

Cooper Johnston

Linear Algebra

November 2024

Contents

0	Sets and Proofs	1
0.1	Sets	1
0.2	Mappings	2
0.3	Propositional logic	3
0.4	Proofs	3
1	Vectors	5
1.1	Vector spaces	5

Chapter 0

Sets and Proofs

0.1 Sets

We will begin by exploring the concept of a set through what is sometimes called intuitive or naive set theory. This intuitive treatment of sets will suffice for the purposes of this course. A more rigorous approach, axiomatic set theory, is outside the scope of this course.

Definition 0.1.1. A **set** is a well-defined collection of objects. By “well-defined” we mean that for any set S , any object is either definitely in S or definitely not in S .

An object that is in a set is called an **element** of that set. We write $x \in S$ to denote that x is an element of the set S .

The set that does not contain any elements is called the **empty set**, denoted \emptyset .

The number of elements in a set is called the **cardinality** of that set. We write $|S|$ to denote the cardinality of the set S .

One way to describe a set is by listing its elements. For example, we can define A to be the set containing the numbers 3, 6, 9, and 12, denoted by

$$A = \{3, 6, 9, 12\}.$$

Another way is to give a defining property of its elements. For example, A is the set of the first four positive multiples of three, or more mathematically, A is the set of all elements $3n$ such that $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$, denoted by

$$A = \{3n \mid n = 1, 2, 3, 4\}.$$

The latter notation is often called set-builder notation.

We will denote certain special sets of numbers as follows:

\mathbb{Z} is the set of integers;
 \mathbb{Z}^+ is the set of positive integers;
 \mathbb{Q} is the set of rational numbers;
 \mathbb{Q}^+ is the set of positive rational numbers;
 \mathbb{R} is the set of real numbers;
 \mathbb{R}^+ is the set of positive real numbers; and
 \mathbb{C} is the set of complex numbers.

Example 0.1.2. The set of even numbers is the set of all numbers $2n$ where n is an integer, i.e. $\{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Example 0.1.3. The set of **rational** numbers \mathbb{Q} is the set of all numbers that can be expressed as a **ratio** p/q where p and q are integers and $q \neq 0$, i.e. $\mathbb{Q} = \{p/q \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0\}$.

Definition 0.1.4. Let A and B be two sets. B is called a **subset** of A , denoted $B \subseteq A$, if every element in B is also an element in A , i.e. for every $b \in B$, we have $b \in A$.

B is called a **proper subset** of A , denoted $B \subset A$, if $B \subseteq A$ and $B \neq A$.

Definition 0.1.5. Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be non-empty sets. The set

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_1 \in A_1, a_2 \in A_2, \dots, a_n \in A_n\}$$

is called the **Cartesian product** of A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .

The Cartesian product of a set with itself can be denoted by

$$\underbrace{A \times A \times \cdots \times A}_{n \text{ times}} = A^n.$$

For example, $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$, the set of ordered pairs of real numbers.

Example 0.1.6. Let $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
 A \times B &= \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\} \\
 &= \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3)\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

0.2 Mappings

Definition 0.2.1. Let A and B be two non-empty sets, and let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq A \times B$. The set \mathcal{R} is called a **relation** between A and B . For an ordered pair $(a, b) \in \mathcal{R}$, we say that \mathcal{R} relates a to b .

Definition 0.2.2. Let A and B be two non-empty sets. A relation f between A and B is called a **mapping** or a **function** if for every $a \in A$, there exists exactly one $b \in B$ such that f relates a to b . The set A is called the **domain** of f , and B is called the **codomain** of f .

We write $f : A \rightarrow B$ to denote that f is a mapping with domain A and codomain B ; that is, f is a mapping from A to B .

We write $f(a) = b$ or $a \mapsto b$ to denote that f relates a to b ; that is, f maps a to b .

Definition 0.2.3. Let A and B be two sets and let $\odot : B \times A \rightarrow A$. The mapping \odot is called a **binary operation**. If $A = B$, i.e. we have $\odot : A \times A \rightarrow A$, we say \odot is a binary operation on A .

We write $x \odot y = z$ to denote that \odot maps (x, y) to z .

0.3 Propositional logic

0.4 Proofs

Chapter 1

Vectors

1.1 Vector spaces

Definition 1.1.1. Let F be a set and let $+$ and \cdot be two binary operations on F . F , together with the operations $+$ and \cdot , is called a **field** if all of the following axioms are satisfied:

1. $+$ and \cdot are associative, i.e. for all $a, b, c \in F$, we have

$$(a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \quad \text{and} \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c).$$

2. $+$ and \cdot are commutative, i.e. for all $a, b \in F$, we have

$$a + b = b + a \quad \text{and} \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a.$$

3. There exists an element $0_F \in F$, called the **additive identity**, such that for all $a \in F$, we have

$$a + 0_F = a.$$

4. There exists an element $1_F \in F$, called the **multiplicative identity**, such that for all $a \in F$, we have

$$a \cdot 1_F = a.$$

5. For every $a \in F$, there exists an element $-a \in F$, called the **additive inverse** of a , such that

$$a + (-a) = 0_F.$$

6. For every $a \in F$ other than 0_F , there exists an element $a^{-1} \in F$, called the **multiplicative inverse** of a , such that

$$a \cdot a^{-1} = 1_F.$$

7. \cdot is distributive over $+$, i.e. for all $a, b, c \in F$, we have

$$a \cdot (b + c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c).$$

The operation $+$ is called **addition**, and the operation \cdot is called **multiplication**. For multiplication, we will often use the notation $a \cdot b = ab$.

Let us examine some examples of what is and isn't a field.

Example 1.1.2. Show that the set of real numbers \mathbb{R} , together with standard addition and multiplication, is a field.

