MATH405: Linear Algebra

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1 Vector Space

Goals of this course is to discuss

- Vector spaces
- Linear transformations between vector spaces
- Other operations on vector spaces

1.1 Definitions

Definition - Field: A set of numbers containing 0,1 that can be added, subtracted, multiplied, and divided (except cannot divide by 0) that satisfy the following **Field Axioms**

- 1. $a, b \in K \implies a + b, ab \in K$
- 2. $+, \times$ are commutative so a + b = b + a and ab = ba
- 3. +, \times are associative so (a+b)+c=a+(b+c) and a(bc)=(ab)c
- 4. Distributive Law: a(b+c) = ab + ac
- 5. Additive Identity: a + 0 = 0 + a = a
- 6. Multiplicative Identity: $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$
- 7. Additive Inverse: $\forall a \in K, \exists b \text{ such that } a+b=0, \text{ namely } b=-a \text{ which is unique}$
- 8. Multiplicative Inverse: $\forall a \in K, \exists b \text{ such that } ab = 1, \text{ name } b = 1/a \text{ which is unique}$
- Example: R, Q are fields. Z is not a field since there is no multiplicative inverse of 2

Example: $C = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in R\}$, where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ is a field under

- +: (a+bi) + (c+di) = (a+c) + (b+d)i
- \times : (a+bi)(c+di) = (ac-bd) + (ad+bc)i

Example: $F_2 = \{0, 1\}$ is a field under

• +: where

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

$$0+1=1+0=1$$

$$1 + 1 = 0$$

• \times : where

$$0 \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$0 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

Example: For a prime p, let $F_p = \{0, \dots, p-1\}$. Then F_p is a field under

- $+: a+b \pmod{p}$
- $\times : ab \pmod{p}$

Definition - Vector Space: For an arbitrary field K, a K-vector space is a set V with a distinguished element O such that any 2 elements in V can be added and scalar multiplied by $c \in K$

- $u, v \in V \implies u + v \in V$
- $c \in K, u \in V \implies cu \in V$

Satisfying the following properties

- 1. Commutative Addition: u + v = v + u
- 2. Associative Addition: (u+v)+w=u+(v+w)
- 3. Additive Identity: u + O = u

- 4. Additive Inverse: $\forall u \in V, \exists v \in V \text{ such that } u + v = O, \text{ namely } v = -u \text{ which is unique}$
- 5. Distributive Laws: $\forall a, b \in K, a(u+v) = au + av$ and (a+b)u = au + bu
- 6. Commutative Scalar Multiplication: (ab)u = a(bu)
- 7. Multiplicative Identity: $1 \cdot u = u$

Example: R^3 is an R-vector space defined by the operations

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

- +: add componentwise so (a,b,c)+(d,e,f)=(a+d,b+e,c+f)
- Scalar \times : for $r \in R$, r(a, b, c) = (ra, rb, rc)
- Additive Identity is O = (0, 0, 0)

Example: For any field K, K^2 is a K-vector space defined by the oppartions

$$K^2 = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in K\}$$

- +: add componentwise so (a,b)+(c,d)=(a+c,b+d)
- Scalar \times : for $k \in K$, k(a,b) = (ka,kb)
- Additive Identity is O = (0,0)

Example: R is an R-vector space since clearly the properties hold

Example R is a Q-vector space since clearly the properties hold

• Notably, for $q \in Q$ and $r \in R$, we have $qr \in R$. Thus scalar multiplication is closed

Example: For any field K, the set $\{O\}$ is a K-vector space

Example: Let X be any non-empty set and let $\mathcal{F}(X)$ be the set of all functions $f: X \to R$. Then \mathcal{F} is an R-vector space under the operations

- +: for $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(X)$, define f + g := (f + g)(x)
- Scalar \times : let $r \in R$, then define rf := r(f(x))
- Additive Identity is O = f(x) = 0, the function that takes any x to 0

Example: Take X = N and let $F(X) = \{$ all functions $f: N \to R \}$ is a vector space

