

Vector space

In the following lectures we study the vector space, subspace, study the linear Independence, basis and the rank of a matrix.

Definition :

A real vector space is a set V of elements with two operations \oplus and \odot defined with the following properties.

(a) If X and Y are any elements in V . then $X \oplus Y$ is in V (that is closed under the operation \oplus).

1- $X \oplus Y = Y \oplus X$ for all X, Y in V .

2- $X \oplus (Y \oplus Z) = (X \oplus Y) \oplus Z$ for all X, Y, Z in V

3- There is a unique element 0 in V such that $X \oplus 0 = 0 \oplus X = X$ for every X in V .

4- For each X in V there exists a unique $-X$ in V such that $X \oplus -X = 0$

(b) If X is any element in V and c is any real number then $c \odot X$ is in V .

5- $c \odot (X \oplus Y) = c \odot X \oplus c \odot Y$ for any X, Y in V , and any real number c .

6- $(c+d) \odot X = c \odot X \oplus d \odot X$ for any X in V and any real numbers c and d .

7- $c \odot (d \odot X) = (cd) \odot X$ for any X in V and real numbers c and d .

$8-1 \oplus X = X$ for any X in v .

(V, \oplus, \odot) is vector space. The operation \oplus is called vector addition.

The operation \odot is called scalar multiplication.

The vector 0 is called Zero vector.

Example 1:

Let R^n be the set of ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) where we define

$$\oplus \text{ by } (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \oplus (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$$

$$= (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n) \text{ and } \odot \text{ by } c \odot (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$$

$$= (ca_1, ca_2, \dots, ca_n)$$

R^n is a vector space.

Example 2:

Let V be the set of ordered triples of real number $(a_1, a_2, 0)$ where we

$$\text{define } \oplus \text{ by } (a_1, a_2, 0) \oplus (b_1, b_2, 0)$$

$$= (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, 0) \text{ and } \odot \text{ by } c \odot (a_1, a_2, 0) = (ca_1, ca_2, 0)$$

V is a vector space.

Example 3:

Let V be the set of ordered triples of real number (x, y, z) where we define

$$\oplus \text{ by } (x, y, z) \oplus (x', y', z')$$

$$= (x+x', y+y', z+z') \text{ and } \odot \text{ by } c \odot (x, y, z) = (cx, y, z)$$

V is not vector space the property $(c+d) \odot X = c \odot X \oplus d \odot X$ fails to hold

$$\text{thus } (c+d) \odot (x, y, z) = ((c+d)x, y, z),$$

$$\text{On other hand } c \odot (x, y, z) \oplus d \odot (x, y, z) = (cx, y, z) \oplus (dx, y, z)$$

$$= (cx+dx, y+y, z+z) = ((c+d)x, 2y, 2z).$$

Example 3:

Let V be the set of 2×3 matrices under usual operation of matrix addition and scalar multiplication

V is vector space c.h.

Example 4:

Let V be the set of all real-valued function on \mathbb{R} . if f and g are in V we define $f \oplus g$ by $(f \oplus g)(t) = f(t) \oplus g(t)$ and if f and c is a scalar define $c \odot f$ by $c \odot f = c f(t)$.

V is vector space c.h.

Example 5:

Let p_n be the set of all real polynomials of degree $\leq n$ with zero polynomial. if $p(t) = a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n$ and

$q(t) = b_0 t^n + b_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + b_{n-1} t + b_n$ are in V we define $p(t) \oplus q(t)$ by $p(t) \oplus q(t) = (a_0 + b_0)t^n + (a_1 + b_1)t^{n-1} + \dots + (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})t + (a_n + b_n)$ and

if c is a scalar define $c \odot p(t)$ by

$$c \odot p(t) = (ca_0)t^n + (ca_1)t^{n-1} + \dots + ca_{n-1}t + ca_n$$

the above definition show that the degree of $p(t) \oplus q(t)$ and $c \odot p(t) \leq n$

$-p(t) = -a_0 t^n - a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots - a_{n-1} t - a_n$ is negative of $p(t)$ and since $a_i + b_i = b_i + a_i$ then $p(t) \oplus q(t) = q(t) \oplus p(t)$

And

$$\begin{aligned} (c+d) \odot p(t) &= (c+d)a_0 t^n + (c+d)a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + (c+d)a_{n-1} t + (c+d)a_n \\ &= c(a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n) + d(a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n) \\ &= c \odot p(t) \oplus d \odot p(t) \end{aligned}$$

V is vector space c.h.

Theorem :

If V is a vector space then .

