

# LECTURE - 2

(1)

A field  $\mathbb{F}$  for us shall denote  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ .

## [1] VECTOR SPACES

Definition: A vector space  $V$  over the field  $\mathbb{F}$  consists of a set  $V$ , and two functions, denoted by  $+$  and  $\cdot$ ,

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

$$\cdot : \mathbb{F} \times V \rightarrow V$$

Such that, (denoting  $+(v_1, v_2) = v_1 + v_2 \in V$ , and  $\cdot(c, v) = c \cdot v \in V$ )

- 1)  $v_1 + v_2 = v_2 + v_1$ ,  $\forall v_1, v_2 \in V$
- 2)  $(v_1 + v_2) + v_3 = v_1 + (v_2 + v_3)$ ,  $\forall v_1, v_2, v_3 \in V$
- 3)  $\exists$  an element  $0_V \in V$  such that  $0_V + v = v + 0_V = v$ ,  $\forall v \in V$ . ( $0_V$  is the additive identity)
- 4) For each  $v \in V$ ,  $\exists$  an element  $(-v)$  in  $V$ , such that  $v + (-v) = 0_V$ . ( $-v$  is called the additive identity of  $v$ ).
- 5)  $1 \cdot v = v$ ,  $\forall v \in V$ .
- 6)  $(\alpha\beta) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot v)$   $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ , and  $v \in V$ .
- 7)  $\alpha \cdot (v_1 + v_2) = \alpha \cdot v_1 + \alpha \cdot v_2$   $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ .
- 8)  $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot v + \beta \cdot v$ ,  $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $v \in V$ .

✿ Elements in a vector space are called vectors, and elements in a field (here  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) are called scalars.

Examples :

1. Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a field, and let  $\mathbb{F}^n$  denote the set of all  $n$ -tuples with entries from  $\mathbb{F}$ , ie

$$\mathbb{F}^n = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}, 1 \leq i \leq n \right\}, n \geq 1.$$

$\mathbb{F}^n$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ , for all  $n \geq 1$ , with the following operations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 + \beta_1 \\ \alpha_2 + \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n + \beta_n \end{bmatrix}$$

here, the addition is addition in the field,  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ .

and  $\alpha \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \alpha_1 \\ \alpha \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$

here, the multiplication is the multiplication in  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ .

2. The set of all  $m \times n$  matrices with entries from  $\mathbb{F}$ , is a vector space, denoted by  $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ . Operations addition (of two  $m \times n$  matrices) and scalar multiplication have already been defined in LECTURE NOTE 1.

3. The set of all polynomials with coefficients in  $\mathbb{F}$  is a vector space denoted by  $P(\mathbb{F})$ .

Ex 4. Proposition 2.1 Let  $V$  be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ .

(a) For  $v_1, v_2, v_3 \in V$ ,  $v_1 + v_3 = v_2 + v_3$  implies  $v_1 = v_2$ .

$$\bullet \quad v_1 + v_3 = v_2 + v_3$$

$$\Rightarrow (v_1 + v_3) + (-v_3) = (v_2 + v_3) + (-v_3)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_1 + (v_3 + (-v_3)) = v_2 + (v_3 + (-v_3))$$

$$\Rightarrow v_1 = v_2.$$

(b)  $0_V$  is unique in  $V$ .

(c) Given  $v \in V$ ,  $(-v)$  is unique in  $V$ .

(d)  $0 \cdot v = 0_V$ ,  $\forall v \in V$

(e)  $(-\alpha) \cdot v = -(\alpha \cdot v) = \alpha \cdot (-v)$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $\forall v \in V$ .

(f)  $\alpha \cdot 0_V = 0_V$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ .

## [2] SUBSPACES

Whenever we study an algebraic structure, it is of interest to study subsets which possess the same structure.

Definition: A subset  $W$  of a vector space  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is called a subspace of  $V$  if  $W$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  under the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined on  $V$ .

