

Ch 2—§2.2 onwards

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2.2 Subspaces

Story

- We now look at some of the basic concepts of vector spaces.

Definition (subspace).

Let V be a vector space over the field F .

A **subspace** of V is

a subset W of V which is
itself a vector space over F with
the operations of vector addition and scalar multiplication
on V

NB

By inspection (of the definition of a vector space)

it is easy to see that

the subset W of V is a subspace if

for each α and β in W

the vector $\alpha + \beta$ is also in W

the 0 vector is in W

for each α in W the vector $(-\alpha)$ in W

for each α in W and each scalar c

the vector $c\alpha$ is in W .

The commutativity and associativity properties
of vector addition &

properties 4a,b,c and d of scalar multiplications
do not need to be checked

(since these are properties of operations on V).

Story.

One can simplify things further.

Theorem 1.

A non-empty subset W of V is a subspace of V
iff

for

each pair of vectors α, β in W and

each scalar c in F

the vector $c\alpha + \beta$

is again in W .

Proof.

Suppose that W is a non-empty subset of V such that
 $c\alpha + \beta$ belongs to W
for all vectors α, β in W
and
all scalars c in F .

Recall:

(4) a rule (or operation)
called scalar multiplication
which associates with
each scalar c in F and
each vector α in V
a vector $c\alpha$ in V
called the product of c and α in a way that
(a) $1\alpha = \alpha$ for every α in V
(b) $(c_1 c_2)\alpha = c_1(c_2\alpha)$
(c) $c(\alpha + \beta) = c\alpha + c\beta$
(d) $(c_1 + c_2)\alpha = c_1\alpha + c_2\alpha$

Since W is a non-empty,

there is a vector ρ in W ,

hence $(-1)\rho + \rho = 0$ is also in W .

the vector $\alpha + \beta$ is also in W
the 0 vector is in W
for each α in W the vector $(-\alpha)$ in W
for each α in W and each scalar c
the vector $c\alpha$ is in W .

Now, if α is any vector in W

and c is any scalar

$c\alpha = c\alpha + 0$ is in W .

$\leftarrow c\alpha$ is in W

Specifically, $(-1)\alpha = -\alpha$ is in W .

$\leftarrow -\alpha$ is in W

Finally, if α and β are in W

Finally, if α and β are in W
then $\alpha + \beta = 1\alpha + \beta$ is in W . --- $\alpha + \beta$ is in W

Thus W is a subspace of V .

Conversely,

if W is a subspace of V
 α and β are in W
and
 c is a scalar
then $c\alpha + \beta$ is in W .

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Story

- Some authors use the $c\alpha + \beta$ property in Theorem 1 as the definition of a subspace.

But as Theorem 1 showed,
these two notions are equivalent and
thus it makes no difference which is taken to be the definition

- The crucial point is that
if W is a non-empty subset of V
such that $c\alpha + \beta$ is in V (for all α, β, c)
then
(with the operations inherited from V)
 W is a vector space.
- This allows us to consider many new examples of vector spaces

Example 6

(a) Trivial examples

Let V be a vector space.

Then,

V is a subspace of V
the subset of the zero vector alone
is a subspace of V
(called the **zero subspace** of V).

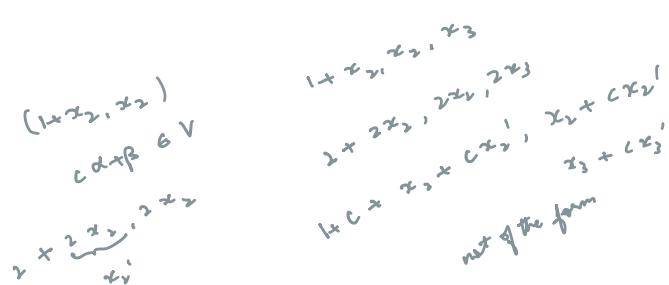
(b) In \mathbb{F}^n

the set of n -tuples $(x_1 \dots x_n)$ with $x_1 = 0$
is a subspace

however

the set of n -tuples
with $x_1 = 1 + x_2$ is
not a subspace ($n \geq 2$).

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(c) The space of polynomial functions

over the field F is

a subspace of the space of all functions
from F into F .

(d) An $n \times n$ (square) matrix A over the field F -- Defn
is **symmetric** if $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$ for all i, j .

Symmetric matrices form a subspace of
the space of all $n \times n$ matrices over F .

