MATH223 - Linear Algebra (class notes)

$Sandrine\ Monfourny-Daigneault$

McGill University

Contents

1	January 7th 2019			
	1.1	Motivation	2	
	1.2		2	
2	January 9th 2019			
	2.1	Complex numbers as points in R^2	4	
	2.2	Equations with complex numbers	5	
	2.3		7	
3	January 11th 2019			
	3.1	Geometric vectors ('arrows')	7	
	3.2	Definition of a vector space	7	
	3.3		8	
4	Jan	uary 14th 2019	9	
	4.1	More examples of vector spaces	0	
5	January 16th 2019			
	5.1	Linear combinations and spans	3	
6	Jan	uary 18th 2019	4	
	6.1	Last class	4	
	6.2	Subspaces	6	
7	January 21st 2019			
	7.1	A note on logic	7	
	7.2	Subspaces (cont'd)	8	
	7.3	Examples of problems	8	
	7.4	Two special subspaces	9	
	7.5	A refinement on the definition of span	9	

1 January 7th 2019

Should know how to solve a linear system and calculate a determinant... things like that.

• Written assignments (5): 10%

• Webwork assignments (5): 5%

• Midterm : 20%

• Final: 65%

Textbook: Schaum's Outline - Linear Algebra.

1.1 Motivation

We have linear systems, with two equations, like such:

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

x - y + z = 1

There is an algebraic way of seeing this, but we can also see this, from the geometric standpoint, as the intersection of the two planes in \mathbb{R}^3 . Linear algebra has to do with things that are "flat", like a plane. As soon as we add in exponents to these equations, we get some curvature, and the techniques to solve these are different.

- Linear equations are the simplest kind, so you *must* understand them. Also, you *can* understand 'everything' about them.
- Theory used to describe solutions, etc.
- Linear equations are often used to approximate or model more complicated equations/situations.
- In applications, linear systems are often quite big (10000 equations/variables)

1.2 Complex numbers

Def: Let i be a symbol. We declare $i^2 = -1$.

Now, what we'd like to do is take this symbol i and combine it with the usual real numbers that we are familiar with. We set, for example,

$$3i$$

$$i - 4$$

$$3i - \pi$$

$$\sqrt{i} + 21$$

Def: The field of complex numbers C consists of all expressions of the form a+bi, where $a,b\in R$.

Def: Addition (subtraction) and multiplication of complex numbers is defined by the following rules:

(i)

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

(ii)

$$(a+bi)(c+di) = ac + adi + bci + bdi2$$
$$= ac + adi + bci - bd$$
$$= (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$$

Notation:

- 0 + bi = bi
- a + 0i = a (a real number)
- 0 + 0i = 0

Ex: If $z_1 = 2 - i$, $z_2 = 5i$, then

$$z_1 + z_2 = 2 + 4i$$

and

$$z_1 z_2 = (2 - i)(5i) = 10i - 5i^2 = 5 + 10i$$

Def: Let $z = a + bi \in C$

- (i) $\bar{z} = a bi$, called the *complex conjugate* of z
- (ii) $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$, called the absolute value or modulus

Def: If $z = a + bi \in C$ and $z \neq 0$ (ie $z \neq 0 + 0i$), then the number

$$z^{-1} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$$
$$= \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}i$$

is called the (multiplicative) inverse of z. It has the property $zz^{-1} = 1 = z^{-1}z$.

Proof. We have

$$zz^{-1} = (a+bi)\left(\frac{a}{a^2+b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2+b^2}i\right)$$
$$= \frac{a^2 - abi + abi - b^2i^2}{a^2+b^2}$$
$$= \frac{a^2 + 0 + b^2}{a^2+b^2}$$
$$= 1$$

Note: Since $z \neq 0 + 0i$, $a^2 + b^2 \neq 0$

Def: If $z, w \in C$ and $z \neq 0$ then

$$\frac{w}{z} = wz^{-1}$$

Ex: If z = 1 + 2i, w = 3 - i then

$$\begin{split} \frac{w}{z} &= wz^{-1} \\ &= (3-i)(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i) \\ &= \frac{3}{5} - \frac{6}{5}i - \frac{i}{5} + \frac{2}{5}i^2 \\ &= \frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5} - \frac{7}{5}i \\ &= \frac{1}{5} - \frac{7}{5}i \end{split}$$

