

# Vector Spaces and Subspaces (向量空间和子空间)

## Lecture 6

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# Vector Spaces

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# Introduction

Recall that:

- The space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  consists of all column vectors with  $n$  components.
- $\mathbb{R}^2$  is represented by the usual  $xy$  plane.
- The three components of a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  give a point in three-dimensional space.

The valuable thing for linear algebra is that the extension to  $n$  dimensions is so straightforward. For a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^7$ , we just need the seven components, even if the geometry is hard to visualize.

# Addition and Scalar Multiplication

Within all vector spaces, we can:

- add any two vectors;
- multiply all vectors by scalars.

In other words, we can take **linear combinations**.

- Addition obeys the commutative law  $x + y = y + x$ ; there is a “zero vector” satisfying  $0 + x = x$ ; and there is a “vector” satisfying  $-x + x = 0$ .
- Eight properties are fundamental, see the following page.
- A real vector space is a set of vectors together with rules for vector addition and multiplication by real numbers.
- Normally our vectors belong to one of the spaces  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ; they are ordinary vectors. The formal definition allows other things to be “vectors”—provided that addition and scalar multiplication are **all right**.

## Definition

*A real vector space is a set of vectors together with rules for vector addition and multiplication by real numbers. There are eight fundamental properties:*

1.  $x + y = y + x$  (commutativity of addition).
2.  $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$  (associativity of addition).
3. There is a unique “zero vector” such that  $x + 0 = x$  for all  $x$ .
4. For each  $x$  there is a unique vector  $-x$  such that  $x + (-x) = 0$ .
5.  $1x = x$ .
6.  $(c_1 c_2)x = c_1(c_2 x)$ .
7.  $c(x + y) = cx + cy$ .
8.  $(c_1 + c_2)x = c_1 x + c_2 x$ .

*The elements  $x + y$  and  $cx$  are called the sum of  $x$  and  $y$  and the product of  $c$  and  $x$ , respectively.*

# Examples

**Example 1** The infinite-dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^\infty$ . Its vectors have infinitely many components, as in  $x = (1, 2, 1, 2, \dots)$ . The laws for  $x + y$  and  $cx$  stay unchanged.

**Example 2** The space of 3 by 2 matrices. In this case, the “vectors” are matrices. We can add two matrices, and  $A + B = B + A$ , and there is a zero matrix, and so on. This space is almost the same as  $\mathbb{R}^6$ . (The six components are arranged in a rectangle instead of a column.) Any choice of  $m$  and  $n$  would give, as a similar example, the vector space of all  $m$  by  $n$  matrices.

## Example 3

**Example 3** The space of functions  $f(x)$ . Here we admit all functions  $f$  that are defined on a fixed interval, say  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ . The space includes  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $g(x) = \sin x$ , their sum  $(f + g)(x) = x^2 + \sin x$ , and all multiples like  $3x^2$  and  $-\sin x$ . The vectors are functions, and the dimension is somehow a larger infinity than for  $\mathbb{R}^\infty$ .

# Additional Properties of Vector Spaces

The following theorem states five more fundamental properties of vector spaces.

## Theorem

*If  $V$  is a vector space and  $x, y$ , and  $z$  are elements of  $V$ , then*

1.  $0x = 0$ .
2.  $(-1)x = -x$ .
3. *If  $x + y = x + z$ , then  $y = z$ .*
4.  $\beta 0 = 0$  for each scalar  $\beta$ .
5. *If  $\alpha x = 0$ , then either  $\alpha = 0$  or  $x = 0$ .*



# Example

## Example

Let  $\mathbb{R}^+$  denote the set of positive real numbers. Define the operation of scalar multiplication, denoted  $\circ$ , by

$$\alpha \circ x = x^\alpha$$

for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$  and for any real number  $\alpha$ . Define the operation of addition, denoted  $\oplus$ , by

$$x \oplus y = x \cdot y \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^+.$$

Show that  $\mathbb{R}^+$  is a vector space with these operations.

Thus for this system, the scalar product of  $-3$  times  $\frac{1}{2}$  is given by  $-3 \circ \frac{1}{2} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{-3} = 8$  and the sum of 2 and 5 is given by  $2 \oplus 5 = 2 \cdot 5 = 10$ .

# Subspace

Consider any plane through the origin in three dimensional space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , it is a vector space in its own right, and it is actually inside the original space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . This example suggests us to study *subspace*:

## Definition

A subspace of a vector space is a nonempty subset that satisfies the requirements for a vector space:

- (i) If we add any vectors  $x$  and  $y$  in the subspace,  $x+y$  is in the subspace.
- (ii) If we multiply any vector  $x$  in the subspace by any scalar  $c$ ,  $cx$  is in the subspace.

In other words, *Linear combinations stay in the subspace.*

## Remarks

- Notice our emphasis on the word **space**. A subspace is a subset that is “closed” under addition and scalar multiplication.
- The zero vector belongs to every subspace.
- The distinction between a subset and a subspace: in a subspace, when you add vectors and multiply by scalars, without leaving the space. However, a subset does not generally have that property.

## Remarks

- The smallest subspace contains only the the zero vector. It is a zero dimensional vector space.
- If the original space is  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then the possible subspaces are easy to describe:  $\mathbb{R}^3$  itself, any plane through the origin, any line through the origin, or the origin alone.
- The distinction between a subset and a subspace is made clear by examples.

# Examples

## Example

**Example 4** All vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  whose components are positive or zero. This subset is not a subspace. This subset is the first quadrant of the  $x-y$  plane; the coordinates satisfy  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$ . It is not a subspace, even though it contains zero and addition does leave us within the subset. Rule (ii) is violated, since if the scalar  $-1$  and the vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , the multiple  $cx = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  is in the third quadrant instead of the first.

