

SEMESTER : II
CORE COURSE : VI

Inst Hour : 6
Credit : 5
Code : 18KP2M06

LINEAR ALGEBRA

UNIT-I

Introduction – Vector Spaces – Subspaces – Linear Combinations and Systems of Linear Equations – Linear Dependence – Linear Independence – Basis and Dimension – Maximal Linearly Independent Subspaces.

Chapter 1: Sections 1.1 to 1.7

UNIT - II

Linear Transformations – Null Spaces and Ranges – The Matrix Representation of a Linear Transformation – Composition of Linear Transformation and Matrix Multiplication – Invertibility and Isomorphism – The change of Coordinate Matrix – Dual Spaces – Homogeneous Linear Differential Equations with Constant Coefficients.

Chapter 2: Sections 2.1 to 2.7

UNIT- III

Elementary Matrix Operations and Elementary Matrices – The Rank of Matrix and Matrix Inverses – System of Linear Equations – Theoretical and Computational Aspects. Determinants of Order 2 and Order n – Properties of Determinants.

Chapter 3: Sections 3.1 to 3.4 and Chapter 4: Sections 4.1 to 4.3

UNIT - IV

Eigen Values and Eigen Vectors – Diagonalizability – Matrix Limits and Markov Chains – Invariant Subspaces and The Cayley Hamilton Theorem.

Chapter 5: Sections 5.1 to 5.4

UNIT - V

Inner Product and Norms – The Gram Schmidt Orthogonalization Process and Orthogonal Complements – The Adjoint of a Linear Operator – Normal and Self – Adjoint Operators – Unitary and Orthogonal Operators and their Matrices

Chapter 6: Sections 6.1 to 6.5

TEXT BOOK

- [1] Stephen H. Friedberg, Arnold J. Insel, Lawrence E. Spence, Linear Algebra, 4th Edition, Pearson New International Limited, 2014.

REFERENCES

1. I.N. Herstein, Topics in Algebra, Wiley Eastern Limited, New Delhi 1975.
2. I.S. Luther and I.B.S. Passi, Algebra, Vol I-Groups, Vol.II- Rings, Narosa Publishing House (Vol.I-1996, Vol.II-1999)
3. N.Jacobson, Basic Algebra, Vol.I& II.Freeman, 1980 Hindustan Publishing Company.
4. Kenneth Hoffman and Ray Kunze, Linear Algebra, Second Edition, Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited, New Delhi, 2014.

Question Pattern

Section A : $10 \times 2 = 20$ Marks, 2 Questions from each Unit.

Section B : $5 \times 5 = 25$ Marks, EITHER OR (a or b) Pattern, One question from each Unit.

Section C : $3 \times 10 = 30$ Marks, 3 out of 5, One Question from each Unit.

① 3 sem 9.3.18
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1. Vector Space :

A vector space V over a field F consists of a set on which two operations (called addition and scalar multiplication, respectively) are defined so that for each pair of elements x, y in V there is a unique element $x+y$ in V , and for each element a in F and each element x in V there is a unique element ax in V , such that the following conditions hold.

1. For all x, y in V , $x+y = y+x$ (commutativity of addition).
2. For all x, y, z in V , $(x+y)+z = x+(y+z)$ (associativity of addition).
3. There exists an element in V denoted by 0 such that $x+0 = x$ for each x in V .
4. For each element x in V there exists an element y in V such that $x+y = 0$.
5. For each element x in V , $1x = x$.
6. For each pair of elements a, b in F and each element x in V , $(ab)x = a(bx)$.
7. For each element a in F and each pair of elements x, y in V , $a(x+y) = ax+ay$.
8. For each pair of elements a, b in F and each element x in V , $(a+b)x = ax + bx$.

The elements $x+y$ and ax are called the sum of x and y and the product of a and x , respectively.

2. Subspace :

A subset W of a vector space V over a field F is called a subspace of V if W is a vector space over F with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined on V .

In any vector space V , V and $\{0\}$ are subspaces. The latter is called the zero subspace of V .

Thus a subset W of a vector space V is a subspace of V if and only if the following four properties hold.

1. $x+y \in W$ whenever $x \in W$ and $y \in W$. (W is closed under addition).
2. $cx \in W$ whenever $c \in F$ and $x \in W$. (W is closed under scalar multiplication)
3. W has a zero vector.
4. Each vector in W has an additive inverse in W .

