

Linear Algebra

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Chapter 1

Vector space

1.1 a

\mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{C}^n

We are already be familiar with basic properties of the set of real numbers(\mathbb{R}). Complex numbers comes when we can take square roots of negative numbers. The idea is to assume we have a square root of -1 , denoted by i that obeys the usual rules of arithmetic. Here are the formal definition.

Definition 1.1 (Complex Numbers).

- A complex number is an ordered pair (x, y) , where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, but we will write this as $x + yi$.
- The set of all complex numbers is denoted by \mathbb{C} :

$$\mathbb{C} = \{x + yi \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

- Addition and multiplication on \mathbb{C} are defined by

$$(x + yi) + (u + vi) = (x + u) + (y + v)i,$$

$$(x + yi)(u + vi) = (xu - yv) + (xv + yu)i;$$

here $x, y, u, v \in \mathbb{R}$

Fun Fact: The symbol i was first used to denote $\sqrt{-1}$ by Leonard Euler in 1777.

- Note that $\mathbb{C} \supseteq \mathbb{R}$ because for all real numbers $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we can express it as a complex number by writing it as $a + 0i$.

- We usually denote $0 + yi$ simply as yi , and $0 + 1i$ as i .
- The definition of multiplication for complex numbers is based on the assumption that $i^2 = -1$. Using the standard arithmetic rules, we can derive the formula for the product of two complex numbers. This formula can then be used to confirm that i^2 indeed equals -1 .

Example 1.1. Let's calculate the product of two complex numbers $(1+2i)$ and $(3+4i)$ using the distributive and commutative properties:

$$\begin{aligned}(1+2i)(3+4i) &= 1 \cdot (3+4i) + (2i)(3+4i) \\&= 1 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 4i + 2i \cdot 3 + (2i)(4i) \\&= 3 + 4i + 6i - 8 \\&= -5 + 10i\end{aligned}$$

Proposition 1.1 (Properties of Complex Arithmetic).

- **Commutativity:** $z_1 + z_2 = z_2 + z_1$ and $z_1 z_2 = z_2 z_1$ for all $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$.
- **Associativity:** $(z_1 + z_2) + z_3 = z_1 + (z_2 + z_3)$ and $(z_1 z_2) z_3 = z_1 (z_2 z_3)$ for all $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$.
- **Identities:** $z + 0 = z$ and $z1 = z$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.
- **Additive Inverse:** For every $z \in \mathbb{C}$, there exists a unique $-z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $z + (-z) = 0$.
- **Multiplicative Inverse:** For every $z \in \mathbb{C}$ with $z \neq 0$, there exists a unique $z^{-1} \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $zz^{-1} = 1$.
- **Distributive Property:** $z_1(z_2 + z_3) = z_1 z_2 + z_1 z_3$ for all $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}$.

The properties above are proved using the familiar properties of real numbers and the definitions of complex addition and multiplication. Here, we are going to prove that commutativity of complex addition and multiplication is proved.

Proof.

- **Addition :** Let $z_1 = a + bi$ and $z_2 = c + di$ be any two complex numbers. Then we have:

$$z_1 + z_2 = (a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i = z_2 + z_1$$

This shows that addition is commutative for complex numbers.

- **Multiplication:** Again, let $z_1 = a + bi$ and $z_2 = c + di$ be any two complex numbers. Then we have:

$$z_1 z_2 = (a + bi)(c + di) = ac + adi + bci - bd = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$$

and

$$z_2 z_1 = (c + di)(a + bi) = ca + cbi + dai - db = (ca - db) + (da + cb)i$$

As you can see, $(ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i = (ca - db) + (da + cb)i$, which shows that multiplication is also commutative for complex numbers.

So, we have proved that both addition and multiplication are commutative operations in the set of complex numbers. This means that the order in which complex numbers are added or multiplied does not affect the result.

□

Definition 1.2 (Subtraction, Division). Let's suppose $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$.

- The negative of a complex number z_1 is denoted as $-z_1$. It is the unique complex number such that

$$z_1 + (-z_1) = 0.$$

- Subtraction in the set of complex numbers is defined as

$$z_1 - z_2 = z_1 + (-z_2).$$

- For $z_1 \neq 0$, let $1/z_1$ denote the multiplicative inverse of z_1 . Thus, $1/z_1$ is the unique complex number such that

$$z_1(1/z_1) = 1.$$

- For $z_1 \neq 0$, division by z_1 is defined as

$$z_2/z_1 = z_2(1/z_1).$$

So that we can conveniently make definitions and prove theorems that apply to both real and complex numbers, we adopt the following notation.

Notation :Throughout this note stands \mathbb{F} for either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . The letter \mathbb{F} is used because \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are examples of what are called fields.

Elements of \mathbb{F} are called scalars. The word “scalar” (which is just a fancy word for “number”) is often used when we want to emphasize that an object is a number, as opposed to a vector (vectors will be defined soon).

For $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ and m a positive integer, we define α^m to denote the product of α with itself m times:

$$\alpha^m = \underbrace{\alpha \cdot \alpha \cdots \alpha}_{m\text{times}}$$

. This definition implies that

$$(\alpha^m)^n = \alpha^{mn} \quad \text{and} \quad (\alpha\beta)^m = \alpha^m\beta^m$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ and all positive integers m, n .

1.1.1 Lists

Before defining \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{C}^n , we look at two important examples.

Example 1.2.

- The set \mathbb{R}^2 , which you can think of as a plane, is the set of all ordered pairs of real numbers:

$$\mathbb{R}^2 := \{(x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- The set \mathbb{R}^3 , which you can think of as ordinary space, is the set of all ordered triples of real numbers:

$$\mathbb{R}^3 := \{(x, y, z) : x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Let's generalize this examples to higher dimensions.

Definition 1.3 (List,Length).

- Suppose n is a nonnegative integer. A *list* of *length n* is an ordered collection of n elements (which might be numbers, other lists, or more abstract objects).
- Two lists are equal if and only if they have the same length and the same elements in the same order

Note that many mathematicians call a list of length n an n -tuple.