## Example

**Example 5** Lower Triangular Matrices and Symmetric Matrices. Start from the vector space of 3 by 3 matrices. One possible subspace is the set of lower triangular matrices. Another is the set of symmetric matrices.

# The Column Space of $A$

The incredible thing is that the plane that is spanned by the column vectors of a coefficient matrix of system of linear equations is actually a subspace! It is the **column space** of  $A$ , which is denoted by  $C(A)$ .

## Definition

The **column space** of a matrix  $A$  contains all linear combinations of the columns of  $A$ . It is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

# Theorem and Remarks

## Theorem

*The system  $Ax = b$  is solvable if and only if the vector  $b$  can be expressed as a combination of the columns of  $A$ . Then  $b$  is in the column space.*

- (a) The attainable right-hand sides  $b$  are all combinations of the columns of  $A$ .
- (b) Geometrical meaning:  $Ax = b$  can be solved if and only if  $b$  lies in the plane that is spanned by the column vectors.

# The Column Space is a subspace

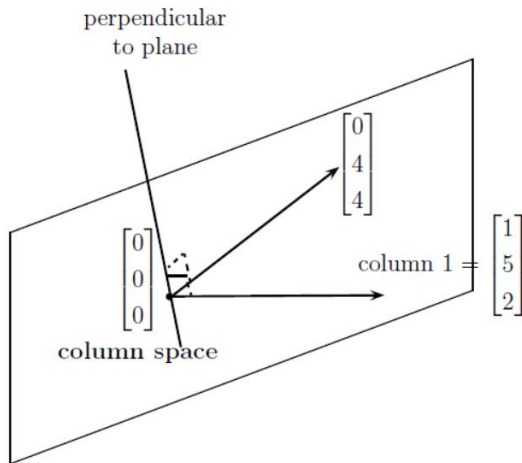
Consider  $Ax = b$  as follows:

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} \left( = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

We can describe all combinations of the two columns geometrically:

- (a)  $Ax = b$  can be solved if and only if  $b$  lies in the plane that is spanned by the two column vectors (Figure 2.1). This is the thin set of attainable  $b$ .
- (b) If  $b$  lies off the plane, then it is not a combination of the two columns. In that case  $Ax = b$  has no solution.
- (c) What is important is that this plane is not just a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ; it is a subspace. It is the column space of  $A$ , consisting of all combinations of the columns.





**Figure 2.1:** The column space  $C(A)$ , a plane in three-dimensional space.

## Column Space $C(A)$ of an $m \times n$ matrix $A$ is a subspace

It can be readily checked as follows:

- Suppose  $b$  and  $b'$  lie in the column space, so that  $Ax = b$  for some  $x$  and  $Ax' = b'$  for some  $x'$ . Then  $A(x+x') = b+b'$ , so that  $b+b'$  is also a combination of the columns. The column space of all attainable vectors  $b$  is closed under addition.
- If  $b$  is in the column space  $C(A)$ , so is any multiple  $cb$ . If some combination of columns produces  $b$  (say  $Ax = b$ ), then multiplying that combination by  $c$  will produce  $cb$ . In other words,  $A(cx) = cb$ .

For another matrix  $A$ , the dimensions in Figure 2.1 may be very different.

# Examples

- zero matrix.
- nonsingular matrix.
- $C(A)$  can be somewhere between the zero space and the whole space. Together with its perpendicular space, it gives one of our two approaches to understand  $Ax = b$ .

# The Nullspace of $A$

## Definition

The solutions to  $Ax = 0$  form a vector space—the nullspace of  $A$ .

The **nullspace** of a matrix consists of all vectors  $x$  such that  $Ax = 0$ . It is denoted by  $N(A)$ . It is subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , just as the column space was a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

Can you check the requirements (i) and (ii) as well?

## Nullspace: Example

Consider the following example again:

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} \left( = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

- Only the solutions to a homogeneous equation ( $b = 0$ ) form a subspace.
- The **nullspace** contains only the vector  $(0,0)$ .
- The columns of the coefficient matrix are independent. (A key concept that comes soon).

## Nullspace: Another Example

If we add one more column to the previous matrix, which is a combination of the first two columns, then we immediately see that the column space stays the same. However, the Nullspace is quite different.

### Example

If we add an extra column to the previous matrix, what is its new nullspace?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 4 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Two More Examples

### Example

Let  $\mathbf{P}$  be the plane in 3-space with equation  $x + 2y + z = 6$ . What is the equation of the plane  $\mathbf{P}_0$  through the origin parallel to  $\mathbf{P}$ ? Are  $\mathbf{P}$  and  $\mathbf{P}_0$  subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ?

### Example

If we add an extra column  $b$  to a matrix  $A$ , then the column space gets larger unless \_\_\_\_\_. Give an example in which the column space gets larger and an example in which it doesn't. Why is  $Ax = b$  solvable exactly when the column space doesn't get larger by including  $b$ ?

# Example

## Example

Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be the set of all  $n \times n$  matrices.

- (a) Verify that  $V$  is a vector space.
- (b) Let  $W$  be the subset of  $V$  consisting of all  $n \times n$  matrices such that  $\text{Tr}(A) = 0$ . Show that  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
- (c) Can you find the dimension of  $W$ ?



## Further Remarks

We shall compute the dimensions of those subspaces and a convenient set of vectors to generate them. We hope to end up by understanding all four subspaces that are intimately related to each other and to  $A$ —the column space of  $A$ , the nullspace of  $A$ , and their two perpendicular spaces.

# Homework Assignment 6

2.1: 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 22, 28.