = \{au + bv \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } u, v \in V\}$ of V is a subspace of V .

Definition 1.3.6. The subspace *spanned (or generated)* by a nonempty set S of vectors in V is the set of all linear combinations of vectors from S :

$$\langle S \rangle = \text{Span}(S) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n r_i v_i \mid r_i \in F, v_i \in S \right\}.$$

When $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a finite set, we use the notation $\langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$ or $\text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$. A set S of vectors in V is said to be span V , or generates V , if $V = \text{Span}(S)$.

Any superset of a spanning set is also a spanning set and all vector spaces have spanning set since V spans itself.

1.4 Linear Dependence and Independence of Vectors

Definition 1.4.1. Let V be a vector space. A nonempty set S of vectors in V is linearly independent (L.I) if for any distinct vectors s_1, \dots, s_n in S

$$a_1 s_1 + \dots + a_n s_n = 0 \Rightarrow a_i = 0 \text{ for all } i.$$

In other words, S is L.I if the only L.C of vectors from S that is equal to 0 is the trivial L.C, all of whose coefficients are 0. If S is not L.I, it is said to be linearly dependent (L.D).

A L.I set of vectors cannot contain the zero vector, since $1 \cdot 0 = 0$ violates the condition of linear independence.

Definition 1.4.2. Let S be a nonempty set of vectors in V . To say that a nonzero vector $v \in V$ is an *essentially unique L.C* of the vectors in S is to say that, up to the order of terms, there is one and only one way to express v as a L.C $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i s_i$ where the s_i 's are distinct vectors in S and the coefficients a_i are nonzero. More explicitly, $v \neq 0$ is an essentially unique L.C of vectors in S if $v \in \langle S \rangle$ and if whenever

$$v = a_1 s_1 + \dots + a_n s_n \text{ and } v = b_1 t_1 + \dots + b_m t_m$$

where the s_i 's are distinct and t_i 's are distinct and all coefficients are nonzero, then $m = n$ and after a reindexing of the $b_i t_i$'s if necessary, we have $a_i = b_i$ and $s_i = t_i$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Theorem 1.4.3. Let $S \neq \{0\}$ be a nonempty set of vectors in V . The following are equivalent:

- (a) S is L.I.
- (b) Every nonzero vector $v \in \text{span}(S)$ is an essentially unique L.C of the vectors in S .
- (c) No vector in S is a L.C of other vectors in S .

Proof. (a) \Rightarrow (b) Suppose that

$$0 \neq v = a_1 s_1 + \dots + a_n s_n \text{ and } v = b_1 t_1 + \dots + b_m t_m$$

where the s_i 's are distinct and t_i 's are distinct and the coefficients are nonzero. By subtracting and grouping s 's and t 's that are equal, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (a_{i_1} - b_{i_1}) s_{i_1} + \dots + (a_{i_k} - b_{i_k}) s_{i_k} \\ &\quad + a_{i_{k+1}} s_{i_{k+1}} + \dots + a_{i_n} s_{i_n} - b_{i_{k+1}} t_{i_{k+1}} - \dots - b_{i_m} t_{i_m} \end{aligned}$$

(a) $\Rightarrow m = n = k$ and $a_{i_u} = b_{i_u}$ and $s_{i_u} = t_{i_u}$ for all $u = 1, \dots, k$.

(b) \Rightarrow (c) and (c) \Rightarrow (a) is left as an exercise. □

1.5 Direct sum and direct product of subspaces

Definition 1.5.1. Let V_1, \dots, V_n be vector spaces over a field F . The *external direct sum* of V_1, \dots, V_n , denoted by $V_1 \boxplus \dots \boxplus V_n$ is the vector space V whose elements are ordered n -tuples:

$$V = \{(v_1, \dots, v_n) \mid v_i \in V_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$$

with componentwise operations

$$\begin{aligned} (u_1, \dots, u_n) + (v_1, \dots, v_n) &= (u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_n + v_n) \text{ and} \\ r(u_1, \dots, u_n) &= (ru_1, \dots, ru_n) \quad \text{for all } r \in F. \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.5.2. The vector space F^n is the external direct sum of n copies of F , that is, $F^n = F \boxplus \dots \boxplus F$ where there are n summands on the right hand side.