Lists are often written as elements separated by commas and surrounded by parentheses. Thus a list of length two is an ordered pair that might be written as (a, b) . A list of length three is an ordered triple that might be written as (x, y, z) . A list of length n might look like this: (z_1, \dots, z_n) .

Sometimes we will use the word list without specifying its length. Remember, however, that by definition each list has a finite length that is a non-negative integer. Thus an object that looks like (x_1, x_2, \dots) , which might be said to have infinite length, is not a list.

A list of length 0 looks like this: $()$.

We consider such an object to be a list so that some of our theorems will not have trivial exceptions.

Lists differ from sets in two ways: in lists, order matters and repetitions have meaning; in sets, order and repetitions are irrelevant.

Proposition 1.2 (Lists versus Sets).

- *The lists $(3, 5)$ and $(5, 3)$ are not equal, but the sets $\{3, 5\}$ and $\{5, 3\}$ are equal.*
- *The lists $(4, 4)$ and $(4, 4, 4)$ are not equal (they do not have the same length), although the sets $\{4, 4\}$ and $\{4, 4, 4\}$ both equal the set $\{4\}$.*

1.1.2 Fn

\mathbb{F}^n Fix a positive integer \mathbb{F}^n for the rest of this chapter.

Definition 1.4. \mathbb{F}^n is the set of all lists of length n of elements of \mathcal{F} :

$$\mathbb{F}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{F} \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n\}.$$

For $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ and $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, we say that x_i is the i th coordinate of (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ and n equals 2 or 3, then the definition above of \mathbb{F}^n agrees with our previous notions of \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 .

Example 1.3. Let \mathbb{C}^4 be the set of all lists of four complex numbers:

$$\mathbb{C}^4 = \{(z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4) \mid z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4 \in \mathbb{C}\}.$$

If $n \geq 4$, we cannot visualize \mathbb{R}^n as a physical object. Similarly, \mathbb{C}^1 can be thought of as a plane, but for $n \geq 2$, the human brain cannot provide a full image of \mathbb{R}^n . However, even if n is large, we can perform algebraic manipulations in \mathbb{C}^n as easily as in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 . For example, addition in \mathbb{R}^n is defined as follows.

Definition 1.5 (addition of higher dimensions). Addition in \mathbb{F}^n is defined by adding corresponding coordinates:

$$(a_1, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, \dots, b_n) = (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

Often the mathematics of \mathbb{R}^n becomes cleaner if we use a single letter to denote a list of n numbers, without explicitly writing the coordinates. For example, the next result is stated with x and y in \mathbb{R}^n even though the proof requires the more cumbersome notation of (x_1, \dots, x_n) and (y_1, \dots, y_n) .

Proposition 1.3. If $a, b \in \mathbb{F}^n$, then $a + b = b + a$.

Proof. Suppose $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ and $b = (b_1, \dots, b_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$. Then

$$a + b = (a_1, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, \dots, b_n) \tag{1.1}$$

$$= (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n) \tag{1.2}$$

$$= (b_1 + a_1, \dots, b_n + a_n) \tag{1.3}$$

$$= (b_1, \dots, b_n) + (a_1, \dots, a_n) \tag{1.4}$$

$$= b + a \tag{1.5}$$

where the second and fourth equalities above hold because of the definition of addition in \mathbb{F}^n and the third equality holds because of the usual commutativity of addition in \mathbb{F} . \square

1.2 Definition of Vector space

We will define a vector space to be a set V with an addition and a scalar multiplication on V that satisfy the properties in the paragraph above.

Definition 1.6 (addition, scalar multiplication).

- An addition on set V is a function that assigns an element $u+v \in V$ for $u, v \in V$.
- A scalar multiplication on a set V is a function that assigns an element $\lambda v \in V$ to each $\lambda \in F$ and each $v \in V$

Now we are ready to give the formal definition of a vector space

Definition 1.7 (Vector Space). A vector space is a set V along with an addition on V and a scalar multiplication on V such that the following properties hold.

- **Commutativity:** $u+v = v+u$ for all $u, v \in V$.
- **Associativity:** $(u+v)+w = u+(v+w)$ and $(ab)c = a(bc)$ for all $u, v, w \in V$ and for all $a, b \in F$.
- **Additive Identity:** There exists an element $0 \in V$ such that $v+0=v$ for all $v \in V$.
- **Additive Inverse:** For every $v \in V$, there exists $-v \in V$ such that $v+(-v)=0$.
- **Multiplicative Identity:** $1v=v$ for all $v \in V$.
- **Distributive Properties:** $a(v+w) = av+aw$ and $(a+b)v = av+bv$ for all $v, w \in V$ and all $a, b \in F$.

The following geometric language sometimes aids our intuition.

Definition 1.8 (Vector). Elements of a vector space are called vectors or points.

Example 1.4. The simplest vector space is $\{0\}$, which contains only one point.

The scalar multiplication in a vector space depends on F . Thus when we need to be precise, we will say that V is a vector space over F instead of saying simply that V is a vector space.

Example 1.5.

- \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space over \mathbb{R}
- \mathbb{C}^n is a vector space over \mathbb{C} .

Usually the choice of F is either clear from the context or irrelevant. Thus we often assume that F is lurking in the background without specifically mentioning it. With the usual operations of addition and scalar multiplication, F^n is a vector space over F , as you should verify. The example of F^n motivated our definition of vector space.

Example 1.6. F^∞ is defined to be the set of all sequences of elements of F :

$$F^\infty = \{(f_1, f_2, \dots) \mid f_i \in F \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots\}.$$

Addition and scalar multiplication on F^∞ are defined as expected:

$$\begin{aligned}(f_1, f_2, \dots) + (g_1, g_2, \dots) &= (f_1 + g_1, f_2 + g_2, \dots) \\ \lambda(f_1, f_2, \dots) &= (\lambda f_1, \lambda f_2, \dots).\end{aligned}$$

With these definitions, F^∞ becomes a vector space over F , as you should verify. The additive identity in this vector space is the sequence of all 0's.

Our next example of a vector space involves a set of functions.

