Vector Spaces

Vectors in \mathbb{R}^2

A nonzero vector in \mathbb{R}^2 can be represented by a directed line segment. So a vector is something with a magnitude, how long the vector is, and a direction.

Ex. We can think of the vector $v = \langle 2, 3 \rangle$ as a line segment starting at (0, 0) (or any other point in the plane) and ending 2 units to the right and 3 units up.



The length of any vector $v = \langle a, b \rangle$ in \mathbb{R}^2 is $|v| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

Ex. The length of v = < 2, 3 > is: $|v| = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{4 + 9} = \sqrt{13}$

We can multiply any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 by a real number α , called a scalar, by $v = \langle a, b \rangle$ $\alpha v = \alpha \langle a, b \rangle = \langle \alpha a, \alpha b \rangle$

Ex. If v = < -3, 2 >3v = 3 < -3, 2 > = < -9, 6 >-2v = -2 < -3, 2 > = < 6, -4 >

If we have 2 vectors:

$$\begin{array}{l} v = < v_1, v_2 > \\ w = < w_1, w_2 > \\ \text{then } v + w = < v_1, v_2 > + < w_1, w_2 > = < v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2 >. \end{array}$$

Geometrically, v + w is the vector starting at (0,0) and ending at $(v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2)$.



If $v = \langle a, b \rangle$ then $-v = \langle -a, -b \rangle$. -v is the same length as v but points in the opposite direction.



If w is any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 then $w + \langle 0, 0 \rangle = w$.

Vector Space Axioms

Def. Let V be a set (like all vectors in \mathbb{R}^2) on which the operations of addition and scalar multiplication (i.e. multiplying by a real number) are defined. By this we mean if $v, w \in V$ then $v + w \in V$ and $\alpha v \in V$ where α is any real number. The set V together with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication, is said to form a **Vector Space** if the following axioms hold:

- A1. v + w = w + v for all $v, w \in V$
- A2. (v + w) + u = v + (w + u) for all $u, v, w \in V$
- A3. There exists an element 0 in V such that v + 0 = v for every $v \in V$, (0 is the zero element)
- A4. For each $v \in V$ there exists an element $-v \in V$ such that v + (-v) = 0
- A5 $1 \cdot v = v$ for all $v \in V$
- A6. $(\alpha\beta)v = \alpha(\beta v)$ for any scalars $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and any $v \in V$
- A7. $\alpha(v+w) = \alpha v + \alpha w$ for each scalar $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and any $v, w \in V$
- A8. $(\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v$ for any scalars of $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and any $v \in V$.

The elements of \mathbb{R} are called **scalars**. The elements of *V* are called **vectors**.

Ex.
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$
 is a vector space with (the standard)
 $< v_1, v_2 > + < w_1, w_2 > = < v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2 >$ and
 $\alpha < v_1, v_2 > = < \alpha v_1, \alpha v_2 >.$

To prove this we need to show \mathbb{R}^2 is closed under addition and scalar multiplication and verify the 8 axioms.

Let $v = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$, $w = \langle w_1, w_2 \rangle$, $u = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ be any vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. \mathbb{R}^2 is closed under addition because if $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^2$, then: $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle w_1, w_2 \rangle = \langle v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2 \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

 \mathbb{R}^2 is closed under scalar multiplication because if $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$, then: $\alpha < v_1, v_2 > = < \alpha v_1, \ \alpha v_2 > \in \mathbb{R}^2$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

A1.
$$< v_1, v_2 > + < w_1, w_2 > = < v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2 >$$

= $< w_1 + v_1, w_2 + v_2 >$
= $< w_1, w_2 > + < v_1, v_2 >$

A2.
$$(\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle w_1, w_2 \rangle) + \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$$

= $\langle v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2 \rangle + \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$
= $\langle v_1 + w_1 + u_1, v_2 + w_2 + u_2 \rangle$
= $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle w_1 + u_1, w_2 + u_2 \rangle$
= $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle (\langle w_1, w_2 \rangle + \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle)$

A3.
$$0 = \langle 0, 0 \rangle; \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle 0, 0 \rangle = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$$

A4.
$$- \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = \langle -v_1, -v_2 \rangle$$

so $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle -v_1, -v_2 \rangle = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$

A5.
$$1 \cdot \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = \langle 1v_1, 1v_2 \rangle = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$$

A6.
$$(\alpha\beta) < v_1, v_2 > = < \alpha\beta v_1, \alpha\beta v_2 > = \alpha(<\beta v_1, \beta v_2 >)$$

