Course 3

Vector spaces, subspaces



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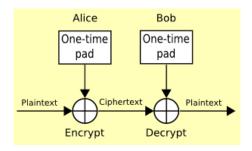
Chapter 2. Vector Spaces

Basic properties

2 Subspaces

Application: Vernam cipher

Following [Klein], we describe an easy, but secure cipher on binary strings, based on vector spaces over \mathbb{Z}_2 .



Vector spaces

Throughout the present chapter K will always denote a field.

Definition

A vector space over K (or a K-vector space) is an abelian group (V, +) together with a so-called external operation or scalar multiplication

$$\cdot : K \times V \to V$$
, $(k, v) \mapsto k \cdot v$ (or simply kv),
EX: R n is a vector space over R

satisfying the following axioms:

$$(L_1) k \cdot (v_1 + v_2) = k \cdot v_1 + k \cdot v_2;$$

$$(L_2) (k_1 + k_2) \cdot v = k_1 \cdot v + k_2 \cdot v;$$

$$(L_3) (k_1 \cdot k_2) \cdot v = k_1 \cdot (k_2 \cdot v);$$

$$(L_4) \ 1 \cdot v = v,$$

for every $k, k_1, k_2 \in K$ and every $v, v_1, v_2 \in V$.

The elements of K are called *scalars* and the elements of V are called *vectors*.

Sometimes a vector space is also called a *linear space*.

Remarks

We usually denote a vector space V over K by $_KV$ or $(V,K,+,\cdot)$.

- (1) In the definition of a vector space there are present four operations (3 by our definition), two denoted by the same symbol "+" and two denoted by the same symbol " \cdot ". Of course, they are not the same, but we use the convention to denote them identically for the sake of simplicity of writing.
- (2) The axioms (L_1) and (L_2) look like some distributive laws and the axiom (L_3) looks like an associative law, but they are not, since the involved elements are not taken from the same set.
- (3) We have defined a *left vector space*. It is also possible to define a *right vector space* by considering an external operation

$$\cdot: V \times K \to V, \quad (v,k) \mapsto v \cdot k,$$

satisfying some similar axioms, but on the right hand side.



Examples I

(a) Let V_2 be the set of all vectors (in the classical sense) in the plane with a fixed origin O. Then V_2 is a vector space over \mathbb{R} (or a real vector space), where the addition is the usual addition of two vectors by the parallelogram rule and the external operation is the usual scalar multiplication of vectors by real scalars.

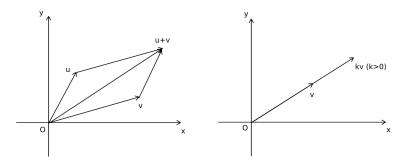


Figure: Vector addition and scalar multiplication.

Examples II

If we consider two coordinate axes Ox and Oy in the plane, each vector in V_2 is perfectly determined by the coordinates of its ending point. Therefore, the addition of vectors and the scalar multiplication of vectors by real numbers become:

$$(x,y) + (x',y') = (x + x', y + y'),$$

 $k \cdot (x,y) = (k \cdot x, k \cdot y),$

 $\forall k \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \forall (x,y), (x',y') \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}. \text{ Thus, } (\mathbb{R}^2,\mathbb{R},+,\cdot) \text{ is a vector space.}$

Similarly, one can consider the real vector space V_3 of all vectors in the space with a fixed origin. Moreover, a further, but more algebraical, generalization is possible, as we may see in the following example.

Examples III

(b) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Define

$$(x_1,...,x_n) + (y_1,...,y_n) = (x_1 + y_1,...,x_n + y_n),$$

 $k \cdot (x_1,...,x_n) = (kx_1,...,kx_n),$

 $\forall (x_1,\ldots,x_n), (y_1,\ldots,y_n) \in K^n \text{ and } \forall k \in K.$ Then $(K^n,K,+,\cdot)$ is a vector space, called the *canonical vector space* (or *standard vector space*) over K.

For $K = \mathbb{Z}_2$, \mathbb{Z}_2^n is a vector space over \mathbb{Z}_2 . For n = 1, ${}_KK$ is a vector space. Hence ${}_{\mathbb{Q}}\mathbb{Q}$, ${}_{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{R}$ and ${}_{\mathbb{C}}\mathbb{C}$ are vector spaces.

(c) If $V = \{e\}$ is a single element set, then we know that there is a unique structure of an abelian group for V, namely that one defined by e+e=e. Then we can define a unique scalar multiplication, namely $k\cdot e=e$, $\forall k\in K$. Thus, V is a vector space, called the zero (null) vector space and denoted by $\{0\}$.