Notation: F^S

- If S is a set, then F^S denotes the set of functions from S to F .
- For $f, g \in F^S$, the sum $f + g \in F^S$ is the function defined by $(f + g)(s) = f(s) + g(s)$ for all $s \in S$.
- For $\lambda \in F$ and $f \in F^S$, the product $\lambda f \in F^S$ is the function defined by $(\lambda f)(s) = \lambda f(s)$ for all $s \in S$.

Remark: As an example of the notation above, if S is the interval $[0, 1]$ and $F = \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{R}^{[0,1]}$ is the set of real-valued functions on the interval $[0, 1]$. The elements of the vector space $\mathbb{R}^{[0,1]}$ are real-valued functions on $[0, 1]$, not lists. In general, a vector space is an abstract entity whose elements might be lists, functions, or weird objects.

Now let's verify following example

Example 1.7. F^S is a vector space

- If S is a nonempty set, then F^S (with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication as defined above) is a vector space over F .
- The additive identity of F^S is the function $0: S \rightarrow F$ defined by $0(s) = 0$ for all $s \in S$.
- For $f \in F^S$, the additive inverse of $-f$ is the function $-f: S \rightarrow F$ defined by $(-f)(s) = -f(s)$ for all $s \in S$.

Proof. Let S be an set non empty set and let $f, g, h \in F^S$. Let $x \in S$. Let $a, b \in F$.

- **Commutativity:** $[f + g](x) = f(x) + g(x) = g(x) + f(x) = [g + f](x)$. (Since $f(x), g(x) \in F$ and F have commutative property.) Thus $f + g = g + f$ for all $f, g \in F$
- **Associativity:**

- $[(f + g) + h](x) = (f(x) + g(x)) + h(x) = f(x) + (g(x) + h(x)) = [f + (g + h)](x)$. (Since $f(x), g(x), h(x) \in \mathbb{F}$ and \mathbb{F} have associativity property.)
- $[(a \cdot b) \cdot f](x) = (a \cdot b) \cdot (f(x)) = a \cdot (b \cdot f(x)) = [a \cdot (b \cdot f)](x)$ (Since $f(x), a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ and \mathbb{F} have associativity property.)

- **Additive Identity:** Let 0 be zero function $0: S \rightarrow F$ defined by $0(s) = 0$ for all $s \in S$. Then, $[f + 0](x) = f(x) + 0(x) = f(x) + 0 = f(x)$. Thus, $f + 0 = f$ for all $f \in F^S$.
- **Adttive Identity:** For $f \in F^S$, the additive inverse of $-f$ is the function $-f: S \rightarrow F$ defined by $(-f)(s) = -f(s)$ for all $s \in S$. Then $[f + (-f)](x) = f(x) + (-f)(x) = f(x) - f(x) = 0 = 0(x)$. Thus, $f + 0 = f$, for all $f \in F^S$.
- **Multiplicative Identity:** $[1 \cdot f](x) = 1 \cdot (f(x)) = f(x)$. Thus, $1f = f$ for all $f \in F^S$.
- **Distributive Property:**

- $[a(f + g)](x) = a \cdot ((f + g)(x)) = a(f(x) + g(x)) = af(x) + ag(x) = [af](x) + [ag](x) = [af + ag](x)$. (Since $f(x), g(x), a \in \mathbb{F}$ and \mathbb{F} have distributive property. Thus, $a(f + g) = af + ag$ for all $f, g \in F^S$ and $a \in F$.)
- $[(a + b)f](x) = (a + b)((f(x))) = a(f(x)) + b(f(x)) = [af](x) + [bf](x) = [af + bf](x)$. (Since $f(x), a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ and \mathbb{F} have distributive property. Thus, $(a + b)f = af + bf$ for all $f \in F^S$ and $a, b \in F$)

□

The vector space F^n is a special case of the vector space F^S because each $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in F^n$ can be thought of as a function x from the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ to F by writing $x(k)$ instead of x_k for the k^{th} coordinate of (x_1, \dots, x_n) . In other words, we can think of F^n as $F^{\{1, 2, \dots, n\}}$. Similarly, we can think of F^∞ as $F^{\{1, 2, \dots\}}$.

Proposition 1.4. *A vector space has a unique additive identity.*

Proof. Suppose 0 and $0'$ are both additive identities for some vector space V . Then,

$$0' = 0' + 0 = 0 + 0' = 0,$$

where the frst equality holds because 0 is an additive identity, the second equality comes from commutativity, and the third equality holds because $0'$ is an additive identity. Thus $0' = 0$, proving that V has only one additive iden- tity. □

Proposition 1.5. *Every element in a vector space has a unique additive inverse.*

Proof. Suppose V is a vector space. Let $v \in V$. Suppose w and w' are additive inverses of v . Then

$$w = w + 0 = w + (v + w') = (w + v) + w' = 0 + w' = w'.$$

Thus $w = w'$, as desired. \square

Notations: $-v$, $w - v$

Let $v \in V$. Then $-v$ denotes the additive inverse of v ; $w - v$ is defined to be $w + (-v)$. ““

For the rest of this note, I will use following notation. *Notations* V denotes a vector space over F .

Proposition 1.6.

$$0v = 0 \text{ for all } v \in V$$

0 denotes a scalar (the number $0 \in V$) on the left side of the equation and a vector (the additive identity of V) on the right side of the equation.

Proof. Let $v \in V$. $[0v = (0 + 0)v = 0v + 0v]$ Adding the additive inverse of $0v$ to both sides of the equation above gives $0 = 0v$, as we want \square

The result in proposition 1.6 involves the additive identity of V and scalar multiplication. The only part of the definition of a vector space that connects vector addition and scalar multiplication is the distributive property. Thus the distributive property must be used in the proof of proposition 1.6.