= $\alpha(\beta < v_1, v_2 >)$

A7.
$$\alpha(\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \langle w_1, w_2 \rangle) = \alpha \langle v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2 \rangle$$

= $\langle \alpha(v_1 + w_1), \alpha(v_2 + w_2) \rangle$
= $\langle \alpha v_1 + \alpha w_1, \alpha v_2 + \alpha w_2 \rangle$
= $\langle \alpha v_1, \alpha v_2 \rangle + \langle \alpha w_1, \alpha w_2 \rangle$
= $\alpha \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle + \alpha \langle w_1, w_2 \rangle$

A8.
$$(\alpha + \beta) < v_1, v_2 > = < (\alpha + \beta)v_1, (\alpha + \beta)v_2 >$$

= $< \alpha v_1 + \beta v_1, \alpha v_2 + \beta v_2 >$
= $< \alpha v_1, \alpha v_2 > + < \beta v_1, \beta v_2 >$
= $\alpha < v_1, v_2 > + \beta < v_1, \gamma_2 >$.

So \mathbb{R}^2 is a vector space with this addition and scalar multiplication.

Ex. $V = \{ \langle a, b \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^2 | a \ge 0, b \ge 0 \}$ is NOT a vector space with the standard addition and scalar multiplication.

To prove something is not a vector space we just need to show that either the set in question is not closed under addition or scalar multiplication, or one of the 8 axioms doesn't hold.

The first thing to check is whether

 $v + w \in V$ whenever $v, w \in V$, and $\alpha v \in V$ for all $v \in V$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

In this case, $v + w \in V$ whenever $v, w \in V$, since: $\langle a, b \rangle + \langle c, d \rangle = \langle a + c, b + d \rangle$, and if $a, b, c, d \ge 0$ so are a + c and b + d.

However, $\alpha v \notin V$ for all $v \in V$ and all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. For example, if $\alpha = -1$ and $v = < 1, 2 > \in V$ then $\alpha v = < -1, -2 > \notin V$.

Ex. \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space with $v = \langle v_1, v_2 \dots, v_n \rangle$, $w = \langle w_1, w_2 \dots, w_n \rangle$ and $v + w = \langle v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2, \dots, v_n + w_n \rangle$ and

 $\alpha v = \alpha < v_1, v_2 \dots, v_n > = < \alpha v_1, \alpha v_2 \dots, \alpha v_n >$. The proof is exactly the same as the proof for \mathbb{R}^2 (we just have *n* components to our vectors instead of 2).

A real $m \times n$ matrix (*m* rows, *n* colums) is an array of the form

A real m < n matrix, $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$ where $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ for $i = 1, ..., n; \quad j = 1, ..., m$.

Ex. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 2 \\ -3 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ is a 4 × 3 matrix. The third row is -3,2,1 and the second column is -1,5,2,3.

- Ex. The usual addition and scalar multiplication for matrices works as follows:
- $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 5 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 8 \\ 3 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ $4 \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 5 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -8 & 20 \\ 12 & -4 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$ If m = n we say that A is a square matrix.

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Ex. Show the set $V = M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ = all $m \times n$ matrices with real entries with the usual matrix addition and scalar multiplication is a vector space.

First we show that V is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. If $A, B \in V$ then A + B is also an $m \times n$ matrix with real entries, so $A + B \in V$.

If $A \in V$ then , $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, is also an $m \times n$ matrix with real entries, so $\alpha A \in V$.

- A1. A + B = B + A for all $A, B \in V$ (matrix addition is commutative)
- A2. (A + B) + C = A + (B + C) for all $A, B, C \in V$ (matrix addition is associative)
- A3. 0 = the zero matrix (zeros in all entries), so A + 0 = A for all $A \in V$
- A4. For each $A \in V$, -A = (-1)A has the property that A + (-A) = 0
- A5. $1 \cdot A = A$ for all $A \in V$ (property of scalar multiplication of matrices).
- A6. $(\alpha\beta)A = \alpha(\beta A)$ for all $A \in V, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ (property of scalar multiplication of matrices)
- A7. $\alpha(A + B) = \alpha A + \alpha B$ for all $A, B \in V$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ (distributive property of scalar multiplication of matrices)
- A8. $(\alpha + \beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A$ for all $A \in V$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ (another distributive property of scalar multiplication of matrices).
- So $M_{m \times n}$ is a vector space.

