# Linear Algebra Notes

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## 1 Row operations and echelon form

**Definition 1.1.** A linear equation is an equation of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n = b$ 

**Definition 1.2.** A system of linear equations (or linear system) is a set of linear equations of the same variables (e.g.  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ ).

**Definition 1.3.** The *solution set* of a system of linear equations is the intersection of the solution set of each individual linear equation.

Systems of linear equations can be represented via matrices, where each column is a specific variable, each row is a linear equation, and the entries are the coefficients. Augmentations represent the constant term (denoted b in definition 1.1).

#### Example 1.1. The linear system

$$x + 2y - z = -1$$
  
 $2x + 2y + z = 1$   
 $3x + 5y - 2z = -1$ 

can be represented by the augmented matrix below.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & | & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & -2 & | & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Row operations are certain operations on matrices or systems of linear equations which can be used to simply or otherwise transform the system, while leaving the solution set unchanged.

#### **Definition 1.4.** Row operations:

- 1. Swap two rows/equations
- 2. Multiply a single row by a non-zero scalar
- 3. Add a scalar multiple of one row to another

**Theorem 1.1.** If a linear system is obtained from another by one of the row operations, then the two systems have the same set of solutions.

#### Proof.

1. As the intersection of sets is commutative, by Definition 1.3, the solution set of a linear system is unaffected by the order of the individual linear systems, therefore swapping rows/equations does not change the solution set.

- 2. Since multiplying a single row by a non-zero scalar is equivalent to multiplying both sides of the represented equation by that scalar, the solution set is clearly left unchanged.
- 3. Since adding a multiple of one row to another row is equivalent to adding equal quantities to both sides of the equation, no solutions are removed from the solution set. If the row  $(sb_1 + a_1)x_1 + (sb_2 + a_2) + \cdots + (sb_n + a_n)x_n = sk_b + k_a$  is the result of adding s times row  $b_1x_1 + \cdots + b_nx_n = k_b$  to row  $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = k_a$ , then  $(sb_1 + a_1)x_1 + (sb_2 + a_2) + \cdots + (sb_n + a_n)x_n = s(b_1x_1 + \cdots + b_nx_n) + k_a$  which implies that  $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = k_a$ , so no information was lost and the solution set remains the same.

**Definition 1.5.** A matrix in (row) *echelon form* has all rows of zeroes at the bottom, and the leading term of each row is to the right of the row leading term above it.

**Definition 1.6.** In reduced row echelon form, a matrix in row echelon form additionally has leading terms which are all 1, and the entries above and below each leading term are zero.

*Remark.* The reduced row echelon form of a particular matrix is always unique, however the row echelon form is not. Additionally, it is always possible to transform a given matrix into either echelon form via the row operations.

#### Example 1.2.

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 1 & | & 4 \\
1 & -1 & 2 & | & 5 \\
4 & -1 & 5 & | & 17
\end{bmatrix}
\xrightarrow{r_{3} \to r_{3} - 4r_{1}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 1 & | & 4 \\
0 & -1 & 1 & | & 1 \\
0 & -1 & 1 & | & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\xrightarrow{r_{2} \to -r_{2}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 1 & | & 4 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & | & -1 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & | & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & | & 0
\end{bmatrix}$$

Since there is no leading term corresponding to z, z is a free variable. If we let z be zero, then the augmentation yields a particular solution to this linear system.

Solution set in vector form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solution set in parametric form:

$$\{(4-z, -1+z, z) \mid z \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

## 2 Vector Spaces

**Definition 2.1.** Let F be a field. A *vector space* over F consists of a set V together with two operations:

$$+: V \times V \to V$$
 (vector addition)

$$\cdot: F \times V \to V$$
 (scalar multiplication)

which satisfy the following axioms for all  $v, w, e \in V$  and  $r, s \in F$ :