• Note: $f: N \to R$ is a sequence (a_0, \ldots, a_n) where $a_n = f(n)$

Lemma 1 - Cancellation: For $u, v, w \in V$ and if u + v = w + v, then u = w

Proof: $v \in V$ has an additive inverse, namely -v. Thus we have

$$u + v - v = w + v - v \implies u = w$$

Lemma 2 - Unique Additive Inverse: For all $v \in V$, there is a unique additive inverse, namely -v

Proof: Suppose u, w are both additive inverses of v. Then we have

$$v + u = v + w \implies u = w$$

Lemma 3 - 0 Times a Vector: For all $v \in V$, 0v = O

Proof:
$$v = 1v = (0+1)v = 0v + 1v = 0v + v \implies 0v = 0$$

Lemma 4 - (-1)v is the Additive Inverse: For all $v \in v$, (-1)v is the unique additive inverse of v

Proof: (-1)v + v = (-1+1)v = 0v = 0. Thus (-1)v is the additive inverse of v, which is unique by Lemma 2

Definition - Subspace: For a K-vector space V and a non-empty subset $W \subseteq V$, W is a subspace if it satisfies

- $w_1, w_2, \in W \implies w_1 + w_2 \in W$
- $\forall a \in K, w \in W \implies aw \in W$

Theorem 1: Every subspace of a K-vector space is a K-vector space

Proof: We need to show that $W \subseteq V$ satisfies all the necessary properties of a vector space

1. Verify $O \in W$

Since W is non-empty and closed under scalar multiplication, take $0w = O \in W$ by Lemma 3

- 2. $u, v \in W \implies u + v \in W$ and $a \in K, v \in W \implies aw \in W$ by definition of subspace
- 3. Every $w \in W$ has an additive inverse, namely -w

Since W is closed under scalar multiplication, $(-1)w = -w \in W$ by Lemma 4

4. Other conditions (e.g. associative addition, commutative addition, etc.) hold because $u, v, w \in V \implies u, v, w \in W$ For example, choose $u, v \in V$, then u + v = v + u, which also holds under W. Thus commutative addition is satisfied

Example: Take $(5,3,2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Then let $W = \{r(5,3,2) \mid r \in \mathbb{R}\}$

Then W is an R-vector space. We prove this by showing that W is a subspace of R^3

• +: Choose 2 arbitrary elements of W, r(5,3,2) and s(5,3,2) for $r,s \in R$

Then
$$r(5,3,2) + s(5,3,2) = (r+s)(5,3,2) \in W$$

• \times : Choose $r(5,3,2) \in W$ and take $s \in R$

Then
$$s(r(5,3,2)) = (sr)(5,3,2) \in W$$

Example: Let $U = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid 2x + 3y = 0\}$. We show that U is a vector space by showing it's a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3

• +: Take (x_1, y_1, z_1) and $(x_2, y_2, z_2) \in U \implies 2x_1 + 3y_1 = 0$ and $2x_2 + 3y_2 = 0$

Then
$$2(x_1 + x_2) + 3(y_1 + y_2) = 0$$

Thus
$$(x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2, z_1 + z_2) \in U$$

• \times : Let $(x, y, z) \in U$ and $r \in R$

Then
$$2x + 3y = 0 \implies r(2x + 3y)2rx + 3ry = 0$$

Thus $r(x, y, z) \in U$

Example: Consider $\sin(x)$, $\cos(x) \in \mathcal{F}(R)$ and let $W = \{a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) \mid a, b \in R\}$. Then W is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(R)$

- +: Take $a_1 \sin(x) + b_1 \cos(x)$ and $a_2 \sin(x) + b_2 \cos(x) \in W$. Then $(a_1 + a_2) \sin(x) + (b_1 + b_2) \cos(x) \in W$
- \times : Take $r \in R$. Then $r(a\sin(x) + b\cos(x)) = (ra)\sin(x) + (rb)\cos(x) \in W$

