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Linear Algebra

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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. There exist more rigorous approaches, axiomatic set theories, but we will not be looking at these; our intuitive treatment of sets will suffice for the purposes 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{N} is the set of natural numbers, which we will take to start at 1;

- \mathbb{Z} is the set of 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.

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0 \right\}.$$

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

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

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

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

Example 0.1.6. The set of ordered pairs of real numbers, i.e.

$$\{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

can be written as $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{R}^2 .

Example 0.1.7. Let $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then,

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

Definition 0.1.8. Let A and B be two sets. The set

$$A \cup B = \{c \mid c \in A \text{ or } c \in B\},$$

i.e. the set containing all elements of A as well as all the elements of B , is called the **union** of A and B . The set

$$A \cap B = \{c \mid c \in A \text{ and } c \in B\},$$

i.e. the set containing all the elements that are in both A and B at the same time, is called the **intersect** of A and B .

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 . The set 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 $a \cdot b = ab$.

Note that since the operations $+$ and \cdot are defined as operations on F , when we add or multiply two elements of F , the result must also be an element of F , i.e. for all $a, b \in F$, we must have

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

This is called **closure**, and we say that a field must be **closed** under addition and multiplication.

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. Much of this proof will involve results that we already know and don't need to show in detail. First, note that since the sum and product of two real numbers is always a real number, \mathbb{R} is closed under standard addition and multiplication. Now we can check the field axioms:

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

Hence, \mathbb{R} with standard addition and multiplication is a field. □

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

Solution. We need only find one axiom that does not hold. 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. Also note that by the way we have defined \odot and \oplus , a vector space must be closed under scalar multiplication and vector addition, just as a field must be closed under field addition and multiplication.

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 the operations \oplus and \odot defined such that for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we have

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

and

$$c \odot (x, y) = (cx, cy),$$

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 $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. First we must verify that \mathbb{R}^2 is closed under the given operations. Since $(x_1 + x_2), (y_1 + y_2) \in \mathbb{R}$, we see that

$$(x_1, y_1) \oplus (x_2, y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2,$$

and similarly, since $cx, cy \in \mathbb{R}$, we also see that

$$c \odot (x, y) = (cx, cy) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Thus, \mathbb{R}^2 is closed under \oplus and \odot . Now we can check the vector space axioms:

1. Associativity of \oplus :

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

2. Commutativity of \oplus :

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

3. Existence of zero vector: Consider $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0)$. We see

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

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

4. Existence of additive inverse: Consider $-(x, y) = (-x, -y)$. We see

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

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

5. Compatibility of \odot with field multiplication:

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

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

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

7. Distributivity of \odot over \oplus :

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

8. Distributivity of \odot over field addition:

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

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

Example 1.1.6. Let $P_2(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of all polynomials of degree ≤ 2 over the real numbers, i.e.

$$P_2(\mathbb{R}) = \{p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \mid a_0, a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Show that $P_2(\mathbb{R})$, together with the operations \oplus and \odot defined such that for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2, q(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 \in P_2(\mathbb{R})$, we have

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

and

$$c \odot p(x) = ca_0 + ca_1x + ca_2x^2,$$

is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Solution. Placeholder □

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. We will also write expressions with vectors assuming that scalar multiplication takes precedence over vector addition, akin to the standard order of operations.

Theorem 1.1.7. *Let V be a vector space over a field F . For all $\mathbf{v} \in V$ and $a \in F$, we have*

1. $0_F \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$;
2. $a\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$;
3. If $a\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then $a = 0_F$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$; and
4. $(-1_F)\mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v}$.

Proof.

1. Since 0_F is the additive identity on the field, we know $c + 0_F = c$. In particular, $0_F + 0_F = 0_F$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 0_F \mathbf{v} &= (0_F + 0_F) \mathbf{v} \\
 0_F \mathbf{v} &= 0_F \mathbf{v} + 0_F \mathbf{v} && \text{distributive property} \\
 0_F \mathbf{v} + (-(0_F \mathbf{v})) &= 0_F \mathbf{v} + 0_F \mathbf{v} + (-(0_F \mathbf{v})) \\
 \mathbf{0} &= 0_F \mathbf{v} + 0_F \mathbf{v} + (-(0_F \mathbf{v})) && \text{vector additive inverse} \\
 \mathbf{0} &= 0_F \mathbf{v} + (0_F \mathbf{v} + (-(0_F \mathbf{v}))) && \text{associative property} \\
 \mathbf{0} &= 0_F \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} && \text{vector additive inverse} \\
 \mathbf{0} &= 0_F \mathbf{v}. && \text{vector additive identity}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. Since the zero vector $\mathbf{0}$ is the additive identity under vector addition, we know

