

## MA-219 Linear Algebra

### 2. Vector spaces – Subspaces

August 18, 2003 ; Submit solutions **before 11:00AM ; August 25, 2003.**

Let  $\mathbb{K}$  denote either the field  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers or the field  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers.

**2.1. a).** Let  $V$  be a vector space over a field and let  $X$  be any set with a bijection  $f : X \rightarrow V$ . Then  $X$  has a  $K$ -vector space structure with  $f^{-1}(0)$  as a zero element and for  $a \in K$ ,  $x, y \in X$ ,  $x + y := f^{-1}(f(x) + f(y))$  and  $ax := f^{-1}(af(x))$ .

**b).** Let  $X$  be any set. Then the set-ring  $(\mathfrak{P}(X), \Delta, \cap)$  of  $X$  (see exercise 1.5) has a natural structure of a vector space over the field  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ . (**Hint:** The map  $\mathfrak{P}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^X$  defined by  $A \mapsto e_A$  is a bijective, where  $e_A$  denote the indicator function of  $A$ . See exercise T1.1.)

**2.2.** Let  $V$  be a vector space over a field  $K$  with a field with  $|K| \geq n$  and let  $V_1, \dots, V_n$  be  $K$ -subspaces of  $V$ . If  $V_i \neq V$  for every  $1 \leq i \leq n$  then show that  $V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \dots \cup V_n \neq V$ . Show by an example that the condition  $|K| \geq n$  is necessary. (**Hint:** By induction on  $n$ , assume that  $V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \dots \cup V_{n-1} \neq V$ . Choose  $x \in V_n$  with  $x \notin V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_{n-1}$  and  $y \in V$  with  $y \notin V_n$ . Now consider the set  $\{ax + y \mid a \in K\}$  which has atleast  $n$  distinct elements.)

**2.3.** Let  $K$  be a field and let  $I$  be an index set.

**a).** The set of all functions  $f : I \rightarrow K$  with finite image i.e.  $f(I)$  is a finite subset of  $K$ , is a  $K$ -subspace of the vector space  $K^I$ .

**b).** The set of all functions  $f : I \rightarrow K$  with countable image i.e.  $f(I)$  is a countable subset of  $K$ , is a  $K$ -subspace of the vector space  $K^I$ .

**c).** The set  $B_{\mathbb{K}}(I)$  bounded functions  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  is a  $\mathbb{K}$ -subspace of  $\mathbb{K}^I$ .

**d).** The set  $W_g$  (resp.  $W_u$ ) of all even (resp. odd) functions  $^1) \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  is a  $\mathbb{K}$ -subspaces of  $\mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{R}}$ . Further, show that  $W_g \cap W_u = 0$  and  $W_g + W_u = \mathbb{K}^{\mathbb{R}}$ .

**e).** The set of all functions  $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} f(z) = 0$  is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -subspace of the vector space  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{C}}$  of all  $\mathbb{C}$ -valued functions on  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**2.4.** For subspaces  $U, U', W, W'$  of a vector space  $V$  over a field  $K$ , show that :

**a).** The subset  $V \setminus (U \setminus W)$  is a subspace of  $V$  if and only if  $U = V$  or  $U \subseteq W$ .

**b).**  $U + (U' \cap W) \subseteq (U + U') \cap (U + W)$ .

**c).**  $U \cap (U' + W) \supseteq (U \cap U') + (U \cap W)$ .

**d).** (Modular law)  $U + (U' \cap W) = U' \cap (U + W)$ .

**e).** Suppose that  $U \cap W = U' \cap W'$ . Then  $U = (U + (W \cap U')) \cap (U + (W \cap W'))$ .

**2.5.** Let  $K$  be a field and let  $K[X]$  be the set of polynomials with coefficients in  $K$ . Let  $\Phi$  denote the (evaluation) map  $\Phi : K[X] \rightarrow K^K$  defined by  $F(X) \mapsto (a \mapsto F(a))$ . Show that

**a).**  $\Phi$  is injective if and only if  $K$  is not finite. (**Hint:** Use T2.3-b)-(3) )

**b).**  $\Phi$  is surjective if and only if  $K$  is finite. (**Hint:** Remember *Polynomial interpolation!* See T2.5)

On the other side one can see (simple) test-exercises ; their solutions need not be submitted.

