

Example 2.14. The vector space \mathbb{R}^n is spanned by the n unit vectors:

linear subspaces in \mathbb{R}^n

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_{n-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

because $\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i \mathbf{e}_i$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. In short: $\mathbb{R}^n = \text{Span}(\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n)$.

all possible linear combinations

VL3
↓

Proposition 2.15. Span is smallest linear subspace

Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a linear subspace and $M \subset U$ any set. Then $\text{Span}(M)$ is a linear subspace and $\text{Span}(M) \subset U$.

Proof: Exercise! Showing $\text{Span}(M)$ is a linear subspace:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x, y \in \text{Span}(M) \Rightarrow x+y \in \text{Span}(M) \\ x \in \text{Span}(M), \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \lambda \cdot x \in \text{Span}(M) \end{array} \right\} \text{Span}(M) \text{ is a linear subspace.}$$

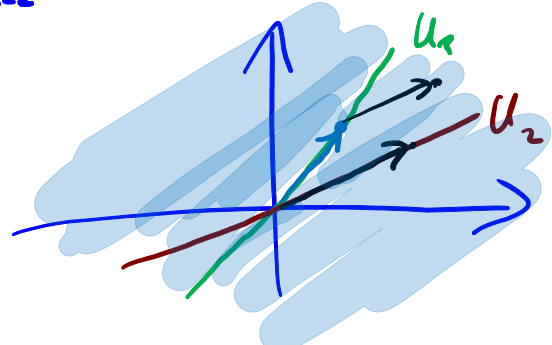
↑ Fill in the details

Definition 2.16. Addition for subspaces?

If U_1 and U_2 are linear subspaces in \mathbb{R}^n , then one defines

$$U_1 + U_2 := \text{Span}(U_1 \cup U_2).$$

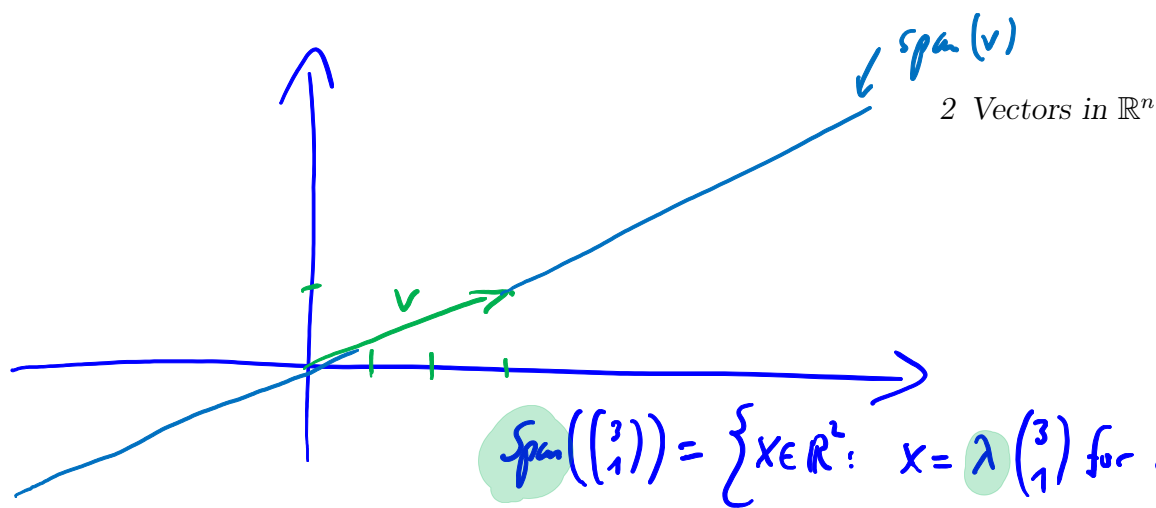
Linear subspace this is not a linear subspace in general



