

## Linear Combinations and Span.

**Definition.** Let  $V$  be a vector space and  $S \subseteq V$  a non-empty subset of  $V$ .

A vector  $v$  in  $V$  is called a **linear combination** of vectors of  $S$  if there exist a finite number of elements  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$  in  $S$  and scalars  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in  $F$  such that  $v = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \dots + a_n u_n$ .

In this case we also say that  $v$  is a linear combination of  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  and call  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  the **coefficients** of the linear combination.

• In any vector space  $V$ , we always have  $0v = 0$  for each  $v \in V$ . Thus the zero vector is a linear combination of any non-empty subset of  $V$ .

• Given  $v \in V$  and  $u_1, \dots, u_n \in V$ , how can one determine whether  $v$  is a linear combination of the vectors  $u_1, \dots, u_n$ ?

That is, we need to understand if it is possible to find scalars  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$  such that  $a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_n u_n = v$ .

This question often reduces to solving a **system of linear equations**.

**Example.** Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ , let  $v = (1, 5)$  and  $u_1 = (2, 0)$ ,  $u_2 = (3, -1)$ .

We must determine whether there are scalars  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $v = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2$ , or:

$$(1, 5) = a_1 (2, 0) + a_2 (3, -1) = (2a_1, 0) + (3a_2, -a_2) = (2a_1 + 3a_2, -a_2).$$

So  $v$  is a linear combination of  $u_1, u_2$  iff there are real numbers  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that the system of linear equations

$$(1) \quad 1 = 2a_1 + 3a_2$$

$$(2) \quad 5 = -a_2$$

is satisfied.

Note that then necessarily  $a_2 = -5$  by (2), hence  $1 = 2a_1 + 3(-5)$ , so  $2a_1 = 16$ , so  $a_1 = 8$ .

Then  $(a_1, a_2) = (8, -5)$  is a solution, showing that indeed  $v$  is a linear combination of  $u_1, u_2$ .

(For a more involved example see Textbook, Section 1.4 and Problem Set 2).

• Theorem 1.3 allows us to determine when a subset  $S$  of a vector space  $V$  is already a subspace.

Now we discuss how, starting with an arbitrary subset  $S \subseteq V$  (which may not be a subspace of  $V$  itself), to find a subspace of  $V$  "generated" by it.

**Definition.** Let  $S$  be any subset of a vector space  $V$ .

The **span of  $S$** , denoted  $\text{Span}(S)$ , is the set consisting of all linear combinations of the vectors in  $S$ . That is,

$$\text{Span}(S) = \{ a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_n u_n : n \in \mathbb{N}, a_i \in F, u_i \in S \} \subseteq V.$$

As the empty set  $\emptyset$  is a subset of any vector space  $V$ ,  $\text{Span}(\emptyset)$  also needs to be defined.

For convenience, we define  $\text{Span}(\emptyset) = \{0\}$ .

Note that  $S \subseteq \text{Span}(S)$ , since for every  $u \in S$ ,  $u = 1 \cdot u \in \text{Span}(S)$ .

**Example.** Consider the vectors  $u_1 = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $u_2 = (0, 1, 0)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Let  $S = \{u_1, u_2\} \subseteq V$ .

Then vectors in  $\text{Span}(S)$  are precisely the vectors of the form  $a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2$  where  $a_1, a_2$  vary over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

That is,  $\text{Span}(S)$  consists of all the vectors of the form  $a_1(1, 0, 0) + a_2(0, 1, 0) = (a_1, a_2, 0)$  for some  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Thus  $\text{Span}(S) = \{ (a_1, a_2, 0) : a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R} \}$  — we already know that this is a subspace of  $V$ .

This is not a coincidence!

**Theorem 1.5.** Let  $V$  be a vector space over  $F$ .

1) The span of any subset  $S$  of  $V$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

2) Any subspace of  $V$  that contains  $S$  must also contain  $\text{Span}(S)$ .

(so  $\text{Span}(S)$  is the smallest subspace of  $V$  that contains  $S$ )

**Proof.** Both (1) and (2) are obvious if  $S = \emptyset$ , because  $\text{Span}(\emptyset) = \{0\}$  — we know that it is a subspace of  $V$ , and any subspace of  $V$  must contain  $0$ .

If  $S \neq \emptyset$ , then  $S$  contains a vector  $z$ . As  $0z = 0$ ,  $0 \in \text{Span}(S)$ .

Let  $x, y \in \text{Span}(S)$ . Then we can write

$$x = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \dots + a_m u_m \quad \text{and} \quad y = b_1 v_1 + \dots + b_n v_n \quad \text{for some } a_1, \dots, a_m, b_1, \dots, b_n \in F \text{ and } u_1, \dots, u_m, v_1, \dots, v_n \in S.$$

Then both

$x+y = a_1u_1 + \dots + a_m u_m + b_1v_1 + \dots + b_n v_n$  and  $c \cdot x = (ca_1)u_1 + (ca_2)u_2 + \dots + (ca_m)u_m$  are also linear combinations of vectors of  $S$ , and so belong to  $\text{Span}(S)$ .