- 1. v + w = w + v (additive commutativity)
- 2. (v+w)+u=v+(w+u) (additive associativity)
- 3.  $\exists \vec{0} \in V \text{ s.t. } v + \vec{0} = v \text{ (additive identity)}$
- 4.  $\exists z \in V \text{ s.t. } v + z = \vec{0} \text{ (additive inverse)}$
- 5.  $(r+s) \cdot v = r \cdot v + s \cdot v$  (distributivity over scalar addition)
- 6.  $r \cdot (v + w) = r \cdot v + r \cdot w$  (distributivity over vector addition)
- 7.  $(rs) \cdot v = r \cdot (s \cdot v)$  (multiplicative associativity)
- 8.  $1 \cdot v = v$  (multiplicative identity)

Remark. You can prove the following for all  $v \in V$  and  $r \in F$  from those axioms (see Lemma 2.1):

- The additive identity  $(\vec{0})$  is unique.
- Additive inverses are unique.
- $0 \cdot v = \vec{0}$ .
- $\bullet \ -1 \cdot v = -v.$
- $\bullet \ r \cdot \vec{0} = \vec{0}.$

**Example 2.1.**  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  with + and  $\cdot$  defined as usual.

**Example 2.2.** Let F be any field. Then

$$F^{n} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_{1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n} \end{pmatrix} \middle| x_{i} \in F \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \right\}$$

is a vector space over F with x + y defined as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

and  $r \cdot x$  defined as

$$r\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} rx_1 \\ \vdots \\ rx_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Consider the field  $\mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$ , and the vector space  $\mathbb{F}_2^2$ . This vector space has four elements:  $\left\{\begin{pmatrix}0\\0\end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix}0\\1\end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix}1\\1\end{pmatrix}\right\}$ . In general,  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$  has  $2^n$  elements. Note that since 0+0=0 and 1+1=0, every element of  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$  is its own inverse. Furthermore, every element of any vector space V over  $\mathbb{F}_2$  is its own inverse. This is because  $v+v=1\cdot v+1\cdot v=(1+1)\cdot v=0\cdot v=\vec{0}$ .

Consider the empty set. It cannot be a vector space, since a vector space requires the existence of an additive identity. However, the set  $V = \{\star\}$  with  $\star \cdot \star = \star$  and  $r \cdot \star = \star$  is a vector space, called the **trivial** vector space. Note that  $\star = \vec{0}$ .

**Example 2.3.**  $\mathbb{C}$  forms a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ , with element-wise addition and  $r \cdot (a + bi) = (ra) + (rb)i$ .

Remark.  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}^1$  forms a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ , as does  $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^1$  over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 2.4.** Let V be the set of  $2 \times 2$  matrices over  $\mathbb{R}$ , denoted  $M_{2\times 2}(R)$ :

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

Define vector addition and scalar multiplication as follows.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+a' & b+b' \\ c+c' & d+d' \end{pmatrix}$$

$$r \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ra & rb \\ rc & rd \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that V is essentially equivalent to  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . V is a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ , and in general  $M_{m\times n}(F)$  with entry-wise vector addition and scalar multiplication forms a vector space over F.

**Example 2.5.** Let F be any field, and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then define the set  $P_n(F)$ , the set of all polynomials with coefficients in F of degree at most n, as follows.

$$P_n(F) = \{a_0 + a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x^n \mid a_i \in F \text{ for } i = 0, \dots, n\}$$

$$(a_0 + \dots + a_n x^n) + (b_0 + \dots + b_n x^n) = (a_0 + b_0) + \dots + (a_n + b_n) x^n$$
$$r(a_0 + \dots + a_n x^n) = ra_0 + \dots + ra_n x^n$$

 $P_n(F)$  is a vector space over F. Similarly, P(F) (the set of polynomials with coefficients in F of any degree) forms a vector space over F.

**Example 2.6.** Let S be any set, F any field, and  $V = \{f : S \to F\}$ . V forms a vector space over F with (f + g)(s) = f(s) + g(s) and (rf)(s) = r(f(s)) for all  $r \in F, s \in S$ .

Notice that if  $S = \{1, ..., n\}$ , we get  $F^n$ , since  $f \in V$  is a function from a coordinate index i to the value of that coordinate  $x_i$ . If  $S = \mathbb{N}$  and  $V = \{(a_1, a_2, ...) | a_i \in F \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ...\}$ , we similarly get the set of all sequences in F.

