GALOIS THEORY TOPIC VII VECTOR SPACES

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ABSTRACT. Vector spaces are algebraic structures which admit addition and scalar multiplication. The scalar can come from any field. We wish to show that to each vector space we may attach a unique nonnegative integer known as its *dimension*, which is the size of any *basis*.

1. Fields

We begin by reviewing some aspects of the mathematical objects called fields.

Definition 1. A *field* is a set F, together with a pair of operations,

 $+: F \times F \to F$ and $\cdot: F \times F \to F$,

called addition and multiplication, satisfying

(F1) if $a, b \in F$, then a + b = b + a;

(F2) if $a, b, c \in F$, then (a + b) + c = a + (b + c);

(F3) there exists $0 \in F$ such that a + 0 = a for every $a \in F$;

(F4) for every $a \in F$ there exists $-a \in F$ such that a + (-a) = 0;

(F5) if $a, b \in F$, then ab = ba;

(F6) if $a, b, c \in F$, then (ab)c = a(bc);

- (F7) there exists $1 \in F \setminus \{0\}$ such that $a \cdot 1 = a$ for every $a \in F$;
- (F8) if $a \in F \setminus \{0\}$ there exists $a^{-1} \in F$ such that $aa^{-1} = 1$;
- (F9) if $a, b, c \in F$, then (a + b)c = ac + bc.

We define two more operations: subtraction is an operator $-: F \times F \to F$ defined by a - b = a + (-b) for all $a, b \in F$, and division is an operator $\div: F \times F^* \to F$ defined by $a \div b = ab^{-1}$, where $F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$

We give some examples of fields, beginning with the set of numbers emphasized by calculus.

Example 1. The set \mathbb{R} of real numbers is a field.

Example 2. The set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is a field. It adheres to properties **(F1)** through **(F9)**, as does any subset of \mathbb{R} ; moreover, the operations are closed on \mathbb{Q} ; the sum, difference, product, and quotient of two rational numbers is another rational number.

A field is not required to be an ordered set.

Example 3. The set \mathbb{C} of complex numbers is a field. One can show that \mathbb{C} does not admit a total ordering which is compatible with its algebraic structure.

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Neither is a field required to be infinite, and there are finite fields.

Example 4. Let $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$. Define addition and multiplication on \mathbb{Z}_2 by the following tables:

+	0	1	•	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	1

Together with these operations, \mathbb{Z}_2 is a field.

Example 5. Let $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$. Define addition and multiplication on \mathbb{Z}_3 by the following tables:

+	0	1	2	•	0	1	2
0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
1	1	2	0	1	0	1	2
2	2	0	1	2	0	2	1

Together with these operations, \mathbb{Z}_3 is a field.

Let the symbol \triangleq mean "is defined to be".

Example 6. The previous examples are special cases of the fields $\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, \ldots, p-1\}$, where p is a prime integer, and addition and multiplication are performed modulo p. The multiplicative inverses of nonzero elements exist, and may be found via the Euclidean algorithm, which produces the formula xm + yp = 1 when m is relatively prime to p. The inverse of m in \mathbb{Z}_p is then the residue of x modulo p.

2. Subfields

Definition 2. Let *E* be a field. A *subfield* of *E* is subset $F \subset E$ satisfying

- (S0) F is nonempty;
- (S1) if $a, b \in F$, then $a + b \in F$;
- (S2) if $a \in F$, then $-a \in F$;
- (S3) if $a, b \in F$, then $ab \in F$;
- (S4) if $a \in F \setminus \{0\}$, then $a^{-1} \in F$.

We write $F \leq E$ to mean that F is a subfield of E.

Conditions (S0) through (S5) are necessary and sufficient for F to itself be a field.

The fields we will deal with in this course are the subfields of \mathbb{C} .

Example 7. Consider the subset of \mathbb{R} given by

$$\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x = a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q} \}.$$

This is set clearly satisfies properties **(S0)** through **(S3)**; for example, if $x_1 = a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}$ and $x_2 = a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}$, then $x_1x_2 = (a_1a_2 + 2b_1b_2) + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)\sqrt{2}$, which is of the correct form to be an element of $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$. The multiplicative inverse of $a + b\sqrt{2}$ is

$$\frac{1}{a+b\sqrt{2}} = \frac{a-b\sqrt{2}}{(a+b\sqrt{2})(a-b\sqrt{2})} = \frac{a}{a^2-2b^2} + \frac{-b}{a^2-2b^2}\sqrt{2}.$$

which is also in $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$. Notice that it is impossible for nonzero rational numbers a and b to satisfy $a^2 = 2b^2$.