Chapter 2

Exercise 1

2.1 Exercise 1A

1. Show that $\alpha + \beta = \beta + \alpha$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

$$\alpha = x_1 + iy_1 \text{ for some}$$

$$\beta = x_2 + iy_2 \text{ for some}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha + \beta &= (x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2) \\ &= (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2) \\ &= (x_2 + x_1) + i(y_2 + y_1) \\ &= (x_2 + iy_2) + (x_1 + iy_1) \\ &= \beta + \alpha\end{aligned}$$

2. Show that $(\alpha + \beta) + \lambda = \alpha + (\beta + \lambda)$ for all $\alpha, \beta, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let $\alpha, \beta, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

$$\alpha = x_1 + iy_1 \text{ for some } x_1, y_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\beta = x_2 + iy_2 \text{ for some } x_2, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\lambda = x_3 + iy_3 \text{ for some } x_3, y_3 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\alpha + \beta) + \lambda &= ((x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2)) + (x_3 + iy_3) \\
 &= ((x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)) + (x_3 + iy_3) \\
 &= ((x_1 + x_2) + x_3) + i((y_1 + y_2) + y_3) \\
 &= (x_1 + (x_2 + x_3)) + i(y_1 + (y_2 + y_3)) \\
 &= (x_1 + iy_1) + ((x_2 + x_3) + i(y_2 + iy_3)) \\
 &= (x_1 + iy_1) + ((x_2 + iy_2) + (x_3 + iy_3)) \\
 &= \alpha + (\beta + \lambda)
 \end{aligned}$$

3. Show that $(\alpha\beta)\lambda = \alpha(\beta\lambda)$ for all $\alpha, \beta, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
4. Show that $\lambda(\alpha + \beta) = \lambda\alpha + \lambda\beta$ for all $\lambda, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$.

Let $\alpha, \beta, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

$$\alpha = x_1 + iy_1 \text{ for some } x_1, y_1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\beta = x_2 + iy_2 \text{ for some } x_2, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\lambda = x_3 + iy_3 \text{ for some } x_3, y_3 \in \mathbb{R}$$

(defn of
Complex
numbers)

$$\lambda(\alpha + \beta) = (x_3 + iy_3)((x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2))$$

$$= (x_3 + iy_3)(x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2) \quad (\text{commutative of addition of } \mathbb{R})$$

$$= (x_3(x_1 + x_2) - y_3(y_1 + y_2))$$

$$+ i(x_3(y_1 + y_2) + y_3(x_1 + x_2)) \quad (\text{defn of multiplication of } \mathbb{C})$$

$$= (x_3x_1 + x_3x_2 - y_3y_1 - y_3y_2) \quad (\text{commutative property})$$

$$+ i(x_3y_1 + x_3y_2 + y_3x_1 + y_3x_2)$$

$$= (x_3x_1 + ix_3y_1) + (x_3x_2 + ix_3y_2) \quad (\text{commutative property})$$

$$- y_3y_1 + iy_3x_1 - y_3y_2 + iy_3x_2$$

$$= x_3(x_1 + iy_1) + x_3(x_2 + iy_2) \quad (\text{distributive property})$$

$$+ y_3(-y_1 + ix_1) + y_3(-y_2 + ix_2)$$

$$= x_3\alpha + x_3\beta + y_3(i^2y_1 + ix_1) + y_3(i^2y_2 + ix_2) \quad (\text{use } i^2 = -1)$$

$$= x_3\alpha + x_3\beta + iy_3(iy_1 + x_1) + iy_3(iy_2 + x_2) \quad (\text{distributive})$$

$$= x_3\alpha + x_3\beta + iy_2(x_1 + iy_1) + iy_3(x_1 + iy_2) \quad (\text{distributive})$$

$$= x_3\alpha + x_3\beta + iy_3\alpha + iy_3\beta$$

$$= (x_3 + iy_3)\alpha + (x_3 + iy_3)\beta \quad (\text{distributive property})$$

$$= \lambda\alpha + \lambda\beta$$

5. Show that for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, there exists a unique $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\alpha + \beta = 0$.

5)

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$.Suppose that $\alpha + \beta_1 = 0$ and
 $\beta_1 \neq \beta_2$

$$\alpha + \beta_1 = 0$$

$$-\alpha + (\alpha + \beta_1) = -\alpha + 0$$

$$(-\alpha + \alpha) + \beta_1 = -\alpha$$

$$0 + \beta_1 = -\alpha$$

$$\beta_1 = -\alpha \quad \text{--- } ①$$

Similar we can get $\beta_2 = -\alpha \quad \text{--- } ②$ By ① and ② $\beta_1 = \beta_2$ Therefore, $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C} \exists! \beta$ such that $\alpha + \beta = 0$

6. Show that for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\alpha \neq 0$, there exists a unique $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$ such

that $\alpha\beta = 1$.

6) Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$

Suppose that $\alpha\beta_1 = 1 = \alpha\beta_2$

$$\alpha\beta_1 = \alpha\beta_2$$

$$\frac{1}{\alpha}(\alpha\beta_1) = \frac{1}{\alpha}(\alpha\beta_2)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot \alpha\right)\beta_1 = \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot \alpha\right)\beta_2$$

$$1 \cdot \beta_1 = 1 \cdot \beta_2$$

$$\beta_1 = \beta_2$$

Therefore, $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C} \exists! \beta$ such that α

7. Show that $\frac{-1+\sqrt{3}i}{2}$ is a cube root of 1 (meaning that its cube equals 1).

7) Let $\alpha = -\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then } \alpha^2 &= \left(-\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^2 = \left(-\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4}\right) + i\left(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}\right) \\ &= -\frac{2}{4} + i\left(-\frac{2\sqrt{3}}{4}\right) \\ &= \left(-\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha^3 &= \alpha \cdot \alpha^2 = \left(-\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}\right) + i\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}\right) \\ &= 1 + 0i = 1\end{aligned}$$

Thus α is cube root of 1.

8. Find two distinct square roots of i .

8) We have to find $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\alpha^2 = i$.

Let $\alpha = x + iy$, for some $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\alpha^2 = i$$

$$(x+iy)^2 = i$$

$$(x+iy)(x+iy) = i$$

$$(x^2 - y^2) + i(xy + xy) = i$$

$$(x^2 - y^2) + i(2xy) = 0 + i$$

Thus $x^2 - y^2 = 0$. and $2xy = 1$

$$(x-y)(x+y) = 0 \text{ and } 2xy = 1$$

$$(x=y \text{ or } x=-y) \text{ and } 2xy = 1$$

if $x = -y$ then $2xy = 2(-y)y = -2y^2 = 1$

Since $y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y > 0$, this is impossible.