Or,

$$\frac{3-i}{1+2i} \cdot \frac{(1-2i)}{(1-2i)} = \frac{3-6i-i+2i^2}{1-2i+2i-4i^2}$$
$$= \frac{1-7i}{5}$$

2 January 9th 2019

2.1 Complex numbers as points in \mathbb{R}^2

You can view a + bi as a point $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. The usefulness of this is that we can consider, say, (3 + 2i) and (3 - i) as vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 , and they will conserve the same properties (addition of complex numbers corresponds to vector addition in \mathbb{R}^2). For the interpretation of multiplication to make sense, it's necessary to use polar coordinates.

2.2 Equations with complex numbers

Fact: Every real number $a \neq 0$ has two square roots:

- if a > 0, roots $\pm \sqrt{a}$
- if a < 0, two roots are $\pm i\sqrt{|a|}$, since:

$$(\pm i\sqrt{|a|}) = i^2(\sqrt{|a|})^2$$

$$= -1 \cdot |a|$$

$$= a \qquad \text{(since } a < 0\text{)}$$

Fact: Quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ has solution

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

which may be in C.

Ex: Solve $x^2 - 2x + 3 = 0$, and factor $x^2 - 2x + 3$. **Sol:**

$$x = \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4(1)(3)}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{-8}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm i\sqrt{8}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm i2\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$= 1 \pm i\sqrt{2}$$

Note: If $ax^2 + bx + c$ has $a, b, c \in R$ has a non-real root, say z, its other root is \bar{z} (z = a + bi, $\bar{z} = a - bi$). This is not necessarily true if $a, b, c \in C$.

Back to problem. Factor $x^2 - 2x + 3 = (x - (1 + i\sqrt{2}))(x - (1 - i\sqrt{2})).$

Caution: -1 has two roots, namely $\pm i$, so you may write $i = \sqrt{-1}$, but be careful:

$$-1 = i^{2}$$

$$= i \cdot i$$

$$= \sqrt{-1} \cdot \sqrt{-1}$$

$$= \sqrt{(-1)(-1)}$$
 (this step doesn't quite work)
$$= \sqrt{1}$$

$$= 1$$

Theorem: (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra) If

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0 n^0$$

is a polynomial with $a_n \neq 0$, and $a_n, a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_0 \in C$, then p(x) factors into linear factors,

$$p(x) = a_n \cdot (x - r_1) \cdot (x - r_2) \cdot \ldots \cdot (x - r_n)$$

for some complex numbers r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n . Some r_i 's may be equal.

Corollary: Every such polynomial has at least one root, and at most n distinct roots.

Note: Finding the roots is, in general, quite difficult.

Ex: Factor $2x^3 + 2x$ (over C).

Sol:

$$2(x^{3} + x) = 2(x - 0)(x^{2} + 1)$$
$$= 2(x - 0)(x^{2} - i^{2})$$
$$= 2(x - 0)(x - i)(x + i)$$

Ex: Solve $x^2 - i = 0$ Sol: $x^2 = i$ so $x = \pm \sqrt{i}$. Want \sqrt{i} in format a + bi, $a, b \in R$.

 $\sqrt{i} = a + bi$

$$i = (a+bi)^{2}$$

$$= a^{2} + 2abi + b^{2}i^{2}$$

$$0 + i = (a^{2} - b^{2}) + 2abi$$

$$0 = a^{2} - b^{2}$$

$$1 = 2ab$$

$$a = \pm b$$

$$ab = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$a^{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$a = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = b$$
(so a=b both + or both -)

Two solutions, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}i$ and $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}i$.

2.3 Vector spaces (Ch 4)

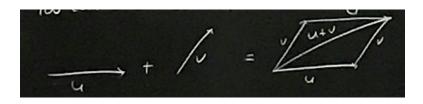
Def. The sets R and C (and also Q, rational numbers, although we won't go into details of this) are called *fields* (or *fields of scalars*). In this class, "a field of K" means that K is either R or C.

3 January 11th 2019

Last time: Field K is R or C (for this class).

3.1 Geometric vectors ('arrows')

You can add two vectors (arrows).