**Lemma 2.1.** Let V be a vector space over a field F. Then for all  $v \in V$  and  $r \in F$ :

- 1. The additive identity is unique.
- 2. The additive inverse of v is unique.
- 3.  $0 \cdot v = \vec{0}$ .
- 4.  $(-1) \cdot v + v = \vec{0}$ .
- 5.  $r \cdot \vec{0} = \vec{0}$ .

Proof.

- 1. Let  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  be additive identities of V. Then  $i_1 = i_1 + i_2 = i_2$ , and by transitivity  $i_1 = i_2$ . The additive identity is therefore unique.
- 2. Let  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  be additive inverses of v. Then  $v + w_1 = \vec{0}$  and  $v + w_2 = \vec{0}$ , so  $v + w_1 = v + w_2$ . Then  $w_1 + (v + w_1) = w_1 + (v + w_2)$ , which implies that  $(w_1 + v) + w_1 = (w_1 + v) + w_2$ . Therefore,  $w_1 = w_2$ , so the additive inverse of v is unique and so can be denoted -v.
- 3.  $0 \cdot v + 0 \cdot v = (0+0) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v = 0 \cdot v + \vec{0}$ . Since we have additive inverses, we have cancellation, so  $0 \cdot v = \vec{0}$ .

- 4.  $(-1) \cdot v + v = (-1) \cdot v + 1 \cdot v = (-1+1) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v = \vec{0}$ .
- 5.  $r \cdot \vec{0} = r \cdot (v + -v) = r \cdot (1 + -1) \cdot v = (r \cdot 0) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v = \vec{0}$ .

**Definition 2.2.** Let V be a vector space over F, and  $W \subseteq V$ . We say W is a *subspace* of V if it is itself a vector space over F with the operations defined as for V.

**Example 2.7.** Let  $W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \,\middle|\, x + y + z = 0 \right\}$ . W is a vector subspace over  $\mathbb{R}$  with the operations inherited from  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . W is a plane within  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , with normal (1,1,1).

**Proposition 2.2.** A subset W of V is a subspace if and only if

- 1. W is non-empty.
- 2. W is closed under vector addition.
- 3. W is closed under scalar multiplication.

#### Proof.

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  If W is a subspace, then by definition it is itself a vector space, so it must contain  $\vec{0}$  and so it is non-empty. Additionally, (2) and (3) follow from the definition of binary operations.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Since W is a subset of V with the same operations, all axioms of vector spaces follow except for the existence of the additive identity and additive inverses, and W being closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication (as these are defined as binary operations for V rather than W).

(2) and (3) then guarantee that W is closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication. Since W is closed under scalar multiplication, we know that  $(0 \cdot w) \in W$  for any  $w \in W$ . Since  $0 \cdot w = \vec{0}$ , we know that  $\vec{0} \in W$  so W has an additive identity. Similarly, since  $(-1 \cdot w) \in W$  and  $-1 \cdot w = -w$ , every element in W must have an additive inverse.

**Example 2.8.** Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \,\middle|\, x + y + z = 1 \right\}$ . Then W cannot be a subspace of V, as  $\vec{0} \notin W$ .

**Example 2.9.** Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ , and W be the set of solutions to a homogeneous system of equations (every equation is equal to zero). Then  $\{\vec{0}\}$  is a solution to the system of linear equations, and since every solution is equal to zero, the set of solutions is closed under addition and multiplication, so W is a subspace of V.

**Example 2.10.** If V is any vector space over F, then both  $\{\vec{0}\}$  and V are subspaces of V.

**Definition 2.3.**  $\{\vec{0}\}$  is the *trivial* subspace.

### 3 Linear Combinations and Spans

**Definition 3.1.** Let V be a vector space over F, and  $S \subseteq V$  with  $S \neq \emptyset$ . We say  $v \in V$  is a linear combination of vectors in S if

$$v = c_1 s_1 + \dots + c_n c_n$$
 for some  $n > 1, c_i \in F, s_i \in S$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ 

**Example 3.1.** In 
$$\mathbb{R}^3$$
,  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , so  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is a linear combination of vectors in  $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ .

**Definition 3.2.** Let  $S \subseteq V$ . The span (also linear span or linear hull) of S is the set of all linear combinations of vectors in S.

$$\operatorname{span}(S) = \{c_1 s_1 + \dots + c_n s_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, c_i \in F, s_i \in S\}$$

By convention, if  $S = \emptyset$ , we define span $(S) = \vec{0}$ .

Remark. If  $S \subseteq T$ , then  $\operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(T)$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** Let V be a vector space over F, and  $s \subseteq V$ . Then  $\operatorname{span}(S)$  is a subspace of V.

*Proof.* If  $S = \emptyset$ , then span $(S) = \{\vec{0}\}$ , so span(S) is the trivial subspace.

If  $S \neq \emptyset$ , then there exists some  $s \in S$ . Since  $(1 \cdot s) \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ , we know that  $\operatorname{span}(S) \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $v, w \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ ,  $r \in F$ . We need to prove that  $v + r \cdot w \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ . Since  $v \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ , we know that  $v = c_1 s_1 + \dots + c_n s_n$  for some  $n \geq 1$ ,  $c_i \in F$ , and  $s_i \in S$ . Similarly,  $w = d_1 t_1 + \dots + d_m t_m$  for some  $m \geq 1$ ,  $d_i \in F$ , and  $t_i \in S$ . Then  $v + rw = c_1 s_1 + \dots + c_n s_n + rd_1 t_1 + \dots + rd_m t_m$ , so  $v + r \cdot w \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ . Therefore, by Lemma 2.2,  $\operatorname{span}(S)$  is a subspace of V.

Remark. We also proved that  $S \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S)$ , and that  $\operatorname{span}(S)$  is the smallest subspace of V that contains S, in the sense that if W is a subspace of V such that  $S \subseteq W$ , then  $\operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq W$ .

**Example 3.2.** Let v be a vector space over F. Given  $S \subseteq V$ , and  $v \in V$ , how do we know if  $v \in \text{span}(S)$ ?

Let  $V = P_2(\mathbb{R})$ ,  $S = \{x^2 + 3x - 2, 2x^2 + 5x - 3\}$ , and  $v = -x^2 - 4x + 4$ . We are trying to determine  $a, b \in F$  such that  $-x^2 - 4x + 4 = a(x^2 + 3x - 2) + b(2x^2 + 5x - 3)$ . This would

imply that a + 2b = -1, 3a + 5b = -4, and -2a - 3b = 4. This system of equations can be represented as a matrix, and solved for a and b.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 5 & -4 \\ -2 & -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[r_3 \to r_3 + 2r_1]{r_3 \to r_3 + 2r_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

This would imply that 0b = 1, which is a contradiction, so no such a, b exist.

**Lemma 3.2.** Let V be a vector space over F,  $S \subseteq V$ , and  $v \in V$ . Then  $\operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\}) = \operatorname{span}(S)$  if and only if  $v \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ .

Proof.

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  If  $v \notin \operatorname{span}(S)$ , then since  $v \in \operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\})$ , we know that  $\operatorname{span}(S) \neq \operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\})$ .

( $\iff$ ) Assume  $v \in \operatorname{span}(S)$ . Then  $v = c_1v_1 + \cdots + c_ns_n$  for  $c_i \in F$  and  $s_i \in S$ . Since  $S \subseteq S \cup \{v\}$ , we have  $\operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\})$ . Let  $w \in \operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\})$ , so  $w = d_1t_1 + \cdots + d_mt_n + d_{m+1}v$ . Thus,  $w = d_1t_1 + \cdots + d_mt_m + d_{m+1}(c_1 + \cdots + c_n)$ , so  $w \in \operatorname{span}(S)$  and  $\operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\}) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S)$ . Therefore,  $\operatorname{span}(S) = \operatorname{span}(S \cup \{v\})$ .