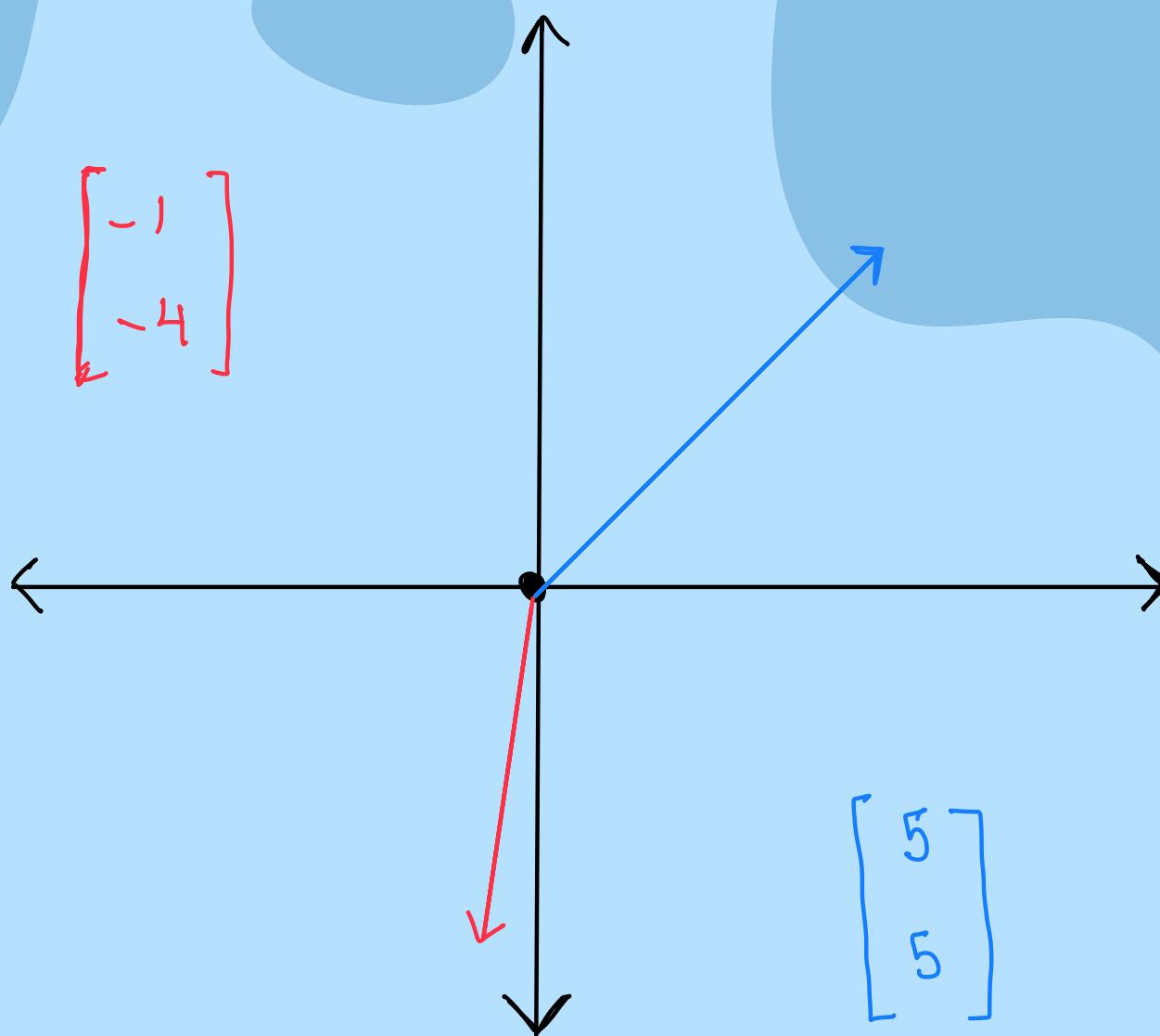


Prof. Siddhanta Das

Book: Linear Algebra by
Hoffman & Kunze.



Problems will be of the
Proving type.

Grading

Tutorial Quiz	= 15%	<u>15</u>
Assignment	= 15%	<u>15</u> - 25%
Quiz 1	= 10%	<u>10</u> - 15%
Quiz 2	= 10%	
Midsem	= 20%	<u>15</u> - 20%
Endsem	= 30%	

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Linear Algebra

\mathbb{P}^∞ = functional algebra

- It is the study of linear maps on finite dimensional vector space.
- ↳ function / relation

→ Problems solved by Linear Algebra:-

- 1) System of linear equations :-

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + a_{m3}x_3 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

- a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{m1} , etc are called the **coefficients**
- This is a system of lin. eqs as all the individual equation are of man degree 1

⇒ line in 2D

⇒ plane in 3D

- To solve this problem, we need to find a list of numbers $(s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n)$ that satisfy the above system of equation.
- list is ordered (also tuple)
set is unordered.