Thus, $x = y$.

$$\text{Then } 2xy = 2x^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}.$$

Hence the square root of i is $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + i\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$ and $(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - i\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$

9. Find $x \in \mathbb{R}^4$ such that $(4, -3, 1, 7) + 2x = (5, 9, -6, 8)$.

q) $(4, -3, 1, 7) +$
 $-(4, -3, 1, 7) + (4, -3, 1, 7) +$
 $2x = -(4, -3, 1, 7)$
 $2x = (-4+5, -3$
 $x = (1/2, 6,$

10. Explain why there does not exist $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\lambda(2-3i, 5+4i, -6+7i) = (12-5i, 7+22i, -32-9i)$.

(6) Assume the contrary there exist $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\lambda(2-3i, 5+4i, -6+7i) = (12-5i, 7+22i, -32-9i)$$

$$(\lambda(2-3i), \lambda(5+4i), \lambda(-6+7i)) = (12-5i, 7+22i, -32-9i)$$

Then,

$$\lambda(2-3i) = 12-5i \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{1}$$

$$\lambda(5+4i) = 7+22i$$

$$\textcircled{1} \times (2+3i)$$

$$\lambda(2-3i)(2+3i) = (12-5i)(2+3i)$$

$$\lambda(4+9) = 13\lambda = 39+26i$$

$$\lambda = 3+2i \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{*}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \times (5-4i)$$

$$\lambda(5-4i)(5+4i) = (7+22i)(5+4i)$$

$$\lambda(25+16) = 41\lambda = -53+138i$$

$$\lambda = -\frac{53}{41} + \frac{138}{41}i \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{**}$$

$\textcircled{*}$ and $\textcircled{**}$ gives a contradiction.

11. Show that $(x+y)+z = x+(y+z)$ for all $x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}_n$.
12. Show that $(ab)x = a(bx)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{F}_n$ and all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$.
13. Show that $1x = x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{F}_n$.

14. Show that $\lambda(x + y) = \lambda x + \lambda y$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ and all $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_n$.

15. Show that $(a + b)x = ax + bx$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ and all $x \in \mathbb{F}_n$.

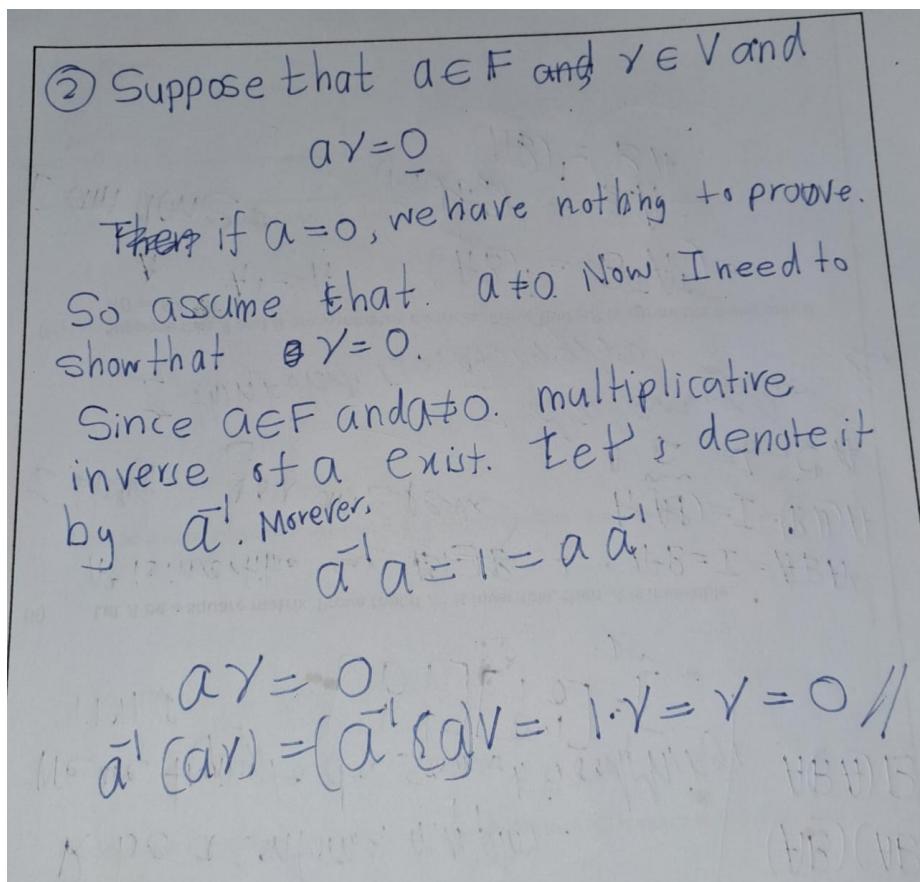
2.2 Exercise 1B

1. Prove that $-(-v) = v$ for every $v \in V$. **Solution:** Let $v \in V$. Then there exist a unique additive inverse of v . We denote it by $-v$. Thus,

$$v + (-v) = 0.$$

Then by definition, additive inverse of $-v$ is v . We denote it by $-(-v) = v$.

2. Suppose $a \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V$, and $v = 0$. Prove that $a = 0$ or $v = 0$.



③ Suppose that $v, w \in V$.

First we need to show that there exists
of such x .

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{1}{3}w - \frac{1}{3}v$$

Note that $\frac{1}{3} \in F$ and $v, w \in V$, then

$$\frac{1}{3}w - \frac{1}{3}v = x \in V$$

Further,

$$v + 3x = v + 3\left(\frac{1}{3}w - \frac{1}{3}v\right)$$

$$= v + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3}w - 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3}v \quad (\text{Since } \frac{1}{3} \text{ is multiplicative inverse})$$

$$= v + w - v$$

$$= w$$

Now we are existence of $x \in V$.

