

LINEAR VECTOR SPACES

GENERAL DEFINITIONS AND CONSIDERATIONS

We know that a vector \mathbf{u} in E_3 (3D Euclidean space) can be expressed as an ordered triplet of numbers : $\mathbf{u}=(u_1, u_2, u_3)$. E_3 is a 3D vector space (\mathbb{R}^3) in which the inner (scalar) product is defined. We now generalize the real vector space to n dimensions and designate it by \mathbb{R}^n . An element \mathbf{u} of \mathbb{R}^n has the form $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ with the following properties:

- i) If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are any two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then $\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}$ would be in \mathbb{R}^n ; in other words, \mathbb{R}^n is closed under vector addition. Further, the vector addition obeys the rules :
 - 1) $\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}+\mathbf{u}$ for all \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n
 - 2) $\mathbf{u}+(\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w})=(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v})+\mathbf{w}$ for all \mathbf{u},\mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} in \mathbb{R}^n
 - 3) there exists a unique zero vector " $\mathbf{0}$ " in \mathbb{R}^n so that $\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{0}=\mathbf{0}+\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{u}$ for all \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n
 - 4) for each \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n there exists a unique vector " $-\mathbf{u}$ " so that $\mathbf{u}+(-\mathbf{u})=(-\mathbf{u})+\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{0}$

- ii) If \mathbf{u} is any vector in \mathbb{R}^n and c is any real number, then " $c\mathbf{u}$ " would be in \mathbb{R}^n ; in other words, \mathbb{R}^n is closed under scalar multiplication. Further, scalar multiplication obeys the rules :
 - 1) $c\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{u}c$ for any \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n and any real number " c "
 - 2) $c(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v})=c\mathbf{u}+c\mathbf{v}$ for any \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n , and any real number " c "
 - 3) $(c+d)\mathbf{u}=c\mathbf{u}+d\mathbf{u}$ for any \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n , and any real numbers " c " and " d "
 - 4) $(cd)\mathbf{u}=c(d\mathbf{u})$ for any \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n , and any real numbers " c " and " d "
 - 5) $(1)\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{u}$ and $(0)\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{0}$ for any \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n

A complex vector space is a collection of elements satisfying the conditions in (i) and (ii) stated above; but, in this case, the multiplication by a complex number is allowed in (ii).

Even though the properties in (i) and (ii) are given to define \mathbb{R}^n (n -dimensional real vector space), they also define an abstract vector space (V); in other words, any space with the elements satisfying the conditions in(i) and (ii) is called a vector space.

Example : A space with the elements of the form (a, a^2) is not a vector space because it is not closed under addition. In fact consider two elements , say \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , of that space :

$$\mathbf{A} = (a, a^2) ; \mathbf{B} = (b, b^2)$$

whose addition gives : $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = (a+b, a^2 + b^2)$ which is not an element of the space under consideration.

Example : Consider the space P_2 of second order polynomials: $P_2(x)=c_0 + c_1*x +c_2 *x^2$ (where c_i are some constants). This space is a vector space since it satisfies all of the conditions in (i) and (ii) [you verify this as home exercise].

Example : The space of (2x2) matrices with the elements of the form : $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$

is a vector space because the elements of that space satisfy all of the conditions in (i) and (ii).

Subspace of a Vector Space : Let V be a vector space and W be a subset of V . Then, W would be a subspace of V if only if W is closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication.

We note that not all subsets of a vector space are subspaces. For example, the subset of \mathbb{R}^3 containing all the vectors of the form $(u_1, u_2, 1)$ is not a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 since it is not closed under vector addition, as well as, under multiplication by scalar. On the other hand, the subset with the elements of the form $(u_1, u_2, 0)$ would be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 [verify this as home exercise].

Linear Combination of Vectors : Let $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ be a set of vectors in a vector space V . The vector

$$\mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{u}_n \text{ with } c_i \text{ 's being real numbers}$$

is called a linear combinations of the vectors in S .

Vectors Spanning a Vector Space : Let $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ be a set of vectors in a vector space V . The set S spans V if every vector in V can be expressed as a linear combination of the vectors in S . We say that V is spanned by S , and S is the spanning set of V whenever S spans V .

Example : Show that the set $\{(1,0,0), (1,1,0), (1,1,1)\}$ spans \mathbb{R}^3 .

