# Louis Meunier

# Algebra 2 MATH251

# Course Outline:

Based on Lectures from Winter, 2024 by Prof. Anush Tserunyan.

# **Contents**

-	Intr	roduction	2
	1.1	Vector Spaces	2
	1.2	Creating Spaces from Other Spaces	4
	1.3	Linear Combinations and Space	6
	1.4	Linear Dependence and Span	10

# 1 Introduction

**Remark 1.1.** This course is about vector spaces and linear transformations between them; a vector space involves multiplication by scalars, where the scalars come from some field. We recall first examples of fields, then vector spaces, as a motivation, before presenting a formal definition.

## 1.1 Vector Spaces

**Remark 1.2.** Much of this is recall from Algebra 1.

## **\* Example 1.1: Examples of Fields**

- 1.  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; the field of rational numbers.
- 2.  $\mathbb{R}$ ; the field of real numbers;  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .
- 3.  $\mathbb{C}$ ; the field of complex numbers;  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .
- 4.  $\mathbb{F}_p \equiv \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \equiv \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ ; the (unique) field of pelements, where pprime.

(a) 
$$p = 2$$
;  $\mathbb{F}_2 \equiv \{0, 1\}$ .

(b) 
$$p = 3$$
;  $\mathbb{F}_3 \equiv \{0, 1, 2\}$ .

(c) · · ·

a where  $a +_p b :=$  remainder of  $\frac{a+b}{p}$ ,  $a \cdot_p b :=$  remainder of  $\frac{a \cdot b}{p}$ .

**Remark 1.3.** Throughout the course, we will denote an abstract field as  $\mathbb{F}$ .

## **® Example 1.2: Examples of Vector Spaces**

- 1.  $\mathbb{R}^3 := \{(x,y,z) : x,y,z \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . We can add elements in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , and multiply them by real scalars.
- 2.  $\mathbb{F}^n := \underbrace{\mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F} \times \cdots \mathbb{F}}_{n \text{ times}} := \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) : a_i \in \mathbb{F}\}, \text{ where } n \in \mathbb{N}^1; \text{ this is a generalization of the previous example, where we took } n = 3, \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}. \text{ Operations follow identically; addition:}$

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) := (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

and, taking a scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ , multiplication:

$$\lambda \cdot (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) := (\lambda \cdot a_1, \lambda \cdot a_2, \dots, \lambda \cdot a_n).$$

We refer to these elements  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  as vectors in  $\mathbb{F}^n$ ; the vector for which

 $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$  is the 0 *vector*, and is the additive identity, making  $\mathbb{F}^n$  an abelian group under addition, that admits multiplication by scalars from  $\mathbb{F}$ .

- 3.  $C(\mathbb{R}) := \{ f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} : f \text{ continuous} \}$ . Here, we have the constant zero function as our additive identity  $(x \mapsto 0 \forall x)$ , and addition/scalar multiplication of two continuous real functions are continuous.
- 4.  $\mathbb{F}[t] := \{a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \dots + a_nt^n : a_i \in \mathbb{F} \, \forall i, n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ , ie, the set of all polynomials in t with coefficients from  $\mathbb{F}$ . Here, we can add two polynomials;

$$(a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n) + (b_0 + b_1t + \dots + b_mt^m) := \sum_{i=0}^{\max\{n,m\}} (a_i + b_i)t^i,$$

(where we "take" undefined  $a_i/b_i$ 's as 0; that is, if m > n, then  $a_{m-n}, a_{m-n+1}, \ldots, a_m$  are taken to be 0). Scalar multiplication is defined

$$\lambda \cdot (a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \dots + a_nt^n) := \lambda a_0 + \lambda a_1t + \lambda a_2t^2 + \dots + \lambda a_nt^n.$$

Here, the zero polynomial is simply 0 (that is,  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ ).

## **→ Definition** 1.1: Vector Space

A vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is an abelian group with an operation denoted + (or  $+_V$ ) and identity element<sup>2</sup> denoted  $0_V$ , equipped with scalar multiplication for each scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  satisfying the following axioms:

1. 
$$1 \cdot v = v$$
 for  $1 \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $\forall v \in V$ .