1.2 Basis

Definition - Linear Combination: For vectors $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \subseteq V$, a **linear combination** of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is any vector of the form

$$a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n \qquad a_i \in K$$

Definition - Span: span($\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$) = { all linear combinations of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ }

Proposition 1: $W = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$ is a subspace of V and thus is itself a K-Vector Space

Proof: We show that W satisfies the necessary criteria to be a subspace of V

• +: Let $a = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n \in W$ and $b = b_1v_1 + \dots + b_nv_n \in W$

Then $a + b = (a_1 + b_1)v_1 + \dots + (a_n + b_n) \in W$

Thus W is closed under addition

• Scalar \times : Let $a = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n \in W$ and let $c \in K$

Then $ca = (ca_1)v_1 + \cdots + (ca_n) \in W$

Thus W is closed under scalar multiplication

Example: Take (5, 3, 1) and $(4, 0, -2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$

 $\operatorname{span}(\{(5,3,1),(4,0,-2)\})$ is a plane in \mathbb{R}^3 passing through (0,0,0)

Example: Take (5, 3, 1) and $(10, 6, 2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$

 $\text{span}(\{(5,3,1),(10,6,2)\})$ is a line in \mathbb{R}^3 passing through (0,0,0)

• Note: (10,6,2) = 2(5,3,1). Thus span $(\{(5,3,1),(10,6,2)\}) = a_1(5,3,1) + a_2(10,6,2) = (a_1+2a_2)(5,3,1)$

Definition - Linearly Independent: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is **linearly independent** if whenever $a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n = 0$, then $a_1 = \dots = a_n = 0$

• Otherwise $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is linearly dependent

Proposition 2: $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent if and only if no v_i is a linearly combination of the other n-1 vectors

Proof: \Longrightarrow Assume $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent

BWOC, assume some $v_i = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$ for some $v_i \notin \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

Then we have

$$O = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n + (-1) v_i$$

Since v_i is a linear combination of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$, the above equation shows that $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is linearly dependent. Contradiction

Thus v_i cannot be written as a linear combination of the other vectors

 \iff Assume by way of contraposition that $\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}$ is not linearly independent

Thus choose $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in K$, not all 0 such that

$$a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n = O$$

WLOG, assume $a_1 \neq 0$. Then $v_2 a_2 + \cdots + a_n v_n = a_1 v_n$

Since $a_1 \neq 0$ and K is a field, we have

$$v_1 = \frac{a_2}{-a_1}v_2 + \dots + \frac{a_n}{-a_1}v_n$$

Thus we have shown that v_1 is a linear combination of the other n-1 vectors

Corollary 3: $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent if and only if for each $i, v_i \notin \text{span}(\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \setminus \{v_i\})$

Proof: This follows from the previous proposition

Definition - Spans: Let W be a K-Vector Space and $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \subseteq W$. If $\operatorname{span}(\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\})$, then $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ spans W, so every $w \in W$ is a linear combination of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$

Definition - Basis: $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis of W if it spans W and is linearly independent

Example: $\{(5,3,1),(4,0,-2)\}$ is a basis for span $(\{(5,3,1),(4,0,-2)\})$

Example: $\{(5,3,1),(10,6,2)\}$ is not a basis for span $(\{(5,3,1),(10,6,2)\})$ since it is not linearly independent

Proposition 4: Let $\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}$ be a basis for W and let $w\in W$ be arbitrary. Then w can be written uniquely as

$$w = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n \qquad a_i \in K$$

Proof: Since $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ spans W, every $w \in W$ is a linear combination of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$

For uniqueness, suppose

$$w = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n = b_1 v_1 + \dots + b_n v_n$$

Then we have

$$O = (b_1 - a_1)v_1 + \cdots + (b_n - a_n)$$

Since $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent, we must have $b_i - a_i = 0$, and thus $b_i = a_i$ for each i

Thus each $w \in W$ can be written uniquely as a linear combination of $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$