Ex. Let $V = P_2(\mathbb{R}) = \{all \ polynomials \ of \ degree \leq 2, \ real \ coefficients\}.$ V is a vector space with $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2$ and $q(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2$ any element of V,

and
$$p(x) + q(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_2 + b_2)x^2$$
$$and \qquad \alpha p(x) = \alpha a_0 + \alpha a_1 x + \alpha a_2 x^2.$$

$$P_2(\mathbb{R})$$
 is closed under addition because:
 $p(x) + q(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_2 + b_2)x^2 \in P_2(\mathbb{R})$

 $P_2(\mathbb{R})$ is closed under scalar multiplication because: $\alpha p(x) = \alpha a_0 + \alpha a_1 x + \alpha a_2 x^2 \in P_2(\mathbb{R})$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

A1.
$$p(x) + q(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_2 + b_2)x^2$$

= $b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 = q(x) + p(x)$

A2.
$$(p(x) + q(x)) + r(x)$$

 $= (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2) + c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2$
 $= (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2) + (b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2)$
 $= p(x) + (q(x) + r(x))$

A3.
$$0 =$$
 the zero polynomial i.e. a_0 , a_1 , a_2 are all 0
 $q(x) + 0 = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + 0 = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 = q(x)$

A4.
$$-p(x) = -a_0 - a_1 x - a_2 x^2$$
 so:
 $p(x) + (-p(x)) = (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2) + (-a_0 - a_1 x - a_2 x^2) = 0$

A5.
$$1 \cdot p(x) = 1(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 = p(x)$$

A6.
$$(\alpha\beta)p(x) = \alpha\beta(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2) = \alpha(\beta a_0 + \beta a_1x + \beta a_2x^2)$$

= $\alpha(\beta p(x))$

A7.
$$\alpha(p(x) + q(x)) = \alpha ((a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_2 + b_2)x^2)$$
$$= (\alpha a_0 + \alpha b_0) + (\alpha a_1 + \alpha b_1)x + (\alpha a_2 + \alpha b_2)x^2$$
$$= (\alpha a_0 + \alpha a_1x + \alpha a_2x^2) + (\alpha b_0 + \alpha b_1x + \alpha b_2x^2)$$
$$= \alpha p(x) + \alpha q(x)$$

A8.
$$(\alpha + \beta)p(x) = (\alpha + \beta)(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2)$$

= $(\alpha a_0 + \beta a_0) + (\alpha a_1 + \beta a_1)x + (\alpha a_2 + \beta a_2)x^2 = \alpha p(x) + \beta p(x).$

So V is a vector space.

In fact, $P_n(\mathbb{R})$, polynomials with real coefficients of degree $\leq n, n$ a positive integer, forms a vector space.

Ex. Let $V = \{polynomials with real coefficients | f(0) = 0\}$. Show that V is a vector space with the usual addition and scalar multiplication (as in the previous example).

First show that V is closed under addition. If $f(x), g(x) \in V$ then f(0) = g(0) = 0. Then h(x) = f(x) + g(x) has h(0) = f(0) + g(0) = 0. Since the sum of two polynomials is also a polynomial, $h(x) \in V$.

Now show that V is closed under scalar multiplication.

If $f(x) \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ then let h(x) = cf(x). h(0) = xf(0) = 0 and the product of a real number and a polynomial is again a polynomial. Thus $h(x) \in V$.

So V is closed under addition and scalar multiplication.

 $f(x) = 0 \in V$ is the additive identity and since f(0) = 0 and f(x) is a polynomial with real coefficients.

If $f(x) \in V$, then the additive inverse, $-f(x) \in V$, since -f(0) = 0 and -1 times a polynomial is again a polynomial and f(x) + (-f(x)) = 0.

V satisfies axioms 1 - 8 as in the previous example, so V is a vector space.

Let $\mathfrak{I} = \{functions from \mathbb{R} \text{ to } \mathbb{R}\}$. So the "vectors" in \mathfrak{I} are functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} (e.g., $f(x) = x^2$, g(x) = cosx, etc.).

Vector addition is just the usual addition of functions. For example, $f(x) = x^2 - 3x$, $g(x) = 2x^2 + 1$ are in \Im . $f(x) + g(x) = 3x^2 - 3x + 1$.

Scalar multiplication is defined as the usual multiplication of a constant times a function. For example, $f(x) = x^2 - 3x \in \mathfrak{I}$, $4 \in \mathbb{R}$, $4f(x) = 4x^2 - 12x$.

Ex. Show that $\Im = \{functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R}\}\$ with the usual addition and scalar multiplication is a vector space.