Solution : We take an arbitrary vector in \mathbb{R}^3 , say $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and we show that it can be expressed as a linear combination of the vectors in S . To this end, we write

$$c_1 (1,0,0) + c_2 (1,1,0) + c_3 (1,1,1) = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$$

which leads to a system of linear equations : $c_1 + c_2 + c_3 = u_1$

$$c_1 + c_2 = u_2$$

$$c_3 = u_3$$

whose solution gives : $c_1 = u_1 - u_2$; $c_2 = u_2 - u_3$; $c_3 = u_3$. This completes the verification. For example, we can use the above solution for :

$$(-2,5,7) = -7(1,0,0) - 2(1,1,0) + 7(1,1,1)$$

Example : Show that the set $\{(1,0,0), (1,1,1)\}$ does not span \mathbb{R}^3 .

Solution : We take an arbitrary vector in \mathbb{R}^3 , say $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$, and we show that it can not be expressed as a linear combination of the vectors in S . For that, we write

$$c_1 (1,0,0) + c_2 (1,1,1) = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$$

which leads to a system of linear equations : $c_1 + c_2 = u_1$

$$c_2 = u_2$$

$$c_2 = u_3$$

which has no solution since (u_1, u_2, u_3) is a triplet of arbitrary numbers. This completes the verification.

Linear Independence of Vectors : Let $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ be a set of vectors in a vector space V . The vectors in the set S are said to be linearly independent if the equation

$$c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{u}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

is satisfied if only if $c_i = 0$ ($i= 1-n$), where c_i 's are real numbers. On the other hand, if the above equation is satisfied by some nontrivial (nonzero) values of c_i 's , then the vectors in the set S would be linearly dependent. We note that for linearly independent case none of the vectors in S can be expressed as a linear combination of the others. An immediate consequence of the above definition is that : any set of vectors containing zero vector is linearly dependent.

Basis of a Vector Space : Let S be a set of vectors in V . Then, we say that the vectors in S form a basis for V if the vectors in S **i)** are linearly independent **ii)** span V .

Example : The set $S=\{(1,0,0) , (1,1,0), (1,1,1)\}$ spans \mathbb{R}^3 and linearly independent; hence it can be used as a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

Example : For a space M of 2×2 matrices (which is a vector space), the basis set may be chosen as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which are independent and span V (you may show these as home exercise).

Example : For a space P_2 of second order polynomials (which is a vector space) the basis set may be chosen as

$$S = \{1, x, x^2\}$$

which are independent and span P_2 (you may show these as home exercise)

The selection of the basis set for given vector space is not unique; but, the number of the base vectors contained in the set is invariant. For example, for \mathbb{R}^3 the basis set may be chosen as $S=\{(1,0,0) , (1,1,0), (1,1,1)\}$ or $S=\{(1,0,0) , (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}$, etc., where we note that each basis set contains 3 base vectors.

Dimension of a Vector Space : The number of base vectors in the basis set of a given vector space V is called dimension of V and designated by “ $\dim(V)$ ”. For example, $\dim(\mathbb{R}^n) = n$ since \mathbb{R}^n has “ n ” base vectors which may be chosen as

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0) ; \mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0) ; \dots ; \mathbf{e}_n = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$$

The space M_2 of 2×2 matrices has the dimension of 4 since it has four base vectors. The dimension of P_2 (which is the space of second order polynomials) is 3 because it has three base vectors.

INNER PRODUCT VECTOR SPACES

In this space, the inner product (\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) of two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is defined with the following properties

- 1) $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$ (Symmetry).
- 2) $(c\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = c(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$, where c is a constant.
- 3) $(c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2 , \mathbf{v}) = c_1 (\mathbf{u}_1 , \mathbf{v}) + c_2 (\mathbf{u}_2 , \mathbf{v})$, where c_1 and c_2 are constants. (Linearity)
- 4) $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u}) \geq 0$, where equality holds if only if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$. (Positive-definiteness)

Orthogonality Condition : Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are said to be orthogonal if $(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v})=0$. A set of vectors in which each pair is orthogonal is called orthogonal set. An orthogonal set of nonzero vectors is always linearly independent.

Definition of Inner Product in E_n : The inner product of the vectors $\mathbf{u}=(u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v}=(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ in n-dimensional Euclidean space (E_n) is defined by

$$(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}) = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

which implies

$$(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u})=u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2$$

or

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = (\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u})^{1/2} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$$

which is the length of the vector \mathbf{u} can be used as a **norm** in E_n .

Norm of a Vector : The norm $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ of a vector \mathbf{u} is a nonzero scalar with the properties

- 1) $\|\mathbf{u}\| \geq 0$ where the equality holds if only if $\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{0}$,
- 2) $\|c\mathbf{u}\| = |c| \|\mathbf{u}\|$, where c is a constant,
- 3) $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$.