3. Theorem:

Let V be a vector space and W be 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) $0 \in W$
- (b) $x+y \in W$ whenever $x \in W$ and $y \in W$.
- (c) $cx \in W$ whenever $c \in F$ and $x \in W$.

Proof:

If W is a subspace of V , then W is a vector space with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined on V . Hence conditions (b) and (c) hold, and there exists a vector $0' \in W$ such that $x + 0' = x$ for each $x \in W$. But also $x + 0 = x$, and thus $0' = 0$ by cancellation law of vector addition. So condition (a) holds.

Conversely, if conditions (a), (b), and (c) hold, the discussion preceding this theorem shows that W is a subspace of V if the additive inverse of each vector in W lies in W .

But if $x \in W$, then $-1x \in W$ by condition (c), and $-x = (-1)x$.

Hence W is a subspace of V .

4. Theorem :

Any intersection of subspaces of a vector space V is a subspace of V .

Proof:

Let C be a collection of subspaces of V , and let W denote the intersection of the subspaces in C . Since every subspace contains the zero vector, $0 \in W$.

Let $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$. Then x and y are contained in each subspace in C . Because each subspace in C is closed under addition and scalar multiplication, it follows that $x+y$ and ax are contained in each subspace in C . Hence $x+y$ and ax are also contained in W , so that W is a subspace of V .

5. Linear Combination :

Let V be a vector space and S a nonempty subset of V . A vector $v \in V$ is called a linear combination of vectors of S if there exists a finite number of vectors u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n in S and scalars a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n in F , a linear combination of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n such that $v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n$. In this case we also say that v is a linear combination of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n and call a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n the coefficients of linear combination.

Observe that in any vector space V , $0v = 0$ for each $v \in V$. Thus the zero vector is a linear combination of any nonempty subset of V .

6. Span:

Let S be a nonempty subset of a vector space V . The Span of S , denoted $\text{Span}(S)$, is the set consisting of all linear combinations of the vectors in S . For convenience, we define $\text{Span}(\emptyset) = \{0\}$.

7. Theorem:

The Span of any subset S of a vector space V is a subspace of V . Moreover, any subspace of V that contains S must also contain the Span of S .

Proof:

This result is immediate if $S = \emptyset$ because $\text{Span}(\emptyset) = \{0\}$, which is a subspace that is contained in any subspace of V .

If $S \neq \emptyset$, then S contains a vector z . So $0z = 0$ is in $\text{Span}(S)$. Let $x, y \in \text{Span}(S)$. Then there exists vectors $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ in S and scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$, such that

$$x = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_mu_m \text{ and } y = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_nv_n.$$

Then,

$$x+y = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_mu_m + b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_nv_n.$$

And, for any scalar c ,

$$cx = (ca_1)u_1 + (ca_2)u_2 + \dots + (ca_m)u_m$$

are clearly linear combinations of the vectors in S ; so $x+y$ and cx are in $\text{Span}(S)$. Thus $\text{Span}(S)$ is a subspace of V .

Now, let W denote any subspace of V that contains S . If $w \in \text{Span}(S)$, then w has the form $w = c_1w_1 + c_2w_2 + \dots + c_kw_k$ for some vectors w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k in S and some scalars c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k .

Since $S \subseteq W$, we have $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k \in W$. Therefore

$w = c_1w_1 + c_2w_2 + \dots + c_kw_k$ is in W . Because w , an arbitrary vector in $\text{span}(S)$, belongs to W , it follows that $\text{span}(S) \subseteq W$.

8. Linearly dependent set:

A subset S of a vector space V is called linearly dependent if there exist a finite number of distinct vectors u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n in S and scalars a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , not all zero, such that

$$a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n = 0$$

In this case we also say that the vectors of S are linearly dependent.

9. Linearly independent set:

Let V be a vector space over a field F . A finite set of vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in V is said to be linearly independent if

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n = 0 \Rightarrow a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0.$$

10. Theorem:

Let S be a linearly independent subset of a vector space V , and let v be a vector in V that is not in S . Then $S \cup \{v\}$ is linearly dependent if and only if $v \in \text{span}(S)$.