Examples IV

(d) If A is a subfield of the field K, then K is a vector space over A, where the addition and the scalar multiplication are just the addition and the multiplication of elements in the field K.

In particular, $\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{C}$ and $\mathbb{R}\mathbb{C}$ are vector spaces. Note that \mathbb{R} may be viewed as a vector space over \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{R} , while \mathbb{C} may be viewed as a vector space over any of the fields \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

(e) $(K[X], K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, where the addition is the usual addition of polynomials and the scalar multiplication is defined as follows: $\forall f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in K[X], \ \forall k \in K$,

$$kf = (ka_0) + (ka_1)X + \cdots + (ka_n)X^n$$
.

(f) Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $m, n \geq 2$. Then $(M_{m,n}(K), K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, where the operations are the usual addition and scalar multiplication of matrices.



Examples V

(g) Let A be a non-empty set. Denote

$$K^A = \{f \mid f : A \to K\}.$$

Then $(K^A, K, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space, where the addition and the scalar multiplication are defined as follows: $\forall f, g \in K^A, \forall k \in K$, we have $f + g \in K^A$, $kf \in K^A$, where

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x),$$

$$(kf)(x) = kf(x)$$

 $\forall x \in A$. As a particular case, we obtain the vector space $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}, \mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ of real functions of a real variable.

Examples VI

(h) Let V and V' be K-vector spaces. Then the cartesian product $V \times V'$ is a K-vector space, called the *direct product* of V and V', where the addition and the scalar multiplication are defined by:

$$(v_1, v'_1) + (v_2, v'_2) = (v_1 + v_2, v'_1 + v'_2),$$

 $k(v_1, v'_1) = (kv_1, kv'_1)$

$$\forall (v_1, v_1'), (v_2, v_2') \in V \times V' \text{ and } \forall k \in K.$$

(i) We have seen that $V = K \times K$ has a canonical structure of vector space over K. Let us now see what happens if we change the addition or the scalar multiplication.

Let us first define them as follows:

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, 2y_1 + 2y_2),$$

 $k \cdot (x_1, y_1) = (kx_1, ky_1)$



Examples VII

 $\forall (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in V$ and $\forall k \in K$. Then V is still a vector space over K, with a different structure of vector space than the canonical one.

Now let us define them as follows:

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2),$$

 $k \cdot (x_1, y_1) = (kx_1, y_1)$

 $\forall (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in V$ and $\forall k \in K$. In general, they do not define a structure of vector space for V over K, because the axiom (L_2) does not hold.

For instance, for $K = \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$(1+2)\cdot(3,4) = 3\cdot(3,4) = (9,4) \neq (9,8) = (3,4)+(6,4) = 1\cdot(3,4)+2\cdot(3,4).$$



Basic properties

We denote by 0 both the zero scalar and the zero vector.

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

Let V be a vector space over K. Then $\forall k, k' \in K$ and $\forall v, v' \in V$:

- (i) $k \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot v = 0$.
- (ii) k(-v) = (-k)v = -kv.
- (iii) k(v v') = kv kv'.
- (iv) (k k')v = kv k'v.

Proof. We only prove (i) and (ii); the others are homework.

$$k \cdot 0 + k \cdot v = k(0+v) = kv \Longrightarrow k \cdot 0 = 0,$$

$$0 \cdot v + k \cdot v = (0+k)v = kv \Longrightarrow 0 \cdot v = 0.$$

$$kv + k(-v) = k(v-v) = k \cdot 0 = 0 \Longrightarrow k(-v) = -kv,$$

$$kv + (-k)v = (k-k)v = 0 \cdot v = 0 \Longrightarrow (-k)v = -kv.$$

Vector spaces

Basic properties

Theorem

Let V be a vector space over K and let $k \in K$ and $v \in V$. Then:

$$kv = 0 \iff k = 0 \text{ or } v = 0.$$

Proof. \Longrightarrow Assume that kv = 0. Suppose that $k \neq 0$. Then k is invertible in the field K and we have

$$kv = 0 \Longrightarrow kv = k \cdot 0 \Longrightarrow k^{-1}(kv) = k^{-1}(k \cdot 0)$$

 $\Longrightarrow (k^{-1}k)v = (k^{-1}k) \cdot 0 \Longrightarrow v = 0.$

 \longleftarrow This is true by the previous Theorem, part (i).