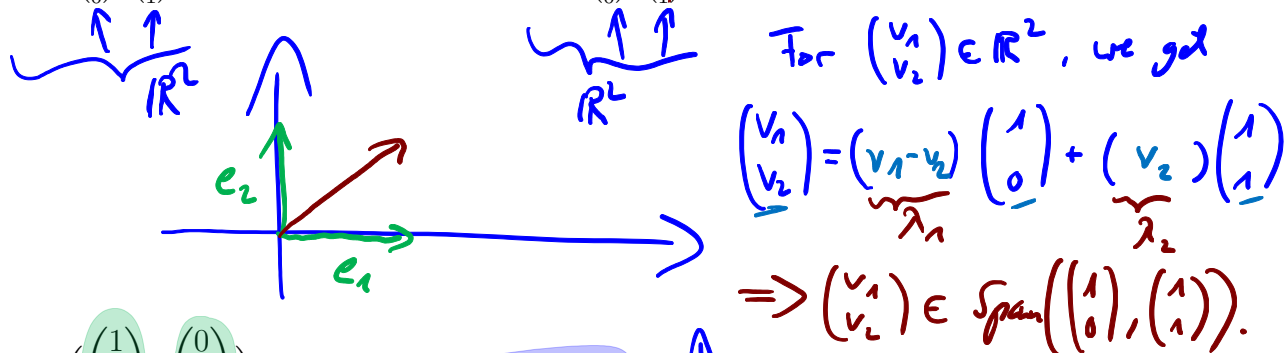
Example 2.17. Let us look at some spans:

- (a) $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is the line that "the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ spans" going through the origin of \mathbb{R}^2 .

\mathbf{v}



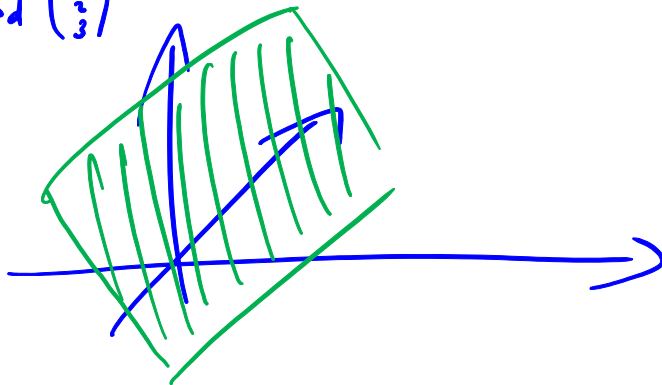
(b) $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$ is the whole plane \mathbb{R}^2 . $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$ is also the whole plane.



(c) $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right)$ this is the xy -plane in \mathbb{R}^3 .

(d) $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}\right)$ is a plane in \mathbb{R}^3 going through $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$.