Observation: $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$. You can rescale a vector:



Observation: $a(b\vec{u}) = (ab)\vec{u}$.

Also: $1\vec{u} = \vec{u}$

Question: What properties are interesting? What other objects obey the same

properties?

Abstraction: Focus on properties more than on the objects.

3.2 Definition of a vector space

Let V be a set, called set of "vectors", and let K be a field (R or C) (elements of K called scalars). Assume that we have already defined two operations:

(1) One called *addition*, which takes two vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$ and produces another vector denoted $\vec{u} + \vec{v} \in V$.

(2) One called *scalar multiplication* which takes a vector $\vec{u} \in V$ and a scalar $a \in K$ and produces another vector denoted $a\vec{u} \in V$

Then if, for all vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$ and all scalars $a, b \in K$, the following 8 properties are true, then V is called a *vector space* (over K).

- (A1) u + v = v + u (commutative laws)
- (A2) There exists a vector in V, named zero vector and denoted 0 (or $\vec{0}$) such that for all $u \in V$, u + 0 = u
- (A3) For each $u \in V$, there is a vector in V, called the (additive) inverse of u and denoted -u, having the property u + (-u) = 0 (where 0 is the zero vector defined in A2)
- (A4) (u+v) + w = u + (v+w)
- (SM1) a(u+v) = au + av (distributive laws)
- (SM2) (a+b)u = au + bu
- (SM3) a(bu) = (ab)u
- (SM4) $1u = u \ (1 \in R \text{ or } C)$

These are called the vector space axioms.

3.3 Examples of vector spaces

Some examples:

(1) $K^n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) | a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in K\}$, with addition defined by

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

and scalar multiplication by

$$c(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (ca_1, ca_2, \dots, ca_n)$$

where $c \in K$ (and K = set of scalar).

Proof that K^n is a vector space

Need to prove all 8 properties. We will do 2, the rest are exercises.

(A4) To prove for all $u, v \in V$, u + v = v + u.

Proof concept: To prove "for all $x \in A$, something", say "let $x \in A$ " (means x is an arbitrary element of A, ie you only know $x \in A$). Then, prove something for that x.

Proof: Let $u, v \in K^n$. This means $u = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n), v = (b_1, b_2, ..., b_n)$ for some $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n, b_1, b_2, ..., b_n \in K$. Then

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

$$= (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n) \qquad \text{(definition of addition in } K^n)$$

$$= (b_1 + a_1, \dots, b_n + a_n) \qquad \text{(since } a + b = b + a \text{ for } R \text{ and } C)$$

$$= (b_1, \dots, b_n) + (a_1, \dots, a_n) \qquad \text{(definition of addition in } K^n)$$

$$= v + u$$

(A2) *Proof concept:* To prove "there exists" something, one method is to describe the thing directly.

Define 0 = (0, 0, ..., 0) (which is in K^n). To prove for all $u \in K^n$, u + 0 = u, let $u \in K^n$. This means $u = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$, so

$$u + 0 = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n + (0, 0, \dots, 0))$$

= $(a_1 + 0, a_2 + 0, \dots, a_n + 0)$
= (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)
= u

(2) In the vector space C^2 , $(2+3i,5-7i) \in C^2$ is an example of a vector and $2i \in C$ is a scalar, so an example of scalar mult is:

$$2i(u) = 2i(2+3i, 5-7i)$$

$$= (4i+6i^2, 10i-14i^2)$$

$$= (-6+4i, 14+10i)$$

4 January 14th 2019

Problem: Let $J = \{(x, y) | x \in R, y \in R\}$ but define addition by

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = (-x_1 - x_2, y_1 + y_2)$$

and scalar multiplication by

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

Show that J is not a vector space.

Solution: Show *one* of the 8 vector space axioms is false. Consider (A1):

$$(x_2, y_2) + (x_1, y_1) = (-x_2 - x_1, y_2 + y_1)$$

This is actually ok! Now consider (A4):

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

While

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

This does not quite yet prove that the axiom is false. To do so, give *specific* case where the equation is false.