(e) An $n \times n$ (square) matrix A over the field C of complex numbers is **Hermitian** (or self-adjoint) if $A_{jk} = \bar{A}_{kj}$ (where the bar is complex conjugation) for all j, k . -- Defn

A 2×2 matrix is Hermitian iff it has the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} z & x + iy \\ x - iy & w \end{bmatrix}$$

where x, y, z and w are real numbers.

The set of all Hermitian matrices is *not* a subspace of the space of all $n \times n$ matrices over C .

Why?

For any Hermitian matrix A , the diagonal entries A_{11}, A_{22}, \dots must be real. However, iA will not have real entries (in general).

The set of Hermitian matrices (allowing complex entries) is a vector space of the field \mathbb{R} of real numbers (with usual operations).

Example 7. The solution space of a system of homogeneous linear equations.

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix over F . The set of all column matrices (i.e. $(n \times 1)$ matrices) X over F such that $AX = 0$ is a subspace of all $n \times 1$ matrices over F .

Why?

It suffices to show that if X, Y are such that $AX = AY = 0$ then for all scalars c it holds that $A(cX + Y) = 0$ but this is immediate from the linearity of matrix multiplication (more precisely stated as a lemma below).

Lemma. If A is an $m \times n$ matrix over F and B, C are $n \times p$ matrices over F then

$$(2-11) \quad A(dB + C) = d(AB) + AC$$

for each scalar d in F .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof. } [A(dB + C)]_{ij} &= \sum_k A_{ik}(dB + C)_{kj} \\ &= \sum_k (dA_{ik}B_{kj} + A_{ik}C_{kj}) \\ &= d \sum_k A_{ik}B_{kj} + \sum_k A_{ik}C_{kj} \\ &= d(AB)_{ij} + (AC)_{ij} \\ &= [d(AB) + AC]_{ij}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Similarly one can show that $(dB + C)A = d(BA) + CA$, if the matrix sums and products are defined.

Story:

- Here's a useful property of subspaces.

Theorem 2.

Let V be a vector space over the field F .
 The intersection of any collection of subspaces of V
 is also a subspace of V .

Proof.

Let $\{W_a\}$ be a collection of subspaces of V
 and
 let $W = \bigcap_a W_a$ be their intersection.

Recall

W is the set of elements such that each element belongs to every W_a .

Since each W_a is a subspace
 each contains the zero vector.

Thus,

the zero vector is in the intersection of W and
 W is non-empty.

Let $\alpha, \beta \in W$ and c be a scalar

Then,
 by definition of W
 both α and β belong to each W_a
 and because each W_a is a subspace
 $(c\alpha + \beta)$ is in every W_a .

Thus,

$(c\alpha + \beta)$ is again in W .

By Theorem 1, W is a subspace of V .

Theorem 1.
 A non-empty subset W of V is a subspace of V
 iff
 for
 each pair of vectors α, β in W and
 each scalar c in F
 the vector $c\alpha + \beta$
 is again in W .

Story:

- From Theorem 2
 it follows that if S is any collection of vectors in V
 then there is a smallest subspace of V
 which contains S
 i.e. a subspace which contains S and
 which is contained in
 every other subspace
 containing S .

Why?

[intuition]
 Well, simply take all the subspaces that contain S
 and take their intersection
 This is a well-defined unique subspace

And it is also the smallest
 (because otherwise it would shrink upon intersection)

Definition.

Let S be a set of vectors in a vector space V .
 The subspace spanned by S is defined to be
 the intersection W of all subspaces of V
 which contain S .

When S is a finite set of vectors

$S = \{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n\}$
 we simply call W the
subspace spanned by the vectors $\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$.

Story

- This definition may not feel all that "constructive" but the following theorem makes it very concrete

Theorem 3.

The subspace spanned by a non-empty subset S of a vector space V is the set of all linear combinations of vectors in S .

Proof.

Let L be the set of all linear combinations of vectors in S .
 Let W be the subspace spanned by S .

We first show $L \subseteq W$

Let α_1
 Then each linear combination

$$\alpha = x_1\alpha_1 + x_2\alpha_2 + \dots + x_m\alpha_m$$

of vectors α_i in S
 is clearly in W .

[Why? Because W is a subspace that contains S]

We conclude that
 L is in W , i.e. $L \subseteq W$.

We now show $W \subseteq L$.

It suffices to show that L is a subspace containing S .
 (because W is the smallest subspace containing S).

NB. L contains S and is non-empty.

Claim: L is a subspace.