not a scaled $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$



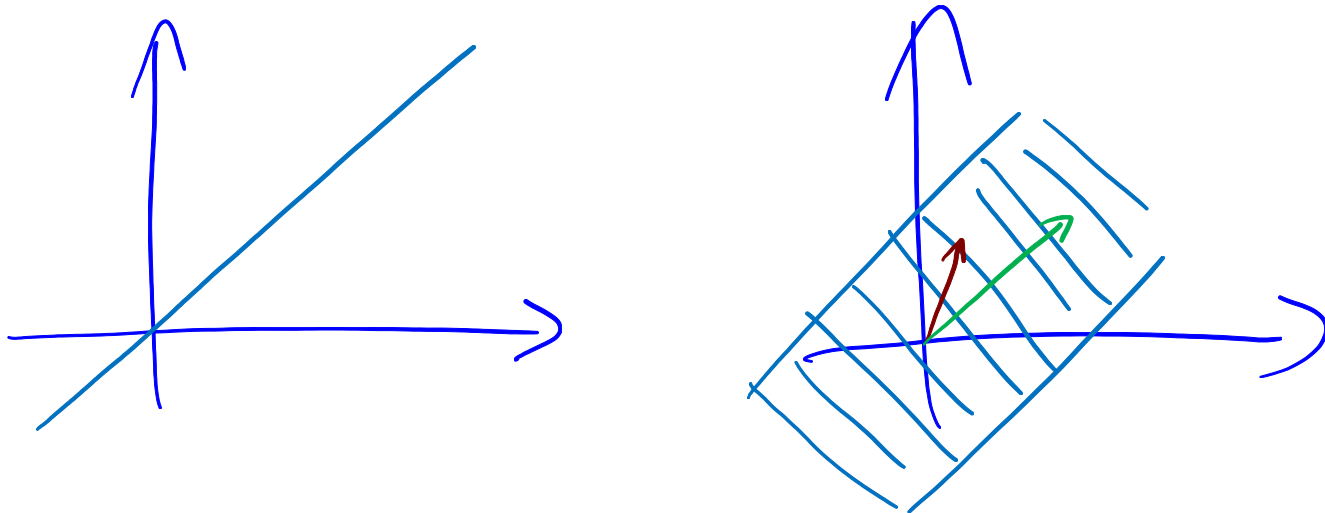
(e) $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$ is the whole space \mathbb{R}^3 . $\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$ is also the whole space \mathbb{R}^3 .

For $\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we have to find $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} (+v_1 + v_2 - v_3) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} (-v_1 + v_2 + v_3) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} (+v_1 - v_2 + v_3) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Solving linear equations \rightarrow Chapter 3)

(f) $\text{Span} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \right)$ is a "line" in \mathbb{R}^5 , $\text{Span} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$ is a "plane".



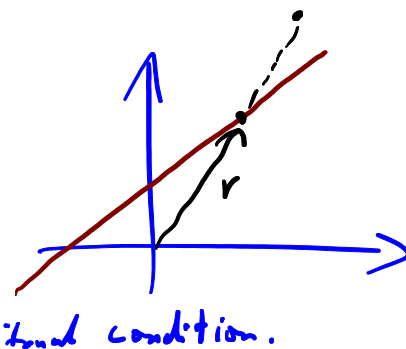
Affine subspaces and convex subsets

Rule of thumb:

Affine subspaces correspond to arbitrary lines, planes, ... In other words: translated linear subspaces.

If we do not want \mathbf{o} to be part of our "generalised plane", we have to replace linear combinations by affine combinations:

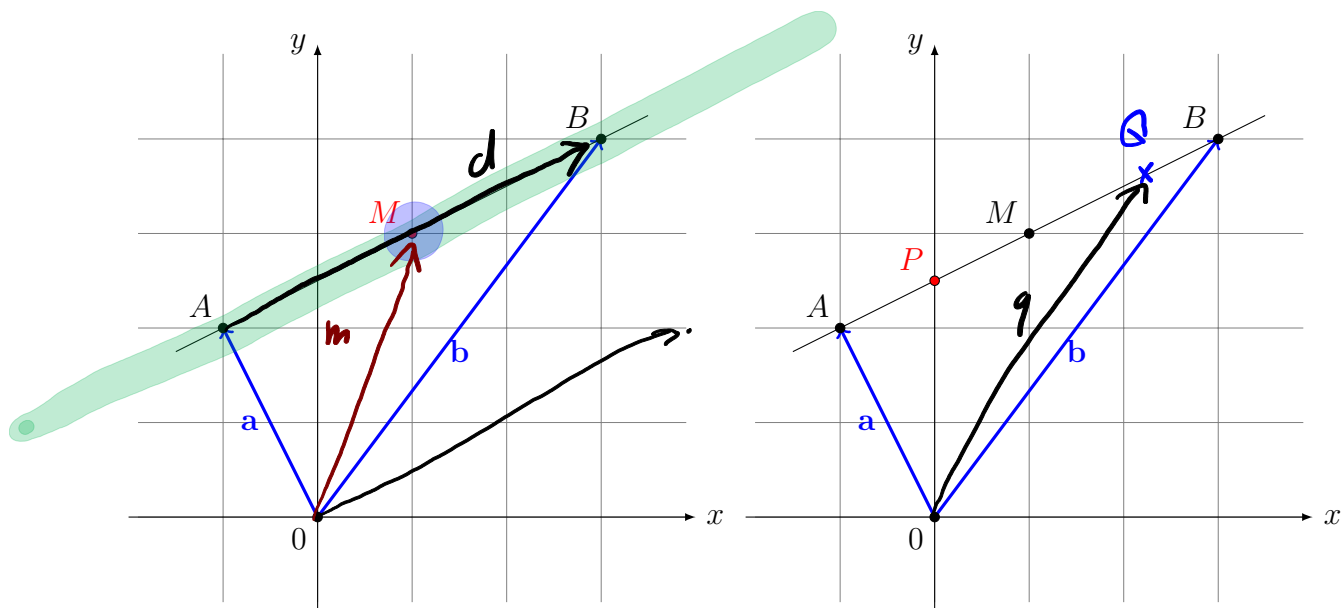
$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_j \quad \text{where} \quad \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j = 1.$$



