

A set is a collection of objects, each 148 of which is called an element of the set.

If S is a set, then we use the notation " $x \in S$ " to mean "x is an element of set S ". If S is a set and T is also a set there are several possible relationships between S and T .

① " S is a subset of T " means all elements of S are also elements in T , so $\forall x \in S, x \in T$.

We write " $S \subseteq T$ ", and it also means the implication $(x \in S) \Rightarrow (x \in T)$ is true.

Ex: $\{x \in F^n | AX = B\} \subseteq F^n$

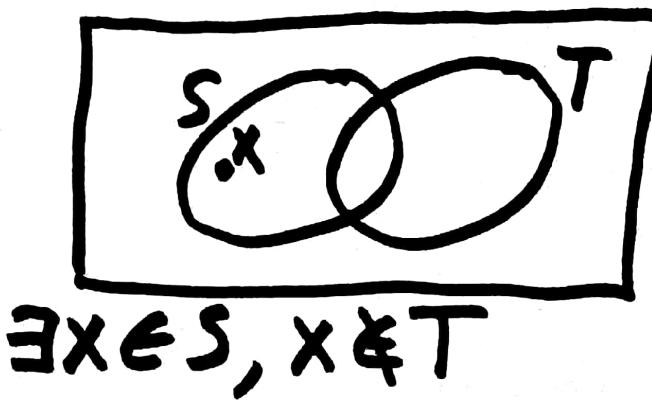
Def. The "empty set" = " \emptyset " is the set 149 with no elements, so $x \in \emptyset$ is false for any choice of x . Note: $\emptyset \subseteq S$ is true for any set S because "if $x \in \emptyset$ then $x \in S$ " is true since $x \in \emptyset$ is false for any x .

Notation: " $x \notin S$ " means "not($x \in S$)".

not($S \subseteq T$) means not($x \in S \Rightarrow x \in T$) which is true when $(x \in S \Rightarrow x \in T)$ is false, that is, when $x \in S$ and $x \notin T$ for some x .

Recall "Venn diagrams":

They help to visualize set relationships.



In basic logic there are some statements [50] which are always true for any choices of truth value of the "variables". These are called "tautologies"

$$\underline{\text{Ex:}} \quad (P \Rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (\text{not}(Q) \Rightarrow \text{not}(P))$$

Pf. Use tables of truth values:

| P | Q | $P \Rightarrow Q$ | $\text{not}(Q)$ | $\text{not}(P)$ | $\text{not}(Q) \Rightarrow \text{not}(P)$ |
|---|---|-------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---|
| T | T | T | F | F | T |
| T | F | F | T | F | F |
| F | T | T | F | T | T |
| F | F | T | T | T | T |

$\underline{\text{Ex:}}$
 $\text{not}(\text{not}P) \Leftrightarrow P$

↑
same values
↑

Say $\text{not}(Q) \Rightarrow \text{not}(P)$ is the contrapositive of $P \Rightarrow Q$.

Say $Q \Rightarrow P$ is the converse of $P \Rightarrow Q$. [5]
 But $P \Rightarrow Q$ is not equivalent to $Q \Rightarrow P$,
 that is, $(P \Rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P)$ is FALSE.

Tables:

| P | Q | $P \Rightarrow Q$ | $Q \Rightarrow P$ |
|-----|-----|-------------------|-------------------|
| T | T | T | T |
| T | F | F | T |
| F | T | T | F |
| F | F | T | T |

\nwarrow not

NOTE: always same
 The most common logic error made by students
 is to confuse implication $P \Rightarrow Q$ with its
 converse $Q \Rightarrow P$. Watch out for this error!

In set theory we often use these constructions of new sets from given sets. [52]

Intersection: $S \cap T = \{x \mid x \in S \text{ and } x \in T\}$

Union: $S \cup T = \{x \mid x \in S \text{ or } x \in T\}$

Complement (difference):

$S \setminus T = \{x \in S \mid x \notin T\}$

Basic set notation: $\{x \in S \mid P(x)\}$ where $P(x)$ is an assertion about x , a condition required of x for membership in the set but only $x \in S$ are considered.

Final comments on quantifiers: [53]
When more than one quantifier occurs in an expression, some care about their order must be taken. Let $P(x, y)$ be an assertion about elements x and y .

$(\forall x \in S, \forall y \in T, P(x, y)) \Leftrightarrow (\forall y \in T, \forall x \in S, P(x, y))$
since they both mean $P(x, y)$ is true for all choices of elements $x \in S, y \in T$.

$\forall x \in S, \exists y \in T, P(x, y)$ means for any choice of $x \in S$ there is some $y \in T$, which may depend on x , such that $P(x, y)$ is true.

Ex: $\forall x \in R, \exists y \in R, x + y = 0$ is true since $y = -x$ in R works.

But the quantified statement

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$\exists y \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x+y=0$ is false since it says there is a $y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfy $x+y=0$. No real number y is the additive inverse of all real numbers x .

So generally you cannot change the order of \forall & \exists (or \forall to \exists) without changing the meaning and truth of the expression.

There is no problem with
 $(\exists x \in S, \exists y \in T, P(x, y)) \Leftrightarrow (\exists y \in T, \exists x \in S, P(x, y))$
since they say the same thing.

Back to linear algebra.

[55]

Recall the definition of a linear map

$L: F^n \rightarrow F^m$ requires that $\forall x, y \in F^n \forall \alpha \in F$,

$$\textcircled{1} L(x+y) = L(x) + L(y), \textcircled{2} L(\alpha \cdot x) = \alpha \cdot L(x).$$

For such a lin. map L , can we always find a matrix $A = [a_{ij}] \in F_n^m$ such that $\forall x \in F^n$ $L(x) = L_A(x) = Ax$?