$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$. In particular, $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 a\mathbf{0} &= a(\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0}) \\
 a\mathbf{0} &= a\mathbf{0} + a\mathbf{0} && \text{distributive property} \\
 a\mathbf{0} + (-(a\mathbf{0})) &= a\mathbf{0} + a\mathbf{0} + (-(a\mathbf{0})) \\
 \mathbf{0} &= a\mathbf{0} + a\mathbf{0} + (-(a\mathbf{0})) && \text{vector additive inverse} \\
 \mathbf{0} &= a\mathbf{0} + (a\mathbf{0} + (-(a\mathbf{0}))) && \text{associative property} \\
 \mathbf{0} &= a\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} && \text{vector additive inverse} \\
 \mathbf{0} &= a\mathbf{0}. && \text{vector additive identity}
 \end{aligned}$$

3. Suppose $a\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$. We have two possible cases for a . If $a = 0_F$, then we are already finished with the proof. Otherwise, if $a \neq 0_F$, we can multiply both sides with the multiplicative inverse (on the field) of a :

$$\begin{aligned}
 a\mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{0} \\
 a^{-1}(a\mathbf{v}) &= a^{-1}\mathbf{0} \\
 (a^{-1}a)\mathbf{v} &= a^{-1}\mathbf{0} && \text{vector space axiom 5} \\
 1_F\mathbf{v} &= a^{-1}\mathbf{0} && \text{field multiplicative inverse} \\
 \mathbf{v} &= a^{-1}\mathbf{0} && \text{scalar multiplicative identity} \\
 \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{0}. && \text{part 2 of this theorem}
 \end{aligned}$$

4. We will start by using the zero vector:

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\mathbf{v} &= -\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} \\
 &= -\mathbf{v} + 0_F\mathbf{v} && \text{part 1 of this theorem} \\
 &= -\mathbf{v} + (1_F + (-1_F))\mathbf{v} && \text{field additive inverse} \\
 &= -\mathbf{v} + (1_F\mathbf{v} + (-1_F)\mathbf{v}) && \text{distributive property} \\
 &= -\mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{v} + (-1_F)\mathbf{v}) && \text{scalar multiplicative identity} \\
 &= (-\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}) + (-1_F\mathbf{v}) && \text{associative property} \\
 &= \mathbf{0} + (-1_F)\mathbf{v} && \text{vector additive inverse} \\
 &= (-1_F)\mathbf{v}. && \text{vector additive identity} \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that in the above proof, the distributive property used in parts 1 and 2 comes from vector space axiom 7, while the distributive property used in part 4 comes from axiom 8.

Exercises

Exercise 1.1. Consider the set of complex numbers $\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ where i is the imaginary number, defined such that $i^2 = -1$. We naturally have the operations $+$ and \cdot defined such that for all $(a + bi), (c + di) \in \mathbb{C}$, we have

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

and

$$\begin{aligned}(a + bi) \cdot (c + di) &= ac + a(di) + (bi)c + (bi)(di) = ac + adi + bci + bdi^2 \\ &= ac + adi + bci - bd = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i.\end{aligned}$$

Show that \mathbb{C} with these operations is a field.

Exercise 1.2. Let F be a field and let $P_n(F)$ be the set of all polynomials of degree $\leq n$ over F , i.e.

$$P_n(F) = \left\{ p : F \rightarrow F, p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k \mid a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in F \right\}.$$

Show that $P_n(F)$, together with addition and scalar multiplication defined such that for all $c \in F$ and $p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k, q(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n b_k z^k \in P_n(F)$, we have

$$p(z) + q(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n (a_k + b_k) z^k \quad \text{and} \quad cp(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n ca_k z^k,$$

is a vector space over F .

1.2 Subspaces

Definition 1.2.1. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let W be a non-empty subset of V . The set W , together with vector addition and scalar multiplication as defined on V , is called a **subspace** of V if W with these operations is a vector space over F .

The subspaces $W = \{\mathbf{0}_V\}$ and $W = V$ are called the **trivial subspaces** of V .

Theorem 1.2.2. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let W be a non-empty subset of V . Then, W is a subspace of V if and only if for all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in W$ and $a \in F$, we have

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in W \quad \text{and} \quad a\mathbf{u} \in W.$$

Theorem 1.2.3. Let U be a vector space over a field F and let V and W be subspaces of U . Then, $V \cap W$ is also a subspace of U .

Corollary 1.2.4. Let V be a vector space and let W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n be subspaces of V . Then, $\cap_{k=1}^n W_k$ is also a subspace of V .

