## Math 309, Section 2

SOLUTION TO SUPPLEMENTAL PROBLEM 4. First, row reduce:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 9 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3}R_1 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2}R_2 \end{pmatrix} quad \approx \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
(0.1)

For each step, write down the corresponding elementary matrix and its inverse:

$$R_{2} - 3R_{1} \qquad E_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad E_{1}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \frac{1}{2}R_{2} \qquad E_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \qquad E_{3}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\frac{1}{3}R_{1} \qquad E_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad E_{2}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad R_{1} - \frac{1}{3}R_{2} \qquad E_{4} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad E_{4}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then, reading (0.1) starting from the A side, gives

$$E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I$$

Multiply both sides by  $A^{-1}$  to get  $A^{-1} = E_4 E_3 E_2 E_1$ . Similar, reading (0.1) backwards (so the row operations are given by the inverse matrices, one sees that

$$E_1^{-1}E_2^{-1}E_3^{-1}E_4^{-1}I = A.$$

These last two formula express A and  $A^{-1}$  as products of elementary matrices.

## Definition of a vector space

A vector space is a set V (whose elements are called vectors) endowed with

- a rule for addition that associates to each pair  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  an element  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in V$ , and
- a rule for scalar multiplication that associates to each  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  an element  $r\mathbf{x} \in V$ , such that, for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

A1. $x + y = y + x$	A5. $\alpha(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \alpha \mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{y}$
<b>A2.</b> $(x + y) + z = y + (x + z)$	A6. $(\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{x}$
<b>A3.</b> $\exists$ a vector $0 \in V$ s.t. $\mathbf{x} + 0 = \mathbf{x}$	<b>A7.</b> $\alpha(\beta \mathbf{x}) = (\alpha \beta) \mathbf{x}$
<b>A4.</b> For each $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , $\exists$ an "opposite vector" $-\mathbf{x} \in V$ s.t. $\mathbf{x} + (-\mathbf{x}) = 0$	A8. $1 \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$ .

Notes (a) These axioms implicitly assume that the properties of the real numbers, of sets, and of the symbol = (e.g. adding the same thing to both sides preserves equality) are known and will be used freely. Thus in proofs you will have occasion to use the abbreviations

 $\mathbb{R}$  Prop. Set Prop. = Prop.

for "property of the real numbers", "property of sets" and "property of equality".

(b) When checking if a given set is a vector space, the two bulleted requirements are the most important.

From the axioms, one can derive numerous simple consequences that are useful in calculations. Each is proved from the axioms *and from previously proved facts*. Once a fact is proved, it gets added to our basket of "known facts" and can be used from then on.