- 1- $0 \odot X = 0$ for any vector X in V
- 2- $c \odot 0 = 0$ for any scalar c
- 3- If $c \odot X = 0$ then either $c = 0$ or $X = 0$
- 4- $(-1) \odot X = -X$ for any X in V .

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} 1) \quad 0X &= (0+0)X = 0X + 0X \text{ by (6) of def. adding } -0X \\ 0 &= 0X + (-0X) = (0X + 0X) + (-0X) \\ &= 0X + [0X + (-0X)] \end{aligned}$$

Example 4:

Let V be the set of all real-valued function on \mathbb{R} . if f and g are in V we define $f \oplus g$ by $(f \oplus g)(t) = f(t) \oplus g(t)$ and if f and c is a scalar define $c \odot f$ by $c \odot f = c f(t)$.
 V is vector space c.h.

Example 5:

Let p_n be the set of all real polynomials of degree $\leq n$ with zero polynomial. if $p(t) = a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n$ and $q(t) = b_0 t^n + b_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + b_{n-1} t + b_n$ are in V we define $p(t) \oplus q(t)$ by $p(t) \oplus q(t) = (a_0 + b_0)t^n + (a_1 + b_1)t^{n-1} + \dots + (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})t + (a_n + b_n)$ and if c is a scalar define $c \odot p(t)$ by $c \odot p(t) = (ca_0)t^n + (ca_1)t^{n-1} + \dots + ca_{n-1}t + ca_n$
 the above definition show that the degree of $p(t) \oplus q(t)$ and $c \odot p(t) \leq n$

$-p(t) = -a_0 t^n - a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots - a_{n-1} t - a_n$ is negative of $p(t)$ and since $a_i + b_i = b_i + a_i$ then $p(t) \oplus q(t) = q(t) + p(t)$

And

$$\begin{aligned} (c+d) \odot p(t) &= (c+d)a_0 t^n + (c+d)a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + (c+d)a_{n-1} t + (c+d)a_n \\ &= c(a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n) + d(a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n) \\ &= c \odot p(t) \oplus d \odot p(t) \end{aligned}$$

V is vector space c.h.

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If V is a vector space then .

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Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} 1) 0X &= (0+0)X = 0X + 0X \text{ by (6) of def. adding } -0X \\ 0 &= 0X + (-0X) = (0X + 0X) + (-0X) \\ &= 0X + [0X + (-0X)] \end{aligned}$$

$$=0X+0=0X.$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2) c.0 &= c.(0+0) = c.0+c.0 \\ c.0-c.0 &= c.0+c.0 -c.0 \\ 0 &=c.0 \end{aligned}$$

3) suppose $cX=0$ and $c \neq 0$ then

$$0 = \left(\frac{1}{c}\right).0 = \left(\frac{1}{c}\right)(cX) = \left[\left(\frac{1}{c}\right)c\right] X = 1.X$$

$$4) (-1)X + X = (-1)X + (1)X = (-1+1)X = 0X = 0 \text{ so that } (-1)X = -X$$

Definition :

Let V be a vector space and W a nonempty subset of V if W is a vector space with respect to the same operations as these in V , then W is called a **subspace** of V .

Example : If (V, \oplus, \odot) is vector space then $\{0\} \subseteq V, V \subseteq V$ are two subspaces.

Example :

Let W be the set of ordered triples of real number $(a_1, a_2, 0)$ where we define \oplus by $(a_1, a_2, 0) \oplus (b_1, b_2, 0)$

$$= (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, 0) \text{ and } \odot \text{ by } c \odot (a_1, a_2, 0) = (ca_1, ca_2, 0)$$

Then (W, \oplus, \odot) is subspace of (R^3, \oplus, \odot) .

Theorem:

Let (V, \oplus, \odot) be a vector space and let W be a nonempty subset of V . W is a subspace of V if and only if the following condition hold

1- If X, Y are any vectors in W then $X \oplus Y$ is in W

2- If c is any real number and X is any vector in W then $c \odot X$ is in W .

Example:

Let W be the set of all 2×3 matrices of form

$$W = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b & 0 \\ 0 & c & d \end{bmatrix}, a, b, c, d \in R \right\}, W \text{ is subset of vector space } V \text{ of all}$$

2×3 matrices under usual operations of matrices addition and scalar multiplication then W is subspace of V .