2. 
$$\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot v) = (\alpha \cdot \beta)v, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V.$$

3. 
$$(\alpha + \beta) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot v + \beta \cdot v, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V.$$

4. 
$$\alpha \cdot (u+v) = \alpha \cdot u + \alpha \cdot v, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}, u, v \in V.$$

We refer to elements  $v \in V$  as vectors.

# $\hookrightarrow \underline{\textbf{Proposition}}$ 1.1

For a vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , the following holds:

1. 
$$0 \cdot v = 0_V$$
,  $\forall v \in V$  (where  $0 := 0_{\mathbb{F}}$ )

2. 
$$-1 \cdot v = -v, \forall v \in V \text{ (where } 1 := 1_{\mathbb{F}})^3$$

<sup>1</sup>Where we take  $0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , for sake of consistency. Moreover, by convention, we define  $\mathbb{F}^0$  (that is, when n=0) to be  $\{0\}$ ; the trivial vector space.

<sup>2</sup>The "zero vector".

3. 
$$\alpha \cdot 0_V = 0_V, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$$

<sup>3</sup>NB: "additive inverse"

<u>Proof.</u> 1.  $0 \cdot v = (0+0) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v + 0 \cdot v \implies 0 \cdot v = 0_V$  (by "cancelling" one of the  $0 \cdot v$  terms on each side).

2. 
$$v + (-1 \cdot v) = (1 \cdot v + (-1) \cdot v) = (1 - 1) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v = 0_V \implies (-1 \cdot v) = -v.$$

3.  $\alpha \cdot 0_V = \alpha \cdot (0_V + 0_V) = \alpha \cdot 0_V + \alpha \cdot 0_V \implies \alpha \cdot 0_V = 0_V$  (by, again, cancelling a term on each side).

→ Wed Jan 10 14:16:29 EST 2024

# 1.2 Creating Spaces from Other Spaces

### → Definition 1.2: Product/Direct Sum of Vector Spaces

For vector spaces U, V over the same field  $\mathbb{F}$ , we define their *product* (or *direct sum*) as the set

$$U \times V = \{(u, v) : u \in U, v \in V\},\$$

with the operations:

$$(u_1, v_1) + (u_2, v_2) := (u_1 + u_2, v_1 + v_2)$$
  
 $\lambda \cdot (u, v) := (\lambda \cdot u, \lambda \cdot v)$ 

# $\circledast$ Example 1.3: $\mathbb{F}$

 $\mathbb{F}^2 = \mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F}$ , where  $\mathbb{F}$  is considered as the vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  (itself).

## **→ Definition 1.3: Subspace**

For a vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , a *subspace* of V is a subset  $W \subseteq V$  s.t.

- 1.  $0_V \in W^4$
- 2.  $u + v \in W \, \forall \, u, v \in W$  (closed under addition)
- 3.  $\alpha \cdot u \in W \, \forall \, u \in W, \alpha \in \mathbb{F}^5$

Then, W is a vector space in its own right.

#### **\* Example 1.4: Examples of Subspaces**

- 1. Let  $V := \mathbb{F}^n$ .
  - $W := \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : x_1 = 0\} = \{(0, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{F}\}.$
  - $W := \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : x_1 + 2 \cdot x_2 = 0\}$

<u>Proof.</u> Let  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n), y = (y_1, ..., y_n) \in W$ . Then,  $x + y = (x_1 + y_1, ..., x_n + y_n)$ , and  $x_1 + y_1 + 2 \cdot (x_2 + y_2) = x_1 + 2 \cdot x_2 + y_1 + 2 \cdot y_2 = 0 + 0 = 0 \implies x + y \in W$ . Similar logic follows for axioms 2., 3.

• (More generally)

$$a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$W := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = 0 \},$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{k1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{kn}x_n = 0$$

that is, a linear combination of homogenous "conditions" on each term.