- such a list of numbers is termed as a solution to this system. $\text{Set of solutions} = \text{Solution set}$
- A solution may not exist for a system, or a system may have ∞ solutions.
- When the no. of independent variables $\overset{(n)}{\text{is}}$ large, it is difficult to systematically eliminate the system.

$$\begin{array}{l} \textcircled{1} \quad -2x_1 - x_2 = 5 \\ \textcircled{2} \quad x_1 + 4x_2 = 7 \end{array} \quad (n=2)$$

This system is easy to solve by elimination
and also easy to visualize as well

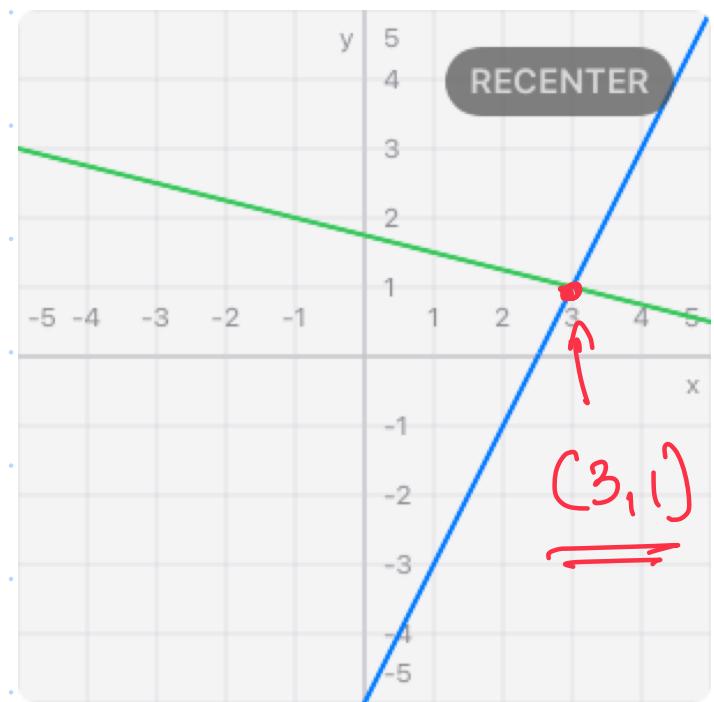
$$\begin{array}{rcl} \textcircled{1} \times 4 &=& 8x_1 - 4x_2 = 20 \\ && x_1 + 4x_2 = 7 \\ \hline && 9x_1 = 27 \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = 3$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 3 + 4x_2 &=& 7 \\ \Rightarrow x_2 &=& 1 \end{array}$$

$\therefore (3, 1)$ is a solution to the given system.

The system can also be represented geometrically and solved.



- Echelon form:

Assume a system of equations,

$$c_{11}x_1 + c_{12}x_2 + c_{13}x_3 + c_{14}x_4 = b_1$$

$$c_{22}x_2 + c_{23}x_3 + c_{24}x_4 = b_2$$

$$c_{33}x_3 + c_{34}x_4 = b_3$$

$$c_{44}x_4 = b_4$$

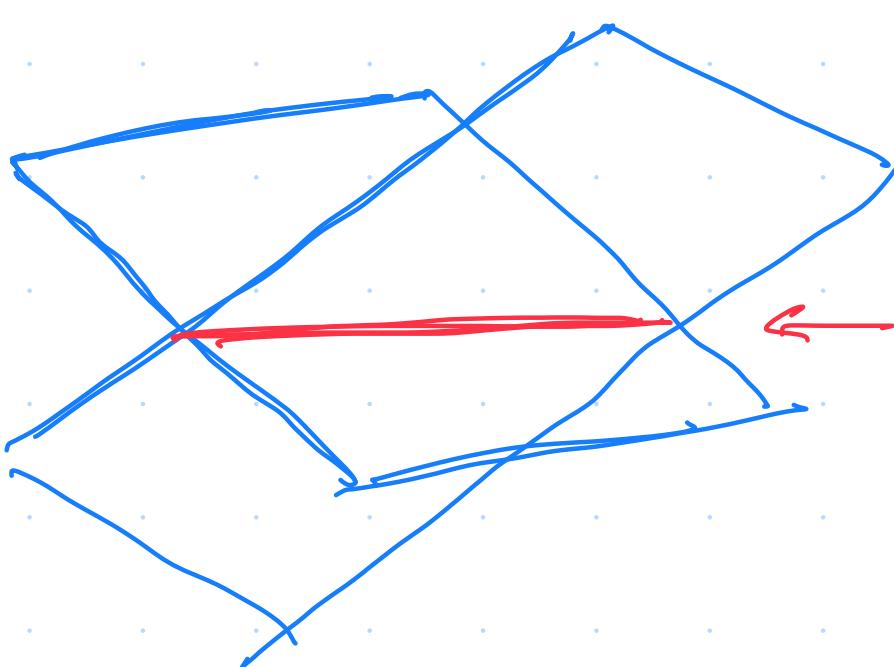
This system is said to be in Echelon form.