Proof:

If $S \cup \{v\}$ is linearly dependent, then there are vectors u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n in $S \cup \{v\}$ such that $a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n = 0$ for some nonzero scalars a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n . Because S is linearly independent, one of the u_i 's, say u_1 , equals v .

Thus $a_1v + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n = 0$, and so,

$$v = a_1(-a_2u_2 - \dots - a_nu_n) = -(a_1'a_2)u_2 - \dots - (a_1'a_n)u_n.$$

Since v is a linear combination of u_2, \dots, u_n , which are in S , we have $v \in \text{span}(S)$.

Conversely, let $v \in \text{span}(S)$. Then there exists vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m in S and scalars b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m such that $v = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_mv_m$.

Hence

$$0 = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_mv_m + (-D)v.$$

Since $v = v_i$ for $i=1, 2, \dots, m$, the coefficient of v in the linear combination is non-zero, and so that the set $\{v, v_2, \dots, v_m, v\}$ is linearly dependent.

Therefore $S \cup \{v\}$ is linearly dependent.

11. Basis:

A basis B for a vector space V is a linearly independent subset of V that generates V . If B is a basis for V , we also say that the vectors of B form a basis for V .

12. Theorem:

Let V be a vector space and $B = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ be a subset of V . Then B is a basis for V if and only if each $v \in V$ can be uniquely expressed as a linear combination of vectors of B , that is, can be expressed in the form

$$v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n$$

for unique scalars a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n .

Proof:

Let B be a basis for V . If $v \in V$, then $v \in \text{span}(B)$, because $\text{span}(B) = V$.

Thus v is a linear combination of the vectors of β .

Suppose that,

$$v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n \text{ and } v = b_1u_1 + b_2u_2 + \dots + b_nu_n$$

are two such that representations of v . Subtracting the second equation from the first gives

$$0 = (a_1 - b_1)u_1 + (a_2 - b_2)u_2 + \dots + (a_n - b_n)u_n.$$

Since β is linearly independent, it follows that $a_1 - b_1 = a_2 - b_2 = \dots = a_n - b_n = 0$.

Hence $a_1 = b_1, a_2 = b_2, \dots, a_n = b_n$, and so v is uniquely expressible as a linear combination of the vectors of β .

Conversely,

$$v \in V, \text{Span}(S) = V$$

uniquely expressed as a linear combination of vectors of β .

$$v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_nu_n$$

$$a_1u_1 = -a_2u_2 = -a_3u_3 = \dots = 0,$$

linearly independent subset of V .

Hence β is a basis for V .

13.

Theorem:

If a vector space V is generated by a finite set S , then some subset of S is a basis for V . Hence V has a finite basis.

Proof:

If $S = \emptyset$ or $S = \{\emptyset\}$, then $V = \{\emptyset\}$ and \emptyset is a subset of S that is a basis for V . Otherwise S contains a nonzero vector u_1 . $\{u_1\}$ is a linearly independent set.

Continue, if possible, choosing vectors u_2, \dots, u_k in S

such that $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$ is linearly independent. Since S is a finite set, we must eventually reach a stage at which $B = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$ is a linearly independent subset of S , but adjoining to B any vector in S not in B produces a linearly dependent set.

We claim that B is a basis for V . Because B is linearly independent by construction, it suffices to show that B spans V . We need to show that $S \subseteq \text{span}(B)$.

Let $v \in S$: If $v \in B$, then clearly $v \in \text{span}(B)$. otherwise, if $v \notin B$, then the preceding constructions show that $B \cup \{v\}$ is linearly dependent. So $v \in \text{span}(B)$.

Thus $S \subseteq \text{span}(B)$.

14. Replacement Theorem:

Let V be a vector space that is generated by a set G containing exactly n vectors, and let L be a linearly independent subset of V containing exactly m vectors. Then $m \leq n$ and there exists a subset H of G containing exactly $n-m$ vectors such that $L \cup H$ generates V .

Proof:

The proof is by mathematical induction on m . The induction begins with $m=0$; for in this case $L = \emptyset$, and so taking $H=G$ gives the desired result.

Now suppose that the theorem is true for some integer $m \geq 0$.

