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## 5 Subspaces, Bases, and Dimension

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In this chapter we introduce a subspace, which is a collection of vectors such that if one adds two vectors or scales a vector, one gets a vector already in the collection. We then consider a basis, with which one can construct every vector in a subspace in a unique way; and the size of the basis is the dimension of the subspace.

### 5.1 Sets Closed Under Operations

A key mathematical idea that we need is the idea of a set closed under an operation.

A set  $S$  is **closed** under some operation if applying that operation to elements of  $S$  always produces an element of  $S$ .

Note that the definition says nothing about what happens if you start with two elements outside  $S$ ; it only says that if you start inside  $S$  you cannot escape  $S$  using that operation.

**EXAMPLE.** *The integers are closed under addition: adding two integers always produces an integer. The integers are also closed under subtraction and multiplication: subtracting or multiplying two integers always produces an integer. But the integers are not closed under division.*

**EXAMPLE.** *The set of positive real numbers is not closed under subtraction: for example,  $2 - \pi$  is not positive. This set is closed under addition, multiplication, division, and exponentiation.*

**Fact 5.1** *The set of solutions to the homogeneous equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  is closed under both addition and scalar multiplication.*

In other words, if one takes two solutions and adds them, then the result is again a solution; and if one takes a solution and scales it, then the result is again a solution.

**PROOF.** *Assume  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}'$  are solutions to the homogeneous equation. Then  $A(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}') = A\mathbf{x} + A\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ , so that  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}'$  is a solution. Similarly,  $A(c\mathbf{x}) = c(A\mathbf{x}) = c\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ , so that  $c\mathbf{x}$  is a solution.*

## 5.2 Subspaces

A **subspace** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a subset  $S$  such that

- (0)  $S$  contains the zero vector;
- (1)  $S$  is closed under addition;
- (2)  $S$  is closed under scalar multiplication.

Consider  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

EXAMPLE. Let  $S$  be the set of points  $(x, y)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  on the line  $y = 3x$ . This is a subspace. Check the three conditions. But the set of points on the line  $y = 3x + 1$  is not a subspace (as it satisfies none of the three conditions!)

EXAMPLE. Let  $T$  be the set of points  $(x, y)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $|x| = |y|$ . This is not a subspace. Though the set  $T$  satisfies Conditions (0) and (2) (check!), it is not closed under addition: for example  $(2, -2)$  and  $(3, 3)$  are in  $T$  but their sum  $(5, 1)$  is not in  $T$ .

EXAMPLE. Let  $U$  be the set of points  $(x, y)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $x, y \geq 0$ . This is not a subspace. Though the set  $U$  satisfies Conditions (0) and (1) (check!), it is not closed under scalar multiplication: for example  $(2, 3)$  is in  $U$ , but scaling by  $-1$  produces  $(-2, -3)$ , which is not in  $U$ .

By the matrix-inversion theorem, we know that in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  that if two vectors are linearly independent, then the span of the two vectors in all of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Thus we get

**Fact 5.2** Every subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is either  $\{0\}$ , a line through the origin, or  $\mathbb{R}^2$  itself.

EXAMPLE. Consider  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and let  $S$  be the set of all vectors whose third coordinate is 0. This is a subspace. Because, the zero vector is in  $S$ ; adding two vectors in  $S$  produces a vector in  $S$ ; and scaling a vector in  $S$  produces a vector in  $S$ . On the other hand, let  $T$  be the set of all vectors whose third coordinate is 1; this is not a subspace as it fails all three conditions.

There is a result for  $\mathbb{R}^3$  that is similar to the result for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :

**Fact 5.3** Every subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is either  $\{0\}$ , a line through the origin, a plane through the origin, or  $\mathbb{R}^3$  itself.

Here is an important example:

- EXAMPLE. The set containing just the zero-vector is always a subspace.
- $\mathbb{R}^n$  itself is also a subspace.

One useful fact is the following:

**Fact 5.4** If  $S$  is a finite set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\text{Span}(S)$  is a subspace.

- PROOF. Say  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ . Then  $\mathbf{0}$  is the linear combination  $0\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + 0\mathbf{v}_k$ . So Condition (0) holds. If  $\mathbf{x} = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_k\mathbf{v}_k$  and  $\mathbf{y} = b_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + b_k\mathbf{v}_k$ , then  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (a_1 + b_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + (a_k + b_k)\mathbf{v}_k$ . Thus  $\text{Span}(S)$  is closed under addition. Also,  $c\mathbf{x} = (ca_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + (ca_k)\mathbf{v}_k$ . So  $\text{Span}(S)$  is also closed under scalar multiplication.

(The above fact is also true about infinite  $S$ ; indeed the proof is the same except one has to use different notation.)

### 5.3 Bases

A **basis**  $B$  of a subspace  $S$  is a set such that

- (i)  $B$  is linearly independent, and
- (ii) the span of  $B$  is all of  $S$ .

The set  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  forms what is called the **standard basis** of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . (Recall that  $\mathbf{e}_i$  denotes the  $i^{\text{th}}$  column of the identity matrix.)

