Matrix Calculations: Vector Spaces

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Non-homogeneous systems Vector spaces



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From last time

Homogeneous systems have 0's in the RHS of all equations.

Given a homogeneous system in n variables:

- A basic solution is a non-zero solution of the system.
- If there are n pivots in its Echelon form, **0** = (0,...,0) is the unique solution, so no basic solutions.
- If there are p < n pivots in its Echelon form, it has n p linearly independent basic solutions.
- Two methods for finding them: plugging in free variables or deleting non-pivot columns, one-by-one

Non-homogeneous case: subtracting solutions

Theorem

For two solutions s and p of a non-homogeneous system of equations, the difference s - p is a solution of the associated homogeneous system.

Proof: Let $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = b$ be an equation in the non-homogeneous system. Then:

$$a_{1}(s_{1} - p_{1}) + \dots + a_{n}(s_{n} - p_{n})$$

$$= (a_{1}s_{1} - a_{1}p_{1}) + \dots + (a_{n}s_{n} - a_{n}p_{n})$$

$$= (a_{1}s_{1} + \dots + a_{n}s_{n}) - (a_{1}p_{1} + \dots + a_{n}p_{n})$$

$$= b - b \quad \text{since the } s \text{ and } p \text{ are solutions}$$

$$= 0.$$

General solution for non-homogeneous systems

Theorem

Assume a non-homogeneous system has a solution given by the vector **p**, which we call a particular solution. Then any other solution **s** of the non-homogeneous system can be written as

$$s = p + h$$

where h is a solution of the associated homogeneous system.

Proof: Let **s** be a solution of the non-homogeneous system. Then h = s - p is a solution of the associated homogeneous system. Hence we can write **s** as p + h, for **h** some solution of the associated homogeneous system.

Example: solutions of a non-homogeneous system

Consider the non-homogeneous system {

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x+y+2z &=& 9\\ y-3z &=& 4 \end{array}$$

- with solutions: (0,7,1) and (5,4,0)
- We can write (0,7,1) as: (5,4,0) + (-5,3,1)
- where:
 - p = (5, 4, 0) is a particular solution (of the original system)
 - (-5,3,1) is a solution of the associated homogeneous system: $\begin{cases}
 x + y + 2z = 0 \\
 y - 3z = 0
 \end{cases}$
- Similarly, (10, 1, -1) is a solution of the non-homogeneous system and

$$(10, 1, -1) = (5, 4, 0) + (5, -3, -1)$$

• where:

• (5, -3, -1) is a solution of the associated homogeneous system.

General solution for non-homogeneous systems, concretely

Theorem

The general solution of a non-homogeneous system of equations in n variables is given by a parametrization as follows:

$$(s_1, \ldots, s_n) = (p_1, \ldots, p_n) + c_1(v_{11}, \ldots, v_{1n}) + \cdots + c_k(v_{k1}, \ldots, v_{kn})$$

for $c_1, \ldots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$, where

- (p_1, \ldots, p_n) is a particular solution
- $(v_{11}, \ldots, v_{1n}), \ldots, (v_{k1}, \ldots, v_{kn})$ are basic solutions of the associated homogeneous system.
- So c₁(v₁₁,..., v_{1n}) + ··· + c_k(v_{k1},..., v_{kn}) is a general solution for the associated homogeneous system.

Finding a particular solution

- **Recall:** we found basic solutions by setting all but one of the free variables to zero and solving the homogeneous system
- To find a particular solution, set all the free variables to zero and solving the non-homogeneous system
- In other words, remove all the non-pivot columns:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mapsto \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Solve. Then, add zeros back in for the free variables:

$$(10, -11, 4) \mapsto (10, 0, -11, 0, 4)$$

Elaborated example, part I

• Consider the non-homogeneous system of equations given by the augmented matrix in echelon form:

- It has 5 variables, 3 pivots, and thus 5 3 = 2 basic solutions
- To find a particular solution, remove the non-pivot columns, and (uniquely!) solve the resulting system:

• This has (10, -11, 4) as solution; the orginal 5-variable system then has particular solution (10, 0, -11, 0, 4).