If $\alpha, \beta \in L$ then
 α is a linear combination

$$\alpha = x_1\alpha_1 + \dots + x_m\alpha_m$$

 and
 β is a linear combination

$$\beta = y_1\beta_1 + \dots + y_n\beta_n$$
.

Clearly, for each scalar

$$c\alpha + \beta = \sum_i (cx_i)\alpha_i + \sum_j y_j\beta_j$$

is also in L .

Thus, L is a subspace.

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Story:

- In view of this, one can equivalently define a subspace spanned by $\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$ as the set of all linear combinations of these vectors, i.e. $\{c_1\alpha_1 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n\}_{c_1 \dots c_n}$ where c_i s are scalars.
- We now introduce some notation to easily speak of linear combination of vectors

usually speak of linear combination of vectors
in different sets.

Definition.

If $S_1 \dots S_k$ are subsets of a vector space V

the set of all sums

$$\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_k$$

of vectors α_i in S_i is called the

sum of the subsets $S_1, S_2 \dots S_k$ and

is denoted by

$$S_1 + \dots + S_k$$

or by

$$\sum_i S_i.$$

Story:

- This notation comes in handy when one considers

NB. If $W_1 \dots W_k$ are subspaces of V then
the sum $W = W_1 + \dots + W_k$
is easily seen to be a subspace of V which
contains each of the subspaces W_i .

Claim: W is the subspace ★ HW
spanned by the union of $W_1 \dots W_k$.

Proof idea.

Follows from NB and Theorem 3.

Example 8

Let F be a subfield of the field C of complex numbers.

Suppose $\alpha_1 = (1, 2, 0, 3, 0)$
 $\alpha_2 = (0, 0, 1, 4, 0)$
 $\alpha_3 = (0, 0, 0, 0, 1)$.

Let W be the subspace spanned by $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$

By Theorem 3

a vector $\alpha \in W$
iff

there exist scalars such that

$$\alpha = c_1 \alpha_1 + c_2 \alpha_2 + c_3 \alpha_3.$$

Thus, W consists of all vectors of the form

$$\alpha = (c_1, 2c_1, c_2, 3c_1 + 4c_2, c_3)$$

where c_1, c_2, c_3 are arbitrary scalars in F .

Alternatively, W can be described as the set of all vectors
 $\alpha = (x_1, \dots, x_5)$

with $x_i \in F$ such that

$$x_2 = 2x_1 \text{ and}$$

$$x_4 = 3x_1 + 4x_3$$

(just a rewriting of α as $(x_1 \dots x_5)$)

then equating it to $(c_1, 2c_1, c_2 \dots)$

and writing the constraints, eliminating the c s)

One can check that

(-3, -6, 1, -5, 2) is in W but
(2, 4, 6, 7, 8) is not.

Example 9

Let

F be a subfield of the field C of complex numbers and
 V be the vector space of all 2×2 matrices over F .

Let

W_1 be the subset of V consisting of all matrices
of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where x, y, z are scalars in F .

Let

W_2 be the subset of V consisting of all matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & y \end{bmatrix}$$

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Then, W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of V .

Also, $V = W_1 + W_2$

★ HW

Finally, the subspace $W_1 \cap W_2$ consists of
all matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 10

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix over a field F .

The **row vectors** of A

are the vectors in F^n given by

$$\alpha_i = (A_{i1}, \dots, A_{in}) \quad \text{for } i = 1 \dots m.$$

The subspace of F^n spanned by

the row vectors of A is called
the **row space** of A .

The subspace in Example 8

is the row space of the matrix

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

(baby) Claim: It is also the row space of the matrix

★ HW

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -4 & -8 & 1 & -8 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 11

Let V be the space of all polynomial functions over F .

Let S be the subset of V consisting of the polynomials (monomials really)

$$f_0, f_1 \dots$$

defined by

$$f_n(x) = x^n, n = 0, 1, 2 \dots$$

Then V is the subspace spanned by the set S .

§ 2.3 Bases and Dimensions

Story:

- We now look at how to generalise the intuitive notion of dimension to vector spaces.
- To this end, we consider an algebraic definition of dimension for vector spaces
- This is done through the concept of a "basis" for the vector space.

Definition

Let V be a vector space over F .

A subset S of V is said to be

linearly dependent (or simply dependent)

if there exist

distinct vectors

$\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$ in S and

scalars

$c_1 \dots c_n$ in F that are not all zeros

such that

$$c_1\alpha_1 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n = 0$$

A set which is not linearly dependent is called **linearly independent**.