Thus $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is a subfield of \mathbb{R} , and as such, is itself a field.

If \mathcal{C} is a collection of sets, we denote the union and intersection of all the sets in \mathcal{C} by $\cup \mathcal{C}$ and $\cap \mathcal{C}$, respectively; that is,

- $\cup \mathcal{C} \triangleq \{c \mid c \in C \text{ for some } C \in \mathcal{C}\};$
- $\cap \mathcal{C} \triangleq \{c \mid c \in C \text{ for all } C \in \mathcal{C}\}.$

Proposition 1. Let E be a field and let \mathcal{F} be a collection of subfields of E. Then $\cap \mathcal{F}$ is a subfield of E.

Proof. We verify properties (S0) through (S4).

(S0) Every member of \mathcal{F} contains 0, so $\cap \mathcal{F}$ contains zero.

(S1) Let $a, b \in \cap \mathcal{F}$. Then $a, b \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Since each F in \mathcal{F} is a subfield of E, $a + b \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Thus $a + b \in \cap \mathcal{F}$.

(S2) Let $a \in \cap \mathcal{F}$. Then $a \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Since each F in \mathcal{F} is a subfield of $E, -a \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Thus $-a \in \cap \mathcal{F}$.

(S3) Let $a, b \in \cap \mathcal{F}$. Then $a, b \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Since each F in \mathcal{F} is a subfield of $E, ab \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Thus $ab \in \cap \mathcal{F}$.

(S4) Let $a \in \cap \mathcal{F}$ be nonzero. Then $a \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Since each F in \mathcal{F} is a subfield of E, $a^{-1} \in F$ for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$. Thus $a^{-1} \in \cap \mathcal{F}$.

Definition 3. Let F be a field and let $A \subset F$. The subfield of F generated by A, denoted $\langle A \rangle$, is the intersection of all subfields of F which contain A.

Clearly, $\langle A \rangle$ is the smallest subfield of F which contains A.

Example 8. The subfield of \mathbb{R} generated by the set $\{\sqrt{2}\}$ is $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$.

Recall that a *ring* is a field without property (F8), and a subring is a subfield without property (S4). It is equally true that the intersection of a collection of subrings of a given ring is itself a ring; the proof is identical, except you don't need to prove (S4), which doesn't hold for subrings.

3. Vector Spaces

Definition 4. A vector space over a field F is a set V together with a pair of operations,

 $+: V \times V \to V$ and $\cdot: F \times V \to V$,

called vector addition and scalar multiplication, satisfying

(V1) if $x, y \in V$, then x + y = y + x;

- (V2) if $x, y, z \in V$, then (x + y) + z = x + (y + z);
- (V3) there exists $0 \in V$ such that x + 0 = x for every $x \in V$;
- (V4) for every $x \in V$ there exists $-x \in V$ such that x + (-x) = 0;
- (V5) $1 \cdot x = x$ for every $x \in V$, where $1 \in F$;
- (V6) if $x, y \in V$ and $a \in F$, then a(x + y) = ax + ay;
- (V7) if $x \in V$ and $a, b \in F$, then (ab)x = a(bx);
- (V8) if $x \in V$ and $a, b \in F$, then (a + b)x = ax + bx.

Example 9. Let $F = \mathbb{R}$ and $V = \mathbb{R}$. This is a vector space, where vector addition is addition in \mathbb{R} and scalar multiplication is multiplication in \mathbb{R} .

Example 10. Let $F = \mathbb{R}$ and $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, the set of all ordered pairs of real numbers. For $x = (x_1, x_2), y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, define vector addition by $x+y = (x_1+y_1, x_2+y_2)$ and scalar multiplication by $ax = (ax_1, ax_2)$. Then V is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Example 11. Let F be any field, and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let F^n denote the set of all ordered *n*-tuples of elements from F. Define vector addition and scalar multiplication componentwise:

$$(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + (y_1, \ldots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_2, \ldots, x_n + y_n)$$

and

$$a(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=(ax_1,\ldots,ax_n),$$

where $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y_1, \ldots, y_n, a \in F$. Then F^n is a vector space over F.

Example 12. Let P_n denote the set of all polynomial functions with real coefficients of degree less than or equal to n. Then P_n is a vector space over \mathbb{R} under polynomial addition and multiplication by a scalar.