 \mathfrak{I} is closed under addition since if $f(x), g(x) \in \mathfrak{I}$ then $f(x) + g(x) \in \mathfrak{I}$ because the sum of two functions from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} is again a function from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} .

 \Im is closed under scalar multiplication because a constant multiple of a function from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} is a function from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} .

The zero vector in \Im is the function f(x) = 0.

If $f(x) \in \mathfrak{J}$ then its additive inverse $-f(x) \in \mathfrak{J}$.

Since axioms 1-8 are satisfied by real numbers they are also satisfied by \Im with the usual addition and scalar multiplication of functions.

Thus \Im is a vector space.

Ex. Let $V = \{polynomials with real coefficients | f(0) = 1\}$ with the usual addition and scalar multiplication for functions. Show that V is not a vector space.

Notice that V is not closed under addition or scalar multiplication since if $f(x), g(x) \in V$ then $h(x) = f(x) + g(x) \notin V$ since h(0) = f(0) + g(0) = 1 + 1 = 2. h(x) = 3(f(x)) then h(0) = 3(f(0)) = 3.

In addition, there is no additive identity (i.e. a zero vector) since if g(x) is the 0 vector then f(x) + g(x) = f(x). But then g(0) = 0. Thus $g(x) \notin V$.

There is no additive inverse as well. If $f(x) \in V$ and g(x) is the additive inverse of f(x), then f(x) + g(x) = 0. But then g(x) = -f(x) and g(0) = -f(0) = -1. Thus $g(x) \notin V$.

Ex. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ and define vector addition by $< a_1, a_2 > + < b_1, b_2 > = < a_1 - b_1, a_2 + b_2 >$

and scalar multiplication by $c < a_1, a_2 > = < ca_1, ca_2 >$. Show that V is not a vector space.

It's straightforward to see that V is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. However, several of the axioms of vector spaces don't hold.

Axiom 1: v + w = w + v. If we let $v = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$, $w = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$, then $v + w = \langle a_1 - b_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle$ $w + v = \langle b_1 - a_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle$ and $a_1 - b_1 \neq b_1 - a_1$ for all $a_1, b_1 \in \mathbb{R}^2$. So $v + w \neq w + v$.

Axiom 2:
$$(v + w) + z = v + (w + z)$$
.
If we let $v = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$, $w = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$, $z = \langle d_1, d_2 \rangle$ then
 $(v + w) + z = \langle a_1 - b_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle + \langle d_1, d_2 \rangle$
 $= \langle a_1 - b_1 - d_1, a_2 + b_2 + d_2 \rangle$
 $v + (w + z) = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle + \langle b_1 - d_1, b_2 + d_2 \rangle$
 $= \langle a_1 - (b_1 - d_1), a_2 + (b_2 + d_2) \rangle$
 $= \langle a_1 - b_1 + d_1, a_2 + b_2 + d_2 \rangle$
So $(v + w) + z \neq v + (w + z)$.
Axiom 8: If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $v \in V$ then $(a + b)v = av + bv$.
If we let $v = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ then
 $(a + b)v = (a + b) \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle = \langle (a + b)a_1, (a + b)a_2 \rangle$
 $av + bv = a \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle + b \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$
 $= \langle aa_1, aa_2 \rangle + \langle ba_1, ba_2 \rangle$
 $= \langle aa_1 - ba_1, aa_2 + ba_2 \rangle$

$$av + bv = a < a_1, a_2 > +b < a_1, a_2 >$$

=< $aa_1, aa_2 > +< ba_1, ba_2 >$
=< $aa_1 - ba_1, aa_2 + ba_2 >$
=< $(a - b)a_1, (a + b)a_2 >$
So $(a + b)v \neq av + bv$.

It is possible to have a nonstandard definition of vector addition and scalar multiplication on $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ for which V is a vector space. One example is:

If
$$v = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$$
, $w = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$ then
 $v + w = \langle a_1 + b_1 - 1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle$ and $cv = \langle ca_1 - c + 1, ca_2 \rangle$.

However, notice that in this case the zero vector is < 1,0 > not < 0,0 > andthe additive inverse of $< a_1, a_2 > is < 2 - a_1, -a_2 > not < -a_1, -a_2 >$.

Theorem (cancellation law for vector addition): If v, w, and z are vectors in a vector space V and v + z = w + z then v = w.

Proof: There exists a vector $u \in V$ such that z + u = 0. Thus

v = v + 0= v + (z + u) = (v + z) + u = (w + z) + u = w + (z + u) = w + 0 = w.

Corollary: The zero vector is unique.