Solution :

$$\text{Consider } X = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & 0 \\ 0 & c_1 & d_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } Y = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & b_2 & 0 \\ 0 & c_2 & d_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ in } W \text{ then}$$

$$X+Y = \begin{bmatrix} a_1+a_2 & b_1+b_2 & 0 \\ 0 & c_1+c_2 & d_1+d_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is in } W \text{ also let } r \in R$$

$$rX = \begin{bmatrix} ra_1 & rb_1 & 0 \\ 0 & rc_1 & rd_1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is in } W, W \text{ is subspace of } V.$$

Example:

Let W be the sub set of (R^3, \oplus, \odot) .

W is ordered triples of real number $(a, b, 1)$,

let $X = (a_1, a_2, 1), Y = (b_1, b_2, 1)$

$X+Y = (a_1+b_1, a_2+b_2, 2)$ Then W is not subspace of (R^3, \oplus, \odot) :

Example 5:

Let W be the set of all real polynomials of degree exactly=2

W is subset of p_2 but not subspace of p_2 since

$2t^2+3t+1$ and $-2t^2+t+2$ is polynomial of degree 1 is not in W .

Exercises:

- 1- Let $W = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \end{bmatrix}, a = 2c + 1 \right\}$ W is subset of vector space V of all 2×3 matrices under usual operations of matrices addition and scalar multiplication is W is subspace of V .
- 2- Let $W = \{(a, b, c), b = 2a + 1\}$ subset of vector space R^3 is W is subspace?

Definition(1 - 7)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be vectors in a vectors space V . A vector X in V is called linear combination of this vectors if it can written as $X = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + \dots + c_n X_n$ for some real number where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are scalars.

Example: Consider the vector space R^4 . let $X_1 = (1, 2, 1, -1)$, $X_2 = (1, 0, 2, -3)$, $X_3 = (1, 1, 0, -2)$ the vector $X = (2, 1, 5, -5)$ is linear combination of X_1, X_2, X_3 if we find c_1, c_2, c_3 s.t..

$$X = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + c_3 X_3$$

$$(2, 1, 5, -5) = c_1(1, 2, 1, -1) + c_2(1, 0, 2, -3) + c_3(1, 1, 0, -2)$$

$$(2, 1, 5, -5) = (c_1, 2c_1, c_1, -c_1) + (c_2, 0, 2c_2, -3c_2) + (c_3, c_3, 0, -2c_3)$$

$$c_1 + c_2 + c_3 = 2$$

$$2c_1 + c_3 = 1$$

$$c_1 + 2c_2 = 5$$

$$-c_1 - 3c_2 - 2c_3 = -5$$

solving this linear system by Gauss-Jordan we obtain $c_1=1, c_2=2, c_3=-1$
then X is linear combination of X_1, X_2, X_3

Example: Consider the vector space \mathbb{R}^3 . let $X_1=(1, 2, -1)$, $X_2=(1, 0, -1)$, is the vector $X=(1, 0, 2)$ is linear combination of X_1, X_2
if we find c_1, c_2 s.t..

$$X = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2$$

$$(1, 0, 2) = c_1(1, 2, -1) + c_2(1, 0, -1)$$

$$c_1 + c_2 = 1$$

$$2c_1 = 0$$

$$-c_1 - 2c_2 = 2$$

Which has no solution then X is not linear combination of X_1, X_2 .

Example: Consider the vector space \mathbb{R}^3 . let $X_1=(1, 0, 1)$, $X_2=(-1, 1, 0)$, $X_3=(0, 0, 1)$ is the vector $X=(1, 1, 1)$ is linear combination of X_1, X_2, X_3 if we find c_1, c_2, c_3 s.t..

$$X = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + c_3 X_3$$

$$(1, 1, 1) = c_1(1, 0, 1) + c_2(-1, 1, 0) + c_3(0, 0, 1)$$

$$c_1 - c_2 = 1$$

$$c_2 = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 + c_2 &= a \\ 2c_1 &= b \\ c_1 + 2c_2 &= c \end{aligned}$$

we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & : & a \\ 2 & 0 & : & b \\ 1 & 2 & : & c \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & : & 2a - c \\ 0 & 1 & : & c - a \\ 0 & 0 & : & b - 4a + 2c \end{bmatrix}$$

If $b - 4a + 2c \neq 0$ then there is no solution to this system hence S does not span P_2 .