1.3 Linear combinations

Definition 1.3.1. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V$ and $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F$. A vector of the form

$$a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k\mathbf{v}_k$$

is called a **linear combination** of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$.

Definition 1.3.2. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V$. The set of all linear combinations of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, i.e.

$$\{a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n \mid a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F\},$$

is called the **span** of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$, denoted $\text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$.

If $\text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} = V$, we say that the set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ spans V .

Theorem 1.3.3. Let V be a vector space and let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subseteq V$. Then,

1. $\text{span}(S)$ is a subspace of V ; and
2. If W is a subspace of V and $S \subseteq W$, then $\text{span}(S) \subseteq W$. In other words, $\text{span}(S)$ is the smallest subspace of V that contains all the vectors in S .

Definition 1.3.4. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V$ and $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F$. The vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are called **linearly independent** if

$$a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + a_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

only if $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0_F$. Otherwise, i.e. if there exists such a linear combination where at least one of a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n is non-zero, we say the vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are **linearly dependent**.

Theorem 1.3.5. Let V be a vector space and let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V$, $n \geq 2$. The vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are linearly dependent if and only if at least one of them can be expressed as a linear combination of the others.

1.4 Basis and dimension

Appendix A

Solutions to Exercises

Chapter 1

Solution 1.1. Let $a, b, c, d, e, f \in \mathbb{R}$. First we must verify that \mathbb{C} is indeed closed under the given operations. Since $(a + c), (b + d) \in \mathbb{R}$, we see that

$$(a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i \in \mathbb{C},$$

and similarly, since $(ac - bd), (ad + bc) \in \mathbb{R}$, we also see that

$$(a + bi) \cdot (c + di) = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Thus, \mathbb{C} is closed under $+$ and \cdot . Now we can check the field axioms:

1. Associativity:

$$\begin{aligned} ((a + bi) + (c + di)) + (e + fi) &= (a + c + (b + d)i) + (e + fi) \\ &= a + c + e + (b + d + f)i \\ &= a + bi + (c + e) + (d + f)i \\ &= (a + bi) + ((c + di) + (e + fi)). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} ((a + bi) \cdot (c + di)) \cdot (e + fi) &= (ac - bd + (ad + bc)i) \cdot (e + fi) \\ &= (ac - bd)e - (ad + bc)f + ((ac - bd)f + (ad + bc)e)i \\ &= ace - bde - adf - bcf + (acf - bdf + ade + bce)i \\ &= a(ce - df) - b(cf + de) + (a(cf + de) + b(ce - df))i \\ &= (a + bi) \cdot (ce - df + (cf + de)i) \\ &= (a + bi) \cdot ((c + di) \cdot (e + fi)). \end{aligned}$$

2. Commutativity:

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

$$(a + bi) \cdot (c + di) = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i = (ca - db) + (da + cb)i = (c + di) \cdot (a + bi).$$

3. Existence of additive identity: Consider $0 = 0 + 0i \in \mathbb{C}$. We see

$$(a + bi) + (0 + 0i) = (a + 0) + (b + 0)i = a + bi.$$

4. Existence of multiplicative identity: Consider $1 = 1 + 0i \in \mathbb{C}$. We see

$$(a + bi) \cdot (1 + 0i) = (1a - 0b) + (0a + 1b)i = a + bi.$$

5. Existence of additive inverse: For $a + bi$, consider $-a - bi \in \mathbb{C}$. We see

$$(a + bi) + (-a - bi) = (a - a) + (b - b)i = 0 + 0i = 0.$$

6. Existence of multiplicative inverse: Suppose $a + bi \neq 0$. Consider¹

$$\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}i \in \mathbb{C}.$$

We see

$$\begin{aligned} (a + bi) \cdot \left(\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}i \right) &= \frac{a^2}{a^2 + b^2} + \frac{b^2}{a^2 + b^2} + \left(\frac{ab}{a^2 + b^2} - \frac{ba}{a^2 + b^2} \right)i \\ &= \frac{a^2 + b^2}{a^2 + b^2} + 0i = 1. \end{aligned}$$

7. Distributivity:

$$\begin{aligned} (a + bi) \cdot ((c + di) + (e + fi)) &= (a + bi) \cdot (c + e + (d + f)i) \\ &= a(c + e) - b(d + f) + (a(d + f) + b(c + e))i \\ &= ac + ae - bd - bf + (ad + af + bc + be)i \\ &= ac - bd + (ad + bc)i + ae - bf + (af + be)i \\ &= ((a + bi) \cdot (c + di)) + ((a + bi) \cdot (e + fi)). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, \mathbb{C} with these operations is a field. □

¹This can be found by setting $(a + bi) \cdot (\alpha + \beta i) = 1$ and solving for α and β .