Proof: Suppose v and w are both zero vectors. Then z + v = z z + w = zThus: z + v = z + w. By the cancellation law: v = w.

Corollary: If $v \in V$ then its additive inverse is unique.

Proof: Suppose w_1, w_2 are both additive inverses of $v \in V$, then $v + w_1 = 0$ $v + w_2 = 0$. Thus: $v + w_1 = v + w_2$. By the cancellation law: $w_1 = w_2$. Ex. Show $V = \{ \langle a, 3 \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^2 | a \in \mathbb{R} \}$ with: $\langle a, b \rangle + \langle c, d \rangle = \langle a + c, b + d \rangle$ and $\alpha \langle a, b \rangle = \langle \alpha a, \alpha b \rangle$ is not a vector space.

First check if V is closed under addition and scalar multiplication.

$$v, w \in V$$
, $v = \langle v_1, 3 \rangle$, $w = \langle w_1, 3 \rangle$
 $v + w = \langle v_1 + w_1, 6 \rangle \notin V$

So *V* is not closed under addition.

Also if $\alpha = 3$, for example,

$$\alpha v = 3 < v_1, 3 > = < 3v_1, 9 > \notin V$$

So *V* is not closed under scalar multiplication either.

Ex. Let $V = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | y = 3x\}$. Show that V is a vector space with the usual vector addition and scalar multiplication.

V is closed under addition since if $v, w \in V$ then for some $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ $v = \langle x_1, 3x_1 \rangle$ $w = \langle x_2, 3x_2 \rangle$ and $v + w = \langle x_1, 3x_1 \rangle + \langle x_2, 3x_2 \rangle = \langle x_1 + x_2, 3(x_1 + x_2) \rangle \in V.$

V is closed under scalar multiplication since if $v \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ then

$$v = < x_1, 3x_1 > cv = c < x_1, 3x_1 > = < cx_1, 3cx_1 > \in V.$$

The zero vector in *V* is: $< 0,0 > = < 0,3(0) > \in V$.

V contains all additive inverses since if $v \in V$ and $v = \langle x_1, 3x_1 \rangle$ then $w = \langle -x_1, 3(-x_1) \rangle \in V$ is its additive inverse since: $v + w = \langle x_1, 3x_1 \rangle + \langle -x_1, 3(-x_1) \rangle$ $= \langle 0.0 \rangle$.

It's straightforward to check that the other axioms hold.

Ex. Show that $V = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | y = 3x + 1\}$ is not a vector space under the usual vector addition and scalar multiplication.

V is not closed under addition since if $v, w \in V$ and $v = \langle x_1, 3x_1 + 1 \rangle$ $w = \langle x_2, 3x_2 + 1 \rangle$ then

$$v + w = < x_1, 3x_1 + 1 > + < x_2, 3x_2 + 1 >.$$

= < x₁ + x₂, 3(x₁ + x₂) + 2 > \notice V.

V is also not closed under scalar multiplication since if $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $c \neq 1$ then $cv = \langle cx_1, c(3x_1 + 1) \rangle$ $= \langle cx_1, 3(cx_1) + c \rangle \neq \langle cx_1, 3(cx_1) + 1 \rangle$ So $cv \notin V$.

The zero vector is not in *V*. If *w* is the zero vector then w + v = v for all $v \in V$. But by usual vector addition that means w = < 0,0 >. However, $< 0,0 > \notin V$ since $< 0,0, > \neq < 0,3(0) + 1 > = < 0,1 >$.

Additive inverses are not in *V*. If $v \in V$ then *w* is an additive inverse of *v* if v + w = <0,0 >Thus if $v = < x_1, 3x_1 + 1 >$, then $w = < -x_1, 3(-x_1) - 1 > = < -x_1, -3x_1 - 1 >$ since $< x_1, 3x_1 + 1 > + < -x_1, -3x_1 - 1 > = <0,0 >$. But $< -x_1, -3x_1 - 1 > \notin V$. Ex. Let $V = \{2x2 \text{ matrices}, A, where \det(A) = 0\}$ Let the addition and scalar multiplication be the usual matrix operations. Show V is not a vector space.

We know V is closed under scalar multiplication because $det(\alpha A) = \alpha^2 det(A)$, since A is 2x2, and det(A) = 0, $\alpha^2 det(A) = 0$.

However, det(A + B) is not necessarily 0, if det(A) and det(B) = 0. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$; $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ det(A) = 0, det(B) = 0 but $det(A + B) = det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \neq 0$. So V is not closed under addition.