- A system in Echelon form can be solved easily using Gaussian Elimination.

- Condition for No solution :-

- In 2D, if the lines (equation) are in ||el, then
no solution for that system.

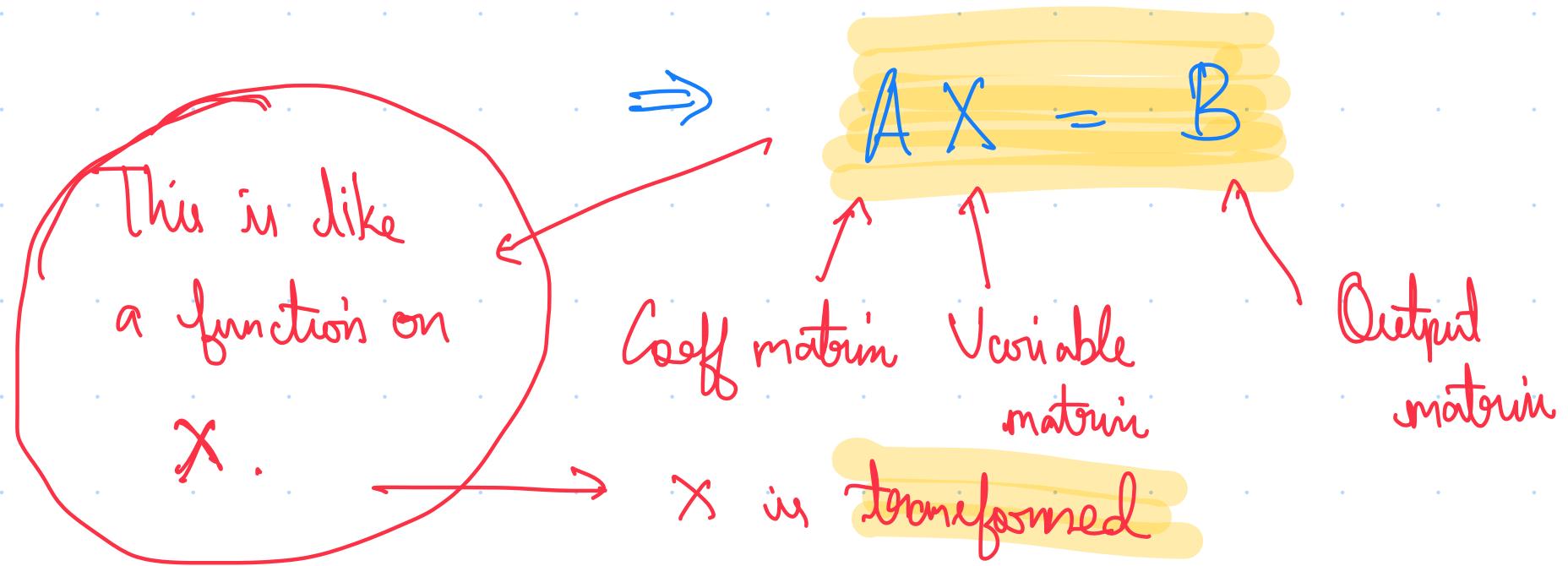
- For 2 equations in 3D, 3 infinite solutions for the system.