Actual proof: Let u = (1, 1), v = (2, 2) and w = (3, 3). Then,

$$u + (v + w) = (1,1) + ((2,2) + (3,3))$$

$$= (1,1) + (-2 - 3,5)$$

$$= (1,1) + (-5,5)$$

$$= (-1+5,6)$$

$$= (4,6)$$

Whereas,

$$(u+v) + w = ((1,1) + (2,2)) + (3,3)$$

$$= (-1-2,3) + (3,3)$$

$$= (-3,3) + (3,3)$$

$$= (-(-3)-3,6)$$

$$= (0,6)$$

Hence, the axiom does not hold.

4.1 More examples of vector spaces

- (1) K^n (ie R^n or C^n). See before
- (2) P(K) = polynomials, where coefficients are in K. Addition, scalar multiplication are "as expected", ie for multiplication:

$$f(x) = x^2 + 2ix - 4 \in P(C)$$

$$g(x) = -x^2 + cx \in P(C)$$
 (and also in $P(R)$)

For addition,

$$f(x) + g(x) = 3ix - 4$$

And for scalar multiplication,

$$2if(x) = 2ix^{2} + 4i^{2}x - 8i$$
$$= 2ix^{2} - 4x - 8i$$

(3) $P_n(K) = \text{polynomials of degree } n \text{ or less, coefficient from } K.$ For example,

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \in P_{2}(R)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \in P_{3}(R)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \in P_{2}(C)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \notin P_{1}(R)$$

Note: In P(K), $P_n(K)$ the "vectors" are polynomials.

(4) $M_{m \times n}(K) = m \times n$ matrices with entries from K. Scalars are K, addition and scalar multiplication as expected.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & i \\ 0 & \pi \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(C)$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1+i & -\pi \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(C)$$

$$A + B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1+i \\ 1+i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$2iA = \begin{pmatrix} 4i & 2i^2 \\ 0 & 2i\pi \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4i & -2 \\ 0 & 2\pi i \end{pmatrix}$$

The "zero vector" in $M_{m \times n}(K)$ is the $m \times n$ matrix with all entries 0.

(5) Let X be any set (think x = R or C, but not required). Define $F(X, K) = \{f : X \to K\} = \text{all functions from } X \text{ to } K$.

Ex: $f(x) = x^2 \in F(R, R)$.

Ex: Let $x = \{1, 2\}$. Then g defined by

$$g(1) = 3$$
$$g(2) = \sqrt{2}$$

Addition in this space is defined by:

If $f, g \in F(X, K)$ then f + g is the function defined by

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

Note that $f(x) \in K$ and $g(x) \in K$, in other words they are numbers (scalars). The + in (f+g) is the addition of vectors f and g, while the other + is scalar addition.

Scalar multiplication in this space is defined by: if $f \in F(X, K), c \in K$ then cf is the function defined by

$$(cf)(x) = cf(x)$$

Note that cf is the name of the function, that "multiplication" is scalar multiplication $F(X, \vDash)$ and cf(x) is the multiplication of two scalars (numbers).

The fact that F(X,K) is a vector space and the axioms are followed is not so obvious.

Prove (A2) true for F(X,K). Define $z \in F(X,K)$ by

$$z(x) = 0 (for all x \in X)$$

Note that 0 here is a scalar. Then if $f \in F(X, K)$ is an arbitrary element, then we need to prove f + z = f. This is true since for all $x \in X$,

$$(f+z)(x) = f(x) + z(x)$$
$$= f(x) + 0$$
$$= f(x)$$

Hence, f+z, f have the same output (namely f(x)) for every input. Hence, f+z=f.

Exercise: Try (A3).

5 January 16th 2019

Theorem: ("Cancellation Law") Suppose v is a vector space over K. For all vectors $u, v, w \in V$, if u + w = v + w then u = v.

Note: To prove "for all" you say let $u \in V$ (means u is an arbitrary vector).

To prove "if p then q", denoted $p \to q$, assume p is true and use it to prove q.

Proof. Let $u, v, w \in V$. Assume u + w = v + w. By vector space axiom A3, there is a vector $(-w) \in V$. Add (-w) to both sides:

$$(u+w) + (-w) = (v+w) + (-w)$$

$$u + (w + (-w)) = v + (w + (-w))$$
 (by A1)

$$u + \vec{0} = v + \vec{0} \tag{by A3}$$

$$= u = v (by A2)$$

Theorem:

- 1. The zero vector is unique
- 2. For each $u \in V$, -u is unique

Note: To prove something is unique, suppose you have two of them and show they are the same.