<sup>1)</sup> A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$  is called even if  $f(-x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and is called odd if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

### Test-Exercises

**T2.1.** Let  $V$  be a vector space over a field  $K$ .

**a).** (General Distributive law) For arbitrary finite families  $a_i, i \in I$ , in  $K$  and  $x_j, j \in J$ , in  $V$ , show that

$$\left(\sum_{i \in I} a_i\right) \left(\sum_{j \in J} x_j\right) = \sum_{(i,j) \in I \times J} a_i x_j.$$

**b).** (Sign Rules) For arbitrary elements  $a, b \in K$  and arbitrary vectors  $x, y \in V$ . Prove that :

$$(1) 0 \cdot x = a \cdot 0 = 0. \quad (2) a(-x) = (-a)x = -(ax). \quad (3) (-a)(-x) = ax.$$

$$(4) a(x - y) = ax - ay \quad \text{and} \quad (a - b)x = ax - bx.$$

**c).** (Cancellation Rule) Let  $a \in K$  and let  $x \in V$ . If  $ax = 0$  then  $a = 0$  or  $x = 0$ .

**T2.2.** Recall the concepts *convergent sequence*, *null-sequence*, *Cauchy sequence*, *bounded sequence* and *limit point of a sequence*.<sup>2)</sup>

**a).** Let  $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{conv}}$  (respectively,  $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{null}}$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{Cauchy}}$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{bdd}}$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{lpt}}$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{const}}$ ) denote the set of all convergent (respectively, null-sequences, Cauchy sequences, bounded sequences, sequences with exactly one limit point). Which of these are subspaces of the  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$  of all sequences of real numbers?

**b).** Verify the inclusions and equalities in the following diagram :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} & \supseteq & (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{bdd}} \\ \cup & & \cup \\ (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{lpt}} & \supseteq & (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{lpt}} \cap (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{bdd}} = (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{Cauchy}} = (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{conv}} \supseteq (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{const}} \\ & & \cup \\ & & (\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})_{\text{null}} \end{array}$$

**c).** Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an interval and let  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}$  be complex valued continuous functions on  $I$ . The set of all functions  $y \in C_{\mathbb{C}}^n(I)$  satisfying the (homogeneous linear) differential equation

$$y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1\dot{y} + a_0y = 0$$

is a  $\mathbb{C}$ -subspace of  $C_{\mathbb{C}}^n(I)$ .

**T2.3. a).** (Division algorithm for polynomials) Let  $F$  and  $G$  be polynomials over a commutative ring  $A$ . Suppose that  $G \neq 0$  and the leading coefficient of  $G$  is a unit in  $A$ . Then there exist unique polynomials  $Q$  and  $R$  over  $A$  such that

$$F = QG + R \quad \text{and} \quad \deg R < \deg G.$$

<sup>2)</sup> A sequence  $(x_n) = (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of elements of  $\mathbb{K}$  is called **convergent** (in  $\mathbb{K}$ ) if there exists an element  $x \in \mathbb{K}$  which satisfy the following property : For every positive (however small) real number  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists a natural number  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x_n - x| \leq \varepsilon$  for all natural numbers  $n \geq n_0$ . This element  $x$  is uniquely determined by the sequence  $(x_n)$  and is called the **limit** of the sequence  $(x_n)$ ; usually denoted by  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ . If  $x$  is the limit of  $(x_n)$ , then this is also shortly written as

$$x_n \rightarrow x \quad \text{or} \quad x_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} x$$

and say that  $(x_n)$  **converges** to  $x$ . The sequence  $(x_n)$  converges to  $x$  if and only if the sequence  $(x_n - x)$  converges to 0. A convergent sequence with limit 0 is called a **null-sequence**. A sequence that is not convergent is called **divergent**.