Example 2.18. Consider the position vectors

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{und} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

corresponding to the points A and B . Find the centre point of the line between A and B .



The connection vector from A to B is then:

$$-\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = -\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+3 \\ -2+4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} =: \mathbf{d}$$

The center point is then given by going only half way in the direction of \mathbf{d} :

$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{d} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2}\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

The point M with position vector $\mathbf{m} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is the wanted centre point. In general, we get the formula:

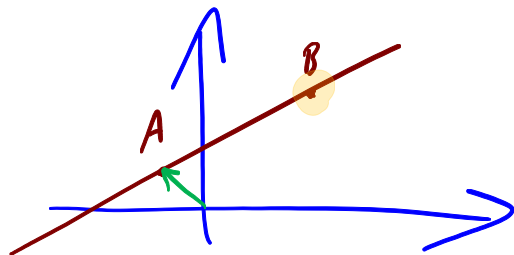
$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{2}(-\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b})$$

*linear combination
 $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 1$*

Instead of using $\frac{1}{2}$, we can choose $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ to divide the line from A to B . We get:

$$\mathbf{q} := \mathbf{a} + \lambda \overbrace{(-\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b})}^{\mathbf{d}} = (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{a} + \lambda\mathbf{b} \quad (2.7)$$

*linear combination with
 $(1 - \lambda) + \lambda = 1$*

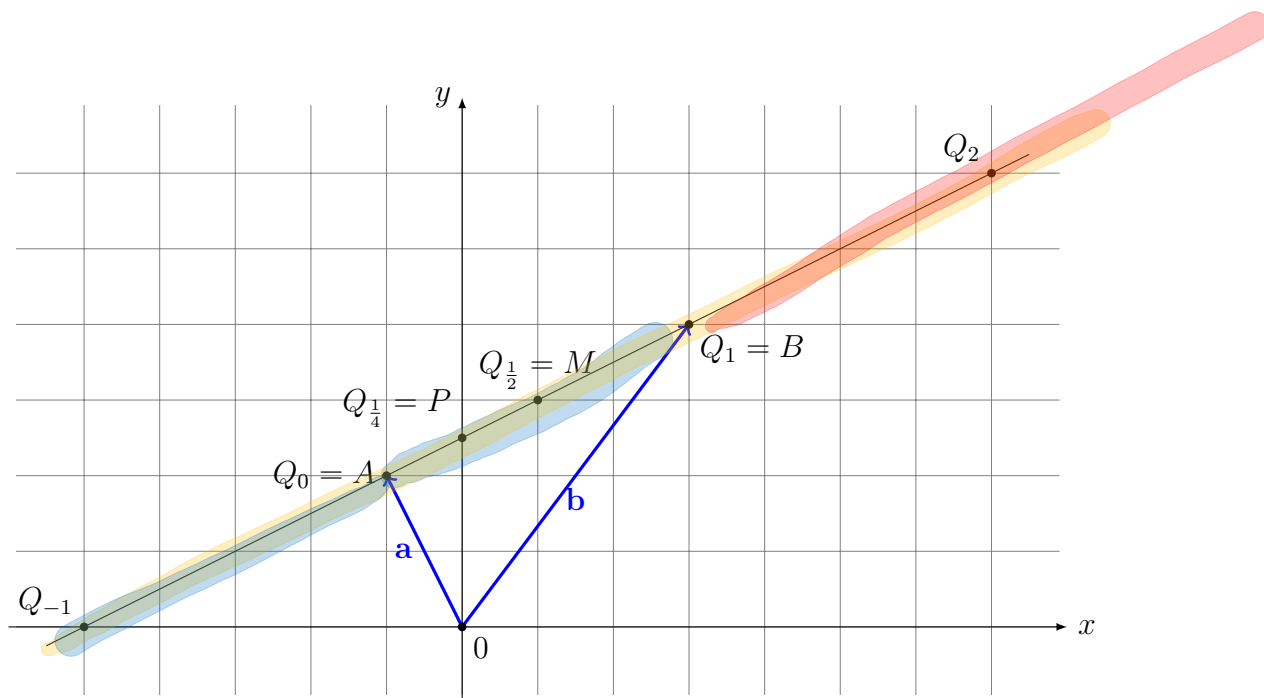


The corresponding point Q (with position vector \mathbf{q} from the equation above) lies

at point A if $\lambda = 0$,