Thus (a), (b), (c) in Theorem 1.3 hold and it follows that  $\text{Span}(C)$  is a subspace of  $V$ , showing (1). Now let  $W \subseteq V$  be any subspace of  $V$  that contains  $S$ .

If  $w \in \text{Span}(S)$  then we can write

$$w = c_1 w_1 + \dots + c_k w_k$$

for some vectors  $w_1, \dots, w_k \in S$  and some scalars  $c_1, \dots, c_k$  in  $F$ .

Since  $S \subseteq W$ , we have  $w_1, \dots, w_k \in W$ .

But as  $W$  is a vector space, this implies that  $w = c_1 w_1 + \dots + c_k w_k$  is also in  $W$ .

Because  $w$ , an arbitrary vector in  $\text{Span}(S)$ , belongs to  $W$ , it follows that  $\text{Span}(S) \subseteq W$ .

This proves (2).

**Definition** A subset  $S$  of a vector space  $V$  **generates** (or **spans**)  $V$  if  $\text{Span}(S) = V$ .

(In this case, we also say that the vectors of  $S$  generate, or span,  $V$ .)

(and explicit)

- Finding a small generating set for a vector space is an efficient way of describing  $V$  and simplifies working with it.

**Example** For any vector space  $V$ ,  $\text{Span}(V) = V$  (so  $V$  is generated by itself).

**Example** The vectors  $(1,0,0)$ ,  $(0,1,0)$ ,  $(0,0,1)$  generate the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Indeed, any vector  $(a,b,c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  can be written as  $a(1,0,0) + b(0,1,0) + c(0,0,1)$ , and so  $\text{Span}(\{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}) = \mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Example** Let  $V = M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$  be the vector space of all  $2 \times 2$  matrices with entries from  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Then  $M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $M_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $M_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  generate  $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ .

Indeed, for any  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$  we can write

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + c \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + d \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus  $\text{Span}(\{M_1, \dots, M_4\}) = M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ .

**Example** Let  $P(F)$  be the vector space of all polynomials over  $F$ .

Then the set  $\{1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots\}$  generates  $P(F)$ .

Indeed,  $\text{Span}(\{1, x, x^2, \dots\}) = \{a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n : n \in \mathbb{N}, a_i \in F\}$  — all polynomials over  $F$  appear.

Similarly,  $P_n(F)$  is generated by  $\{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$ .

## Linear Independence

Usually there are many subsets that generate the same space.

**Example**

We saw that the vectors  $(1,0,0)$ ,  $(0,1,0)$ ,  $(0,0,1)$  generate the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

The set  $\{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1), (2,3,-1)\}$  also generates  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , but in fact the vector  $(2,3,-1)$  is redundant.

- It is natural to look for the smallest possible subset of  $V$  that generates it.

First, we explore the circumstances under which a vector can be removed from a generating set to obtain a smaller generating set.

- If  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  are any vectors in a vector space  $V$  over  $F$ , then the zero vector is always a linear combination of  $u_1, \dots, u_n$ :

$$0 = 0 \cdot u_1 + 0 \cdot u_2 + \dots + 0 \cdot u_n.$$

(this is called a **trivial representation** of  $0$  as a linear combination of  $u_1, \dots, u_n$ ).

• Sometimes it is also possible to write

$$0 = a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_n u_n$$

so that not all of  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$  are  $0$ . (a **non-trivial representation** of  $0$ ).

**Example.** In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $0 = 2 \cdot (1, 2) + 5 \cdot (2, 1) + 3 \cdot (-4, -3)$  is a non-trivial representation of  $0$ .

**Definition.** A subset  $S$  of a vector space  $V$  is called **linearly dependent** if there exist a finite number of distinct vectors  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  in  $S$  and scalars  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$ , **not all zero**, such that  $a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \dots + a_n u_n = 0$ .

If  $S$  is not linearly dependent, then  $S$  is called **linearly independent**.

(We also say that the vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are linearly dependent / independent if the set  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  is linearly dependent / independent.)

**Example.** Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ .

• The set  $S_1 = \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\}$  is linearly independent.

Indeed, if  $(0, 0) = a_1(0, 1) + a_2(1, 0)$ , then  $\begin{cases} 0 = a_1 \cdot 0 + a_2 \cdot 1 \\ 0 = a_1 \cdot 1 + a_2 \cdot 0 \end{cases}$  must hold, and so  $a_1 = 0, a_2 = 0$ . This

means that any representation of the zero vector as a linear combination of vectors from  $S_1$  is trivial.

• However, the set  $S_2 = \{(0, 1), (1, 0), (17, 18)\}$  is linearly dependent.

Indeed,  $18(0, 1) + 17(1, 0) + (-1)(17, 18) = 0$ , and this is a non-trivial representation of  $0$ .

**Example.** Let  $V$  be an arbitrary vector space over  $F$ .

1) Any set  $S \subseteq V$  containing  $0$  is linearly dependent. (indeed, as  $0 \in S$ , then  $0 = 1 \cdot 0$  is a non-trivial representation of  $0$ .)