- o Representation of A System of Linear Equations in Matrices :-

- Take the system of equations first mentioned.
(n no. of eqns).
- That system can be represented in matrix form as,

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & & & \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$



- Also, take,

$$\bar{V}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \bar{V}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \dots \quad \bar{V}_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

The system can be represented as,

$$u_1 \cdot \bar{V}_1 + u_2 \cdot \bar{V}_2 + u_3 \cdot \bar{V}_3 + \dots + u_n \cdot \bar{V}_n = B$$

i.e., B is a linear combination of vectors

$$V_1, V_2, \dots, V_m$$

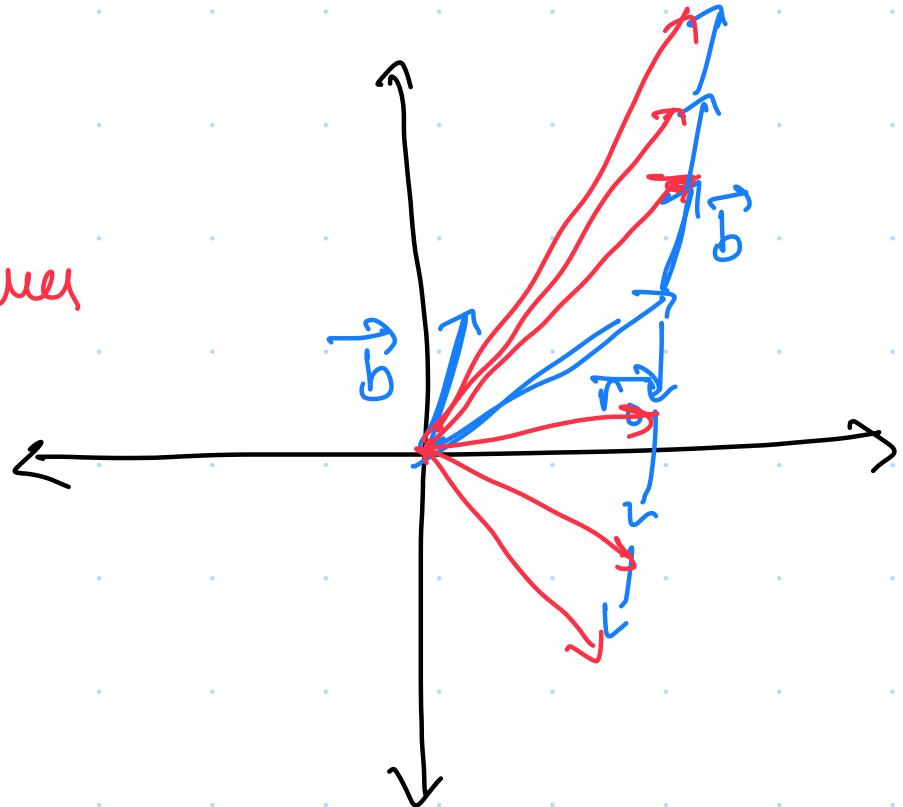
2) Finding the Parameters of a Linear Combination :-

- Given the vectors $\bar{V}_1, \bar{V}_2, \dots, \bar{V}_n$, is B a linear combination of these vectors?
- This combination of vectors is dealt with in a vector space.
- A vector need not always be a arrow with a length (Physics definition). Your vector space can be defined by any arbitrary axioms.

- Linear Combination of vectors in a vector space cannot reach higher dimensions.

Q. Take 2 vectors \vec{r}_0 and \vec{b} and let $\vec{r} = \vec{r}_0 + \lambda \vec{b}$, where λ is a parameter. How does the tip of \vec{r} behave?

The tip of \vec{r} behaves like a line.



→ Linear Map :-

- A map is a relation from one set to another.

$$f: A \rightarrow B$$

f is a map from A to B .

linearity

- If :

$$f(c_1x_1 + c_2x_2) = c_1 f(x_1) + c_2 f(x_2)$$

holds true

Then, the mapping is said to be a linear map.

- Linear maps keep the ratios intact, i.e., any ratio in the input space is retained in the output space.

i.e.,

$$a:b = f(a):f(b)$$

- Matrix multiplication is a linear operation.

$$A(\lambda_1 X_1 + \lambda_2 X_2) = \lambda_1 A X_1 + \lambda_2 A X_2$$

where λ_1, λ_2 are scalars. (i.e., plain numbers)

→ Vector Space:-

A set of objects where the following axioms hold.

- 1) Addition of 2 objects is valid, commutative, closed
$$\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 = \vec{v}_2 + \vec{v}_1$$

closed = vector + vector
= vector
- 2) Zero vector exists
- 3) Inverse vector exists
- 4) Scalar multiplication is valid, distributive, closed.
$$c(v_1 + v_2) = cv_1 + cv_2$$

$c = \text{scalar}$

- Set of Real Numbers (\mathbb{R}) is a vector space.
- Dimension:-
 - The minimum no. of vectors, whose set of all possible linear combinations fill the entire space.
 - The vectors taken need not be orthogonal always
 - 2 vectors that are not parallel or anti-parallel, can fill entire 2D space.
 - 3 vectors which are such that they all do not lie on the same plane, can cover the entire 3D space.