Elaborated example, part II

• Consider the associated homogeneous system of equations:



 The two basic solutions are found by removing each of the two non-pivot columns separately, and finding solutions:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_5 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

 We find: (1, −2, 1, 0) and (−1, 1, 0, 0). Adding zeros for missing columns gives: (1, 0, −2, 1, 0) and (−1, 1, 0, 0, 0).

Elaborated example, part III

Wrapping up: all solutions of the system

are of the form:

$$\underbrace{(10,0,-11,0,4)}_{\text{particular sol.}} + \underbrace{c_1(1,0,-2,1,0) + c_2(-1,1,0,0,0)}_{\text{two basic solutions}}.$$

This is the general solution of the non-homogeneous system.

What are numbers?

Suppose I don't know what numbers are... ...but I still manage to pass Mathematical Structures.



Tell me: what are numbers?

What is the *first thing* you would tell me about some numbers, e.g. the real numbers?

What are numbers?

The First Thing: numbers form a set

S (\leftarrow these are some numbers!)

The Second Thing: numbers can be added together

 $a \in S, b \in S \implies a + b \in S$

Addition? Tell me more!

We have a set S, with a special operation '+' which satisfies:

- 1. a + b = b + a
- 2. (a+b) + c = a + (b+c)

...and there's a special element $\mathbf{0} \in S$ where:

3. a + 0 = a

In math-speak, $(S, +, \mathbf{0})$ is called a commutative monoid, but we could also just call it a set with addition.

Examples: sets with addition

- Every kind of number you know: $\mathbb{R},\mathbb{N},\mathbb{Z},\mathbb{Q},\mathbb{C},\ldots$
- The set of all polynomials:

$$(x^2 + 4x + 1) + (2x^2) := 3x^2 + 4x + 1$$
 0 := 0

• The set of all finite sets:

 $\{1,2,3\} + \{3,4\} := \{1,2,3\} \cup \{3,4\} = \{1,2,3,4\} \qquad \textbf{0} := \{\}$

- Here's a small example: $\{0\}$ 0+0:=0 0:=0
- ...and (important!) the set \mathbb{R}^n of all vectors of size *n*: $(x_1, ..., x_n) + (y_1, ..., y_n) := (x_1 + y_1, ..., x_n + y_n)$ **0** := (0, ..., 0)

Linear combinations

• We've been talking a lot about linear combinations:

$$a \cdot \mathbf{v} + b \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u}$$

- Q: what is the most general kind of set, where we can take linear combinations of elements?
- A: a set V with addition and...scalar multiplication

$$a \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{v} \in V \implies a \cdot \mathbf{v} \in V$$

Multiplication ?! What does that do?

A vector space is a set with addition $(V, +, \mathbf{0})$ with an extra operation '.', which satisfies:

1
$$a \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = a \cdot \mathbf{v} + a \cdot \mathbf{w}$$

2 $(a + b) \cdot \mathbf{v} = a \cdot \mathbf{v} + b \cdot \mathbf{v}$
3 $a \cdot (b \cdot \mathbf{v}) = ab \cdot \mathbf{v}$
4 $1 \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$
5 $0 \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

Example

Our **main example** is \mathbb{R}^n , where:

$$a \cdot (v_1, \ldots, v_n) := (av_1, \ldots, av_n)$$

Vector spaces: all together

Definition

A vector space $(V, +, \cdot, \mathbf{0})$ is a set V with a special element $\mathbf{0} \in V$ and operations '+' and '.' satisfying:

1
$$(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$$

2 $v + w = w + v$
3 $v + 0 = v$
4 $a \cdot (v + w) = a \cdot v + a \cdot w$
5 $(a + b) \cdot v = a \cdot v + b \cdot v$
6 $a \cdot (b \cdot v) = ab \cdot v$
7 $1 \cdot v = v$
8 $0 \cdot v = 0$
For all $u \neq w \notin V$ and $a \neq h \in \mathbb{R}$