Example: Let $W = \text{span}(\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\} = \{\text{ all functions of the form } a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) \mid a, b \in R\}$

We know that W is an R-Vector Space

 $\{\sin(x),\cos(x)\}\$ is linearly independent. Otherwise $\sin(x)=r\cos(x)$ for all $x\in X$ and some $r\in R$. However, this cannot hold for when $x=\pi/2$ since $\sin(\pi/2)=1\neq r\cos(\pi/2)=r0$

1.3 Dimension

Let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \subseteq V$ and let $W = \operatorname{span}(\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\})$

Now let $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$. Then there are 2 desirable properties of X

- X is Big: X spans W if span(X) = W, i.e. all $w \in W$ is a linear combination of vectors from X
- X is Small: X is linearly independent, i.e. no element in X is a linear combination of the remaining elements

Note: the empty set \emptyset is linearly independent since no element in \emptyset is a linear combination of the others. More notably, \emptyset is a basis for $\{O\}$

Shrinking Lemma: Let $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$ and spans W but X is not linearly independent. Then $X \setminus \{w_i\}$ still spans W for some $w_i \in X$

Proof: Since X is not linearly independent, we know that some w_i is a linear combination of elements in $X \setminus \{w_i\}$. Suppose

$$w_i = a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_m w_m$$
 without w_i occurring

Then take arbitrary $u \in W$ where

$$u = b_1 w_1 + \dots + b_m w_m$$

Replacing w_i above with the previous equation, we see that u is a linear combination of $X \setminus \{w_i\}$

Thus $X \setminus \{w_i\} = \operatorname{span}(W)$

Shrinking Theorem: Let $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ span W. Then for some subset $Y \subseteq X$ is a basis of W

Proof:

Case 0: If X is linearly independent, then X is a basis by definition

Otherwise, apply the shrinking lemma to get $X_1 = X \setminus \{w_i\}$, which spans W

Case 1: If X_1 is linearly independent, then X_1 is a basis

. . .

Since X is finite (it has m elements), we will stop eventually. Either

- Some X_i is linearly independent and we are done
- Otherwise if we hit case m: $X_m = \emptyset$, which is linearly independent and thus X_m spans $W = \{O\}$

Corollary: If $W = \text{span}(\{v_1, \dots, v_n\})$, then some subset of $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis

• Note: In particular, W has to have a basis

Enlarging Lemma: Suppose $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\} \subseteq W$ and is linearly independent but doesn't span W. Then for any $w \in W \setminus \text{span}(X), X \cup \{w\}$ is still linearly independent

Proof: Suppose $a_1w_1 + \cdots + a_mw_m + bw = O$. We show that $a_1 = \cdots = a_m = b = 0$

Suppose BWOC, $b \neq 0$, then we can solve for w

$$w = \frac{-a_1}{b}w_1 + \dots + \frac{-a_m}{b}w_m$$

Which means that w is a linear combination of $X \implies w \in \text{span}(X)$. Contradiction

Thus b = 0. This gives

$$a_1w_1 + \dots + a_mw_m + 0w = O$$

Since $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, we also have $a_1 = \dots = a_m = 0$

Thus $X \cup \{w\}$ is linearly independent

Main question: does the enlarging process above terminate? After some number of steps, do we get a set $\{w_1, \ldots, w_m\}$ that spans W?

Exchanging Lemma: Let $X = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ be any basis for W. Choose any $w \in W$ but $w \notin \text{span}(\{v_k, \ldots, v_n\})$. Then $\exists v_i, i < k$, such that $Y = (X \setminus \{v_i\}) \cup \{w\}$ is still a basis

• Note: If k > n, then $\{v_k, \dots, v_n\} = \emptyset$

Proof: First we show that span(Y) = W. Since X spans W, we can write

$$w = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n \implies v_1 = \frac{1}{a_1} w + \frac{-a_2}{a_1} v_2 + \dots + \frac{-a_m}{a_1} v_m$$