Thas

→ Linear Algebra:-

- Syllabus: Linear Equations, Vector Spaces, Linear Transformations,
- Textbook: Hoffman & Kunze (Linear Algebra)
Algebra by Artin, LA by Kumaresan, LA done right.

→ Field :- $(F, +, \cdot)$

A set of elements (scalars) that follow 2 binary operations, addition (+) and multiplication (\cdot).

The binary operations (+) and (\cdot) can be defined in any way, but they must follow the below properties :

1) Addition is commutative :

$$x+y = y+x \quad \forall x, y \in F$$

2) Addition is associative :

$$(x+y)+z = x+(y+z) \quad \forall x, y, z \in F$$

3) \exists an element 0 (zero) such that,

$$x+0 = x \quad \forall x \in F$$

0 is called the Additive identity of F .

4) $\forall x \in F \exists (-x) \in F$ such that,

$$x+(-x) = 0 \quad (-x) \text{ is the Additive Inverse of } x$$

5) Multiplication is commutative,

$$x \cdot y = y \cdot x \quad \forall x, y \in F$$

6) Multiplication is associative,

$$(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z) \quad \forall x, y, z \in F$$

7) \exists a non-zero element 1 (one) $\in F$, such that,

$$x \cdot 1 = x \quad \forall x \in F \quad 1 \text{ is the multiplicative identity of } F$$

8) $\forall n \in F$ st $n \neq 0$, $\exists n^{-1} \in F$ such that,

$$n \cdot n^{-1} = 1 \quad n^{-1} \text{ is the multiplicative inverse of } n.$$

9) Multiplication is distributive over addition,

$$n(y+z) = ny + nz \quad \forall n, y, z \in F$$

- Due to the above properties, the smallest field that can exist is $(\{0, 1\}, +, \cdot)$ where $+$, \cdot are defined as,

+	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

XOR binary op.

	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

AND binary op.

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→ System of Linear Equations :-

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A_{11}x_1 + A_{12}x_2 + \dots + A_{1n}x_n = y_1 \\ A_{21}x_1 + A_{22}x_2 + \dots + A_{2n}x_n = y_2 \\ \vdots \\ A_{m1}x_1 + A_{m2}x_2 + \dots + A_{mn}x_n = y_m \end{array} \right.$$

m.eqs

1.1

- The above equations have man. degree of 1.
- $A_{ij} \in \{F, +, \cdot\}$, to make the equations consistent.
- In a system of linear eqns, the unknown scalar must satisfy all the linear eqns.
- If $y_k = 0 \ \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ in the system, then the system is said to be homogeneous.

$$\begin{aligned} Q. \quad & 2x_1 - x_2 + x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow 2x_1 - x_2 + x_3 = 0 \\ & x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 = 0 \times 2 \Rightarrow 2x_1 + 6x_2 + 8x_3 = 0 \\ & \hline & -7x_2 - 7x_3 = 0 \\ & x_2 - 3x_3 + 4x_3 = 0 \\ & x_2 + x_3 = 0 \\ & x_2 = -x_3 \end{aligned}$$

Solution is of the form : $\underline{(-x_3, -x_3, x_3)}$

Clearly there are ∞ solns.

- Assume we multiply the equations each by a constant $c_1, c_2 \dots c_m$ and add all the eqns together, we get.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (c_1 A_{11} + c_2 A_{21} + \dots + c_m A_{m1}) n_1 + (c_1 A_{12} + c_2 A_{22} + \dots + c_m A_{m2}) n_2 \\
 & + \dots + (c_1 A_{1n} + c_2 A_{2n} + \dots + c_m A_{mn}) n_n \\
 & = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2 + c_3 y_3 + \dots + c_m y_m
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{1.2}$$

→ Linear Combination
of eqns.

- Any solution (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_n) that satisfies the system 1.1 will also satisfy the equation 1.2.
- But the inverse is not true, since the combination is also a linear equation with ∞ solutions.

Let,

$$c_1 A_{11} + c_2 A_{12} + \dots = B_1$$

$$c_1 A_{21} + c_2 A_{22} + \dots = B_2$$

by changing $c_1, c_2 \dots c_n$, we can get new B_{11}, B_{12}, B_{21} , etc.

