

Lecture 48: More on abstract vector spaces

Subspaces [N.B. I write $|S|$ to denote the cardinality of a set, i.e. the number of elements it contains.]

Let $(V, +, \cdot, 0)$ be a (real) vector space, $W \subseteq V$ a subset.

Definition: W is a subspace if it is closed under $+$ & \cdot .

- Subspaces are vector spaces because the needed properties of $+$ & \cdot are inherited from V , and closure under these operations means $(-1)w$ & $w + (-1)w = 0 \in W$.

Ex/ Given $S \subseteq V$ subset, its linear span $L(S) := \{ \text{all finite sums } \sum_{v \in S} c_v v \}$ is a subspace. Define $L(\emptyset) := \{0\}$. Different S 's can generate the same subspace. //

Independence

Definition: S is dependent if there exists a relation, which means a finite sum $\sum_{v \in S} c_v v = 0$ with not all $\{c_v\}$ zero, and independent otherwise. (For $|S| < \infty$, this is equivalent to our earlier definition.)

- Subsets of independent sets are independent (b/c if a subset has a relation, the whole set does too by definition).

Ex/ Let V be the set of functions $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

- $S = \{ \cos^2 x, \sin^2 x, 1 \}$ is dependent.

- $S = \{ 1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n \}$ is independent; its span $L(S)$ is denoted P_n .

Pf: $\sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k \equiv 0$ (the function is identically zero on \mathbb{R}) $\stackrel{x=0}{\Rightarrow}$ $c_0 = 0$ and the derivative $\sum_{k=1}^n k c_k x^{k-1} \equiv 0 \stackrel{x=0}{\Rightarrow} c_1 = 0$ etc. \square

- Given real #'s $a_1 < \dots < a_n$, $S = \{ e^{a_k x} \}_{k=1}^n$ is independent.

Pf: induce on n : $\sum_{k=1}^n c_k e^{a_k x} \equiv 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n c_k e^{(a_k - a_n)x} \equiv 0 \Rightarrow$

$c_n = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n c_k e^{(a_k - a_n)x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$ (so done by induction). $\square //$

Dimension

Recall that in case $V = V_n$, we showed that

(*) for $|S| = k$ & S independent, any $k+1$ elements of $L(S)$ are dependent.

[The same exact proof works for general V : to recap., if $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$,

we may write $w_1, \dots, w_{k+1} \in L(S)$ as $w_j = \sum c_{ij} v_i$ and represent this as a $k \times (k+1)$ matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & \dots & c_{1,k+1} \\ c_{21} & \dots & c_{2,k+1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{k1} & \dots & c_{k,k+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

we need to exhibit a relation on the "column vectors" for any such matrix.

Arguing by induction, we are done if the entire 1st row is zero (why?).

Otherwise, use a nonzero entry in row 1 to eliminate all the other nonzero entries in row 1, by subtracting multiples of the column it's in from the other columns.

We then get, by induction, a relation on the other columns.]

Definition: (i) If $V = L(S)$, V is spanned by S . If V is spanned by a finite subset, V is called a finite-dimensional vector space.

(ii) A basis of a f.d. v.s. V is an independent set spanning V .

Its dimension $\dim(V)$ is the number of elements in a basis.

Remark: Any 2 bases S & T of V have the same cardinality by (*): if $|T| > |S|$, then T would be dependent; & vice versa. Moreover, for a f.d. v.s., any independent set of cardinality $\dim(V)$ is a basis (otherwise, adding a vector not in its span would violate (*)).

Ex / $\dim(\{0\}) = 0$, $\dim(V_n) = n$, $\dim(P_n) = n+1$ (why?) //

Ex / Suppose $r^2 + ar + b = 0$ has distinct real roots, and let $V = \{\text{solutions of } y'' + ay' + by = 0\}$.

Then V is spanned by $e^{r_1 x}$ & $e^{r_2 x}$, so $\dim V = 2$. (Much the

same story holds if V is the set of sequences solving a recurrence of the form $a_n = F(a_{n-1}, a_{n-2})$ ($n \geq 2$). A basis is given by the solutions starting with $1, 0, \dots$ and $0, 1, \dots$.) //

• Given a basis $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, any $x \in V$ may be uniquely represented as $x = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i v_i$. We express this by writing $[x]_S := \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix}$.

Inner products

Definition: An inner product on V is a binary operation

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

satisfying $(x, y) = (y, x)$, $(x, y+z) = (x, y) + (x, z)$, $(x, cy) = c(x, y)$, $(x, x) > 0$ if $x \neq 0$.

Write $\|x\| := \sqrt{(x, x)}$ for the norm. A vector space w/ inner product is an inner product space or (real) Euclidean space.

Ex/ $V = V_n$ has an inner product given by " \cdot " (the dot product).

But it has many other inner products, e.g. for $n=2$ we can take $(x, y) := 2x_1y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_2y_1 + y_1y_2$. //

Ex/ For $V = C([a, b])$ or P_n , $(f, g) := \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$ will work (why?) //

- By the same proofs as for the dot product, we get
 - $|(x, y)| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$ (Cauchy-Schwarz) [e.g. $(\int_a^b fg dx)^2 \leq (\int_a^b f^2 dx)(\int_a^b g^2 dx)$]
 - $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$ (Δ inequality)
 - $\|cx\| = |c| \|x\|$
- As for the dot product setting, we can define $\theta_{x,y} = \arccos\left(\frac{(x,y)}{\|x\|\|y\|}\right)$ and $x \perp y$ (x orthogonal to y) $\stackrel{\text{def.}}{\iff} (x, y) = 0$. (Keep in mind that these depend on the choice of inner product!) A set \mathcal{B} is orthogonal if all its elements are nonzero and mutually \perp , and orthonormal if its elements also have norm 1.

- Key point: Any orthogonal set is independent (so if \mathcal{B} is orthogonal with $|\mathcal{B}| = \dim(V)$, then \mathcal{B} is a basis of V).

Proof: $\sum_i c_i x_i = 0 \stackrel{(x_j, \cdot)}{\implies} 0 = \sum_i c_i (x_j, x_i) = c_j \underbrace{(x_j, x_j)}_{\neq 0} \implies c_j = 0$. \square

- Given an orthogonal basis $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of V , any $v = \sum_i c_i e_i \stackrel{(e_j, \cdot)}{\implies} (e_j, v) = \sum_i c_i (e_j, e_i) = c_j (e_j, e_j) \implies c_j = \frac{(e_j, v)}{(e_j, e_j)}$. If \mathcal{B} is orthonormal (o.n.), this yields $v = \sum_{j=1}^n (e_j, v) e_j$ for every $v \in V$. Given $v, w \in V$, we get $(v, w) = \sum_{j=1}^n (e_j, v)(e_j, w)$.