at point B if $\lambda = 1$,

$$\mathbf{q} = (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{a} + \lambda\mathbf{b}$$

- at the centre point M if $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$,
- between A and B if $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, (2.8)
- on the line through A and B for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, (2.9)
- on the line through A and B , "in front of" A for all $\lambda < 0$,
- on the line through A and B , "behind" B for all $\lambda > 1$.

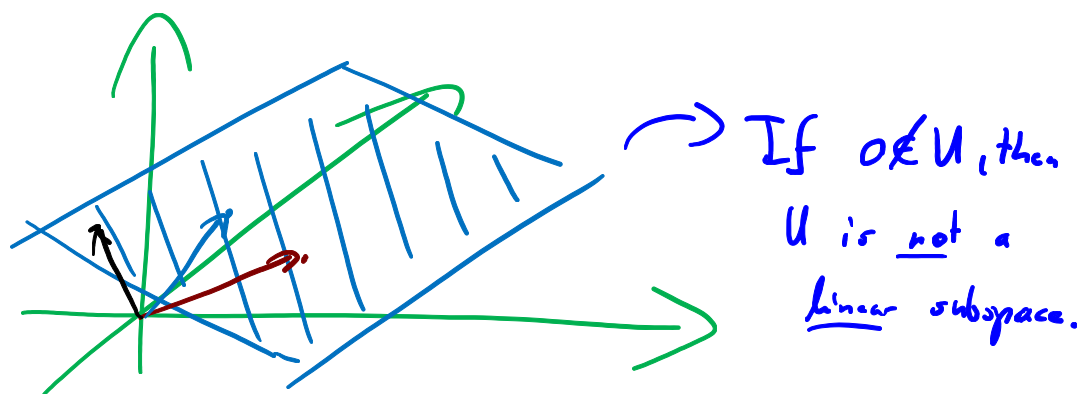


This brings out to the following:

Definition 2.19. Affine Subspaces in \mathbb{R}^n

A subset $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an **affine subspace** of \mathbb{R}^n if all **affine combinations** of vectors in U remain also in U :

$$\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \in U, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R} \text{ with } \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j = 1 \implies \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_j \in U$$

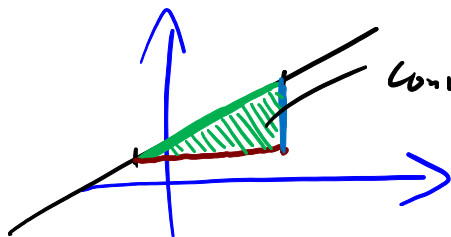


Definition 2.20. Convex subsets in \mathbb{R}^n

A subset $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a convex subset of \mathbb{R}^n if all convex combinations of vectors in U remain also in U :

$$\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \in U, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \in [0, 1] \text{ with } \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j = 1 \implies \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_j \in U$$

The analogous formulation to the linear hull is the affine hull. Try to give a definition!