Now we have to prove uniqueness. Assume that
there exist $y \in V$ satisfy $v + 3y = w$

3.

$$\text{Then } w = v + 3x = v + 3y$$

$$\text{Then } -v + (v + 3x) = -v + (v + 3y)$$

$$(-v + v) + 3x = (-v + 3v) + 3y$$

$$3x = 3y$$

$$\frac{1}{3}(3x) = \frac{1}{3}(3y)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3} \cdot 3\right)x = 1 \cdot x = x = y = 1 \cdot y = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3y$$

4.

- 4** The empty set is not a vector space. The empty set fails to satisfy only one of the requirements listed in the definition of a vector space (1.20). Which one?

Recall the defn of vector space.

1.20 definition: *vector space*

A *vector space* is a set V along with an addition on V and a scalar multiplication on V such that the following properties hold.

commutativity

$$u + v = v + u \text{ for all } u, v \in V.$$

associativity

$$(u + v) + w = u + (v + w) \text{ and } (ab)v = a(bv) \text{ for all } u, v, w \in V \text{ and for all } a, b \in F.$$

additive identity

There exists an element $0 \in V$ such that $v + 0 = v$ for all $v \in V$.

additive inverse

For every $v \in V$, there exists $w \in V$ such that $v + w = 0$.

multiplicative identity

$$1v = v \text{ for all } v \in V.$$

distributive properties

$$a(u + v) = au + av \text{ and } (a + b)v = av + bv \text{ for all } a, b \in F \text{ and all } u, v \in V.$$

A Vector space must contain $0 \in V$ (additive identity)
 So, the empty set fails the additive identity property

- 5 Show that in the definition of a vector space (1.20), the additive inverse condition can be replaced with the condition that

$$0v = 0 \text{ for all } v \in V.$$

Here the 0 on the left side is the number 0, and the 0 on the right side is the additive identity of V .

The phrase a “condition can be replaced” in a definition means that the collection of objects satisfying the definition is unchanged if the original condition is replaced with the new condition.

additive inverse

For every $v \in V$, there exists $w \in V$ such that $v + w = 0$.

Need to show:

$$\left(\forall v \in V \exists w \in V \text{ s.t. } v + w = 0_F \right) \Leftrightarrow \forall v \in V, 0_F v = 0_V$$

proof: \Leftarrow

Let $v \in V$. Suppose that $0_F w = 0_V$ for all $w \in V$.

Since $1 \in F$, additive inverse of 1 exists.

$$\text{Further, } 1 + (-1) = 0_F$$

$$(1 + (-1)) v = 0_F v = 0_V$$

$$1 \cdot v + (-1) v = 0_F v = 0_V$$

Thus, additive identity of V is " $(-1)v$ ". So, we are done backward direction. Let's prove the forward direction.

~~" \neq "~~

Now suppose that $\forall v \in V \exists w \in V$ s.t. $v+w=0_F$

$$\begin{aligned} 0_F v &= (0_F + 0_F) v && \text{(additive identity of field)} \\ &= 0_F v + 0_F v && \text{(distributive property)} \end{aligned}$$

(1)

Since $0_F v \in V$, there exist additive identity of $0_F v$. Let's call that as w . Further,

$$0_F v + w = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Now consider, (By (1))

$$\begin{aligned} 0_F v &= 0_F v + 0_F v \\ (0_F v + w) &= 0_F v + (0_F v + w) && \text{(Property of equality)} \\ 0_V &= 0_F v + 0_V && \text{(By (2))} \\ 0_V &= 0_F v && \text{(additive identity)} \end{aligned}$$

- 6 Let ∞ and $-\infty$ denote two distinct objects, neither of which is in \mathbf{R} . Define an addition and scalar multiplication on $\mathbf{R} \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$ as you could guess from the notation. Specifically, the sum and product of two real numbers is as usual, and for $t \in \mathbf{R}$ define

$$t\infty = \begin{cases} -\infty & \text{if } t < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0, \\ \infty & \text{if } t > 0, \end{cases} \quad t(-\infty) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } t < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0, \\ -\infty & \text{if } t > 0, \end{cases}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} t + \infty &= \infty + t = \infty + \infty = \infty, \\ t + (-\infty) &= (-\infty) + t = (-\infty) + (-\infty) = -\infty, \\ \infty + (-\infty) &= (-\infty) + \infty = 0. \end{aligned}$$

With these operations of addition and scalar multiplication, is $\mathbf{R} \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$ a vector space over \mathbf{R} ? Explain.

$\mathbf{RV}(-\infty, \infty)$ is NOT a vector space.

- Associativity property fails. Let $0 \neq v \in V$

Consider,

$$v + (\infty + (-\infty)) = v + 0 = v \neq 0 = \infty + (-\infty) = (v + \infty) + (-\infty)$$

- Unique additive identity fails (Extra part)

Consider,

$$\infty = (2 + (-1)) \cdot \infty = 2\infty + (-1)\infty = \infty - \infty = 0$$

Then for any $t \in \mathbf{R}$,

$$t = 0 + t = \infty + t = \infty = 0.$$

So, this fails, uniqueness property of additive identity.

7. Suppose S is a non-empty set. Let V^S denote the set of functions from

S to V . Define a natural addition and scalar multiplication on V^S , and show that V^S is a vector space with these definitions.

- 7 Suppose S is a nonempty set. Let V^S denote the set of functions from S to V . Define a natural addition and scalar multiplication on V^S , and show that V^S is a vector space with these definitions.

Let S be a set with $S \neq \emptyset$. Let

$$V^S := \{ f: S \rightarrow V \mid f \text{ is a function to } V \}$$

Let $f, g \in V^S$. Let $\lambda \in S$. Define
 - addition: $V^S \times V^S \xrightarrow{\quad} V^S$
 $f + g(x) = f(x) + g(x) \quad \forall x \in S$.

- scalar multiplication: $V \times V^S \xrightarrow{\quad} V^S$
 $(\lambda f)(x) = \lambda \cdot (f(x)) \quad \forall x \in S$.