- $W^* := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_1 + x_2 = 1\}$  is *not* a subspace; it is not closed under addition, nor under scalar multiplication.
- 2. Let  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n := \{a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n : a_i \in \mathbb{F}\}$ . Then,  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{F}[t]$ , the more general polynomial space. *However*, the set of all polynomials of degree *exactly* n (all axioms fail, in fact) is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$ .
  - $W := \{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p(1) = 0\}.$
  - $W := \{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p''(t) + p'(t) + 2p(t) = 0\}.$
- 3. Let  $V:=C(\mathbb{R})$  be the space of continuous function  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

- <sup>4</sup>This is equivalent to requiring that  $W \neq \emptyset$ ; stated this way, axiom 3. would necessitate that  $0 \cdot w = 0_V \in W$ .
- <sup>5</sup>Note that these axioms are equivalent to saying that W is a subgroup of V with respect to vector addition; 2. ensures closed under addition, and 3. ensures the existence of additive inverses (as per  $-1 \cdot v = -v$ ).

•  $W := \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : f(\pi) + 7f(\sqrt{2}) = 0 \}.$ 

•  $W:=C^1(\mathbb{R}):=$  everywhere differentiable functions.

•  $W := \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : \int_0^1 f \, \mathrm{d}x = 0 \}.$ 

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 1.2

Let  $W_1, W_2$  be subspaces of a vector space V over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then, define the following:

1.  $W_1 + W_2 := \{w_1 + w_2 : w_1 \in W_1, w_2 \in W_2\}$ 

2.  $W_1 \cap W_2 := \{ w \in V : w \in W_1 \land w \in W_2 \}$ 

These are both subspaces of V.

*Proof.* 1. (a)  $0_V \in W_1$  and  $0_V \in W_2 \implies 0_V = 0_V + 0_V \in W_1 + W_2$ .

(b)  $(u_1 + u_2) + (v_1 + v_2) = (u_1 + v_1) + (u_2 + v_2) \in W_1 + W_2$ .

(c)  $\alpha \cdot (u+v) = \alpha \cdot u + \alpha \cdot v \in W_1 + W_2$ 

2. (a)  $0_V \in W_1$  and  $0_V \in W_2 \implies 0_V = 0_V + 0_V \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .

(b)  $u, v \in W_1 \cap W_2 \implies u + v \in W_1 \wedge u + v \in W_2 \implies u + v \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .

(c)  $\alpha \cdot u \in W_1 \wedge \alpha \cdot u \in W_2 \implies \alpha \cdot u \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .

# 1.3 Linear Combinations and Space

## **→ Definition** 1.4: Linear Combination

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . For finitely many vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ , their *linear combination* is a sum of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = a_1 \cdot v_1 + \dots + a_n \cdot v_n,$$

where  $a_i \in \mathbb{F} \, \forall i$ .

A linear combination is called *trivial* if  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ , that is, all coefficients are 0.

If n=0 (ie, we are "summing up" 0 vectors), we define the sum as the zero vector;  $\sum_{i=1}^0 a_i v_i := 0_V$ .

 $\hookrightarrow$  Wed Jan 10 13:37:51 EST 2024

#### → Definition 1.5: A More General Definition of Linear Combination

For a a (possible infinite) set S of vectors from V, a linear combination of vectors in S is a linear combination of  $a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$  for some finite subset  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq S^6$ 

> <sup>6</sup>That is, we do not allow infinite sums.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition** 1.6: Span

For a subset  $S \subseteq V$ , we define its *span* as

 $\operatorname{Span}(S) := \operatorname{set} \operatorname{of} \operatorname{all linear combinations of} S := \{a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n : a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in S\}.$ 

By convention, we set  $Span(\emptyset) = \{0_V\}.$ 

#### **\* Example 1.5**

Let  $S := \{(1,0,-1), (0,1,-1), (1,1,-2)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ . Then,

$$0_{\mathbb{R}^3} = (0,0,0) = 1 \cdot (1,0,-1) + 1 \cdot (0,1,-1) + -1 \cdot (1,1,-2).$$

We claim, moreover, that  $\mathrm{Span}(S)=U:=\{(x,y,z)\in\mathbb{R}^3:x+y+z=0\}$  (a plane through the origin).