By making that into another system,

$$B_{11} n_1 + B_{12} n_2 + \dots + B_{1n} n_n = z_1$$

$$B_{21} n_1 + B_{22} n_2 + \dots + B_{2n} n_n = z_2$$

⋮

$$B_{k1} n_1 + B_{k2} n_2 + \dots + B_{kn} n_n = z_k$$

This is a system of linear combination of system 1.1

- The solution to 1.1 will also be a solution to system 1.3.
But the solutions of 1.3 need not be a solution to 1.1.
- If 1.1 can be written as a system of linear combinations of system 1.3, then all the solutions of 1.3 are also solutions of 1.1, ie, the systems are **equivalent**.

Matrix Representation of Linear Systems :-

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & A_{m2} & \cdots & A_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}_{m \times 1}$$

Coefficient matrix

1.4

- The matrix equation 1.4 is a representation of the system 1.1.

Matrices :-

- A matrix is defined over a field.
 - It is a function or map from a pair of countable numbers to the scalars in a field.
- $M : (i, j) \rightarrow (f, +, \cdot), i, j \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$

Row Operations :-

Operations made on the rows of matrix A, such that the resulting matrix B is equivalent to A.

- There are 3 such elementary operations :
 - 1) Multiplying a row by a non-zero scalar
 - 2) Multiplying a row with a scalar and adding it to another row.
 - 3) Swapping 2 rows.
- If we assume our matrix is $A_{m \times n} = [A_{ij}]$, then the above can be defined in function notation as,

$$1) e(A_{ij}) = \begin{cases} c A_{ij} & i = r \\ A_{ij} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$r, s =$ rows
upon which the
operations are
performed.

$$2) e(A_{ij}) = \begin{cases} A_{ij} + c A_{sj} & i = r \\ A_{ij} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$3) e(A_{ij}) = \begin{cases} A_{sj} & i = s \\ A_{sj} & i = r \\ A_{ij} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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- Theorem: To each row operation e , \exists an elementary row operation e' such that $e'(e(A)) = e(e'(A)) = A$
- e' is the 'inverse' of e
- Let A, B be $2 m \times n$ matrices. A is said to be row equivalent to B , if by doing a finite number of row operation on A, B can be obtained, i.e.

$$B = e_k(\dots e_2(e_1(A)) \dots)$$

$$\Rightarrow A = e_1^!(e_2^!(e_3^!(\dots e_k^!(B)) \dots))$$

Thus, if A is row-equivalent to B , B is also row-equivalent to A .

Q. Prove that Row-Equivalence is an Equivalence relation.

- Theorem:

If A and B are row-equivalent matrices, the homogeneous system of linear eqns $AX=0$ and $BX=0$ have exactly the same solution.

• Elementary row operations will not change the solution of the system

$$\begin{aligned} A \cdot X &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow e(A) \cdot X &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow e_2(e(A)) \cdot X &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{Same solution of } X$$

$$Q. A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 6 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{1} \rightarrow -2 \textcircled{2}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -9 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 6 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\hspace{10em}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & -11/3 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 17/3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -5/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

B

B is a row-reduced matrix

- A $m \times n$ matrix is said to be row-reduced if
 - a) The first non-zero entry in each non-zero row is 1.
 - b) Each column which contains the leading non-zero element (1) all other entries are zero.

Identity matrix is row reduced.

- Theorem: Every $m \times n$ matrix over the field is row-equivalent to a row reduced matrix. (Q. Proof)

Row Reduced Echelon Matrices :-

A matrix $R_{m \times n}$ is said to be a row-reduced Echelon matrix if:

- a) R is row-reduced
- b) All the zero rows are below (after non-zero rows).
- c) If the rows $1, 2, \dots, r$ are non-zero rows of R and if the leading non-zero entry of row i occurs in column k_i , $i=1, 2, 3, \dots, r$ then $k_1 < k_2 < k_3 < \dots < k_r$. (Upper Δ matrix)

Either every entry in R is 0, or $\exists r \in \mathbb{N}$, $1 \leq r \leq m$, &

$k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r \in \mathbb{N}$ with $1 \leq k_i \leq n$ (Some definition in mathematical language.)

- a) $R_{ij} = 0 \quad \forall i > r$ c) $R_{ikj} = S_{ij} \quad 1 \leq i \leq r$
 b) $R_{ij} = 0 \quad \forall j < k_i$ d) $k_1 < k_2 < k_3 \dots < k_r$

S_{ij} is called conical delta matrix and is defined as,

$$S_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0, & i \neq j \\ 1, & i = j \end{cases} \quad (\text{Identity})$$

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- Theorem:-

Every $m \times n$ matrix A is row equivalent to a row reduced Echelon matrix.