Linear independence

Definition : Let $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ be the set of vectors in a vectors space V . then S is said to be linearly dependent if there exist constants c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n not all zero, such that

$$c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + \dots + c_n X_n = 0, \text{ other wise } S \text{ is called linearly independent}$$

That is S is linearly independent if the equation

$$c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + \dots + c_n X_n = 0 \text{ hold only if } c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_n = 0 :$$

Example: Consider the vector space R^4 . let $X_1 = (1, 0, 1, 2)$, $X_2 = (0, 1, 1, 2)$, $X_3 = (1, 1, 1, 3)$ is $S = \{X_1, X_2, X_3\}$ is linearly independent
S01;

Let $c_1X_1+c_2X_2+c_3X_3=0$ where $c_1, c_2, c_3 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$c_1(1,0,1,2) + c_2(0,1,1,2) + c_3(1,1,1,3) = (0,0,0,0)$$

$$(c_1, 0, c_1, 2c_1) + (0, c_2, c_2, 2c_2) + (c_3, c_3, c_3, 3c_3) = (0,0,0,0)$$

$$c_1 + c_3 = 0$$

$$c_2 + c_3 = 0$$

$$c_1 + c_2 + c_3 = 0$$

$$2c_1 + 2c_2 + 3c_3 = 0$$

we obtain $c_1=0, c_2=0, c_3=0$ then S is linearly independent.

Example :

Let V be the vector space \mathbb{R}^3 . let $S = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4\}$ set of vectors where $X_1=(1,2,-1), X_2=(1,-2,1), X_3=(-3,2,-1), X_4=(2,0,0)$ is the set S linearly independent ?

SOL.:

Let $c_1X_1+c_2X_2+c_3X_3+c_4X_4=0$

$$c_1(1,2,-1) + c_2(1,-2,1) + c_3(-3,2,-1) + c_4(2,0,0) = 0$$

$$c_1 + c_2 - 3c_3 + 2c_4 = 0$$

$$2c_1 - 2c_2 + 2c_3 = 0$$

$$-c_1 + c_2 - c_3 = 0$$

There are infinitely many solution like $c_1=1, c_2=2, c_3=1, c_4=0$, then S is linearly dependent.

Example :

Let V be the vector space \mathbb{R}^3 . $S = \{i, j, k\}$ is linearly independent.

Since

$$(0,0,0) = (c_1, 0, 0) + (0, c_2, 0) + (0, 0, c_3)$$

Then $c_1=0, c_2=0, c_3=0$

In fact E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n are linearly independent in \mathbb{R}^n .

Basis and Dimension

Definition:

A set of vectors $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ in a vector space V is called a basis for V if S spans V and S is linearly independent.

Example :

In \mathbb{R}^n the unit vector are

$$E_1=(1,0,0,\dots,0), E_2=(0,1,0,\dots,0), \dots, E_n=(0,0,\dots, 1)$$

Form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n

Example; Let V be the vector space \mathbb{R}^4 . let $S = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4\}$ set of vectors where

$X_1 = (1,0,1,0)$, $X_2 = (0,1,-1,2)$, $X_3 = (0,2,2,1)$, $X_4 = (1,0,0,1)$ is the set S basis for V ?

SOL.:

Let
$$c_1X_1 + c_2X_2 + c_3X_3 + c_4X_4 = 0$$

$$c_1 + c_4 = 0$$

$$c_2 + 2c_3 = 0$$

$$c_1 - c_2 + 2c_3 = 0$$

$$2c_2 + c_3 + c_4 = 0$$

Only solution $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = c_4 = 0$

, then S is linearly independent. to show S spans \mathbb{R}^4 let $X = (a,b,c,d)$ be

any vector in \mathbb{R}^4

let $c_1X_1 + c_2X_2 + c_3X_3 + c_4X_4 = X$ we can find a solution for c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 by a, b, c, d . then S spans \mathbb{R}^4
then S is a basis for \mathbb{R}^4 .

Example :

The set $S = \{t^n, t^{n-1}, \dots, t, 1\}$ spans p_n , since every polynomial of the form $p(t) = a_0 t^n + a_1 t^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} t + a_n$ which is linear combination of elements in S .

S is linearly independent since

$$c_1 t^n + c_2 t^{n-1} + \dots + c_n t + c_{n+1} = 0 \dots (1)$$

holds for every real number t is root of

$$p(t) = c_1 t^n + c_2 t^{n-1} + \dots + c_n t + c_{n+1} = 0$$

but nonzero polynomials have only a finite number of roots that (1) only if

$$c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_n = c_{n+1} = 0$$

then S is a basis for p_n

Example: The set $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis for V of all

2×2 matrices to show S is linearly independent

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_4 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{then } \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_2 \\ c_3 & c_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = c_4 = 0$$

hence S is linearly independent . to show S spans V

$$\text{Let } c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_4 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

Then $c_1 = a, c_2 = b, c_3 = c, c_4 = d$

then S is a basis for V

Theorem 1: If $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ is a basis for a vector space V then every vector in V can be written in one and only one way as a linear combination of the vector in S .