Convex subset

span

$$\text{affspan}(M) := \{ \dots \}$$

$$\text{Convspan}(M) := \{ \dots \} \text{ affine}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_k = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_k + \lambda_k \mathbf{u}_k$$

$\lambda_{k+1} = 0$
 $\lambda_{k+1} = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j$

Proposition 2.21. Properties of affine subspaces

- (i) Each linear subspace is an affine subspace. (by definition) ✓
- (ii) If an affine subspace contains \mathbf{o} , it is a linear subspace.
- (iii) Given an affine subspace $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and a vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the translated set:

$$\mathbf{v} + S := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{s} \text{ for } \mathbf{s} \in S \}$$

is also an affine subspace.

- (iv) Every nonempty affine subspace S can be written in the form $S = \mathbf{v} + U$ for some $\mathbf{v} \in S$ and U a linear subspace.

Proof. (i): Follows from the definition because each affine combination is a linear combination.

(ii): If we have an arbitrary linear combination, we can trivially add also the zero vector. But if the zero-vector is in a linear combination, we can make it an affine one.

(iii): Let us write an arbitrary affine combination of elements of $\mathbf{v} + S$: \mathbf{w}_j and $\lambda_j \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j = 1$

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{w}_j = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j (\mathbf{s}_j + \mathbf{v}) = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{s}_j + \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \right) \mathbf{v} = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{s}_j + \mathbf{v}$$

\uparrow affine combination
 $\in \mathbf{v} + S$
 $\in \mathbb{R}$
 $\in \mathbf{v} + S$
 $\in S'$

$\implies \mathbf{v} + S'$ is an affine subspace.

(iv) For S' , choose $\mathbf{v} \in S'$. Then by (iii) $(-\mathbf{v}) + S'$ is an affine subspace, and it contains \mathbf{o} .

By (ii) $U := (-\mathbf{v}) + S'$ is a linear subspace. $\implies S = \mathbf{v} + U \quad \square$

Proposition 2.22. Characterisation of affine subspaces

Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, such that

$$\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S, \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \implies \lambda \mathbf{a} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{b} \in S$$

Then S is already an affine subspace.

Proof. We do a proof by mathematical induction:

Induction hypothesis: affine combinations of k vectors remain in S . In other words:

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{a}_j \text{ and } \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j = 1 \text{ implies } \mathbf{v} \in S$$

for every k and every admissible choice of λ_j and $\mathbf{a}_j \in S$.

Base case: by assumption, this is certainly true for $k = 2$.

Induction step: $k \rightarrow k + 1$. Let \mathbf{a}_j and λ_j be given for all $j \in \{1, \dots, k + 1\}$. By definition

$$\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k = 1 - \lambda_{k+1}$$

thus we can write:

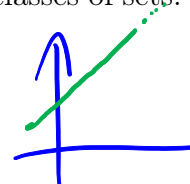
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} &= \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} \lambda_j \mathbf{a}_j = (1 - \lambda_{k+1}) \underbrace{\left(\sum_{j=1}^k \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k} \mathbf{a}_j \right)}_{\text{affine combination } \mathbf{w}} + \lambda_{k+1} \mathbf{a}_{k+1} \\ &= (1 - \lambda_{k+1}) \mathbf{w} + \lambda_{k+1} \mathbf{u}_{k+1} \in S \end{aligned}$$

By our induction hypothesis, $\mathbf{w} \in U$, because it is an affine combination of k vectors. Thus, $\mathbf{v} \in U$ as well, because it is an affine combination of \mathbf{w} and \mathbf{u}_{k+1} . \square

Conical combinations (an outlook)

There are also other rules for combining vectors. they lead to different classes of sets. For example, *conical combinations* of vectors are defined as:

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \mathbf{u}_j \text{ where } \lambda_j \geq 0.$$



The sets which contain all possible conical combinations of their elements are called *convex cones*, and we can define the conical hull of a set of vectors.