Example 13. The field $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is a vector space over \mathbb{Q} in the natural way.

Example 14. Let $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R})$ denote the set of all function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. Then $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R})$ is a vector space over \mathbb{R} with function addition and scalar multiplication.

Example 15. Let E be a field and let F be a subfield of E. Then E is a vector space over F, with vector addition as field addition in E, and scalar multiplication as multiplication (in E) of an element in F times an element in E.

4. Subspaces

Definition 5. Let V be a vector space over a field F. A subspace of V over F is a subset $W \subset V$ such that

(W0) W is nonempty;

(W1) $x, y \in W$ implies $x + y \in W$;

(W2) $x \in W$ and $a \in F$ implies $ax \in W$.

We write $W \leq V$ to mean that W is a subspace of V (where F is understood).

Conditions (W0) through (W2) are necessary and sufficient for W to itself be a vector space over F. Note that in the presence of (W1) and (W2), (W0) is equivalent to the statement that the zero vector in W. This is because if W is nonempty by (W0), then $w \in W$ for some $w \in V$, so by (W2), $-w \in W$, and then by (W1), $0 = w + (-w) \in W$.

Proposition 2. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let W be a collection of subspaces of V over F. Then $\cap W$ is a subspace of V over F.

Proof. We show that $\cap W$ satisfies properties (W0) through (W2).

(W0) Every member of \mathcal{W} is a subspace, and so it contains the zero vector. Thus the zero vector is in the intersection of all the subspaces in \mathcal{W} .

(W1) Let $w_1, w_2 \in \cap \mathcal{W}$. Then $w_1, w_2 \in W$ for every $W \in \mathcal{W}$. Thus $w_1 + w_2 \in W$ for every $W \in \mathcal{W}$, because W is a subspace. Therefore $w_1 + w_2 \in \cap \mathcal{W}$.

(W2) Let $w \in \cap \mathcal{W}$. Then $w \in W$ for every $W \in \mathcal{W}$. Thus $-w \in W$ for every $W \in \mathcal{W}$, because W is a subspace. Therefore $-w \in \cap \mathcal{W}$.

Definition 6. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $X \subset V$. The subspace of V over F generated by X, denoted $\langle X \rangle$, is the intersection of all subspaces of V over F which contain X.

Clearly, $\langle X \rangle$ is the smallest subspace of V over F which contains X, where F is understood from the context. We may write $\langle X \rangle_F$ if the field is ambiguous.

Example 16. The set $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is the subspace of \mathbb{R} over \mathbb{Q} generated by the set $\{\sqrt{2}\}$.

Example 17. The set P_n of all polynomials over \mathbb{R} with degree less than or equal to n is the subspace \mathcal{F} , the set of all functions $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, which is generated by the set $X = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$.

5. Span

Definition 7. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $X \subset V$. A *linear* combination from X over F is an expression of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i x_i \quad \text{where} \quad a_1, \dots, a_n \in F \text{ and } x_1, \dots, x_m \in X.$$

Note that a linear combination from X represents an element of V.

Definition 8. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $X \subset V$. The span of X over F is

span $X = \{x \in V \mid x \text{ can be expressed as a linear combination from } X\}.$

If $Y = \operatorname{span} X$, we say that X spans Y.

Again, the field F is understood in the notation $\operatorname{span}(X)$. We may write $\operatorname{span}_F(X)$ if the field is ambiguous.

Proposition 3. Let V be a vector space and let $X \subset V$. Then span $X = \langle X \rangle$.

Proof. Since $\langle X \rangle$ is a subspace of V which contains X, it certainly contains all linear combinations of elements from X; that is, span $X \subset \langle X \rangle$. On the other hand, one sees that span X is closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication, so it is itself a subspace of V which contains X; thus $\langle X \rangle \subset \text{span } X$.

Proposition 4. Let V be a vector space and let $X, Y \subset V$. If X spans V and $X \subset Y$, then Y spans V.

Proof. Suppose that X spans V. Then every element of V is a linear combination of elements from X. But since $X \subset Y$, all such linear combinations are also linear combinations from Y. Thus Y spans V.

6. Linear Independence

Definition 9. Let V be a vector space over a field F, and let $X \subset V$. We say that X is *linearly independent* over F if

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i x_i = 0 \quad \text{implies} \quad a_i = 0 \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, m,$$

where $x_1, \ldots, x_m \in V$ are distinct and $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in F$. Otherwise, we say that X is *linearly dependent*.