Proof :-

First every vector X in V can be written as a linear combination of the vectors in S because S spans V .

Now let

$$X = a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \dots + a_n X_n \text{ and}$$

$$X = b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + \dots + b_n X_n \text{ we must show that } a_i = b_i$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ we have

$$0 = (a_1 - b_1) X_1 + (a_2 - b_2) X_2 + \dots + (a_n - b_n) X_n$$

Since S is linearly independent, we conclude that

$$a_i - b_i = 0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

So that $a_i = b_i$

Theorem 2: Let $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ set of non-zero vectors and let $W = \text{span } S$ then some subset of S is basis for W .

Proof: Ex. (like example)

Example: Let V be the vector space \mathbb{R}^4 . let $S = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4\}$ set of vectors where

$X_1 = (1, 2, -2, 1)$, $X_2 = (-3, 0, -4, 3)$, $X_3 = (2, 1, 1, -1)$, $X_4 = (-3, 3, -9, 6)$ Find a subset of S that is basis for W .

SOL.:

observe that every vector X in W is of the form $aX_1 + bX_2 + cX_3 + dX_4 \dots \dots \dots (1)$

to find a basis for W we first determine the set

$S = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4\}$ is linearly independent or not. if S linearly independent then S is basis for W . but S is not linearly independent (ch.)

$$X_1 - X_2 - 2X_3 + 0X_4 = 0 \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

then

$$X_2 = X_1 - 2X_3 \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

Substituting (3) in (1) every vector X in W is of the form

$$(a+b)X_1 + (c-2b)X_3 + dX_4 \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Thus W spanned by X_1, X_3, X_4 . we check the set

$S = \{X_1, X_3, X_4\}$ is linearly independent or not.

We find that X_1, X_2, X_4 is linearly dependent and

$$-3 X_1 + 3 X_3 + X_4 = 0$$

Then $X_4 = 3 X_1 - 3 X_3 \dots\dots\dots (5)$

Substituting (5) in (4) every vector X in W is linear combination of X_1, X_3 then W spanned by X_1, X_3

we check the set

$\{ X_1, X_3 \}$ is linearly independent or not.

$\{ X_1, X_3 \}$ is linearly independent and is basis for W .

Linear transformation

Definition :

Let V and W be vector spaces. A linear transformation L of V into W is a function $L:V \longrightarrow W$ assigning a unique vector $L(x)$ in W to each x in V such that .

- a - $L(x + y) = L(x) + L(y)$. for every x and y in V
b- $L(cx) = cL(x)$, for every x in V and every scalar c

Not:

If $V=W$ the linear transformation $L:V \longrightarrow W$ is also called a linear operator on V .

Example : Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by
 $L(x, y, z) = (x, y)$.

To verify that L is linear transformation we let

$$X = (x_1, y_1, z_1) \quad \text{and} \quad y = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } L(x + y) &= L((x_1, y_1, z_1) + (x_2, y_2, z_2)) \\ &= L(x_1+x_2, y_1+y_2, z_1+z_2) = (x_1+x_2, y_1+y_2) \\ &= (x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = L(x) + L(y) \end{aligned}$$

Also if c is a real number .

Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(cx) &= L(cx_1, cy_1, cz_1) = (cx_1, cy_1) = c(x_1, y_1) \\ &= cL(x) \end{aligned}$$

Example : Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ defined by

$L(x, y, z) = (x+1, 2y, z)$. To determine whether L is linear transformation or not

we let $X = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Y = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$
 Then $L(X + Y) = L((x_1, y_1, z_1) + (x_2, y_2, z_2))$
 $= L(x_1+x_2, y_1+y_2, z_1+z_2)$
 $= ((x_1+x_2)+1, 2(y_1+y_2), z_1+z_2)$

On other hand

$$L(x) + L(y) = (x_1+1, 2y_1, z_1) + (x_2+1, 2y_2, z_2)$$

$$= ((x_1+x_2)+2, 2(y_1+y_2), z_1+z_2)$$

Thus $L(x + y) \neq L(x) + L(y)$ L is not linear transformation

Example : Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by

$L(x) = r x$, r is real number To determine whether L is linear transformation or not

we let $X = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $y = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$
 Then $L(X + Y) = L((x_1, y_1, z_1) + (x_2, y_2, z_2))$
 $= L(x_1+x_2, y_1+y_2, z_1+z_2)$
 $= (r(x_1+x_2), r(y_1+y_2), r(z_1+z_2))$
 $= (r x_1, r y_1, r z_1) + (r x_2, r y_2, r z_2)$
 $= rL(x) + rL(y)$ L is linear transformation