Solution. We will prove this result by examining each of the axioms one-by-one:

1. We already know that standard addition and multiplication are associative.
2. We also know that standard addition and multiplication are commutative.
3. The additive identity is the number 0.
4. The multiplicative identity is the number 1.
5. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the additive inverse is the number $-x$.
6. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$ other than 0, the multiplicative inverse is the number $1/x$.
7. We already know that standard multiplication is distributive over standard addition.

Hence, \mathbb{R} is a field. \square

Example 1.1.3. Show that the set of integers \mathbb{Z} , together with standard addition and multiplication, is not a field.

Solution. The multiplicative identity is the number 1. Consider the number $2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. There does not exist a number $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $2n = 1$; that is, 2 does not have a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z} . Hence, \mathbb{Z} is not a field. \square

For simplicity, when working with fields of numbers, we will from now on assume standard addition and multiplication unless otherwise specified, and we will denote the field simply by its set. For example, the field \mathbb{R} is assumed to mean \mathbb{R} together with standard addition and multiplication.

Definition 1.1.4. Let F be a field and V be a set, and let $\odot : F \times V \rightarrow V$ and $\oplus : V \times V \rightarrow V$ be two binary operations. V , together with these operations, is called a **vector space** over F if all of the following axioms are satisfied:

1. \oplus is associative, i.e. for all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$, we have

$$(\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v}) \oplus \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \oplus (\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{w}).$$

2. \oplus is commutative, i.e. for all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$, we have

$$\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u}.$$

3. There exists an element $\mathbf{0} \in V$, called the **zero vector**, such that for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$, we have

$$\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}.$$

4. For every $\mathbf{v} \in V$, there exists an element $-\mathbf{v} \in V$, called the additive inverse of \mathbf{v} , such that

$$\mathbf{v} \oplus (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}.$$

5. For all $a, b \in F$ and $\mathbf{v} \in V$, we have

$$a \odot (b \odot \mathbf{v}) = (ab) \odot \mathbf{v}.$$

6. For every $\mathbf{v} \in V$, we have

$$1_F \odot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$

where 1_F is the multiplicative identity of F .

7. \odot is distributive over \oplus , i.e. for all $a \in F$ and $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$, we have

$$a \odot (\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v}) = (a \odot \mathbf{u}) \oplus (a \odot \mathbf{v}).$$

8. For all $a, b \in F$ and $\mathbf{v} \in V$, we have

$$(a + b) \odot \mathbf{v} = (a \odot \mathbf{v}) \oplus (b \odot \mathbf{v}).$$

The elements of F are called **scalars** and the elements of V are called **vectors**. The operation \odot is called **scalar multiplication** and the operation \oplus is called **vector addition**.

Note that the zero vector is the same as the additive identity under vector addition.

Let us now examine some examples of what is and isn't a vector space.

Example 1.1.5. Show that \mathbb{R}^2 , together with

- vector addition \oplus defined such that for all $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we have $(x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2)$; and
- scalar multiplication \odot defined such that for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we have $c \odot (x, y) = (cx, cy)$,

is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Solution. Let $(x, y), (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. We will prove this result by examining each of the axioms one-by-one:

1. We have

$$\begin{aligned} ((x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2)) \oplus (x_3, y_3) &= (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) \oplus (x_3, y_3) \\ &= (x_1 + x_2 + x_3, y_1 + y_2 + y_3) \\ &= (x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2 + x_3, y_2 + y_3) \\ &= (x_1, y_1) \oplus ((x_2, y_2) \oplus (x_3, y_3)), \end{aligned}$$

so \oplus is associative.

2. We have

$$(x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) = (x_2 + x_1, y_2 + y_1) = (x_2, y_2) \oplus (x_1, y_1),$$

so \oplus is commutative.

3. Let $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0)$. Then,

$$(x, y) \oplus \mathbf{0} = (x, y) \oplus (0, 0) = (x + 0, y + 0) = (x, y),$$

so $\mathbf{0}$, as we have defined it, is the zero vector (the zero vector exists).

4. Let $-(x, y) = (-x, -y)$. Then,

$$(x, y) \oplus (-(x, y)) = (x, y) \oplus (-x, -y) = (x - x, y - y) = (0, 0) = \mathbf{0},$$

so $-(x, y)$, as we have defined it, is the additive inverse of (x, y) (the additive inverse exists).

5. We have

$$a \odot (b \odot (x, y)) = a \odot (bx, by) = (abx, aby) = (ab) \odot (x, y).$$

6. Recall that the number 1 is the multiplicative identity of \mathbb{R} . We have

$$1 \odot (x, y) = (1x, 1y) = (x, y).$$

7. We have

$$\begin{aligned} a \odot ((x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2)) &= a \odot (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) = (a(x_1 + x_2), a(y_1 + y_2)) \\ &= (ax_1 + ax_2, ay_1 + ay_2) = (ax_1, ay_1) \oplus (ax_2, ay_2) \\ &= (a \odot (x_1, y_1)) \oplus (a \odot (x_2, y_2)), \end{aligned}$$

so \odot is distributive over \oplus .

8. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (a + b) \odot (x, y) &= ((a + b)x, (a + b)y) = (ax + bx, ay + by) \\ &= (ax, ay) \oplus (bx, by) = (a \odot (x, y)) \oplus (b \odot (x, y)). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, \mathbb{R}^2 with these operations is a vector space over \mathbb{R} . □

In these examples and in the definition, we used the symbols \odot and \oplus for scalar multiplication and vector addition, respectively, in order to help distinguish these operations from addition and multiplication on the field. From now on, we will use additive notation $\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ for vector addition and multiplicative notation $c \odot \mathbf{v} = c\mathbf{v}$ for scalar multiplication, but it is still important to remember the distinction between these operations with vectors and the analogous operations on the field.