We prove that the theorem is true for $m+1$. Let $L = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{m+1}\}$ be a linearly independent subset of V consisting of $m+1$ vectors. $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent, and so we may apply the induction hypothesis to conclude that $m \leq n$ and that there is a subset $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{n-m}\}$ of G such that $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\} \cup \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{n-m}\}$ generates V . Thus there exist scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n-m}$ such that

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_mv_m + b_1u_1 + b_2u_2 + \dots + b_{n-m}u_{n-m} = v_{m+1} \quad (1)$$

Note that $n-m > 0$, lest v_{m+1} be a linear combination of v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m contradicts the assumption that L is linearly independent.

Hence $n \geq m$; that is, $n \geq m+1$. Moreover, some b_i , say b_1 , is nonzero, for otherwise we obtain the same contradiction.

Solving (1) for u_1 gives

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 &= (-b_1^{-1}a_1)v_1 + (-b_1^{-1}a_2)v_2 + \dots + (-b_1^{-1}a_m)v_m + (b_1^{-1})v_{m+1}, \\ &\quad + (-b_1^{-1}b_2)u_2 + \dots + (-b_1^{-1}b_{n-m})u_{n-m}. \end{aligned}$$

Let $H = \{u_2, \dots, u_{n-m}\}$. Then $u_1 \in \text{Span}(LUH)$, and because $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m, u_2, \dots, u_{n-m}$ are clearly in $\text{Span}(LUH)$, it follows that

$$\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m, u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{n-m}\} \subseteq \text{Span}(LUH).$$

Because $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m, u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{n-m}\}$ generates V .

$\text{Span}(LUH) = V$. Since H is a subset of G that contains $(n-m)-1 = n-(m+1)$ vectors, the theorem is true for $m+1$.

This completes the induction.

15. Finite dimensional :

A vector space is called finite-dimensional if it has a basis consisting of a finite number of vectors. The unique number of vectors in each basis for V is called the dimension of V and is denoted by $\dim(V)$.

16. Maximal Linearly independent subset:

Let S be a subset of a vector space V . A maximal linearly independent subset of S is a subset B of S satisfying both of the following conditions.

- (a) B is linearly independent
- (b) The only linearly independent subset of S that contains B is B itself.

UNIT-II

Linear Transformation (3/1)

Defn:-

Let V and W be vector spaces over the field F . A linear transformation from V into W is a fn^t T from V into W such that $T(c\alpha + \beta) = c(T\alpha) + T\beta$ for all α and β in V and all scalars c in F .

Ex:-1 If V is any vector space, the identity transfr. I_V , defined by $I_V\alpha = \alpha$, is a lin- transfr. V into V . The zero transfr. O_V , defined by $O_V\alpha = 0$ is a lin- transfr. from V into V .

Ex:-2 Let F be a field and let V be the space of polynomial fn^t f from F into F , given by

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_n x^n$$

Let $(Df)(x) = c_1 + 2c_2x + \dots + nc_n x^{n-1}$

Then D is a lin- transfr. from V into V - the differentiation transfr.

Ex:-3 Let A be a fixed $m \times n$ matrix with entries in the field F . The fn^t T defined by $T(x) = Ax$, is a lin- transfr. from $F^{n \times 1}$ into $F^{m \times 1}$. The fn^t U defined by $U(x) = dA$ is a lin- transfr. from F^n into F^m .

Ex:-4

Let P be a fixed $m \times n$ matrix with entries in the field F and let Q be a fixed $n \times n$ matrix over F . Define a fn^t T from the space F^{mn} into itself by $T(A) = PAQ$. Then T is a lin- transfr. from F^{mn} into F^{mn} , because

$$\begin{aligned} T(cA + B) &= P(cA + B)Q \\ &= (cPA + PB)Q \\ &= cPAQ + PBQ \\ &= cT(A) + T(B) \end{aligned}$$

Ex:-5

Let R be a field of real numbers and let V be the space of all fn^t from R into R which are continuous. Define T by

$$(Tf)(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$$

Then T is a lin- transfr. from V into V . The fn^t Tf is not only continuous but has a continuous 1st derivative. The linearity of integration is one of its fundamental properties.