Example : Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by

$$L \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \quad L \text{ is linear transformation since}$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Then } L(x + y) = L \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_2 \\ y_1 + y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + x_2 \\ y_1 + y_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$L(x) + L(y) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: $V = C[0,1]$ set of all real-valued function that are continuous function is vector space

let $W = \mathbb{R}$ and $L: V \longrightarrow W$ is

$$L(f) = \int_0^1 f(x) dx, \quad L \text{ is linear transformation } \underline{\text{Ch?}}$$

Theorem :

Let $L:V \longrightarrow W$ be linear transformation then

$$L(c_1X_1 + c_2X_2, \dots, +c_n X_n) = c_1 L(X_1) + c_2 L(X_2), \dots, + c_n L(X_n)$$

For any vectors X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n and scalars c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n .

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} L(c_1X_1 + c_2X_2, \dots, +c_n X_n) &= L(c_1 X_1) + L(c_2X_2) \dots + L(c_n X_n) \\ &= c_1 L(X_1) + c_2 L(X_2), \dots, + c_n L(X_n) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem :

Let $L:V \longrightarrow W$ be linear transformation then

$$(i) L(0v) = 0w$$

$$(ii) L(X-Y) = L(X) - L(Y) \text{ for } X, Y \text{ in } V$$

Proof :-

$$(i) \text{ We have } 0v = 0v + 0v, \text{ so } L(0v + 0v)$$

$$L(0v) + L(0v) = L(0v) \text{ .if}$$

We subtract $L(0v)$ from both sides we obtain $L(0v) = 0w$

$$(ii) L(X-Y) = L(X+(-Y)) = L(X) + L(-Y)$$

$$= L(X) - L(Y)$$

Theorem :

Let $L:V \longrightarrow W$ be linear transformation of an n-dimensional vector space V into a vector space W . Also let $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ be a

basis for V . if X is any vector in V then $L(X)$ is completely determined by $\{L(X_1), L(X_2), \dots, L(X_n)\}$

Proof :-

Since X is in V , we can write $X = c_1X_1 + c_2X_2, \dots, +c_n X_n$

Where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are real number

Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(c_1X_1 + c_2X_2, \dots, +c_n X_n) &= L(c_1 X_1) + L(c_2X_2) \dots + L(c_n X_n) \\ &= c_1 L(X_1) + c_2 L(X_2), \dots, + c_n L(X_n) \end{aligned}$$

Exercises :

Q1) Is L linear transformation where $L \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x+y \\ y \\ x-z \end{pmatrix}$?

Q2) Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ linear transformation and $L \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$

And $L \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ What is $L \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$? What is $L \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$?

Q3) Let $P_2 \longrightarrow P_3$ linear transformation and $L(1) = 1$,

$$L(t) = t^2, \quad L(t^2) = t^3 + t$$

Find $L(2t^2 - 5t + 3)$, $L(at^2 + bt + c)$

The Kernel and Range of linear transformation:

Definition : A Linear transformation $L: V \longrightarrow W$ is said to be one-to-one if for all X_1, X_2 in V , $X_1 \neq X_2$ implies $L(X_1) \neq L(X_2)$.
An equivalent statement is that L is one-to-one if for all X_1, X_2 in V , $L(X_1) = L(X_2)$ implies that $X_1 = X_2$.

Example :

Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by

$$L(x, y) = (x+y, x-y)$$

To determine whether L is one-to-one, we let

$$X_1 = (x_1, y_1) \text{ and } X_2 = (x_2, y_2)$$

then if $L(X_1) = L(X_2)$

$$x_1 + y_1 = x_2 + y_2$$

$$x_1 - y_1 = x_2 - y_2$$

adding these equations, we obtain $2x_1 = 2x_2$ or $x_1 = x_2$

which implies that $y_1 = y_2$. Hence $x_1 = x_2$ and L is one-to-one.

Example : Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear transformation defined by

$$L(x, y, z) = (x, y)$$

Since $(1, 3, 3) \neq (1, 3, -2)$ but

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

We conclude that L is not one-to-one.