*Proof.* Note that  $S \subseteq U$ , hence  $S \subseteq \operatorname{Span} S \subseteq U$ . OTOH, if  $(x, y, z) \in U$ , we have z = -x - y, and so

$$(x, y, z) = (x, y, -x - y) = x \cdot (1, 0, -1) + y \cdot (0, 1, -1) \in \text{Span}(S)$$

hence  $U \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S)$  and thus  $\operatorname{Span}(S) = U$ .

**Remark 1.4.** We implicitly used the following claim in the proof above; we prove it more generally.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 1.3

§1.3

Let V be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and let  $S \subseteq V$ . Then,  $\operatorname{Span}(S)$  is always a subspace. Moreover, it is the smallest (minimal) subspace containing S (that is, for any subspace  $U \supseteq S$ , we have that  $U \supseteq \operatorname{Span} S$ ).

*Proof.* Because adding/scalar multiplying linear combinations of elements of S again results in a linear combination of elements of S, and  $0_V \in \text{Span}(S)$  by definition, we have that Span(S)is indeed a subspace.

If  $U \supset S$  is a subspace of V containing S, then by definition U is closed under addition, that is, taking linear combinations of its elements (in particular, of elements of S); hence,  $U \supset$  $\mathrm{Span}(S)$ .

#### **→ Lemma 1.1**

For  $S \subseteq V$  and  $v \in V$ ,  $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S) \iff \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) = \operatorname{Span}(S)$ .

<u>Proof.</u> ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Let  $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S) \Longrightarrow v = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n, a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in V$ . Then, for any linear combination

$$b_1u_1 + \cdots + b_mu_m + b \cdot v = b_1u_1 + \cdots + b_mu_m + b(a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n)$$

is a linear combination of vectors in  $S \cup \{v\}$  (first equality) or equivalently, a combination of vectors in S (second equality) and thus  $\mathrm{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Span}\, S$ . The reverse inclusion follows trivially.

$$(\longleftarrow) \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) = \operatorname{Span}S \implies v \in \operatorname{Span}(S).$$

#### **\* Example 1.6**

(From the above example) We have

$$Span(\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1)\} \cup \{(1,1,-2)\}) = Span(\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1)\}),$$

since  $(1, 1, -2) \in \text{Span}(\{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1)\})$  (it was redundant, as it could be generated by the other two vectors).

## $\hookrightarrow \underline{\textbf{Definition}}$ 1.7: Spanning Set

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . We call  $S \subseteq V$  a spanning set for V if  $\mathrm{Span}(S) = V$ . We call such a spanning set minimal if no proper subset of S is a spanning set  $/\!\!\!/ 2v \in S$  s.t.  $S \setminus \{v\}$  spanning).

**Remark 1.5.** Note that any  $S \subseteq V$  is a spanning for  $\mathrm{Span}(S)$ . But, S may not be minimal; indeed, consider the previous example. We were able to remove a vector from S while having the same span.

#### **\* Example 1.7**

§1.3

For  $\mathbb{F}^n$  as a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ , the *standard spanning set* 

$$St := \{ \underbrace{(1, \dots, 0)}_{:=e_1}, \underbrace{(0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)}_{:=e_2}, \dots, \underbrace{(0, \dots, 1)}_{e_n} \}.$$

Given any  $x := (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ , we can write

$$x = x_1 \cdot e_1 + \cdots + x_n \cdot e_n$$
.

This is clearly minimal; removing any  $e_i$  would then result in a 0 in the *i*th "coordinate"

#### → **<u>Definition</u>** 1.8: Linear Dependence

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A set  $S \subseteq V$  is said to be *linearly dependent* if there is a nontrivial linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to  $0_V$ .

Conversely, S is called *linearly independent* if there is no nontrivial linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to  $0_V$ ; all linear combinations of vectors in S that equal  $0_V$  are trivial.