If the set S contains only *finitely* many vectors

$$\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$$

we sometimes say that

$\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$ are dependent (or independent)

instead of saying S is dependent (or independent).

Story:

- Here are some easy consequences of this definition

Observations.

1. Any set that contains a linearly dependent set is linearly dependent.

2. Any subset of a linearly independent set is linearly independent.

3. Any set which contains the 0 vector is linearly dependent
(because $1 \cdot \vec{0} = \vec{0}$)

4. A set S of vectors is linearly independent iff

each finite subset of S is linearly independent

(i.e.

for any distinct vectors

$$\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n \text{ of } S$$

$$c_1\alpha_1 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n = 0$$

implies each $c_i = 0$)

Definition.

Let V be a vector space.

A **basis** for V is

a linearly independent set of vectors in V
which spans the space V .

The space V is **finite-dimensional**
if it has a finite basis.

EXAMPLE 12. Let F be a subfield of the complex numbers. In F^3 the vectors

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_1 &= (-3, 0, -3) \\ \alpha_2 &= (-1, 1, 2) \\ \alpha_3 &= (4, 2, -2) \\ \alpha_4 &= (2, 1, 1)\end{aligned}$$

are linearly dependent, since

$$2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 - \alpha_3 + 0 \cdot \alpha_4 = 0.$$

The vectors

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_1 &= (1, 0, 0) \\ \epsilon_2 &= (0, 1, 0) \\ \epsilon_3 &= (0, 0, 1)\end{aligned}$$

are linearly independent

EXAMPLE 13. Let F be a field and in F^n let S be the subset consisting of the vectors $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \dots, \epsilon_n$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_1 &= (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \\ \epsilon_2 &= (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0) \\ &\vdots \\ \epsilon_n &= (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1).\end{aligned}$$

Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be scalars in F and put $\alpha = x_1\epsilon_1 + x_2\epsilon_2 + \dots + x_n\epsilon_n$. Then

$$(2-12) \quad \alpha = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

This shows that $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$ span F^n . Since $\alpha = 0$ if and only if $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$, the vectors $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$ are linearly independent. The set $S = \{\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n\}$ is accordingly a basis for F^n . We shall call this particular basis the **standard basis** of F^n .

EXAMPLE 14. Let P be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix with entries in the field F . Then P_1, \dots, P_n , the columns of P , form a basis for the space of column matrices, $F^{n \times 1}$. We see that as follows. If X is a column matrix, then

$$PX = x_1P_1 + \dots + x_nP_n.$$

Since $PX = 0$ has only the trivial solution $X = 0$, it follows that $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ is a linearly independent set. Why does it span $F^{n \times 1}$? Let Y be any column matrix. If $X = P^{-1}Y$, then $Y = PX$, that is,

$$Y = x_1P_1 + \dots + x_nP_n.$$

So $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ is a basis for $F^{n \times 1}$.

Example 15 and 16 ★ HW

(I do hope to cover this in the next class
but please take a look on your own)

Theorem 4.

Let V be a vector space that is
spanned by a finite set of vectors
 $\beta_1 \dots \beta_m$.

Then

any independent set of vectors in V
is finite and contains
no more than m elements.

Proof.

Strategy: To prove the theorem

it is enough to show that every subset S of V
that contains more than m vectors
is linearly dependent.

Let S be a subset of V
containing $n > m$ vectors

$\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$

Since $\beta_1 \dots \beta_m$ span V
there exist scalars A_{ij} in F such that

$$\alpha_j = \sum_{i \in \{1 \dots m\}} A_{ij} \beta_i$$

For any n scalars $x_1 \dots x_n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + x_n \alpha_n &= \sum_{j \in \{1 \dots n\}} x_j \alpha_j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \sum_{i=1}^m A_{ij} \beta_i \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m (A_{ij} x_j) \beta_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j \right) \beta_i. \end{aligned}$$

Recall Theorem 6 (from Chapter 1):

Theorem 6.

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix and $m < n$
then the homogenous system of linear equations
 $AX = 0$ has a non-trivial solution.

Now, since $n > m$, Theorem 6 says that
there exist scalars $x_1 \dots x_n$ (not all 0) such that

$$\sum_{j \in \{1 \dots n\}} A_{ij} x_j = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq m$$

Hence,

$$x_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + x_n \alpha_n = 0.$$

This shows that S is a linearly dependent set.

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