Proof. 1) Assume 0 and z both satisfy the property (A2: $\forall u \in V, u + 0 = u$ (*) and u + z = u (**)). Goal is to prove 0 = z.

$$z = z + 0$$
 (by *, with $u = z$)
 $= 0 + z$ (by A4)
 $z = 0$ (by **, with $u = 0$)

So the zero vector is unique.

2) Exercise.

Theorem: $\forall u \in V, c \in K$,

- 1) $c\vec{0} = \vec{0}$
- 2) $0u = \vec{0}$
- 3) -(cu) = ((-c)u)

Proof. Of 2). Let $u \in V$. Then,

$$0u + 0u = (0 + 0)u$$
 (By SM2)

$$0u + 0u = 0u$$
 (by R addition)

$$0u + 0u = \vec{0} + 0u$$
 (by A2)

$$0u + 0u = \vec{0} + 0u$$
 (by A4)

$$0u = \vec{0}$$
 (by cancellation law)

Note: 0 + u = u is true for all $u \in V$ (same as u + 0 = u then apply A4)

5.1 Linear combinations and spans

Def: Let $u, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in V$. If there are scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in K$ such that $u = a_1 v_1, a_2 v_2 \ldots a_n v_n$ then u is said to be a linear combination of v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n . **Ex:** In P(R), $x^2 + 2x - 4$ is a linear comb of $x^2, x, 1$.

Important problem: Given vectors u, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n , determine if u is a linear combination of v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n and if so find a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n .

Ex: Determine if $f(x) = 2x^2 + 6x + 8$ is a linear combination of

$$g_1(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$$

$$g_2(x) = -2x^2 - 4x - 2$$

$$g_3(x) = 2x^2 - 3$$

Sol. Are there a_1, a_2, a_3 s.t.

$$2x^{2} + 6x + 8 = a_{1}(x^{2} + 2x + 1) + a_{2}(-2x^{2} - 4x - 2) + a_{3}(2x^{2} - 3)$$
$$= (a_{1} - 2a_{2} + 2a_{3})x^{2} + (2a_{1} - 4a_{2})x + (a_{1} - 2a_{2} - 3a_{3})$$

Equating coefficients,

$$a_1 - 2a_2 + 2a_3 = 2$$
$$2a_1 - 4a_2 = 6$$
$$a_1 - 2a_2 - 3a_3 = 8$$

Solve the linear system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & 0 & 6 \\ 1 & -2 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(row reduce)

 \therefore No solution, because of the last row. f is not a linear combination of g_1, g_2, g_3 .

Def: Let $S \subseteq V$ (S is a subset fof V) and assume $s \neq 0$. The span of s, denoted span(s) is the set of all linear combinations of vectors from S, ie

$$span(s) = \{u \in V \mid \exists v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in S$$
 and scalars a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n s.t.
$$u = a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n\}$$

6 January 18th 2019

6.1 Last class

$$S \subseteq V$$

$$span(s) = \{u \in V | \exists v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in S \text{ and scalars } a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ s.t. } u = a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n\}$$

Ex: $S = \{\binom{1}{2}, \binom{3}{1}\} \subseteq R^2$. Prove $span(S) = R^2$.

Note: $\binom{a}{b}$ means (a,b).

Proof note: To prove two sets A, B are equal, ie A = B, you can prove $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Sol:

- (1) Prove $span(S) \subseteq R^2$. Trivial, since any linear combination of vectors in R^2 is still in R^2 .
- (2) Prove $R^2 \subseteq span(S)$. Let $\binom{a}{b} \in R^2$ (arbitrary). To prove that there exists scalars $x_1, x_2 \in K$ so that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In other words,

$$a = x_1 + 3x_2$$
$$b = 2x_1 + x_2$$

Want to show this has a solution (for all a, b). System is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

But,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 - 2(3) \neq 0$$

hence the system has (exactly one) solution. $\binom{a}{b} \in span(S)$ so $R^2 \subseteq span(S)$. So by (1), (2), $span(S) = R^2$. \square

Note: Ax = b, $A_{n \times n}$ if A inv, $x = A^{-1}b$. **Theorem:** Let $S \subseteq V$, $S \neq \emptyset$ (\emptyset = empty set). Then,

- (1) If $u, v \in span(S)$ then $u + v \in span(S)$
- (2) If $u \in span(S)$ and $c \in K$, then $cu \in span(S)$
- (3) $\vec{0} \in span(S)$

Proof. By direct proof.