Theorem: Let  $V$  be a vector space and  $W$  a subset of  $V$ . Then  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$  if and only if the following three conditions hold for the operations defined in  $V$ :

(a)  $0_V \in W$ ;

(b)  $\forall v_1, v_2 \in W, v_1 + v_2 \in W$ ; ( $W$  is closed under addition)

(c)  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}, \forall v \in W, \alpha v \in W$ ; ( $W$  is closed under scalar multiplication)

Proof: Let  $W$  be a subspace of  $V$ . Then (b) and (c) hold. Also,  $\exists 0_W \in W$  such that

$$0_W + v = v, \quad \forall v \in W.$$

$$\text{But } 0_V + v \text{ is also } v.$$

Hence, by cancellation law, prop. 2.1 (a),

$$0_V = 0_W.$$

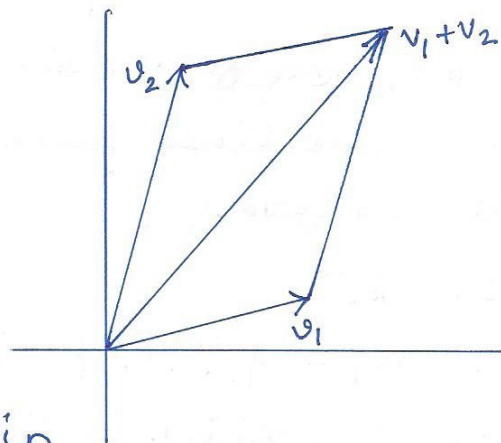
Conversely, let  $W$  be a subset of  $V$ , such that the three conditions (a), (b) and (c) are satisfied. To show  $W$  is a subspace, we only need to show that additive inverse of every element in  $W$ , belongs to  $W$ . Now if  $v \in W$ ,  $(-1) \cdot v \in W$  by (c).

~~But~~ But  $-v = (-1) \cdot v$  by proposition 2.1 (e). Hence,  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

## Examples

1. Find all subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Except for  $\mathbb{R}^2$  itself and the zero subspace  $W = \{(0, 0)\}$ , the only non-trivial subspaces are ~~lines~~ straight lines through the origin.



2. Let  $A$  be a symmetric matrix, i.e.  $A = A^t$ . The set of all  $n \times n$  symmetric matrices  $W$  form a subspace of  $M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ .

Verify that :

(a) Zero matrix  $\in W$

(b) If  $A, B \in W$ , then  $A+B \in W$ , as

$$(A+B)^t = A^t + B^t = A+B$$

(c) If  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $A \in W$ , then  $\alpha A \in W$ , as

$$(\alpha A)^t = \alpha A^t = \alpha A.$$

3. Let  $P_n(\mathbb{F})$  denote the set of all polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}$ , of degree less than or equal to  $n$ .

Then  $P_n(\mathbb{F})$  is a subspace of  $P(\mathbb{F})$ .

Convince yourself that any intersection of subspaces of a vector space  $V$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

### Exercises:

Definition: Let  $X_1, X_2$  be non-empty subsets of a vector space  $V$ . The sum of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , denoted by  $X_1 + X_2$ , is the set  $\{v_1 + v_2 : v_1 \in X_1, v_2 \in X_2\}$ .

1. Prove that if  $W_1, W_2$  are subspaces of a vector space  $V$ , then  $W_1 + W_2$  is a subspace of  $V$  that contains both  $W_1$  and  $W_2$ . Also, prove that  $W_1 + W_2$  is the smallest subspace that contains both  $W_1$  and  $W_2$ .

Definition: A vector space  $V$  is said to be the direct sum of  $W_1$  and  $W_2$ , denoted by  $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$ , if  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  are subspaces of  $V$ , such that  $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0_V\}$  and  $W_1 + W_2 = V$ .

2. Show that  $\mathbb{F}^n$  is the direct sum of the subspaces  $W_1 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^n : \alpha_n = 0 \right\}$ , and

$$W_2 = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^n : \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_{n-1} = 0 \right\}.$$

### [3] LINEAR COMBINATIONS

Definition: Let  $V$  be a vector space and  $S$  be a non-empty subset of  $V$ . A vector  $v \in V$  is said to be a linear combination of elements of  $S$  if there exists a finite number of vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  in  $S$ , and scalars  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{F}$  such that

$$v = \alpha_1 \cdot v_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \cdot v_n.$$

We say,  $v$  is a linear combination of  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ .

Exercise :

1. Determine if the vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$  is a linear

combination of the vectors  $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

$v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $v_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $v_5 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 8 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Solution: We need to determine if there exist scalars  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5$  such that

$$\alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_4 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha_5 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 8 \\ 16 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

So  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$  can be written as a linear combination

of  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$ , if and only if there exists a non-trivial solution of the system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 + 2x_4 - 3x_5 &= 2 \\ 2x_1 - 4x_2 + 2x_3 + 8x_5 &= 6 \\ x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 - 3x_4 + 16x_5 &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

Row reduced echelon form of the augmented matrix is

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

Note that,  
2nd column and  
5th column do not  
contain pivots.

Assigning arbitrary value  $c_1$  to  $x_2$  and  $c_2$  to  $x_5$ ,  
the equations read:

$$x_1 - 2c_1 + c_2 = -4$$

$$x_3 + 3c_2 = 7$$

$$x_4 - 2c_2 = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow x_3 = 7 - 3c_2, \quad x_4 = 3 + 2c_2, \quad x_1 = -4 + 2c_1 - c_2$$

So, every solution is of the form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 7 \\ 3 \\ -c_2 \end{bmatrix} + c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -3 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{for some values of } c_1 \text{ and } c_2.$$

In particular, for  $c_1 = c_2 =$



$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 7 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ for some values of } c_1 \text{ and } c_2. \quad (9)$$

In particular, for  $c_1 = c_2 = 0$ ,  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5) = (-4, 0, 7, 3, 0)$  is a solution.

Theorem 2.2 If  $S$  is a non-empty subset of a vector space  $V$ , then the subset  $W$  consisting of all linear combinations of elements of  $S$  is a subspace of  $V$ . Moreover,  $W$  is the smallest subspace of  $V$  containing  $S$ , i.e.  $W$  is a subset of any subspace of  $V$  that contains  $S$ .

Proof. Exercise.  $\square$

Definition: The subspace  $W$  described in Theorem 2.2 is called the span of  $S$ , and is denoted by  $\text{span}(S)$ . By convention,  $\text{span}(\emptyset) = \{0\}$ .

Definition: A subset  $S$  of  $V$  is said to span (or generate)  $V$  if  $\text{span } S = V$ .

Example: The set  $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

generate  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , as any vector  $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  can be

written as a linear combination of elements in  $S$ ,  
by:  ~~$(a_1, 0)$~~

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $c_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_2 - a_3)$ ,  $c_2 = \frac{1}{2}(a_1 - a_2 + a_3)$ , and  
 $c_3 = \frac{1}{2}(-a_1 + a_2 + a_3)$ .

Definition: A subset  $S$  of a vector space  $V$  is said to be linearly dependent if there exist a finite number of distinct vectors  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  in  $S$  and scalars  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ , not all zeros, such that

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n = 0.$$

Example: The set  $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

is a linearly dependent subset of  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , as

$$4 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + (-3) \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \\ 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition: A subset  $S$  of a vector space that is not linearly dependent is said to be linearly independent.

- Empty set is lin. ind.
- Set consisting of a single non-zero vector is linearly independent.

## [4] BASIS AND DIMENSION

Definition: A basis  $\mathcal{B}$  for a vector space  $V$  is a linearly independent subset of  $V$ , that spans  $V$ .

Examples ① Let  $S = \left\{ e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} ; 1 \leq i \leq n \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$ .

Then, one can verify readily that  $\text{Span}(S) = \mathbb{F}^n$ , and  $S$  is linearly independent.

Thus,  $S$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , called the standard basis of  $\mathbb{F}^n$ .

②  $P_n(\mathbb{F})$  is the vector space of all polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}$ , of degree less than or equal to  $n$ .

The set  $S = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$  forms a basis of  $P_n(\mathbb{F})$ .

③ For  $P(\mathbb{F})$ , the vector space of all polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}$ ,  $S = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$  is a basis.