Let's try!

Step $\textcircled{1}$: Write $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \cdots + x_n \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

where $S = \{e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, e_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, e_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\}$ is a very special list in F^n .

We call this list S the "standard basis [56 of F^n]" So we have $X = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \cdot e_j$ for short.

Step ②: Use rule ① of linearity for L to get

$$\begin{aligned} L(X) &= L(X_1 e_1 + \dots + X_n e_n) = L(X_1 e_1) + L(X_2 e_2 + \dots + X_n e_n) \\ &= L(X_1 e_1) + L(X_2 e_2) + L(X_3 e_3 + \dots + X_n e_n) = \dots \\ &= L(X_1 e_1) + L(X_2 e_2) + \dots + L(X_n e_n) = \sum_{j=1}^n L(X_j e_j) \end{aligned}$$

Use rule ② of lin. of L to get

$$L(X) = X_1 L(e_1) + X_2 L(e_2) + \dots + X_n L(e_n) = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j L(e_j).$$

Step ③: For each $1 \leq j \leq n$ let $\begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{and let } A = [a_{ij}] \in F_n^m. \quad L(e_j) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{bmatrix} \in F^m$$

We have thus used L to get a matrix $A \in F_n^m$ such that $\text{Col}_j(A) = L(e_j)$ and so $L(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \text{Col}_j(A) = AX = L_A(x)$. (see p.10)

Th. If $L: F^n \rightarrow F^m$ is a lin. map then $L = L_A$ for the matrix $A \in F_n^m$ uniquely determined by L such that $\text{Col}_j(A) = L(e_j)$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$.

Ex: $L: F^3 \rightarrow F^2$ defined by $L \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 \\ 2x_1 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

since $L(e_1) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $L(e_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $L(e_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Th. Let $L = L_A : F^n \rightarrow F^m$ for $A \in F_n^m$. [58]

L is injective iff $\ker(L) = \{0^n\}$.

Pf. As an "iff" there are two parts to the proof, " \Rightarrow " and " \Leftarrow ".

First suppose L is injective. Try to prove that $\ker(L) = \{0^n\}$ to get " \Rightarrow " part.

L inj. means $\forall x, y \in F^n, L(x) = L(y) \Rightarrow x = y$.

From p. 12, $L(0^n) = A0^n = 0^m$ so $0^n \in \ker(L)$

is true for any linear map L .

If $x \in \ker(L)$ then $L(x) = 0^m = L(0^n)$ so inj.
of L gives $x = 0^n$ which means $\ker(L) = \{0^n\}$.

Second, suppose $\ker(L) = \{0^n\}$. Try to show L inj.

To show L inj. we must prove the "impis" [59] statement: "Suppose $X, Y \in F$ " and $L(X) = L(Y)$. Show that $X = Y$. From $L(X) = L(Y)$ we know $L(X) - L(Y) = O_1^m$ (using basic algebra rules for matrices), so $L(X) + (-1)L(Y) = O_1^m$ (def. of $-$) $= L(X) + L(-Y) = L(X - Y)$ (by lin. of L). Thus $L(X - Y) = O_1^m$, which means $X - Y \in \text{Ker}(L) = \{O_1^m\}$ so $X - Y = O_1^m$ giving $X = Y$. \square (end of proof)

This means that to check when L is inj. we solve $L(X) = O_1^m$. L is inj. exactly when the only solution is $X = O_1^m$. For $L = L_A$ it means $[A | O_1^m] \xrightarrow{\text{r.r.}} [C | O_1^m]$ with $\text{rank}(C) = n$.

Th. $L_A: F^n \rightarrow F^m$, for $A \in F_n^m$, is inj. iff 60

$$\text{rank}(A) = n.$$

Th. $L_A: F^n \rightarrow F^m$, for $A \in F_n^m$, is surj. iff
 $\text{rank}(A) = m.$

Pf. L_A is surj. iff $\text{Range}(L_A) = F^m$

iff $\{B \in F^m \mid AX = B \text{ is consistent}\} = F^m$

iff $AX = B$ is consistent for all $B \in F^m$

iff $[A|B] \xrightarrow{\text{R.R.E.F}} [C|D]$ and $\text{rank}(C) = m$
(no zero rows in C). □

So $\text{rank}(A)$ tells us whether or not L_A is surj., inj., bijective, invertible.

Examples: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \in F_4^3$ so $L_A : F^4 \rightarrow F^3 \boxed{61}$

$A \xrightarrow{\text{row}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ in RREF has rank $r=1$ so
 L_A is not inj since $r=1 < 4=n$
 and $\text{Ker}(L_A) = \{X \in F^4 \mid AX=0\}$ has $n-r=4-1=3$

free var's

Also $AX=B$ is not always consistent,

$$[A|B] \xrightarrow{\text{r.e.}} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & b_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & b_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & b_3 \end{array} \right] D = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 - 2b_1 \\ b_3 - 3b_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} 0 = b_2 - 2b_1 \\ 0 = b_3 - 3b_1 \end{array}$$

L_A is not surj. since $b_2 = 2b_1$
 $b_3 = 3b_1$

$$r=1 < 3=m.$$

$$\text{Range}(L_A) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ 2b_1 \\ 3b_1 \end{bmatrix} \in F^3 \middle| b_1 \in F \text{ free} \right\}$$