The above construction can be generalized to any collection of vector spaces by generalizing the idea that an ordered n -tuple (v_1, \dots, v_n) is just a function

$$\begin{aligned} f : \{1, \dots, n\} &\rightarrow \bigcup V_i, \\ i &\mapsto f(i). \end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.5.3. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be any family of vector spaces over F . The *direct product* of \mathcal{F} is the vector space

$$\prod_{i \in I} V_i = \left\{ f : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i \mid f(i) \in V_i \right\}$$

thought of as a subspace of the vector space of all functions from I to $\bigcup V_i$.

Note that

$$\prod_{i \in I} V_i = \{v = (v_i)_{i \in I} \mid v_i \in V_i\} = \left\{ f : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i \mid f(i) \in V_i \right\}.$$

If we define addition and scalar multiplication by

$$\begin{aligned} v + w &= (f : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i) + (g : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i) \\ &= (f + g : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i) \text{ and} \\ av &= a(f : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i) \\ &= (af : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i) \end{aligned}$$

or by

$$(v_i)_{i \in I} + (w_i)_{i \in I} = (v_i + w_i)_{i \in I} \text{ and } a(v_i)_{i \in I} = (av_i)_{i \in I}$$

Then the direct product $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ is a vector space over F .

Definition 1.5.4. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be any family of vector spaces over F . The support of a function $f : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i$ is the set

$$\text{support}(f) = \{i \in I \mid f(i) \neq 0\}.$$

We say that f has *finite support* if $f(i) = 0$ for all but a finite number of $i \in I$.

Definition 1.5.5. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be any family of vector spaces over F . The *external direct sum* of the family \mathcal{F} is the vector space

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I}^{\text{ext}} V_i = \left\{ f : I \rightarrow \bigcup V_i \mid f(i) \in V_i, f \text{ has finite support} \right\}.$$

thought of as a subspace of the vector space of all functions from I to $\bigcup V_i$.

If $V_i = V$ for all $i \in I$,

- we denote the set of all functions from I to V by V^I , and
- we denote the set of all functions in V^I that have finite support by $(V^I)_0$.

In this case, we have

$$\prod_{i \in I} V = V^I \text{ and } \bigoplus_{i \in I}^{\text{ext}} V = (V^I)_0.$$

Definition 1.5.6. A vector space V is the *internal direct sum* of a family $\mathcal{F} = \{S_i \mid i \in I\}$ of subspaces of V , written

$$V = \bigoplus \mathcal{F} \text{ or } V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i$$

if the following hold:

- (1) (*Join of the family*) V is the sum (join) of the family $V = \sum_{i \in I} S_i$
- (2) (*Independence of the family*) For each $i \in I$,

$$S_i \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq i} S_j \right) = \{0\}.$$

In this case,

- each S_i is called a *direct summand* of V .
- if $\mathcal{F} = \{S_1, \dots, S_n\}$ is a finite family, the direct sum is often written $V = S_1 \oplus \dots \oplus S_n$.
- if $V = S \oplus T$, then T is called a *complement* of S in V .

If S and T are subspaces of V , then we may always say that the sum $S + T$ exists. However, to say that the direct sum of S and T exists or to write $S \oplus T$ is to imply that $S \cap T = \{0\}$. Thus, while the sum of two subspaces always exists, the direct sum of two subspaces does not always exist. Similar statements apply to families of subspaces of V .

Theorem 1.5.7. *Let $\mathcal{F} = \{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be any family of vector spaces over F . The following are equivalent:*

(1) (Independence of the family) *For each $i \in I$,*

$$S_i \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq i} S_j \right) = \{0\}.$$

(2) (Uniqueness of expression for 0) *The zero vector cannot be written as a sum of nonzero vectors from distinct subspaces of \mathcal{F} .*

(3) (Uniqueness of expression) *Every nonzero vector $v \in V$ has a unique, except for order of terms, expression as a sum*

$$v = s_1 + \dots + s_n$$

of nonzero vectors from distinct subspaces in \mathcal{F} .