### **\* Example 1.8**

- 1. The empty set  $\varnothing$  is linearly independent; there are no non-trivial linear combinations that equal  $0_V$  (there are no linear combinations at all).
- 2. For  $v \in V$ , the set  $\{v\}$  is linearly dependent iff  $v = 0_V$ .
- 3.  $S := \{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(1,1,-2)\} := \{v_1,v_2,v_3\}; S$  is linearly dependent  $(v_1+v_2-v_3=(0,0,0)).$
- 4.  $V:=\mathbb{F}^3$ ;  $S:=\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(0,0,1)\}=\{v_1,v_2,v_3\}$  is linearly independent.

# Proof. Suppose

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + a_3v_3 = 0_V$$
  
 $\implies a_1 = 0 \land a_2 = 0 \land -a_1 - a_2 + a_3 = 0 \implies a_3 = 0$   
 $\implies a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$ 

Hence only a trivial linear combination is possible.

5.  $St_n$  is linearly independent.

Proof.

§1.3

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i e_i = 0_{\mathbb{F}^n} \implies a_i = 0 \,\forall i$$

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Lemma 1.2

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , and  $S \subseteq V$  (possibly infinite).

- 1. S is linearly dependent  $\iff$  there is a finite subset  $S_0 \subseteq S$  that is linearly dependent.
- 2. S is linearly independent  $\iff$  all finite subsets of S are linearly independent.

*Proof.* 2. follows from the negation of 1.

 $( \Leftarrow )$  Trivial.

( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose S linearly dependent. Then,  $0_V = \text{some nontrivial linear combination of vectors } v_1, \ldots, v_n \text{ in } S$ . Let  $S_0 = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ , then,  $S_0$  is linearly dependent itself.

# 1.4 Linear Dependence and Span

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 1.4

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  and  $S \subseteq V$ .

- 1. S linearly dependent  $\iff \exists v \in \text{Span}(S \setminus \{v\}).$
- 2. S linearly independent  $\iff$  there is no  $v \in \text{Span}(S \setminus \{v\})$ .

*Proof.* 2. follows from the negation of 1.

( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose S linearly dependent. Then,  $0_V = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i$  for some nontrivial linear combination of distinct vectors S. At least one of  $a_i \neq 0$ ; we can assume wlog (reindexing)  $a_1 \neq 0$ . Then,

$$a_1 v_1 = -\sum_{i=2}^n a_i v_i \implies v_1 = (-a_1^{-1}) \sum_{i=2}^n a_i v_i = \sum_{i=2}^n (-a_1^{-1} a_i) v_i,$$

hence,  $v_1 \in \operatorname{Span}(\{v_2, \dots, v_n\}) \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S \setminus \{v\})$ 

(  $\iff$  ) Suppose  $v \in \text{Span}(S \setminus \{v\})$ , then  $v = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$ , with  $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in S \setminus \{v\}$ , thus

$$0_V = a_1 v_1 + \cdots + a_n v_n - v,$$

which is not a trivial combination (-1 on the v; v cannot "merge" with the other vectors), hence S is linearly dependent.

# $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 1.1

 $S \subseteq V$  is linearly independent  $\iff S$  a minimal spanning set of Span S.

*Proof.* Follows from proposition 1.4, 2.

#### → **Definition** 1.9: Maximally Independent

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A set  $S \subseteq V$  is called *maximally independent* if S is linearly independent and  $\exists v \in V \setminus S$  s.t.  $S \cup \{v\}$  is still linearly independent.

In other words, there is no proper supset  $\tilde{S} \supseteq S$  that is still independent.

#### → Lemma 1.3

If  $S \subseteq V$  maximally independent, then S is spanning for V.

<u>Proof.</u> Let  $S \subseteq V$  be maximally independent. Let  $v \in V$ ; supposing  $v \notin S$  (in the case that  $v \in S$ , then  $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S)$  trivially). By maximality,  $S \cup \{v\}$  is linearly dependent, hence there exists a nontrivial linear combination that equals  $0_V$ . Since S independent, this combination must include v, with a nonzero coefficient. We can write

$$av + \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = 0_V \quad a \neq 0, v_i \in S$$

$$\implies v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-a^{-1}a_i)v_i \in \operatorname{Span} S.$$

### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 1.1

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  and let  $S \subseteq V$ . TFAE:

- 1. S is a minimal spanning set;
- 2. S is linearly independent and spanning;
- 3. S is a maximally linearly independent set;
- 4. Every vector in V is equal to *unique* linear combination of vectors in S.