}

Vector spaces: Main Example

Our main example:

$$\mathbb{R}^{n} = \{ (v_{1}, \dots, v_{n}) \mid v_{1}, \dots, v_{n} \in \mathbb{R} \\ = \{ \begin{pmatrix} v_{1} \\ \vdots \\ v_{n} \end{pmatrix} \mid v_{1}, \dots, v_{n} \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

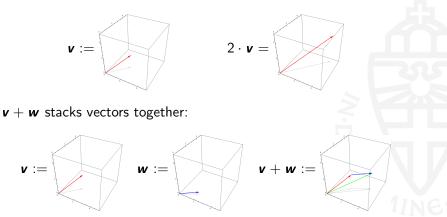
The operations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 + w_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n + w_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad a \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} av_1 \\ \vdots \\ av_n \end{pmatrix}$$

have a clear geometric interpretation.

Vector spaces: geometric interpretation

 $a \cdot \mathbf{v}$ makes a vector shorter or longer:



Example: subspaces

Certain subsets $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ are also vector spaces, e.g.

$$V = \{(v_1, v_2, 0) \mid v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{R}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$$
$$W = \{(x, 2x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$$

as long as they have $\boldsymbol{0},$ and they are closed under '+' and '-':

$$oldsymbol{v},oldsymbol{w}\in V\impliesoldsymbol{v}+oldsymbol{w}\in V$$

$$\mathbf{v} \in V, \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R} \implies \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{v} \in V$$

These are called *subspaces* of \mathbb{R}^n .

Vector space example

We've seen this example before!

Example

The set of solutions of a homogeneous system of equations is a vector space.

Let S be the set of solutions of a homogeneous system of equations, with n variables. Then $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and as we learned last week:

$$s, t \in S \implies s + t \in S$$

 $s \in S, a \in \mathbb{R} \implies a \cdot s \in S$

Proving something is a subspace

In summary, to *prove* something is a subspace, there are 2 things to check:

$\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V \implies \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} \in V$

$$\mathbf{v} \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \implies \lambda \cdot \mathbf{v} \in V$$

To prove something is *not* a subspace, show that one of these things fails:

- e.g. find $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in V$ such that $\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w} \notin V$
- ... or find \mathbf{v} such that $2 \cdot \mathbf{v} \notin V$,
- ...or give some other *counter-example*.

2

Proving something is a subspace: example

Example: Prove $V = \{(2x, y, x + y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is a subspace.

1 Let $\mathbf{v} = (2a, b, a + b)$ and $\mathbf{w} = (2c, d, c + d)$ are two arbitrary elements of V. Then:

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (2a + 2c, b + d, a + b + c + d)$$

= $(2(a + c), b + d, (a + c) + (b + d))$

is in V. (In this case, x = a + c and y = b + d.)

2 Let v = (2a, b, a + b) and λ be some arbitrary vector in V and some arbitrary real number. Then:

$$\lambda \cdot \mathbf{v} = (2\lambda \mathbf{a}, \lambda \mathbf{b}, \lambda(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}))$$

= $(2\lambda \mathbf{a}, \lambda \mathbf{b}, \lambda \mathbf{a} + \lambda \mathbf{b})$

is in V. (In this case, $x = \lambda a$ and $y = \lambda b$.)

Vector spaces: 'weirder' examples

 \mathbb{R}^n and $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ are the only things we'll use in this course...but there are other examples:

- {0} is still an example
- Polynomials are still an example: $5 \cdot (2x^2 + 1) = 10x^2 + 5$
- ...but finite sets are not!

 $5 \cdot {\text{sandwich}, \text{Tuesday}} = ???$

Functions *F*(*X*) := {*f* : *X* → ℝ} are an example. If *f*, *g* are functions, then '*f* + *g*' and *a* · *f* are also functions, defined by:

$$(f+g)(x) := f(x) + g(x)$$
 $(a \cdot f)(x) = af(x)$

Exercise: show that, if $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, then $\mathcal{F}(X)$ is basically the same as \mathbb{R}^n .