- Every homogeneous system $AX = 0$ will have a trivial solution 0.
To see if there are any other solns,
- If the no. of non zero rows is r and the RREF of A is R, then each unknown variable x_{k_i} (where k_i is the column in which the i^{th} leading one occurs) will only appear in the i^{th} row.
- Since there are r k_i 's, there are r unknown dependent variables. $(n-r)$ variables will never have the leading 1 coefficient.

independent
of each other

$$\Rightarrow x_{k_1} + \sum_{j=1}^{n-r} c_{1j} v_j = 0$$

$$x_{k_2} + \sum_{j=1}^{n-r} c_{2j} v_j = 0$$

$$x_{k_r} + \sum_{j=1}^{n-r} c_{rj} v_j = 0$$

where v_j are the $(n-r)$ variables and c is any scalar.

independent

\hookrightarrow free variables

$$\text{Given: } R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -3 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} \quad RX = 0$$

There are 2 possible k_i 's, 2 & 4

z) x_2 and x_4 are dependent variables

x_1, x_3, x_5 are independent variables $\rightarrow 0$

$$x_2 + 0x_1 + (-3)x_3 + (1/2)x_5 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 + \sum C_{1j}v_j = 0$$

$$x_4 + 0x_1 + 0x_3 + 2x_5 = 0 \Rightarrow x_4 + \sum C_{2j}v_j = 0$$

x_2, x_4 are dependent on the other variables but are independent of each other.

- x_1, x_3, x_5 are free scalars. If the field has ∞ scalars, then there are ∞ solns to the equation.

Theorem :-

If $A_{m \times n}$ & $m < n$ then $AX=0$ always has a non-trivial solution (Assn: Proust)

Theorem :-

A square matrix $n \times n$, iff $AX=0$ has only trivial solns. (Assn: Proust) i.e. now equivalent to I

o Non Homogeneous Systems :-

$$A_{m \times n} X_{n \times 1} = Y_{m \times 1} \neq 0$$

- Since we cannot apply row transformations on only A , as Y will be affected, we apply the transformations together.

$$[A|Y]_{m \times (n+1)} = A'_{m \times (n+1)}$$

$$= [R|Z]_{m \times (n+1)}$$

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow RX = Z \text{ where } R \text{ is in RREF}$$

- If there are r non-zero entries, ($m - r$ zero entries), and if $z_i \neq 0$ for any $i > r$

then there will be no solutions. (Zero = non-zero condition).

ex:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

RHS.

$$R' = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 3/5 & \frac{1}{5}(y_1 + 2y_2) \\ 0 & 1 & -1/5 & \frac{1}{5}(y_2 - y_3) \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & y_3 - y_2 + 2y_1 \end{array} \right]$$

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→ Matrix Multiplication :-

$$C = A \times B$$

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{r=1}^n A_{ir} B_{rj}$$

- For 2 matrices A, B to be multiplicable,

no. of rows in A = no. of columns in B

o Theorem :-

A, B, C are matrices over field F s.t. BC and $A(BC)$ are well defined. Then, $AB, (AB)C$ are also defined and

$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$

Proof :

$$[A(BC)]_{ij} = \sum_{r=1}^n A_{ir} [BC]_{rj}$$

$$[BC]_{rj} = \sum_{s=1}^n B_{rs} C_{sj}$$

$$\Rightarrow [A(BC)]_{ij} = \sum_{r=1}^n \left[A_{ir} \left(\sum_{s=1}^n B_{rs} C_{sj} \right) \right] \quad \text{--- } ①$$

$$[(AB)C]_{ij} = \sum_{s'=1}^n [AB]_{is'} C_{s'j}$$

$$[AB]_{is'} = \sum_{s'=1}^n A_{is'} B_{s's'}$$

$$\Rightarrow [(AB)C]_{ij} = \sum_{s'=1}^n \left(\sum_{s'=1}^n A_{is'} B_{s's'} \right) C_{s'j} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Square Matrices :-

- Square matrices can be multiplied by itself.

$$A \times A = A^2$$

$$A^p A^q A^r = A^{p+q+r}$$

- A square matrix is said to be an elementary matrix if it is obtained by performing a single elementary row operation on the identity matrix.

For a 2×2 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix}, c \neq 0, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix}, c \neq 0 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

are elementary matrices

o Theorem :-

Let e be an elementary row operation & let E be an $m \times m$ elementary matrix, $E = e(\mathbb{I})$, then $\forall A_{m \times n}$:

$$e(A) = E \times A$$

(Proof is Assn)

o Theorem :

If B is row equivalent to A , then \exists a matrix P s.t.

$$B = PA, \text{ since }$$

$$\begin{aligned} B &= e_1(e_2(\dots(e_n(A))\dots)) \\ \Rightarrow B &= E_1 E_2 \dots E_n \cdot A \end{aligned}$$

o Invertible Matrices :-

Consider $n \times n$ matrix A .