→ Mon 7an 15 13:44:34 EST 2024

<u>Proof.</u> (1.  $\implies$  2.) Suppose S is spanning for V and is minimal. Then, by corollary 1.1, we have that S is linearly independent, and is thus both linearly independent and spanning.

(2.  $\Longrightarrow$  3.) Suppose S is linearly independent and spanning. Let  $v \in V \setminus S$ ; S is spanning, hence  $v \in \operatorname{Span} S$ , that is, there exists a linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to v:

$$v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n, a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in S.$$

Thus,  $0_V = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n - v$ , thus  $S \cup \{v\}$  is linearly dependent, and so S is maximally linearly independent.

(3.  $\implies$  1.) Suppose S is maximally linearly independent. By lemma 1.3, S is spanning, and since S is linearly independent, by corollary 1.1, S is minimally spanning for Span S.

(2.  $\implies$  4.) Suppose S is linearly independent and spans V, and let  $v \in V$ . We have that  $v \in \operatorname{Span} S$  and hence is equal to a linear combination of vectors in S. This gives existence; we now need to prove uniqueness.

Suppose there exist two linear combinations that equal v,

$$v = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n = b_1u_1 + \cdots + b_mu_m$$

 $a_i, b_j \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $v_i, u_j \in S$ . With appropriate reindexing/relabelling and allowing certain scalars to equal 0, we can assume that the combinations use the same vectors (with potentially different coefficients), that is,

$$v = a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_k w_k = b_1 w_1 + \dots + a_k w_k.$$

This implies, then,

$$(a_1 - b_1)w_1 + \cdots + (a_k - b_k)w_k = 0_V$$

and by the assumed linear independent of S, each coefficient  $(a_i - b_i) = 0 \,\forall i \implies a_i = b_i \,\forall i$ , hence, these are indeed the same representations, and thus this representation is unique.

(4.  $\implies$  2.) Suppose every vector in V admits a unique linear combination of vectors in S. Clearly, then, S is spanning. It remains to show S is linearly independent. Suppose

$$0_V = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$$

for  $v_i \in S$ . But we have that every vector has a unique representation, and we know that  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$  is a (valid) linear combination that gives  $0_V$ ; hence, this must be the unique combination,  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ , and the linear combination above is trivial. Hence, S is linearly independent and spanning.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 1.10: Basis**

If any (hence all) of the above statements hold, we call S a *basis* for V.

In the words of 4., we call the unique linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to v the unique representation of v in S. Its coefficients are called the Fourier coefficients of v in S.

## **\* Example 1.9**

- 1.  $\operatorname{St}_n = \{e_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ .
- 2. In  $\mathbb{F}^3$ , the set

$$\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(0,0,1)\}$$

is a basis; it is linearly independent and spanning.

3. For  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$ , the standard basis is

$$\{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}.$$

4. For  $\mathbb{F}[t]$ , the standard basis is

$$S := \{1, t, t^2, \dots\} = \{t^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

5. Let  $\mathbb{F}[\![t]\!]$  denote the space of all formal power series  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}a_nt^n$ ; polynomials are an example, but with only finite nonzero coefficients. Note that, then, the set S defined above is not a basis for this "extended" set. We can in fact find a basis for this set; we need more tools first.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 1.2

Every vector space has a basis.

**Remark 1.6.** This theorem relies on assuming the Axiom of Choice.

*Proof (Attempt).* (Of theorem 1.2) We will try to "inductively" build a maximally independent set, as follows:

Begin with an empty set  $S_0 := \emptyset$ , and iteratively add more vectors to it. Let  $v_0 \in V$  be a non-zero vector, and let  $S_1 := \{v_0\}$ .

If  $S_1$  is maximal, then we are done. Otherwise, there exists a new vector  $v_1 \in V \setminus S_1$  s.t.  $S_2 := \{v_0, v_1\}$  is still independent.