NTS: V^S is a vector space

Commutative

claim 1: $f + g = g + f \quad \forall f, g \in V^S$

Let $f, g \in V^S$

$$\begin{aligned}
 [f+g](x) &= f(x) + g(x) \quad \forall x \in V \\
 &= g(x) + f(x) \quad \forall x \in V \quad (\because f(x), g(x) \in V) \\
 &= [g+f](x) \quad \forall x \in V
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $f, g \in V$

Associativity
 claim 2.1: $(f+g)+h = f+(g+h) \quad \forall f, g, h \in V^s$

Let $f, g, h \in V^s$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 [(f+g)+h](x) &= [f+g](x) + h(x) \\
 &= (f(x) + g(x)) + h(x) \\
 &= f(x) + (g(x) + h(x)) \\
 &= [f + (g+h)](x)
 \end{aligned}$$

claim 2.2: $(ab)f = a(bf) \quad \forall f \in V^s, \forall a, b \in V$

Let $a, b \in V$ and $f \in V^s$

$$\begin{aligned}
 [(ab)f](x) &= (ab)f(x) \\
 &= a(bf(x)) \\
 &= [a(bf)](x)
 \end{aligned}$$

Additive identity.

claim: $\underset{\text{map}}{0: S \rightarrow V}$ such that $f + 0_{\text{map}} = f \quad \forall f \in V^S$ (Note that $0_{\text{map}} \in V^S$)

$$[f + 0_{\text{map}}](x) = f(x) + 0_{\text{map}}(x) = f(x) + 0 = f(x)$$

Additive inverse

Let $f \in V^S$. Let define,

$$\begin{aligned} g: S &\longrightarrow V \\ x &\longmapsto -f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Note that $g \in V^S$,

$$\begin{aligned} [f+g](x) &= f(x) + g(x) \\ &= f(x) + (-f(x)) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

multiplicative inverse
 claims. $1 \cdot f = f \quad \forall f \in V^s$
 Let $f \in V^s$.

$$\begin{aligned} [1 \cdot f](x) &= 1 \cdot f(x) \\ &= f(x). \end{aligned}$$

Distributiv-

claim.6.1: $a(f+g) = af + ag \quad \forall a \in V, \forall f, g \in V^s$.
 Let $f, g \in V^s$, and let $a \in V$.

$$\begin{aligned} [a(f+g)](x) &= a([f+g](x)) \\ &= a(f(x) + g(x)) \\ &= af(x) + ag(x) \\ &= [af](x) + [ag](x) \\ &= [af + ag](x) \end{aligned}$$

claim 6.2: $(a+b)f = af + bf, \forall f \in V^s \quad \forall a, b \in V$

$$\begin{aligned} [(a+b)f](x) &= (a+b)f(x) = af(x) + bf(x) \\ &= [af](x) + [bf](x) = \\ &= [af + bf](x) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, V^s is a Vector space

8 Suppose V is a real vector space.

- The *complexification* of V , denoted by V_C , equals $V \times V$. An element of V_C is an ordered pair (u, v) , where $u, v \in V$, but we write this as $u + iv$.
- Addition on V_C is defined by

$$(u_1 + iv_1) + (u_2 + iv_2) = (u_1 + u_2) + i(v_1 + v_2)$$

for all $u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2 \in V$.

- Complex scalar multiplication on V_C is defined by

$$(a + bi)(u + iv) = (au - bv) + i(av + bu)$$

for all $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$ and all $u, v \in V$.

Prove that with the definitions of addition and scalar multiplication as above, V_C is a complex vector space.

Think of V as a subset of V_C by identifying $u \in V$ with $u + i0$. The construction of V_C from V can then be thought of as generalizing the construction of \mathbf{C}^n from \mathbf{R}^n .

Commutative

Let $\alpha_1 + i\beta_1, \alpha_2 + i\beta_2 \in V_C$.

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha_1 + i\beta_1) + (\alpha_2 + i\beta_2) &= (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) + i(\beta_1 + \beta_2) \\ &= (\alpha_2 + \alpha_1) + i(\beta_2 + \beta_1) \quad (\text{Commutativity}) \\ &= (\alpha_2 + i\beta_2) + (\alpha_1 + i\beta_1) \end{aligned}$$

Associativity

Let $\alpha_1 + i\beta_1, \alpha_2 + i\beta_2, \alpha_3 + i\beta_3 \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$

$$(\alpha_1 + i\beta_1) + [(\alpha_2 + i\beta_2) + (\alpha_3 + i\beta_3)]$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (\alpha_1 + i\beta_1) [(\alpha_2 + \alpha_3) + i(\beta_2 + \beta_3)] \\ &= \alpha_1 + (\alpha_2 + \alpha_3) + i(\beta_1 + (\beta_2 + \beta_3)) \\ &= (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) + \alpha_3 + i((\beta_1 + \beta_2) + \beta_3) \\ &= [(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) + i(\beta_1 + \beta_2)] + (\alpha_3 + i\beta_3) \\ &= [(\alpha_1 + i\beta_1) + (\alpha_2 + i\beta_2)] + (\alpha_3 + i\beta_3) \end{aligned}$$

Let $x_1 + iy_1, x_2 + iy_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $(\alpha + i\beta) \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= [(x_1 + iy_1) \cdot (x_2 + iy_2)] (\alpha + i\beta) \\ &= [(x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + i(x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)] (\alpha + i\beta) \\ &= (x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) \alpha - (x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1) \beta \\ &\quad + i(\beta(x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2) + \alpha(x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1)) \\ &= x_1 x_2 \alpha - y_1 y_2 \alpha - x_1 y_2 \beta - x_2 y_1 \beta \\ &\quad + i(x_1 x_2 \beta - y_1 y_2 \beta + x_1 y_2 \alpha + x_2 y_1 \alpha) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= x_1x_2\alpha + x_1y_2\beta - y_1x_2\beta - y_1y_2\alpha \\
 &\quad + i(x_1x_2\beta + x_1y_2\alpha + y_1x_2\alpha - y_1y_2\beta) \\
 &= x_1(x_2\alpha + y_2\beta) - y_1(x_2\beta + y_2\alpha) \\
 &\quad + i[x_1(x_2\beta + y_2\alpha) + y_1(x_2\alpha - y_2\beta)] \\
 &= (x_1 + iy_1)[(x_2\alpha - y_2\beta) + i(x_2\beta + y_2\alpha)] \\
 &= (x_1 + iy_1)[(x_2 + iy_2) \cdot (\alpha + i\beta)]
 \end{aligned}$$