Since $w \notin \text{span}(\{v_k, \dots, v_n\})$, we must have $a_i \neq 0$ for some i < k

WLOG, let $a_1 \neq 0$. We show that Y spans W

Since X spans W, for arbitrary $u \in W$, we have

$$u = d_1 v_1 + \dots + d_n v_n$$

Replacing v_1 above with the previous equation, we see that u is a linear combination of elements of Y and thus $u \in \text{span}(Y)$

Next we show that Y is linearly independent

Suppose we have

$$cw + b_2v_2 + b_nv_n = O$$

We show that $c = b_2 = \cdots = b_n = 0$

- If $c=0 \implies b_2=\cdots=b_n=0$ since $\{b_2,\ldots,b_n\}$ is linearly independent
- Otherwise suppose $c \neq 0$, then we can solve for w

$$w = \frac{-b_2}{c}v_2 + \dots + \frac{-b_n}{c}v_n \implies v_1 = \frac{1}{a_1}(\frac{-b_2}{c}v_2 + \dots + \frac{-b_n}{c}v_n) + \frac{-a_1}{a_1}v_2 + \dots + \frac{-a_m}{a_1v_m}v_n$$

Thus v_1 is a linear combination of $\{v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$, which is a contradiction since we said X was linearly independent. Thus c=0

Theorem: Let $X = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ be a basis for W, and let $\{w_1, \ldots, w_m\} \subseteq W$ be linearly independent. Then $m \leq n$

Proof: If m < n, we are done

Now assume $m \geq n$, we show that m = n

Since $\{w_1, \ldots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, we have that $w_1 \neq O = \operatorname{span}(\emptyset)$

Now apply the Exchanging Lemma to the basis X, with k > n and w_1 Then $\exists v_i$ such that $X_1 = (X \setminus \{v_i\}) \cup \{w_1\}$ is a basis

After reindexing, we see that X_1 has n-1 vectors from X and 1 vector from w_1

Now take k = n. Since $\{w_1, \ldots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent, $w_2 \notin \text{span}(\{w_1\})$

Thus applying the Exchanging Lemma again, there exists j < k = n such that $X_2 = (X_1 \setminus \{v_j\}) \cup \{w_2\}$ is a basis

Reindexing again, we get that $X_2 = \{v_1, \dots, v_{n-2}, w_1, w_2\}$ is a basis

After n steps, X_n has no elements from X and $X_n = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ is a basis

Furthermore, we see that $w_m \in \text{span}(\{w_1, \dots, w_n\})$, contradicting that $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is linearly independent

Thus m = n

Corollary: If W is any K-vector space and some basis of W has n elements, then every basis of W has n elements

Definition - Finite Dimensional: Let W be a K-vector space. Then W is finite dimensional if some basis for W is finite

Definition - Dimension: Number of elements in any basis for a vector space W

Corollary: Suppose $\dim(W) = n$ and $X = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ are any *n*-vectors

- 1. If X spans W, then X is a basis for W
- 2. If X is linearly independent, then X is a basis for W

Proof:

1. By Shrinking Theorem, there exists a basis $Y\subseteq X$

However, |Y| < n contradicts that $\dim(W) = n$

Thus Y = X, i.e. X is a basis

2. By Expansion Theorem, we can expand X to a basis Y

However, |Y| > n contradicts that $\dim(W) = n$

Thus Y = X, i.e. X is a basis

1.3.1 Toolbox Corollaries and Results

The following are useful corollaries that can be used to prove additional interesting results

Let V be a K-Vector Space with $\dim(V) = n$, i.e. V has some basis with n elements

- 1. Every basis for V has n elements
- 2. If $X \supseteq V$ and span(X) = V, then X has at least n elements and some subset $Y \subseteq X$ is a basis for V
- 3. If $Z \subseteq V$ is linearly independent, then Z has at most n elements and Z can be extended to a basis $Y \supseteq Z$ for V