A sequence  $(x_n) = (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of elements of  $\mathbb{K}$  is called **bounded sequence** if there exists an element  $S$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $|x_n| \leq S$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

A sequence  $(x_n) = (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of elements of  $\mathbb{K}$  is called a **Cauchy sequence** if for every  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a natural number  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$   $|x_m - x_n| \leq \varepsilon$  for all natural numbers  $m, n \geq n_0$ .

An element  $x \in \mathbb{K}$  is called a **limit point** of the sequence  $(x_n) = (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  of elements of  $\mathbb{K}$  if it is a limit point of the set  $\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , i.e. every (however small) neighbourhood of  $x$  contain infinitely many terms of the sequence.

In particular, if  $a \in A$ , then  $F = F(a) + Q(X - a)$ , where  $Q$  is a polynomial over  $A$ . We say that  $a \in A$  is a zero of  $F$  if  $F(a) = 0$ . Therefore  $a \in A$  is a zero of  $F$  if and only if  $X - a$  divide  $F$  (in  $A[X]$ ).

**b).** Let  $A$  be an integral domain and let  $F \in A[X]$ ,  $F \neq 0$  be a polynomial of degree  $d$  in indeterminate  $X$  over  $A$ . Then

- (1)  $F$  has atmost  $d$  zeros in  $A$ .
- (2)  $F$  is uniquely determined by its values on  $m + 1$  distinct elements of  $A$ , where  $m \geq d$ .
- (3) How many zeros the polynomial  $X^2 + X$  has in the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ ?
- (4) The polynomial  $X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_4[X]$  is amultiple of  $X + 1$  and  $X + 3$ , but not of  $(X + 1)(X + 3)$ .

**T2.4.** (Horner’s scheme) Let  $K$  be a field and let  $F = a_0 + a_1X + \dots + a_nX^n \in K[X]$ . To compute the value of  $F$  at a point  $a$  one can apply the well-known Horner’s scheme. For this define a sequence of polynomials recursively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} F_0 &:= a_n \\ F_1 &:= XF_0 + a_{n-1} = a_nX + a_{n-1} \\ F_2 &:= XF_1 + a_{n-2} = a_nX^2 + a_{n-1}X + \dots + a_{n-2} \\ &\dots\dots\dots \\ F_n &:= Xf_{n-1} + a_0 = a_nX^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + a_1X + a_0 = F. \end{aligned}$$

These polynomials are called the Ruffini’s polynomials corresponding to  $F$ . The values  $F_0(a), \dots, F_n(a)$  can be easily computed one after the another by using the division algorithm by  $X - a$ . Then  $F = Q \cdot (X - a) + F(a)$  where  $Q = F_0(a)X^{n-1} + F_1(a)X^{n-2} + \dots + F_{n-1}(a)$ ,  $F(a) = F_n(a)$ . With this process also one can easily compute all coefficients  $b_v$  in the Taylor’s expansion:

$$F = b_0 + b_1(X - a) + \dots + b_n(X - a)^n, \quad b_0 = F(a),$$

for this one has to repeat the above process for the polynomial  $Q$  instead of  $F$  and hence  $b_1 = Q(a)$ , and so on. For example, the polynomial  $F = 2X^3 + 2X^2 - X + 1$  and  $a = -2$  we have the following scheme:

$$\begin{array}{r|rrrr} & 2 & 2 & -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & -2 & 3 & -5(= b_0) \\ -2 & 2 & -6 & 15(= b_1) \\ -2 & 2 & -10(= b_2) \\ -2 & 2 & & 2(= b_3) \end{array} .$$

Therefore  $F = 2(X + 2)^3 - 10(X + 2)^2 + 15(X + 2) - 5$ .