We can define various types of norms. Among them, the most popular one is p-norm which is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_p = (|u_1|^p + |u_2|^p + \dots + |u_n|^p)^{1/p} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |u_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

where ‘p’ is a fixed number. In practice, we usually take p=1 or 2, or we use (as third norm) $\|\mathbf{u}\|_\infty$ (called maximum norm, defined below), that is,

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_1 = (|u_1| + |u_2| + \dots + |u_n|) = \sum_{i=1}^n |u_i| \quad (l_1\text{-norm}),$$

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = (|u_1|^2 + |u_2|^2 + \dots + |u_n|^2)^{1/2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |u_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{Euclidean or } l_2\text{-norm}),$$

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_\infty = \max_j |u_j| \quad (\text{maximum or } l_\infty\text{-norm}).$$

Example : Compute l_1 -, l_2 - and l_∞ - norms of the vector $\mathbf{u}=(2,-3,0,1,-4)$.

Answer : $\|\mathbf{u}\|_1 = 2+3+0+1+4 = 10$; $\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = (4+9+0+1+16)^{1/2} = (30)^{1/2}$; $\|\mathbf{u}\|_\infty = 4$

INFINITE DIMENSIONAL EUCLIDEAN (FUNCTION) SPACE

Consider a function $f(x)$ given in discrete form .

x	x_1	x_2	\dots	x_n
f	f_1	f_2	\dots	f_n

This discrete valued function defines an n -dimensional Euclidean space (E_n) with the elements $f=(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$ at the data points x ($i=1-n$), where the inner product of two discrete functions f and g are defined by

$$(f,g)=f_1 g_1 + f_2 g_2 + \dots + f_n g_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i g_i .$$

Now suppose we squeeze the data points x_i ; thus, n goes to infinity and “ f ” becomes continuously defined for all x values. Then, “ f ” may be considered as defined in infinite dimensional Euclidean space (E_∞) , where the inner product of two continuous functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is given by

$$(f,g) = (f,g) = \int_a^b f g dx$$

Here, we assume that f and g are defined in the interval $a \leq x \leq b$. We note that the summation symbol appearing in the definition of inner product in E_n is replaced by integral in infinite dimensional Euclidean space (E_∞).

The inner product in E_∞ obeys the usual rules :

- 1) $(f,g)=(g,f)$ (Symmetry)
- 2) $(cf,g)=c(f,g)$, where c is a constant
- 3) $(c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2, g)=c_1 (f_1, g) + c_2 (f_2, g)$, where c_1 and c_2 are constants. (Linearity)
- 4) $(f,f) = \int_a^b f^2 dx \geq 0$, where equality holds if only if $f=0$. (Positive-definiteness)

The functions f and g would be orthogonal if

$$(f,g) = \int_a^b f g dx = 0$$

Example : Consider the space P_2 of second order polynomials of the form

$$P_2(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2$$

Choose the basis set as : $S=\{1, x, x^2\}$. We can express all the second order polynomials as a linear combination of these base functions. The base functions $S=\{1, x, x^2\}$ are defined in E_∞ ; but, the space spanned by $S=\{1, x, x^2\}$, P_2 , is a subspace of E_∞ . Note that the subspace P_2 containing the second order polynomials has the dimension of 3 since the basis set S contains three base functions.

Linear Independence of Functions : Let $S = \{ v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \}$ be a set of functions in E_∞ defined in the interval $a \leq x \leq b$. The functions in the set S are said to be linearly independent if the equation

$$c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n = 0$$

is satisfied if only if $c_i = 0$ ($i= 1-n$), where c_i 's are real numbers. On the other hand, if the above equation is satisfied by some nontrivial (nonzero) values of c_i 's, then the functions in the set S would be linearly dependent. We note that for linearly independent case none of the functions in S can be expressed as a linear combination of the others. An immediate consequence of the above definition is that : any set of functions containing zero function is linearly dependent.

A Test for Linear Independence of Functions : The set of functions $S = \{ v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \}$ defined in the interval $a \leq x \leq b$ would be linearly independent if the Wronskian determinant W defined by

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ v_1' & v_2' & \dots & v_n' \\ \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ v_1^{(n-1)} & v_2^{(n-1)} & \dots & v_n^{(n-1)} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } ()' = d/dx ; ()^k = d^k / dx^k$$

is not identically equal to zero at all points of the interval $a \leq x \leq b$.

Example : Consider the base functions of a second order polynomial : $\{ 1, x, x^2 \}$. We wish to determine whether these base functions are independent or not. For that, we form the Wronskian determinant :

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2x \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \neq 0 \text{ for all } x \text{ values.}$$

This implies that the functions $\{ 1, x, x^2 \}$ are linearly independent.