Example: Let $V = R^3$. Since $\dim(V) = 3$, V has a basis with 3 elements

• Consider the **Standard Basis**: $B = \{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}$

Suppose $X = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} \subseteq V$ for arbitrary vectors

- If $\operatorname{span}(X) = V$ then X is a basis
- If X is linearly independent, since |X| = 3, X is a basis for V

Example: Describe all subspaces $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$

Note: Since $\dim(V) = 3$, we must have $\dim(W) \leq \dim(V) = 3$

- Case 0: $\dim(W) = 0$
 - Clearly $W = \{O\}$
- Case 1: $\dim(W) = 1$

W is a line going through (0,0,0)

Thus a basis for W will be $\{w\}$ for any nonzero $w \in W$

• Case 2: $\dim(W) = 2$

W is a plane containing (0,0,0)

Thus a basis for W will be any 2 element set $\{w_1, w_2\} \subseteq W$ such that

- Neither element is O
- $-w_2$ is not a scalar multiple of w_1
- Case 3: $\dim(W) = 3$

Only possibility is $W = V = R^3$

Examples: Consider subspaces of $\mathcal{F}(R)$ and look at small subspaces

• $W = \text{span}(\{e^x\}) = \{re^x \mid r \in R\}$

This can be thought of as a 1-dimensional subpsace of $\mathcal{F}(R)$

• $V = \text{span}(\{\sin(x), \cos(x)\}) = \{a\sin(x) + b\cos(x) \mid a, b \in R\}$

Clearly $\dim(V) = 2$

Consider $f(x) = \sin(x)$ $g(x) = \cos(x)$ $h(x) = 3\sin(x) - 2\cos(x)$

Since h = 3f + (-2)g, $\{f, g, h\}$ is not linearly independent

Thus $\operatorname{span}(\{f, g, h\}) = \operatorname{span}(\{f, g\})$

1.4 Direct Sums

Let V be a K-Vector Space with $\dim(V) = n$. Let $W \subseteq V$ be a subspace of V. Then $\dim(W) \leq n$

Now choose another subspace $U \subseteq V$

Note $W \cap U \neq \emptyset$ since both must contain O

Thus the smallest we can make $W \cap U$ is $\{O\}$

Furthermore, it can be shown that both $U \cap W$ and U + W are both subspaces of V

Definition - Direct Sum: $U \oplus W$ is called a **direct sum** if

- $U \oplus W = U + W$
- $U \cap W = \{O\}$

We often look at cases where $V = U \oplus W$

Example: Consider R^3 and let W be any plane containing (0,0,0)

If U is any line through (0,0,0) such that $U \notin W$, then $R^3 = W \oplus U$

Theorem: Let V be a K-Vector Space with $\dim(V) = n$. Let $W \subseteq V$ be any subspace of V. Then there exists a subspace $U \subseteq V$ such that

$$V=U\oplus W$$

Proof: Choose any basis $Z = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ of W (we know that $m \leq n$)

Now extend Z to $Y = Z \cup \{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$, which is a basis for V

Let $U = \text{span}(\{u_1, \dots, u_r\})$. Then U is a subspace of V and $\{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$ is a basis for U

• Show that $U \cap W = \{O\}$

Choose $v \in U \cap W$

Then we have $v = a_1u_1 + \cdots + a_ru_r = b_1w_1 + \cdots + b_mw_m$

Since Y is a basis for V, then $\{u_1, \ldots, u_r, b_1, \ldots, b_m\}$ is linearly independent

Thus
$$v - v = a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_r u_r - b_1 w_1 - \dots - b_m w_m = 0 \implies a_1 = \dots = a_3 = b_1 = \dots = b_m = 0$$

Thus v = O

• Show that V = U + W

Choose any $v \in V$

Since Y is a basis for V

$$v = \underbrace{a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_r u_r}_{u \in U} + \underbrace{b_1 w_1 + \dots + b_m w_m}_{w \in W}$$

Thus
$$v = u + w \implies V = U + W$$