(1) (Note, "if $u, v \in span(S)$ " means for all $u, v \in span(S)$). Let $u, v \in span(S)$. Then,

$$u = a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \ldots + a_n u_n$$
 where $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in S, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in K$
 $v = b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 + \ldots + b_m v_m$ where $v_1, \ldots, v_m \in S, b_1, \ldots, b_m \in K$

Then $u+v=a_1u_1+\ldots+a_nu_n+b_1v_1+\ldots b_mv_m$ which is in span(S) since $u_1,\ldots,u_n,v_1,\ldots,v_m\in S$.

(2) Let $u \in span(S), c \in K$. Then,

$$u = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_nu_n$$
 where $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in S, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in K$

So,

$$cu = c(a_1u_1) + c(a_2u_2) + \dots + c(a_nu_n)$$

= $(ca_1)u_1 + (ca_2)u_2 + \dots + (c_na_n)u_n$

Note: If you want to be very formal, you need to write down all of the vector space axioms. Which is in span(S) since it is a linear combination of a_1, \ldots, a_n which are in S.

(3) (Prove $\vec{0} \in span(S)$) Let $u \in S$. **Note**: This is possible only because $S \neq \emptyset$.

Then u = 1u, so $u \in span(S)$. Then using c = 0 and (2) and fact that $u \in span(S)$,

$$cu = 0u = \vec{0}$$

is also in span(S). Note: Since u = 1u, $S \subseteq span(S)$.

6.2 Subspaces

Def. Let V be a vector space and $W \subseteq V$ (subset). If W, using addition and scalar multiplication as defined in V, satisfies the definition of vector space, then W is called a subspace of V, denoted $W \leq V$ (less than equal sign, read as "subspace").

Note: Main issue is that addition and scalar multiplication with vector from W produce vectors which are still in W.

Theorem: Let $W \subseteq V$. Then, if the following three properties hold, then $W \leq V$ (subspace).

- (SS1) For all $w_1, w_2 \in W$, we have $w_1 + w_2 \in W$ ("closure under addition")
- (SS2) For all $w \in W$ and scalars $c \in K$, we have $cw \in W$ ("closure under scalar multiplication")
- (SS3) $\vec{0} \in W$.

These are the same properties we just proved for spans; in other words, we proved earlier that span(S) is a subspace.

Proof. For W to have operatios addition, scalar multiplication, just means (SS1) and (SS2) are true. So now, check (A1) - (SM4). Most of them are true because they are true in a larger vector space.

- (A1) Let $u, v, w \in W$. Then since $u, v, w \in V$, and (A1) holds in V, u+(v+w) = (u+v)+w.
- (A2) This is (SS3).
- (A3) This is the one we have to do a bit more work for. Let $w \in W$. Want to show $-w \in W$. Then, using (SS2) with c = -1 gives

$$-1(w) = -w$$
 (thm from last class)

is in W, as needed.

- (A4) Still true because it is true in V.
- (SM1-SM4) All hold because they hold in V.

7 January 21st 2019

7.1 A note on logic

Let P, Q be statements that are true or false.

(1) "If P then Q", also written symbolically as " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " (P implies Q) means if P is true, then Q is also true. To prove " $P \Rightarrow Q$ ", assume P and prove Q is true. If you know that " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " is true, you can use it: if you can establish that P is true, you may conclude Q is true.

Ex: Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix:

$$P: dot(A) = 1$$
 $Q:$ "A is invertible"

Thm: $P \Rightarrow Q$

(2) The converse of " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " is " $Q \Rightarrow P$ ". This is a (logically) different statement.

Ex: With P and Q as above, " $Q \Rightarrow P$ " is not true because $A_{inv} \not\Rightarrow det(A) = 1$.