Hence, a sum

$$V = \sum_{i \in I} S_i$$

is direct if and only if any one of (1)-(3) holds.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) Suppose that (2) fails, that is,

$$0 = s_{j_1} + \dots + s_{j_n}$$

where the nonzero vectors s_{j_i} 's are from distinct subspaces of S_{j_i} . Then $n > 1$ and, hence,

$$-s_{j_1} = s_{j_2} + \dots + s_{j_n}$$

which violates (1).

(2) \Rightarrow (3) If (2) holds and

$$v = s_1 + \dots + s_n = t_1 + \dots + t_n$$

where the terms are nonzero and both the s_i 's and the t_i 's belong to distinct subspaces in \mathcal{F} . Then

$$0 = s_1 + \dots + s_n - t_1 - \dots - t_n.$$

Now, by collecting terms from the same subspaces, we may write

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (s_{i_1} - t_{i_1}) + \dots + (s_{i_k} - t_{i_k}) \\ &\quad + s_{i_{k+1}} + \dots + s_{i_n} - t_{i_{k+1}} - \dots - t_{i_m}. \end{aligned}$$

Then (2) implies that $m = n = k$ and $s_{i_u} = t_{i_u}$ for all $u = 1, \dots, k$.

(3) \Rightarrow (1)

$$0 \neq v \in S_i \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq i} S_j \right) \Rightarrow v = s_i \in S_i \text{ and } s_i = s_{j_1} + \dots + s_{j_n}$$

where $s_{j_k} \in S_{j_k}$ are nonzero which violates (3). \square

Example 1.5.8. Let $A = \{(x, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and let $B = \{(0, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Then $\mathbb{R}^2 = A \oplus B$ since $A \cap B = \{0\}$ and $\mathbb{R}^2 = A + B$. Any element (x, y) of \mathbb{R}^2 can be written as

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

Proposition 1.5.9. Suppose U and W are subspaces of the vector space V over a field F . Consider the map

$$\alpha : U \oplus W \rightarrow V$$

defined by $\alpha(u, w) = u + w$. Then

- α is injective if and only if $U \cap W = \{0\}$.
- α is surjective if and only if $U \cup W$ spans V .

Example 1.5.10. Let $A = \{(x, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and let $C = \{(y, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Then $\mathbb{R}^2 = A \oplus C$. To see this, note that the map

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha : A \oplus C &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \\ (x, y) &\mapsto x + y \end{aligned}$$

is injective since $A \cap C = \{0\}$. Moreover, α is a surjective map since any element (x, y) of \mathbb{R}^2 can be written as

$$(x, y) = \underbrace{(x - y, 0)}_{\in A} + \underbrace{(y, y)}_{\in C}.$$

Thus, by the above proposition $A \cup C$ spans \mathbb{R}^2 .

Example 1.5.11. Let $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ be a matrix. Then A can be written in the form

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^t) + \frac{1}{2}(A - A^t) = B + C \quad (1.2)$$

where A^t is the transpose of A . Verify that B is symmetric and C is skew-symmetric. Thus (1.2) is a decomposition of A as a sum of a symmetric matrix ($A^t = A$) and a skew-symmetric matrix ($A^t = -A$).

Exercise 1.5.12. Show that the sets Sym and SkewSym of all symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices in \mathcal{M}_n are subspaces of \mathcal{M}_n .

Thus, we have

$$\mathcal{M}_n = \text{Sym} + \text{SkewSym}.$$

Furthermore, if $S, S' \in \text{Sym}$ and $T, T' \in \text{SkewSym}$ such that $S + T = S' + T'$, then the matrix

$$U = S - S' = T - T' \in \text{Sym} \cap \text{SkewSym}.$$

Hence, provided that $\text{char}(F) \neq 2$, we must have $U = 0$. Thus,

$$\mathcal{M}_n = \text{Sym} \oplus \text{SkewSym}.$$