If  $S_2$  is maximal, then we are done. Otherwise, there exists a new vector  $v_2 \in V \setminus S_2$  s.t.  $S_3 := \{v_0, v_1, v_2\}$  is still independent.

Continue in this manner; this would take arbitrarily many finite, or even infinite, steps; we would need some "choice function" that would "allow" us to choose any particular ith vector  $v_i$ .

We can make this construction precise via the Axiom of Choice and transfinite induction (on ordinals); alternatively, we will prove a statement equivalent to the Axiom of Choice, Zorn's Lemma.

**Remark 1.7.** Before stating Zorn's Lemma, we introduce the following terminology.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Axiom** 1.1: Axiom of Choice

Let X be a set of nonempty sets. Then, there exists a choice function f defined on X that maps each set of X to an element of that set.

#### → Definition 1.11: Inclusion-Maximal Element

A inclusion-maximal element of I is a set  $S \in I$  s.t. there is no strict super set  $S' \supsetneq S$  s.t.  $S' \in I$ .

#### **→ Definition 1.12: Chain**

Let X a set. Call a collection  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  a *chain* if any two  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  are comparable, ie,  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \subseteq A$ .

#### **→ Definition** 1.13: Upper Bound

An *upper bound* of a collection  $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a set  $U \subseteq X$  s.t.  $U \supseteq J \forall J \in \tau$ ; U contains the union of all sets in J.

#### **\* Example 1.10: Of The Previous Definitions**

Let  $X := \mathbb{N}, I := \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}).$ 

The maximal elements of I would be  $\{0\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ .

Chains would include  $C_0 := \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}, C_1 := \{\emptyset, \{0\}\}, C_2 := \{\emptyset\}$  (or any set containing a single element).

The sets  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  are upper bounds for I, while neither is an element of I. The set  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is an upper bound for  $C_0$ . A chain  $\{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, 2\}, \dots\}$  has an upper bound of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

#### → Lemma 1.4: Zorn's Lemma

Let X be an ambient set and  $I \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a nonempty collection of subsets of X. If every chain  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq I$  has an upper bound in I, then I has a maximal element.

*"Proof"*. This is equivalent to the Axiom of Choice; proving it is beyond the scope of this course :(.

Proof of theorem 1.2, cnt'd. We obtain a maximal independent set using Zorn's Lemma.

Let I be the collection of all linearly independent subsets of V. I is nonempty;  $\varnothing \in I$ , as is  $\{v\} \in I$  for any nonzero  $v \in V$ . To apply Zorn's, we need to show that every chain  $\mathcal C$  if sets in I has an upper bound in I; that is, every linearly independent set has an upper bound that itself is linearly independent.

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a chain in I. Let  $S:=\bigcup \mathcal{C}$  be the union of all sets in  $\mathcal{C}$ . To show S is linearly independent, it suffices to show that every finite subset  $\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}\subseteq S$  is linearly independent. Let  $S_i\in\mathcal{C}$  be s.t.  $v_i\in S_i$  for each i. Because  $\mathcal{C}$  a chain, for each i,j we have either  $S_i\subseteq S_j$  or  $S_i\subseteq S_i$ , and so we can order  $S_1,\ldots,S_n$  in increasing order w.r.t  $\subseteq$ . This implies, then, there

is a maximal  $S_{i_0}$  s.t.  $S_{i_0} \supseteq S_i \, \forall \, i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . Moreover, we have that  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \in S_{i_0}$ , and that  $S_{i_0}$  is linearly independent and thus  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$  is also linearly independent.

Thus, as we can apply Zorn's Lemma, we conclude that I has a maximal element, ie, there is a maximal independent set, and thus a V indeed has a basis.

## $\hookrightarrow \underline{\text{Theorem}} \ 1.3$

For every vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , any two bases  $\mathcal{B}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_2$  are of equal size/cardinality, ie, there is a bijection between  $\mathcal{B}_1$  and  $\mathcal{B}_2$ .

 $\hookrightarrow$  Wed Jan 17 14:25:50 EST 2024