- EXAMPLE. Consider  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . The standard basis is  $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ . But  $\mathbb{R}^2$  has many bases. In fact, if one takes any two vectors that are linearly independent, then their span is  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and thus the pair of vectors is a basis. On the other hand, any trio of vectors is linearly dependent, while no single vector has a span that is  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

By the Matrix-Inversion Theorem (Fact 3.6) we get the following important fact:

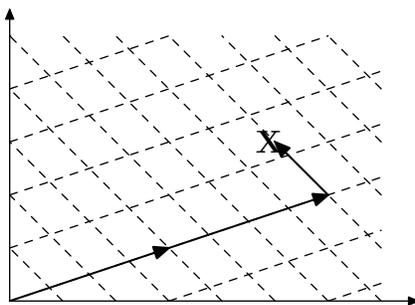
- EXAMPLE. If  $A$  is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix, then its columns form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The usefulness of a basis is the following fundamental result:

**Fact 5.5** *If  $B$  is a finite basis for subspace  $S$ , then every element in  $S$  is **uniquely** expressible as a linear combination of vectors of  $B$ .*

**PROOF.** Say  $B = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_k\}$ . Let  $\mathbf{w}$  be any vector in  $S$ . Because the span of  $B$  is  $S$ , we know that  $\mathbf{w}$  can be expressed as a linear combination of vectors of  $B$ . Consider any two linear combinations that give  $\mathbf{w}$ ; say  $\mathbf{w} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_k\mathbf{b}_k$  and  $\mathbf{w} = d_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + d_k\mathbf{b}_k$ . Then, by subtracting the one equation from the other, we get that  $\mathbf{0} = (c_1 - d_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + (c_k - d_k)\mathbf{b}_k$ . Because  $B$  is linearly independent, it must be that  $(c_1 - d_1) = \dots = (c_k - d_k) = 0$ . That is,  $c_1 = d_1$ ,  $c_2 = d_2$ , etc. It follows that the two linear combinations for  $\mathbf{w}$  are the same. Or in other words, the linear combination is unique.

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , one can think of the linear combination as identifying a point in the plane: with the standard basis,  $(5, 3)$  means go 5 units in  $\mathbf{e}_1$  direction and (then) 3 units in  $\mathbf{e}_2$  direction. But one can also uniquely identify the point given any two linearly independent vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ : go so many units in the direction of  $\mathbf{u}$  and then so many units in the direction of  $\mathbf{v}$ . For example,  $(5, 3)$  can also be reached by going 2 units of  $(3, 1)$  and  $-1$  units of  $(1, -1)$ . Instead of a rectangular grid, one can think of grid lines parallel to the vectors:



## 5.4 Dimension

The big theorem is the following result. We omit the proof.

**Fact 5.6** *All bases of a subspace have the same number of elements.*

Thus we can define:

The **dimension** of a subspace is defined to be the number of elements in a basis.

- EXAMPLE.  $\mathbb{R}^d$  has dimension  $d$ .
- A line (through the origin) has dimension 1.
- A plane (through the origin) has dimension 2.

An important but silly example is:

- EXAMPLE. The subspace  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$  has dimension 0 and an empty basis. (We noted earlier that any set containing the zero-vector is linearly dependent. The claim that  $\mathbf{0}$  is in the span of the empty set is mathematical prestidigitation: one could take it simply as a definition, but the argument is that if you add up nothing you get the zero-vector. . .)

It can be shown that:

- Fact 5.7** Assume subspace  $S$  has dimension  $p$ .
- (a) Any linearly independent set of  $p$  vectors forms a basis of  $S$ .
  - (b) Any set of  $p$  vectors whose span is  $S$  forms a basis of  $S$ .

In other words, a basis is simultaneously a spanning set that is as small as possible, and a linearly independent set that is as large as possible.

### *Practice*

- 5.1. Consider the following subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Explain why each is not a subspace.
- (a) The points in the  $xy$ -plane in the first quadrant.
  - (b) All integer solutions to the equation  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$ .
  - (c) All points on the line  $x + z = 5$ .
  - (d) All vectors where the three coordinates are the same in absolute value.
- 5.2. What is the dimension of:
- (a) The set of all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{26}$  whose last coordinate is 0.
  - (b) The set of all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{26}$  that are a multiple of  $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$ .
  - (c) The set of all solutions to the equation  $a + b + c + \dots + z = 0$ .
- 5.3. Show that the intersection of two subspaces is always a subspace.

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*Solutions to Practice Exercises*

- 5.1. (a) Not closed under scalar multiplication:  $(1, 1, 0)$  in set but not  $-1(1, 1, 0)$   
(b) Not closed under scalar multiplication:  $(3, 4, 5)$  in set but not  $\frac{1}{2}(3, 4, 5)$   
(c) Does not contain zero.  
(d) Not closed under addition:  $(1, 1, 1)$  and  $(1, 1, -1)$  in set but not their sum  $(2, 2, 0)$ .
- 5.2. (a) 25  
(b) 1  
(c) 25
- 5.3. Consider subspaces  $S$  and  $T$ . Since the zero vector is in both, it's in their intersection. Consider vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in the intersection. Since both  $S$  and  $T$  are closed under addition, the sum  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is in both and therefore in their intersection. Similarly one gets closure under scalar multiplication.