Definition :

Let $L:V \longrightarrow W$ A linear transformation .The kernel of L denoted by $\ker(L)$. is the subset of V consisting of all vectors X such $L(X)=0$

$$\text{Ker } L = \{ X \in V / L(X) = 0 \} .$$

Example :

Let $L:\mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $L(x, y, z) = (x, y)$

The vector $(0,0,2)$ is in $\ker L$, since $L(0,0,2) = (0,0)$

However the vector $(2,-3,9)$ is not $\ker L$, since

$L(2,-3,9) = (2,-3)$ to find $\ker L$, we must determine all X in \mathbb{R}^3

So that $L(x) = 0$ that ,

However $L(x) = (x_1, x_2)$ thus $(x_1, x_2) = (0,0)$ So $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0$

and x_3 can be any real number . it is clear that

$\ker L = \{(0,0,r) , r \text{ is real number}\}$

Consists of the Z -axis in x,y,z three- dimensional space \mathbb{R}^3

Example:

Let $L:\mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by

$$L(x,y) = (x+y, x-y)$$

Then $\ker L$ Consists of of all vectors x in \mathbb{R}^2 such that

$L(x) = 0$ thus we must solve the linear system

$$x+y = 0$$

$$x-y = 0$$

for x and y . the only solution is $x = 0$ So $\ker L = \{ 0 \}$

Example:

Let $L:\mathbb{R}^4 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by

$$L(x,y,z,w) = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ z+w \end{bmatrix}$$

Then $\ker L = \{ x \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^4 : L(x) = 0 \}$ $\ker L$ Consists of of all vectors in the

form $\begin{bmatrix} r \\ -r \\ s \\ -s \end{bmatrix}$ where r,s any real numbers.

Theorem: If $L: V \longrightarrow W$ is linear transformation, then $\text{Ker } L$ is a subspace of V .

Proof :-

First, observe that $\text{Ker } L$ is not an empty set since 0_V is in $\text{ker } L$.

Also, let x and y be in $\text{Ker } L$. Then since L is linear transformation.

$$L(x+y) = L(x) + L(y) = 0_W + 0_W = 0_W \quad \text{So } x+y \text{ is in } \text{Ker } L.$$

Also, if c is a scalar. Then since L is linear transformation

$$L(cx) = cL(x) = c0_W = 0_W, \text{ So } cx \text{ is in } \text{Ker } L.$$

hence $\text{Ker } L$ is subspace of V

Example :

Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by $L(X, Y) = (X+Y, X-Y)$

Then $\text{Ker } L = \{0\}, \dim(\text{Ker } L) = 0.$

Example :

Let $L: \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $L(x, y, z) = (x, y)$

$\text{Ker } L = \{ X \in \mathbb{R}^2 / L(X) = 0 \} = \{(0, 0, r) : r \in \mathbb{R}\}, \dim(\text{Ker } L) = 1$

Example:

Let $L: \mathbb{R}^4 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be defined by

$$L(x, y, z, w) = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ z+w \end{bmatrix}, \text{ The basis for } \text{Ker } L \text{ is } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ thus}$$

$\dim(\text{Ker } L) = 2.$

Theorem: If $L: V \longrightarrow W$ is linear transformation, then $L(X)$ is one - one if and only if $\text{Ker } L = \{0_V\}.$

Proof :-

Let $X \in \text{Ker } L$ then $L(X) = 0_W$ also $L(0_V) = 0_W$ Thus $L(X) = L(0_V)$

Since $L(X)$ is one - one, hence $X = 0_V$ Then $\text{Ker } L = \{0_V\}$

Example : Let $L: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by

$$L \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ x-y \\ 2x+3y \end{bmatrix}$$

L is linear transformation since

If $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ is any vector in \mathbb{R}^2 then $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ so that

$$L(X) = L\left(x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

$$= x L\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) + y L\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

Coordinate vectors:

Let $L: V \longrightarrow W$ be n -dimensional vector space V with basis

$$S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\} \text{ if } X = a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \dots + a_n X_n$$

Is any vector in V then the vector

$$[X]_S = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

in \mathbb{R}^n is called the coordinate vector of X with

respect to the basis S . The components of $[X]_S$ called the coordinates of X with respect to S

Example : Let $S = \{X_1, X_2, X_3\}$ be basis for \mathbb{R}^3 where

$$X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad X_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ then to find $[X]_S$, we must find c_1, c_2, c_3 such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + c_3 X_3 \quad \text{thus} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solution is $c_1 = 2, c_2 = 3, c_3 = -1$

$$\text{Then } [X]_S = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example : Let $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ be a basis of n -dimensional vector space V then since

$$X_j = 1X_1 + 0X_2 + \dots + 0X_n \quad [X_j]_S = E_j$$

Where $\{E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n\}$ a basis for \mathbb{R}^n