NOTE:-

(i) T is a lin- transfr. from V into W , then $T(0) =$

$$T(0) = T(0+0) = T(0) + T(0)$$

(ii) By addition property $T(0) = 0$. We generalise by saying that if T is such a transfr. 'preserves' lin- comb's; that is,

if a_1, \dots, a_n are vectors in V and c_1, \dots, c_n are scalars, then $T(c_1a_1 + \dots + c_na_n) = c_1T(a_1) + \dots + c_nT(a_n)$

For ex:- $T(c_1x_1 + c_2x_2) = T(c_1x_1) + T(c_2x_2)$

$$= c_1T(x_1) + c_2T(x_2)$$

Theorem:-1
 Let V be a finite-dimensional vectorspace over the field F and let β_1, \dots, β_n be an ordered basis for V .
 Let W be a vector space over the same field F and let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m$ be any vectors in W . Then there is precisely one left-transformation T from V onto W such that $T\beta_j = \alpha_j$, $j=1, 2, \dots, n$.

Proof: To prove there is some left-transformation T with $T\beta_j = \alpha_j$ we proceed as follows. Given α_i, β_j , there is a unique n -tuple (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) such that $\alpha_i = x_1\beta_1 + \dots + x_n\beta_n$. For the vectors x we define

$$Tx = x_1\beta_1 + \dots + x_n\beta_n$$

Then T is a well-defined rule for associating with each vector x in V a vector Tx in W . From the defn. it is clear that $T\beta_j = \alpha_j$ for each j . To see that T is linear, let

$$\alpha = y_1\beta_1 + \dots + y_n\beta_n \text{ be in } V.$$

and let c be any scalar. Now

$$\begin{aligned} c\alpha + \beta &= (cy_1\beta_1 + \dots + cy_n\beta_n) + y_1\beta_1 + \dots + y_n\beta_n \\ &= (y_1 + y_1)\beta_1 + \dots + (y_n + y_n)\beta_n \end{aligned}$$

and so by defn.

$$T(c\alpha + \beta) = (y_1 + y_1)\beta_1 + \dots + (y_n + y_n)\beta_n$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} c(T\alpha) + T\beta &= c \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \beta_i + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \beta_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (cx_i + y_i) \beta_i \\ &= (cx_1 + y_1)\beta_1 + \dots + (cx_n + y_n)\beta_n \\ &= T(c\alpha + \beta) \end{aligned}$$

Thus $T(c\alpha + \beta) = c(T\alpha) + T\beta$

If α was left-translated from V into W with $T\alpha_j = \beta_j$, $j=1, \dots, n$ then for the vector $a = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \alpha_i$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} Ta &= T\left(\sum_{i=1}^m x_i \alpha_i\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m x_i T\alpha_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m x_i \beta_i \\ &= T\alpha \end{aligned}$$

So that T is exactly the rule T which we defined above. This shows that the left-transformation with $T\beta_j = \alpha_j$ is unique.

Ex:-6 The vectors $\alpha_1 = (1, 2)$, $\alpha_2 = (3, 4)$ are lin. indept and therefore form a basis for \mathbb{R}^2 . According to this, there is a unique left-transformation from \mathbb{R}^2 into \mathbb{R}^2 such that $T\alpha_1 = (3, 2, 1)$, $T\alpha_2 = (6, 5, 4)$.

If so, we must be able to find $T(0)$. We find scalars c_1, c_2 such that c_1, c_2 coefficients and then we get $T(0) = c_1 T\alpha_1 + c_2 T\alpha_2$.

5. If $C(1,0) = C_1(1,2) + C_2(3,4)$ then $C_1 = -2, C_2 = 1$
 Thus $T(C,1) = -2(T(1,2)) + 1(T(3,4))$
 $= (0,1,2)$.

Ex: 7
 Let T be a linear trans from the m-tuple
 space to the n-tuple space
 then T is uniquely determined by the
 sequence of vectors p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m where $p_i = T e_i$,
 $i=1, \dots, m$

T is uniquely determined by the images
 of the standard basic vectors. The
 determination is $\alpha = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$

$$T\alpha = (x_1 p_1 + x_2 p_2 + \dots + x_m p_m)$$

If B is the $m \times n$ matrix which has
 row vectors p_1, p_2, \dots this says that
 $T\alpha = \alpha B$. In other words $p_i = B_{i1}, B_{i2}, \dots, B_{in}$
 then $T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = [x_1, x_2, \dots] \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} & \dots & B_{1n} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} & \dots & B_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ B_{m1} & B_{m2} & \dots & B_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$

NOTE

If T is a linear trans \rightarrow note W then
 the range of T is not only a subset of W
 It is a subspace of W . Let R_T be the range
 of T i.e. the set of all vectors $p \in W$ s.t.
 $p = T\alpha$ for some $\alpha \in V$.