A true equation of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i x_i = 0$, where $a_i \in F$ and $x_i \in V$ for all *i* between 1 and *m*, is called a *dependence relation* among the elements x_1, \ldots, x_m . It is a *trivial* dependence relation if all of the a_i 's are equal to zero. Otherwise, it is a nontrivial dependence relation. A set is linearly independent if and only if it does not admit a nontrivial dependence relation.

Proposition 5. Let V be a vector space and let $X, Y \subset V$. If Y is independent and $X \subset Y$, then X is independent.

Proof. Any nontrivial dependence relation among the elements of X would be a nontrivial dependence relation among the elements of Y. \Box

7. Basis

Definition 10. Let V be a vector space over a field F, and let $X \subset V$. We say that X is a *basis* for V over F if

(B1) X spans V over F;

(B2) X is linearly independent over F.

Lemma 1. Let V be a vector space and let $X \subset V$ be a spanning set. If $v \in V \setminus X$, then $Y = X \cup \{v\}$ is dependent.

Proof. If v = 0, then $1 \cdot v = 0$ is a nontrivial dependence relation from Y, so Y is dependent; thus we may assume that $v \neq 0$. Since X spans, we may write $v = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i x_i$ for some $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x_i \in X$. Not all of the a_i 's are zero, because $v \neq 0$. Let $x_{m+1} = v$ and $a_{m+1} = -1$; then $\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} a_i x_i = 0$ is a nontrivial dependence relation from Y. Thus Y is dependent.

Lemma 2. Let V be a vector space and let $X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a dependent set. Then there exists $k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that x_k is a linear combination from $\{x_1, \ldots, x_{k-1}\}$.

Proof. Since X is dependent, there is a nontrivial dependence relation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i = 0,$$

where not all a_i 's equal zero. Let k be the largest integer between 1 and n such that $a_k \neq 0$. Then

$$x_k = \frac{1}{a_k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} a_i x_i$$

is a linear combination of the preceding elements.

Theorem 1. Let V be a vector space over a field F, and let $X, Y \subset V$ be finite subsets of V. If X is linearly independent over F and Y spans V over F, then

 $|X| \le |Y|.$

Proof. Let |Y| = n and $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$.

By way of contradiction (BWOC), suppose that |X| > n and let

$$Z = \{z_1, \ldots, z_{n+1}\} \subset X;$$

then Z is independent by Proposition 5. Label the elements of Y and Z so that all of those contained in $Y \cap Z$ are in the front, with $y_i = z_i$ for all $i \leq j$:

$$Y = \{z_1, \dots, z_j, y_{j+1}, \dots, y_n\}.$$

By Lemma 1, the set

$$\{z_1,\ldots,z_{j+1},y_{j+1},y_{k+2},\ldots,y_n\}$$

is dependent. By Lemma 2, one of these vectors is dependent on the preceding ones, and since the $z'_i s$ are linearly independent, there exists $k \in \{j+1,\ldots,n\}$ such that y_k is a linear combination of $\{z_1,\ldots,z_{j+1},y_{j+1},\ldots,y_{k-1}\}$. Thus if we remove y_k from the set, it will still span:

 $\operatorname{span}\{z_1, \dots, z_{i+1}, y_{i+1}, \dots, y_{k-1}, y_{k+1}, \dots, y_n\} = V.$

Continuing in this way, adding the next z and removing a y, we see that after n-j replacements we have

$$\operatorname{span}\{z_1,\ldots,z_n\}=V.$$

Thus the set $Z = \{z_1, \ldots, z_n\} \cup \{z_{n+1}\}$ is dependent by Lemma 1, producing a contradiction.

Corollary 1. Let V be a vector space over a field F, and let $X, Y \subset V$ be finite bases of V over F. Then

$$|X| = |Y|.$$

Proof. Since X and Y are basis, each spans and is independent. Since X is independent and Y spans, we have $|X| \leq |Y|$. But also, Y is independent and X spans, so $|Y| \leq |x|$. The result follows.

If we know that V is spanned by a finite set, we can use Lemma 2 to throw out one superfluous vector at a time, until we arrive at a spanning set which is also independent. This is a basis for V. Thus, in this case, V has a basis.

Definition 11. Let V be a vector space over a field F. The *dimension* of V over F is the cardinality of any basis for V over F.

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