Theorem 2.3: Let  $V$  be a vector space and  $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  be a subset of  $V$ . Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for  $V$  if and only if each vector  $v \in V$  can be uniquely expressed as a linear combination of vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$ .

Proof: Exercise □

If we fix an ordering of the set  $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  then theorem 2.3 suggests that every  $v \in V$  determines a unique  $n$ -tuple of scalars  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ . Conversely, each  $n$ -tuple of scalars uniquely determines a vector  $v \in V$ . Thus  $V$  'looks like'  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , where  $n$  is the number of elements in the basis  $\mathcal{B}$ .

Theorem 2.4: Let  $S$  be a linearly independent subset of a vector space  $V$ , and let  $v \in V \setminus S$ . Then,  $S \cup \{v\}$  is also linearly independent if and only if  $v \notin \text{Span}(S)$ .

Proof: ~~Let  $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$~~

If  $S \cup \{v\}$  is linearly dependent, then there exist vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  in  $S \cup \{v\}$ , and non-not-all-zero scalars  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  such that  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = 0$ . As  $S$  is lin. ind., one of the  $v_i$ 's must be  $v$ , say  $v_1$ . Also,  $\alpha_1 \neq 0$ , otherwise  $S$  becomes lin. dep. Thus,

$$v = v_1 = \alpha_1^{-1} (-\alpha_2 v_2 - \dots - \alpha_n v_n) \in \text{Span}(S).$$

Conversely, if  $v \in \text{Span} S$ , then

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n, \quad v_i \in S, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}.$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = (-1)v + \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n.$$

$\Rightarrow \{v, v_1, \dots, v_n\} = S \cup \{v\}$  is a linearly dependent set.

Theorem 2.5 If a vector space  $V$  is generated by a finite set  $S_0$ , then a subset of  $S_0$  is a basis for  $V$ . Hence,  $V$  has a finite basis.

Proof. If  $S_0$  is the empty set, or  $\{0\}$ , then  $V = \{0\}$ , and the empty set is a basis for  $V$ . Let  $S_0$  contain a non-zero vector  $v_1$ . Then  $\{v_1\}$  is lin. ind. By previous theorem, we continue extending  $\{v_1\}$  to  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$ ,  $v_i \in S_0$ ,  $2 \leq i \leq r$ , such that  $\{v_1, \dots, v_r\}$  is lin. ind. As  $S_0$  is finite, this process should terminate after finitely many steps, i.e. we should be able to get

$S = \{v_1, \dots, v_r\} \subseteq S_0$ ,  $S$  lin. ind, and any extension of  $S$  by an element of  $S_0$  would give a lin. dep. set. We show  $S$  is a basis of  $V$ . Enough to show that  $\text{Span}(S) = V$ . We show that  $S_0 \subseteq \text{span}(S)$ .

Let  $v_0 \in S_0$ . If  $v_0 \in S$ , then  $v_0 \in \text{span } S$ .

If  $v_0 \notin S$ , then  $S \cup \{v_0\}$  is lin. dep.

$\Rightarrow x \in \text{span } S$ , by theorem 2.4.

$\Rightarrow S_0 \subseteq \text{span } S$ .

Thus,  $V = \text{span } S_0 \subseteq \text{span } S$

$\Rightarrow V = \text{span } S$ .

Theorem 2.6

Let  $V$  be a vector space which has a finite basis.

- (a) Let  $S$  be a finite subset that spans  $V$ , and let  $L$  be a <sup>lin.</sup> independent subset of  $V$ . One can obtain a basis of  $V$  by adding elements of  $S$  to  $L$ .
- (b) Let  $S$  be a finite subset that spans  $V$ . One can obtain a basis of  $V$  by deleting elements from  $S$ .

Proof.

Exercise.  $\square$

Theorem 2.7

Let  $S$  and  $L$  be finite subsets of a vector space  $V$ . Assume  $V = \text{span } S$  and  $L$  is lin. independent. Then  $S$  contains at least as many elements as  $L$  does, i.e.  $|S| \geq |L|$ .

Proof: Refer to Axlin  $\square$

Proposition 2.8. Let  $V$  have a finite basis.