- P is said to be left inverse of A if $PA = I$
- Q is said to be right inverse of A if $AQ = I$
- A matrix is said to be invertible if both left and right inverses of it exists.
- For a square matrix, if it is invertible, then its left and right matrices are the same.

$$PA = AQ = I \Rightarrow P = Q$$

$$PA = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow P(AQ) = 1 \cdot Q$$

$$\Rightarrow P(1) = Q$$

$$\Rightarrow P = Q$$

- Theorem :-

Let A, B be square matrices over a field F ,

1) If A is invertible, so is A^{-1} , and $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.

2) If both A and B are invertible, then $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

Proof:

$$1) A \cdot A^{-1} = 1$$

$$A^{-1} \cdot B = 1 \Rightarrow B = (A^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$A \cdot A^{-1} \cdot B = A$$

$$\therefore B = A$$

$$\Rightarrow (A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

$$2) X \cdot AB = 1$$

$$A \cdot A^{-1} = 1 \quad \& \quad B \cdot B^{-1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow X \cdot A \cdot B \cdot B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1} = 1 \cdot B^{-1} \cdot A^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

- Theorem:

All elementary matrices are invertible.

Proof:

$$E = e(\mathbb{I})$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{I} = e^{-1}(E)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{I} = E^{-1} \times E$$

- Theorem: Consider a square matrix $A_{m \times m}$, the following

statements are equivalent

(Assn : Proof)

- 1) A is invertible
- 2) $AX = 0$ has only trivial solution
- 3) $AX = Y$ has a solution for each $Y_{m \times 1}$

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- Since w.k.t A having trivial solns $\Rightarrow A$ is row equivalent to \mathbb{I} , using above theorem, we can state that,

Invertible Matrices are row equivalent to \mathbb{I} .

→ Vector Space :- (V)

A vector space (linear space) consists of

- a) A field F of scalars
- b) A set of objects (vectors)

- c) A rule called Addition which associates a vector w/ a pair of vectors such that,

- 1) Addition is commutative

$$\bar{\alpha} + \bar{\beta} = \bar{\beta} + \bar{\alpha} \quad \forall \bar{\alpha}, \bar{\beta} \in V$$

- 2) Addition is closed,

$$\bar{\alpha} + \bar{\beta} \in V \quad \forall \bar{\alpha}, \bar{\beta} \in V$$

- 3) Addition is associative,

$$(\bar{\alpha} + \bar{\beta}) + \bar{\gamma} = \bar{\alpha} + (\bar{\beta} + \bar{\gamma})$$

- 4) ∃ a unique vector called zero $\in V$, s.t

$$\bar{\alpha} + 0 = \bar{\alpha} \quad \forall \bar{\alpha} \in V$$

- 5) For each $\bar{\alpha} \in V$, ∃ a unique vector $-\bar{\alpha} \in V$ s.t

$$\bar{\alpha} + (-\bar{\alpha}) = 0$$

- 6) A rule called scalar multiplication that associates a vector to a pair of a scalar and vector, such that

$$\forall c \in F, \bar{\alpha} \in V, c \cdot \bar{\alpha} \in V \text{ s.t}$$

- 1) $1 \cdot \bar{\alpha} = \bar{\alpha}$

A vector space V
is defined over a field
F. The elements of
a vector space are
vectors,

$$2) c_1(c_2(\bar{\alpha})) = c_2(c_1(\bar{\alpha}))$$

$$3) c(\bar{\alpha} + \bar{\beta}) = c\bar{\alpha} + c\bar{\beta} \quad \text{linearity}$$

$$4) (c_1 + c_2)\bar{\alpha} = c_1\bar{\alpha} + c_2\bar{\alpha}$$

$$\circ c \cdot \bar{0} = c(\bar{0} + \bar{0})$$

$$\Rightarrow c \cdot \bar{0} = c \cdot \bar{0} + c \cdot \bar{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow c \cdot \bar{0} = \bar{0}$$

$$\circ c \cdot \bar{\alpha} = \bar{0} \Rightarrow c=0 \text{ or } \bar{\alpha} = \bar{0}$$

A vector $\bar{\alpha} \in V$ is said to be a linear combination of $\bar{\beta}_1, \bar{\beta}_2, \dots, \bar{\beta}_n \in V$ if $\bar{\alpha} = c_1\bar{\beta}_1 + c_2\bar{\beta}_2 + \dots + c_n\bar{\beta}_n$, for some, $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n \in F$.