We can summarise this in the following table:

	no sign imposed	$\lambda_j \geq 0$
no sum imposed	linear	conical
$\sum \lambda_j = 1$	affine	convex

For all these types of sets we know "... combinations", and "... hulls".

This illustrates our strategy: describe things known from \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 algebraically, and thus generalise them to arbitrary dimensions.

2.5 Inner product and norm in \mathbb{R}^n

↳ more structure to our vector space

We transfer the notion of the inner product to define orthogonality and the length of the vector to the general \mathbb{R}^n

Definition 2.23. Inner product: $\langle \text{Vector}, \text{Vector} \rangle = \text{Number}$

For two vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{the number } \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle := u_1v_1 + \dots + u_nv_n = \sum_{i=1}^n u_iv_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

is called the (standard) inner product of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} . Sometimes also called: (standard) scalar product. If $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$, then we call \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} orthogonal.

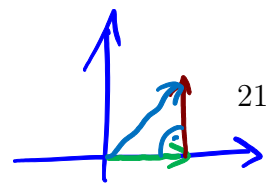
Proposition 2.24.

The standard inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ fulfils the following: For all vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, one has

- (S1) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$, $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Leftrightarrow \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$ (positive definite)
- (S2) $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y} \rangle$, (additive)
- (S3) $\langle \lambda \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \lambda \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$, (homogeneous) } (linear)
- (S4) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$. (symmetric)

↳ You need (S1)-(S4) to define non-standard inner products in \mathbb{R}^n .
↳ (Chapter 5)

$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ - measures angles (for example 90°)
- " lengths



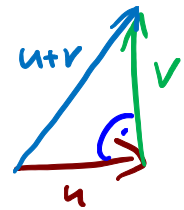
Definition 2.25. Norm of a vector in \mathbb{R}^n

For a vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{the number} \quad \|\mathbf{v}\| := \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

is called the norm or length of \mathbf{v} .

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \rangle &\stackrel{(52)}{=} \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \rangle \stackrel{(52), (54)}{=} \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

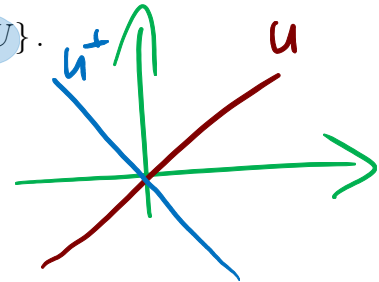


$$\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v} \Rightarrow \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$$

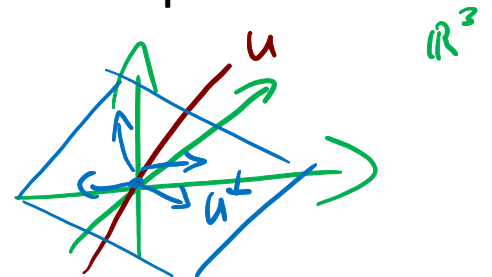
For a linear subspace $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ we define the orthogonal complement:

$$U^\perp := \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{u} \in U \}$$

However, we come back to such constructions later.



2.6 A special product in \mathbb{R}^3 (!): The vector product or cross product



Definition 2.26. Cross product: Vector \times Vector = Vector

The cross product or vector product of two vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \quad \text{is given by} \quad \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} := \begin{pmatrix} u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2 \\ u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3 \\ u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$