- (a) Any two bases of  $V$  have the same order.
- (b) Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis. If  $\text{span } S = V$ , then  $|S| \geq |\mathcal{B}|$  and  $|S| = |\mathcal{B}|$  if and only if  $S$  is a basis.
- (c) Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a basis. If a set  $L$  of vectors is lin. independent, then  $|L| \leq |\mathcal{B}|$  and  $|L| = |\mathcal{B}|$  if and only if  $L$  is a basis.

Definition:  $V$  is called finite dimensional if it has a finite basis, say  $\mathcal{B}$ , and  $|\mathcal{B}|$  is called the dimension of  $V$ , denoted by  $\dim V$ .

## [5] LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS

Definition: Let  $V, W$  be vector spaces over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A function  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is called a linear transformation from  $V$  to  $W$  if for all  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ , and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ ,

$$\textcircled{a} \quad T(v_1 + v_2) = T(v_1) + T(v_2),$$

$$\textcircled{b} \quad T(c v_1) = c T(v_1).$$

A bijective linear transformation is called an isomorphism.

Examples:

1. Let  $V = P_n(\mathbb{R})$  and  $W = P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$ .

$T: P_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$  given by  $f \mapsto f'$ , the derivative of  $f$ , is a linear transformation.

2. Let  $V = C(\mathbb{R})$ , the real vector space of continuous real-valued functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $a < b$ . Define  $T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$T(f) = \int_a^b f(t) dt,$$

$\forall f \in V$ . Then, verify that  $T$  is a linear transformation.

3.  $T: V \rightarrow V$

$v \mapsto v \quad \forall v \in V$  is the identity

linear transformation, and

$T: V \rightarrow V$

$v \mapsto 0_V, \quad \forall v \in V$  is the zero

transformation.

Exercise: Define  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $T\left(\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2a_1 + a_2 \\ a_1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Show that  $T$  is a linear transformation.

Definitions: Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. We define null space (or kernel) of  $T$  to be

$$N(T) = \{v \in V : Tv = 0_W\} \subseteq V.$$

We define range (or image) of  $T$  to be the subset of  $W$ , which is the image of  $T$ , i.e.

$$R(T) = \{T(v) : v \in V\} \subseteq W.$$

Exercise: Prove that null space is a subspace of  $V$  and range is a subspace of  $W$ .

Definitions: Let  $V, W$  be vector spaces, and  $T: V \rightarrow W$  a linear transformation. If  $N(T), R(T)$  are finite dimensional, then we define nullity  $(T) = \dim N(T)$  and rank  $(T) = \dim R(T)$ .

Theorem 2.9 (Rank-Nullity theorem or dimension theorem).

Let  $V, W$  be vector spaces, and let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be linear. If  $V$  is finite dimensional, then nullity  $(T) + \text{rank}(T) = \dim V$ .



Proof: Suppose  $\dim V = n$  and let  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  be a basis for  $N(T)$ . We can extend  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  to a basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$  of  $V$ .

We show that  $\mathcal{C} = \{Tv_{k+1}, \dots, Tv_n\}$  is a basis for  $R(T)$ . Let  $w \in R(T)$ . Then  $w = T(v)$  for some  $v \in V$ . There exists  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  such that

$$v = c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_k v_k + c_{k+1} v_{k+1} + \dots + c_n v_n$$

$$w = T(v) = T(c_1 v_1 + \dots + c_k v_k + c_{k+1} v_{k+1} + \dots + c_n v_n)$$

$$= T(c_1 v_1) + \dots + T(c_k v_k) + T(c_{k+1} v_{k+1}) + \dots + T(c_n v_n)$$

$$= c_1 T v_1 + \dots + c_k T v_k + c_{k+1} T v_{k+1} + \dots + c_n T v_n$$

$$= c_{k+1} T v_{k+1} + \dots + c_n T v_n,$$

$$\text{as } T v_1 = \dots = T v_k = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow w \in \text{Span } \mathcal{C}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{span } \mathcal{C} = R(T).$$

Now, to show  $\mathcal{C}$  is linearly independent, let  $\exists \alpha_{k+1}, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{F}$  such that

$$\alpha_{k+1} T v_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n T v_n = 0_w. \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow T(\alpha_{k+1} v_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n v_n) = 0_w$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{k+1} v_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n v_n \in N(T)$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{k+1} v_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = \beta_1 v_1 + \dots + \beta_k v_k$$

for some  $\beta_i$ 's  $\in \mathbb{F}$ .