**T2.5.** (Polynomial interpolation) Let  $A$  be an integral domain and let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . The existence of a polynomial  $f \in A[X]$  of degree  $\leq m$  which has given  $m + 1$  values (in  $A$ ) at distinct  $m + 1$  places is called an interpolation problem. We shall only consider the case when  $A = K$  is a field. <sup>3)</sup>

**a).** (Lagrange’s interpolation formula) Let  $a_0, \dots, a_m \in K$  be distinct and let  $b_0, \dots, b_m \in K$  be given. Then

$$f := \sum_{i=0}^m \frac{b_i}{c_i} \prod_{j \in \{0, \dots, m\} \setminus \{i\}} (X - a_j), \quad c_i := \prod_{j \in \{0, \dots, m\} \setminus \{i\}} (a_i - a_j)$$

is the unique polynomial (by T2.3-b)-(2)) of degree  $\leq m$  such that  $f(a_i) = b_i$  for all  $i = 0, \dots, m$ .

**b).** (Newton’s interpolation) Let  $f_0 := 1, f_1 := X - a_0, f_2 := (X - a_0)(X - a_1), \dots, f_m := (X - a_0) \dots (X - a_{m-1})$ . Then, since  $f_j(a_j) \neq 0$ , we can recursively find the coefficients  $\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m \in K$  such that

$$\left( \sum_{j=0}^r \alpha_j f_j \right) (a_r) = b_r, \quad 0 \leq r \leq m.$$

The polynomials  $\sum_{j=0}^r \alpha_j f_j$  have degree  $\leq r$  and values  $b_i$  at the points  $a_i$  for all  $i = 0, \dots, m$ .

<sup>3)</sup> Let  $A$  be an integral domain,  $a_0, \dots, a_m \in A$  be distinct and let  $b_0, \dots, b_m \in A$  be given. Then we can construct (by using the Newton’s interpolation) an interpolation polynomial over the quotient field  $K$  of  $A$  by the above recursion process. This polynomial has coefficients in  $A$  if and only if  $\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m \in A$  (proof!).

**T2.6.** (Rational functions in one variable over a field) Let  $K$  be a field. The quotient of two polynomials over  $K$  are called the rational functions in one variable  $X$  over  $K$ . Therefore a rational function in one variable  $X$  over  $K$  is of the form  $F/G$  with  $F, G \in K[X]$ . The set of rational function in one variable  $X$  over  $K$  is denoted by  $K(X)$ .

a). Sum and product of rational functions are again rational functions and so  $K(X)$  is a vector space over  $K$  and  $K[X]$  is a  $K$ -subspace of  $K(X)$ . Further,  $K(X)$  this is a field, this field <sup>4)</sup> is called the rational function field in one variable  $X$  over  $K$ .

b). Every rational function  $F/G$  in one indeterminate  $X$  over  $K$  can also be represented as  $F/G = Q + R/G$ , where  $Q$  and  $R$  are polynomials over  $K$  with  $\deg R < \deg G$ .

c). (Partial fraction decomposition) Let  $F$  and  $G$  be polynomials over  $K$  with  $\deg F < \deg G$  and  $F = (X - \alpha_1)^{n_1} \cdots (X - \alpha_r)^{n_r}$ ,  $\alpha_i \neq \alpha_j$  for  $i \neq j$ ,  $n_i \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . Then there exists a unique representation

$$\frac{F}{G} = \frac{\alpha_{11}}{(X - \alpha_1)} + \frac{\alpha_{12}}{(X - \alpha_1)^2} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha_{1n_1}}{(X - \alpha_1)^{n_1}} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha_{r1}}{(X - \alpha_r)} + \frac{\alpha_{r2}}{(X - \alpha_r)^2} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha_{rn_r}}{(X - \alpha_r)^{n_r}}.$$

with  $\alpha_{ik} \in K$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, r$ ;  $k = 1, \dots, n_i$ .

<sup>4)</sup> In fact the *quotient field* of the integral domain  $K[X]$ .