2) The empty set  $\emptyset \subseteq V$  is linearly independent (we cannot form any linear combination at all using its elements).

3) If  $S = \{u\} \subseteq V$  consists of a single non-zero vector  $u$ , then  $S$  is linearly independent.

Indeed, if  $\{u\}$  is linearly dependent, then  $au = 0$  for some non-zero scalar  $a \in F$ . Thus

$$u = \underbrace{(a^{-1} \cdot a)}_{=1} u = a^{-1}(au) = a^{-1} \cdot 0 = 0 \quad (\text{by Theorem 1.2})$$

**Example.** Similarly, in  $V = M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ , the set  $S = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$  is linearly independent.

Indeed, assume that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = a_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_4 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{— a representation of the zero vector } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R}).$$

This means that the system of linear equations

$$0 = a_1 \cdot 1 + a_2 \cdot 0 + a_3 \cdot 0 + a_4 \cdot 0$$

$$0 = a_1 \cdot 0 + a_2 \cdot 1 + a_3 \cdot 0 + a_4 \cdot 0$$

$$0 = a_1 \cdot 0 + a_2 \cdot 0 + a_3 \cdot 1 + a_4 \cdot 0$$

$$0 = a_1 \cdot 0 + a_2 \cdot 0 + a_3 \cdot 0 + a_4 \cdot 1$$

is satisfied. But this is only possible when  $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = a_4 = 0$ . Thus, there are no non-trivial representation of  $0$  using elements from  $S$ .

**Example.** In  $V = P_n(F)$ , the set  $S = \{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$  is linearly independent.

Indeed, assume that

$$0 = a_0 \cdot 1 + a_1 \cdot x + \dots + a_n \cdot x^n \quad \text{is a representation of the zero vector in } P_n(F) \text{ (which is the zero polynomial).}$$

This is only possible when all of  $a_i, i=0, \dots, n$  are  $0$ , which implies that the representation is trivial.

**Theorem 1.6.** Let  $V$  be a vector space over  $F$ , and let  $S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq V$  be two subsets.

1)  $S_1$  is linearly dependent  $\Rightarrow S_2$  is linearly dependent.

2)  $S_2$  is linearly independent  $\Rightarrow S_1$  is linearly independent.

**Proof.** (2) follows from (1).



standard basis for  $P_n(F)$ .

**Example 5.** In  $V = P(F)$ , the set  $\{1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots\}$  is a basis.

This shows in particular that a basis need not be finite.

(Later we will see that in fact no basis for  $P(F)$  can be finite.)

The next theorem establishes the most significant property of a basis:

• Every vector in  $V$  can be expressed in one and only one way as a linear combination of the vectors in the basis.

It is this property that makes bases the building blocks of vector spaces.

**Theorem 1.8.** Let  $V$  be a vector space and  $\beta = \{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$  be a subset of  $V$ . Then the following two statements are equivalent.

1)  $\beta$  is a basis for  $V$

2) Every vector  $v \in V$  can be **uniquely** expressed as a linear combination of vectors in  $\beta$ , that is, can be expressed in the form  $v = a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_n u_n$  for **unique** scalars  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ .

**Proof.** (1) implies (2).

Let  $\beta$  be a basis for  $V$ . If  $v \in V$  is any vector in  $V$ , then  $v \in \text{Span}(\beta)$  because  $\text{Span}(\beta) = V$  (by assumption). Thus  $v$  is a linear combination of the vectors in  $\beta$ .

Suppose that

$$v = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \dots + a_n u_n \text{ and } v = b_1 u_1 + b_2 u_2 + \dots + b_n u_n$$

are any two such representations of  $v$ .

Subtracting the 2<sup>nd</sup> equation from the 1<sup>st</sup> one gives:

$$0 = (a_1 - b_1) u_1 + (a_2 - b_2) u_2 + \dots + (a_n - b_n) u_n.$$

Since  $\beta$  is linearly independent, it follows that

$a_1 - b_1 = 0, \dots, a_n - b_n = 0$  (otherwise we would get a non-trivial representation of 0 with vectors in  $\beta$ ).

Hence  $a_1 = b_1, \dots, a_n = b_n$  — which means that there is a unique way to express  $v$  as a lin. comb. of the vectors in  $\beta$ .

(2) implies (1).

Suppose every  $v \in V$  can be uniquely expressed as a lin. comb. of  $u_1, \dots, u_n$ .

Then  $\text{Span}(\beta) = V$  (in particular), and it remains to check that  $\beta$  is linearly independent.

Assume  $0 = a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_n u_n$  for some  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in  $F$ .

But also  $0 = 0 \cdot u_1 + \dots + 0 \cdot u_n$ .

These are two ways to express  $0 \in V$ , so by the uniqueness assumption they must coincide.

That is, we must have  $a_1 = 0, a_2 = 0, \dots, a_n = 0$  — which means that  $\beta$  is lin. indep.