Subspaces

EX: Every non-zero vector space V over K has two subspaces, namely {0} and V

Definition

Let V be a vector space over K and let $S \subseteq V$. Then S is a subspace of V if:

- (i) $S \neq \emptyset$.
- (ii) $\forall v_1, v_2 \in S, v_1 + v_2 \in S$.
- (iii) $\forall k \in K, \forall v \in S, kv \in S$.

We usually denote by $S \leq_K V$, or simply by $S \leq V$, the fact that S is a subspace of the vector space V over K.

Notice that every subspace S of a vector space V over K is a subgroup of the additive group (V, +), hence S must contain 0.

Characterization of subspaces

Theorem

Let V be a vector space over K and let $S \subseteq V$. Then

$$S \leq V \Longleftrightarrow egin{cases} S
eq \emptyset & (0 \in S) \\ orall k_1, k_2 \in K, & \forall v_1, v_2 \in S, & k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 \in S. \end{cases}$$

Proof. \Longrightarrow Taking k=0 and $v_1 \in S \neq \emptyset$, we have $0=0 \cdot v_1 \in S$. Now let $k_1, k_2 \in K$ and $v_1, v_2 \in S$. Then we have $k_1v_1, k_2v_2 \in S$, and then $k_1v_1 + k_2v_2 \in S$.

Choose $k_1 = k_2 = 1$ and then $k_2 = 0$ and to show that S is a subspace.

Examples I

- (a) Every non-zero vector space V over K has two subspaces, namely $\{0\}$ and V. They are called the *trivial subspaces*.
- (b) Let us show that

$$S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x + y + z = 0\},$$

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

are subspaces of the canonical real vector space \mathbb{R}^3 [...]. Note that S is a plane passing through the origin. For instance, the plane

$$\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x + y + z = 1\}$$

is not a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 over \mathbb{R} .

Note that T is a line passing through the origin.

(c) More generally, the only subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 are $\{(0,0,0)\}$, any line containing the origin, any plane containing the origin and \mathbb{R}^3 .



Examples II

(d) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let

$$K_n[X] = \{ f \in K[X] \mid \text{degree}(f) \leq n \}.$$

Then $K_n[X]$ is a subspace of the polynomial vector space K[X] over K. Note that the set $\{f \in K[X] \mid \text{degree}(f) = n\}$ is not a subspace of K[X] over K.

(e) Let $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an interval. We have seen that

$$\mathbb{R}^I = \{ f \mid f : I \to \mathbb{R} \}$$

is a real vector space, where the addition and the scalar multiplication are defined as follows: $\forall f,g:I \to \mathbb{R}, \ \forall k \in K$, we have $f+g:I \to \mathbb{R}, \ kf:I \to \mathbb{R}$, where

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x),$$

$$(kf)(x) = kf(x), \forall x \in I.$$

Examples III

The subsets

$$C(I,\mathbb{R}) = \{ f \in \mathbb{R}^I \mid f \text{ continuous on } I \},$$

$$D(I,\mathbb{R}) = \{ f \in \mathbb{R}^I \mid f \text{ derivable on } I \}$$

are subspaces of \mathbb{R}^I , because they are nonempty and we have:

$$\forall k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall f, g \in C(I, \mathbb{R}), \ k_1 f + k_2 g \in C(I, \mathbb{R}),$$

 $\forall k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall f, g \in D(I, \mathbb{R}), \ k_1 f + k_2 g \in D(I, \mathbb{R}).$

Extra: Vernam cipher I

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and consider the canonical vector space $V = \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ over \mathbb{Z}_2 . The vectors of V may be identified with n-bit binary strings.

Suppose that Alice needs to send an *n*-bit plaintext $p \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ to Bob.

Vernam cipher:

- (*Key establishment*) Alice and Bob randomly choose a vector $k \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n$ as a key.
- ② (*Encryption*) Alice computes the ciphertext c according to the formula c = p + k, where the sum is a vector in \mathbb{Z}_2^n .
- **1** (*Decryption*) Bob computes the plaintext p according to the formula p = c k = c + k, where the sum is a vector in \mathbb{Z}_2^n .

The system satisfies perfect secrecy, but the key k must be distributed in advance.

Extra: Vernam cipher II

Example

Alice wants to send to Bob the message

$$p = (0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$

Alice and Bob agree on the following vector as the key

$$k = (0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$

Alice encrypts the message by computing the ciphertext \boldsymbol{c} as:

$$c = p + k = (0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$

Bob decrypts the message by computing the plaintext p as:

$$p = c + k = (0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{10}.$$



21