Since  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis,  $\alpha_{k+1} = \dots = \alpha_n = \beta_1 = \dots = \beta_k = 0. \quad \square$

Corollary 2.10 : Let  $V, W$  be vector spaces of equal (finite) dimension, and let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. Then  $T$  is one-one if and only if  $T$  is onto.

Proof: Note that  $T$  is one-one if and only if  $N(T) = \{0_V\}$ .

## [6] MATRIX REPRESENTATION OF A LINEAR TRANSFORMATION.

Let  $\mathcal{B} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  be an ordered basis for  $V$ .

Let  $v \in V$ . Then  $\exists$  a unique  $n$ -tuple  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ ,  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}$ , such that  $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$ .

The vector  $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^n$  is called the co-ordinate

vector of  $v$ , with respect to  $\mathcal{B}$ . We denote it by  $[v]_{\mathcal{B}}$ .

Example : Let  $V = P_2(\mathbb{R})$ , and let  $\mathcal{B} = (1, x, x^2)$ .

If  $f(x) = 4x^2 + 1$ , then  $[f]_{\mathcal{B}}$  is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Suppose that  $V$  and  $W$  are finite-dimensional vector spaces with ordered bases  $\mathcal{B} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  and  $\mathcal{C} = (w_1, \dots, w_m)$  respectively. Let  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. Then there exist unique scalars  $\alpha_{ij} \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , such that  $Tv_j = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_{ij} w_i$ ,  $\forall 1 \leq j \leq n$ .

Definition: With the above notations, the matrix  ~~$A = (\alpha_{ij})$~~   $A$ , whose  $(i, j)$ -th entry is  $\alpha_{ij}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , is called the matrix of the linear transformation  $T$ , with respect to  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$ , call it  $[T]_{\mathcal{C}}^{\mathcal{B}}$ . If  $V = W$  and  $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{C}$ , then we write  $A = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ .

Note that the  $j$ -th column of the matrix of  $T$  is the  $w$ -ordinate vector of the vector  $Tv_j$ , with respect to  $\mathcal{C}$ .

Example: Define  $T: P_3(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow P_2(\mathbb{R})$  by  $f \mapsto f'$ .

Let  $\mathcal{B} = (1, x, x^2, x^3)$  and  $\mathcal{C} = (1, x, x^2)$ .

Then, the matrix of  $T$  is given by  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Note that:

$$T(1) = 0 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$T(x) = 1 = 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$T(x^2) = 2x = 0 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2$$

$$T(x^3) = 3x^2 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 3 \cdot x^2$$

Verify the following :

Proposition : Let  $V, W$  be finite dimensional vector spaces with ordered bases  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  resp. Let  $T, S : V \rightarrow W$  be linear transformations.

Then ,

$$i) [T+S]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}} + [S]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}}$$

$$ii) [\alpha T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}} = \alpha [T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}}, \text{ where } \alpha T : V \rightarrow W \text{ is given by } (\alpha T)(v) = \alpha \cdot T(v), \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}.$$

Proposition : Let  $V, W, Z$  be finite dimensional vector spaces with ordered bases  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  resp. ~~Then~~ Let  $S : V \rightarrow W$  and  $T : W \rightarrow Z$  be linear transformations. Then  $TS : V \rightarrow Z$  defined by  $(TS)(v) = T(S(v))$  is also a linear transformation and

$$[TS]_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathcal{C}} = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}} [S]_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathcal{B}}.$$

Here, right hand side is product of matrices,

$[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}}$  is of order  $p \times m$ , and  $[S]_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathcal{B}}$  is of order

$m \times n$ , where  $\dim V = n$ ,  $\dim W = m$  and  $\dim Z = p$ .

Exercise : Show that if  $P$  is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $L_P : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^n$  is an isomorphism.