Additive Identity

Let $\underline{0}$ be the zero vector. ($\underline{0} \in V$) Let $\alpha + i\beta \in V_C$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\alpha + i\beta) + (\underline{0} + i\underline{0}) &= (\alpha + \underline{0}) + i(\beta + \underline{0}) \\
 &= \alpha + i\beta
 \end{aligned}$$

Additive inverse,

Let $\alpha + i\beta \in V_C$. Now consider,

$$\alpha + i\beta + (-\alpha + i(-\beta)) = (\alpha + (-\alpha)) + i(\beta + (-\beta)) = 0$$

multiplicative identity

$$(1+i\cdot 0) \cdot (\alpha + i\beta) = (1 \cdot \alpha - 0 \cdot \beta) + i(1 \cdot \beta + 0 \cdot \alpha) = \alpha + i\beta$$

Distributive

Let $(x+iy) \in \mathbb{C}$ and, $(\alpha_1+i\beta_1), (\alpha_2+i\beta_2) \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (x+iy) ((\alpha_1+i\beta_1) + (\alpha_2+i\beta_2)) \\
 &= (x+iy) [(\alpha_1+\alpha_2) + i(\beta_1+\beta_2)] \\
 &= x(\alpha_1+\alpha_2) - y(\beta_1+\beta_2) \\
 &\quad + i[x(\beta_1+\beta_2) + y(\alpha_1+\alpha_2)] \\
 &= x\alpha_1 + x\alpha_2 - y\beta_1 - y\beta_2 \\
 &\quad + i[x\beta_1 + x\beta_2 + y\alpha_1 + y\alpha_2] \\
 &= (x\alpha_1 - y\beta_1) + i(x\beta_1 + y\alpha_1) \\
 &\quad + (x\alpha_2 - y\beta_2) + i(x\beta_2 + y\alpha_2) \\
 &= (x+iy)(\alpha_1+i\beta_1) + (x+iy)(\alpha_2+i\beta_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $(x_1+iy_1), (x_2+iy_2) \in \mathbb{C}$ and $(\alpha+i\beta) \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & [(x_1+iy_1) + (x_2+iy_2)] (\alpha+i\beta) \\
 &= [(x_1+x_2) + i(y_1+y_2)] (\alpha+i\beta) \\
 &= [(x_1+x_2)\alpha - (y_1+y_2)\beta] + i[(x_1+x_2)\beta + (y_1+y_2)\alpha]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= [x_1\alpha + x_2\alpha - y_1\beta - y_2\beta] + i[x_1\beta + x_2\beta + y_1\alpha + y_2\alpha] \\ &= [(x_1\alpha - y_2\beta) + i(x_1\beta + y_2\alpha)] + [(x_2\alpha - y_1\beta) + i(x_2\beta + y_1\alpha)] \\ &= (x_1 + iy_1)(\alpha + i\beta) + (x_2 + iy_2)(\alpha + i\beta) \end{aligned}$$

2.3 Exercise 1C

1.

- 1 For each of the following subsets of \mathbb{F}^3 , determine whether it is a subspace of \mathbb{F}^3 .

- (a) $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{F}^3 : x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0\} = A$
- (b) $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{F}^3 : x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 4\} = B$
- (c) $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{F}^3 : x_1 x_2 x_3 = 0\} = C$
- (d) $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{F}^3 : x_1 = 5x_3\} = D$

a) A is subspace of \mathbb{F}^3 .

- Claim 1: $(0, 0, 0) \in A$

Note that $0 + 2 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 0 = 0$. Thus, $(0, 0, 0) \in A$

- Claim 2: $\forall (x_1, x_2, x_3), (y_1, y_2, y_3) \in A; (x_1, x_2, x_3) + (y_1, y_2, y_3) \in A$

Let $(x_1, x_2, x_3), (y_1, y_2, y_3) \in A$.

$$\text{Then, } x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$y_1 + 2y_2 + 3y_3 = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$(1) + (2) \quad (x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3) + (y_1 + 2y_2 + 3y_3) = 0$$

$$(x_1 + y_1) + 2(x_2 + y_2) + 3(x_3 + y_3) = 0$$

$$\text{Thus, } (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + y_3) = 0$$

- Claim 3: Closed under scalar multiplication

Let $a \in \mathbb{F}$ and $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in A$. Then,

$$x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

$$a(x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3) = ax_1 + a(2x_2) + a(3x_3) = ax_1 + 2(ax_2) + 3(ax_3) = 0$$

$$\text{Then } a(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 0 \in A.$$

b) B is not a subspace

Note that, $(0, 0, 0) \notin B$.

Because, $0 + 2 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 0 = 0 \neq 4$.

c) C is a NOT subspace.

Note that $(1, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1) \in C$. (Because $1 \cdot 0 = 0$ and $0 \cdot 1 = 0$)

But $(1, 1, 0) + (0, 0, 1) = (1, 1, 1) \notin F$
 (Because $1 + 1 = 1 \neq 0$)

d) D is a subspace.

- claim 1: $(0, 0, 0) \in D$

(Because, $0 = 5 \cdot 0$)

- claim 2: $\forall (x_1, x_2, x_3), (y_1, y_2, y_3) \in D$,
 $(x_1, x_2, x_3) + (y_1, y_2, y_3) \in D$

Let $(x_1, x_2, x_3), (y_1, y_2, y_3) \in D$.

Then, $x_1 = 5x_3$ and $y_1 = 5y_3$

So, $x_1 + x_2 = 5x_3 + 5y_3 = 5(x_3 + y_3)$

Thus, $(x_1, x_2, x_3) + (y_1, y_2, y_3) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + y_3) \in D$

• claim 3: $\forall a \in F, \forall (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in D, a(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in D$

Let $a \in F$ and $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in D$

Then, $x_1 = 5x_3$. So,

$$a \cdot x_1 = a \cdot (5x_3) = 5(a \cdot x_3).$$

$$\text{Thus, } a(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (ax_1, ax_2, ax_3) \in D$$