Example : Let $S = \{t, 1\}$ be a basis for P_1 if $P(t) = 5t - 2$

Then

$$[P(t)]_S = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

If $T = \{t+1, t-1\}$ be a basis for P_1

$$\text{Then } 5t - 2 = \frac{3}{2}(t+1) + \frac{7}{2}(t-1)$$

$$\text{Which implies that } [P(t)]_T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem : Let $L: V \rightarrow W$ be n -dimensional vector space V into an m -dimensional vector space W ($n \neq 0, m \neq 0$) and let $S = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ and $T = \{Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \dots, Y_m\}$ be bases for V and W , respectively. then the $m \times n$ matrix A whose j th column is the coordinate vector $[X_j]_T$ of $L(X_j)$ with respect to T is associated with L and has the following property :

Eigen values And Eigenvectors

Definition: Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. The real number λ is called an

Eigen value

of A if there exists a nonzero vector X in R^n such that

$$AX = \lambda X \quad \dots(1)$$

Every nonzero vector X satisfying (1) is called an **eigenvectors** of A associated with the **Eigen values** λ .

Note:

$X=0$ always satisfies Equation(1), but we insist that an eigenvector X be a nonzero vector.

Example 1: if A is identity matrix I_n , then the only eigenvalue is $\lambda=1$; and every nonzero vector in R^n is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda=1$:
 $n \quad X=1X.$

Example 2: Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Then

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So that $X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}$

$$\text{Also, } A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So that $X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda_2 = \frac{-1}{2}$

Figure 5.1 shows that X_1 and AX_1 are parallel, and X_2 and AX_2 are parallel also. this illustrates the fact that if X is an eigenvector of A, then X and AX are parallel.
 In figure 5.2 we show X and AX for the cases $\lambda > 1, 0 < \lambda < 1,$ and $\lambda < 0.$

Example 3: let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{Then } A \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So that $X_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue

$\lambda_1 = 0$. also,

$X_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda_2 = 1$

Example 3: points out the fact that although the zero vector, by definition, cannot be an eigenvector, the number zero can be eigenvalue.

Example 4: let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$

We wish to find the eigenvalue of A and their associated eigenvectors.

Thus we wish to find all real numbers λ and all nonzero vectors $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ satisfying (1), that is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \dots(2)$$

Equation (2) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + x_2 &= \lambda x_1 \\ -2x_1 + 4x_2 &= \lambda x_2 \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda - 1)x_1 - x_2 &= 0 \\ 2x_1 + (\lambda - 4)x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The homogeneous system of two equations in two unknowns. the homogeneous system in (3) has nontrivial solution if and only if the determinant of its coefficient matrix is zero: thus if and only if

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 1 & -1 \\ 2 & \lambda - 4 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

This means that

$$(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 4) + 2 = 0$$

Definition: let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be an $n \times n$ matrix. the determinant

$$f(\lambda) = |\lambda I_n - A| = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - a_{11} & -a_{12} & \dots & -a_{1n} \\ -a_{21} & \lambda - a_{22} & \dots & -a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ -a_{n1} & -a_{n2} & \dots & \lambda - a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} \quad (2)$$

is called the **characteristic polynomial** of A . the equation

$$f(\lambda) = |\lambda I_n - A| = 0$$

is called the **characteristic equation** of A .

Example 5: let

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

The characteristic polynomial of A is (verify)

$$f(\lambda) = |\lambda I_3 - A| = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 1 & -2 & -1 \\ -1 & \lambda - 0 & 1 \\ -4 & 4 & \lambda - 5 \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^3 - 6\lambda^2 + 11\lambda - 6$$

Theorem: The eigenvalue of A are the real roots of the characteristic polynomial of A

Proof:

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A with associated eigenvector X . then

$$AX = \lambda X$$

Which can be rewritten as

$$AX = (\lambda I_n)X$$

Or

$$(\lambda I_n - A)X = 0 \quad (3)$$

A homogeneous system of n equations in n unknowns. This system has a nontrivial solution if and only if the determinant of its coefficient matrix is zero that $|\lambda I_n - A| = 0$

Conversely, if λ is a real root of the characteristic polynomial of A , then $|\lambda I_n - A| = 0$, so the homogeneous system (3) has nontrivial solution X . Hence λ is the eigenvalue of A . Thus to find the Eigen values of a given matrix A , we must find the real roots of its characteristic polynomial $f(\lambda)$.