- (3) The contrapositive of " $P\Rightarrow Q$ " is " $\neg Q\Rightarrow \neg P$ " ie "if Q false, then P also false". Logically, this is the same as " $P\Rightarrow Q$ ".
- (4) The equivalence "P if and only if Q", written " $P \iff Q$ " means " $P \Rightarrow Q$ and also $Q \Rightarrow P$ " is true. Also means that either both P and Q are true or both are false.

Ex: $det(A) \neq 0 \iff A$ is invertible.

To prove " $P \iff Q$ ", need to prove " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " and " $Q \Rightarrow P$ ".

Note: $\neg P \Rightarrow \neg Q$ is the same as $Q \Rightarrow P$.

7.2 Subspaces (cont'd)

Thm (last class): Let $W \subseteq V$ (subset). If

- 1. For all $u, v \in W$, $u + v \in W$
- 2. For all $u \in W$, $c \in K$, $cu \in W$
- 3. $\vec{0} \in W$

then $W \leq V$ (subspace). (ie: (1), (2), (3) are true $\Rightarrow W \leq V$) **Thm.** Let $W \subseteq V$. Then

$$W \leq V \Rightarrow (1), (2), (3)$$
 are true

(ie the converse of last theorem is true).

Proof. Exercise.

Thm. Let $W \subseteq V$. Then

$$W \leq V \iff (1), (2), (3)$$
 are true

7.3 Examples of problems

Is each subset a subspace?

- (a)) $W = \{\binom{1}{2}, \binom{3}{1}\} \subseteq R^2$. Not a subspace, since the zero vector is not in W. The others are also false, but it's enough to prove that one of the statements does not hold. But $span(W) = R^2$ (so $span(W) \leq R^2$)
- (b)) $W = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 | x + y z = 0\}$. Need to check (1), (2), (3):
 - (1) Let $(x \ y \ z)$, $(x' \ y' \ z') \in W$. Then we know x+y-z=0 and x'+y'-z'=0. Check:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x & y & z \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x' & y' & z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x + x' & y + y' & z + z' \end{pmatrix}$$

Verify

$$(x + x') + (y + y') - (z + z') = (x + y - z) + (x' + y' - z')$$

= 0 + 0
= 0

So yes, it is in W.

(2) Let $(x, y, z) \in W$ (means x + y - z = 0), let $c \in K$. To prove

$$c(x \ y \ z) = (cx \ cy \ cz) \in W$$

Here, cx + cy - cz = c(x + y - z) = c(0) = 0. So $c(x, y, z) \in W$

(3) $(0,0,0) \in W$, since 0+0-0=0

Since (1), (2), (3) true, $W \leq R^2$ (subspace)

- (c)) $W = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 | x + y z = 1\}$. This is not a subspace. (3) is false.
- (d)) $W = \{A \in M_{2\times 2} | A_{ij} \geq 0 \forall i, j\}$, where A_{ij} is the entry of A in row i, column j. (1) and (3) are true:
 - (1) Add two matrices with non-negatives entries, result has non-negative entries.

$$(2) \ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W$$

Note, we wrote these out very informally. Now, (2) is false since, for example $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W$ but

$$(-1)\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W$$

7.4 Two special subspaces

Let V be a vector space.

- (1) $V \leq V$ is true
- (2) $\{\vec{0}\} \leq V$ is true ("zero subspace")

7.5 A refinement on the definition of span

Def. If $S = \emptyset$ (emptyset), define $span(S) = \{\vec{0}\}$ (if $S \neq \emptyset$, span(S) defined as before).

Thm. $span(S) \leq V$.

Proof Two cases:

- 1. If $S = \emptyset$, $span(S) = {\vec{0}} \le V$
- 2. If $S\neq\emptyset,$ you already proved span(S) satisfies (1), (2), (3). So $span(S)\leq V$

Thm. (improved version of subspace conditions) Let $W \subseteq V$. Then

$$W \leq V \iff W \neq \emptyset$$
 and $\forall w_1, w_2 \in W$ and $c \in K$ we have $cw_1 + w_2 \in W$

Proof We will actually prove $(1), (2), (3) \iff RHS$ (right-hand side). Two parts to proof.

$$(1)$$
 " $(1),(2),(3) \Rightarrow RHS$ " or " \Rightarrow "