For stars

Let p_1, p_2 be the in R_T and let c
 be a scalar. There are vectors $x, y \in V$
 such that $Tx = p_1$ and $Ty = p_2$.

$$\text{Since } T \text{ is lin. } T(Cx+cy) = c(Tx)+Ty$$

$$= cp_1+cp_2$$

which shows that cp_1+cp_2 is also in R_T .

Note:-2

The linear trans T is the set N consisting
 of the vectors $x \in V$ such that $Tx = 0$
 It is a subspace of V , because

a) $T(0) = 0$ S.T N is non-empty

b) If $T(\alpha) = T(\beta) = 0$, then $T(C\alpha+\beta) = 0$

Show that $C\alpha$ and β is in N .

Defn - Null Space

Let V & W be a vector spaces over
 a field F and let T be a linear transformation
 $V \rightarrow W$.

The null space of T is the set of all
 vectors $x \in V$ such that $Tx = 0$

If V is finite dim., the rank of
 T is the dimension of the range of T and
 the nullity of T is the dimension of null
 space of T .

Theorem-2

Let V and W be vector spaces over the field F , and T be a linear transf. from V into W . Suppose that V is finite dim.
then $\text{rank } T + \text{nullity } T = \dim V$.

Proof:
Let (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) be a basis for V .
the null space of T . There are n vectors $(dx_1, dx_2, \dots, dx_n)$ in V such that $\{dx_1, dx_2, \dots, dx_n\}$ is a basis for V .

Now we put $\{Tx_{k+1}, Tx_{k+2}, \dots, Tx_n\}$ is a basis for the range of T .
The vectors $(Tx_1 + Tx_2 + \dots + Tx_n)$ clearly span the range T .

Since $Tdx_j = 0$ for $j \in k$

$\therefore Tx_{k+1}, Tx_{k+2}, \dots, Tx_n$ span the range.

Therefore these vectors are lin. indep. Suppose there are scalars c_i such that $\sum_{j=k+1}^n c_j(Tx_j) = 0$. This says that $T(\sum_{j=k+1}^n c_j x_j) = 0$ and accordingly the vector $d = \sum_{j=k+1}^n c_j x_j$ is the null space of T .

Theorem-2

Since x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n forms a basis for V .
There must be scalars b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n such that
 $d = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i$

Then $\sum_{i=1}^n b_i dx_i = \sum_{j=k+1}^n c_j dx_j = 0$ since
 dx_1, dx_2, \dots, dx_n be lin. indep. we must have $b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_n = c_{k+1} + \dots + c_n = 0$

It $\therefore r$ is the rank of T . In fact that $Tx_{k+1}, Tx_{k+2}, \dots, Tx_n$ form a basis for the range of T .
Therefore $r = n - k$

Since k is the nullity of T and n is $\dim V$. Therefore
 $\text{rank } T + \text{nullity } T = \dim V$.

Theorem-3

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with entries in the field F , then $\text{row rank of } A = \text{column rank of } A$

Proof:
Let T be lin. transf. from $F^{m \times 1}$ into $F^{m \times 1}$ defined by $TX = AX$.
The null space of T is the solution space for the syst. $AX = 0$ i.e. the set of all column matrices X such that $AX = 0$.

The range of T is the set of all $m \times 1$ column matrices y such that $AX = y$ has a solution for x .

If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are columns of A , then $AX = x_1A_1 + x_2A_2 + \dots + x_nA_n$. Show that the range of T is the subspace spanned by the columns of A .

In other words, the range of T is the column space of A .

Therefore $\text{rank } T = \text{column rank } A$.

If S is the solution space for the system $AX = 0$,

Then $\dim S = \text{column rank } A - n$.

If Φ_n is the basis of the row space of A , then the solution space S has a basis consisting of $(n-r)$ vectors.

Therefore $\dim S = n - \text{row rank of } A$.

row rank of $A = \text{column rank of } A$

10.3.2 The Algebra of Linear Transformations

Thm:- 4

Let V and W be vector spaces over the field F . Let T and U be linear transforms from V into W . The sum $(T+U)$ defined by $(T+U)x = Tx + Ux$ is a linear transform from V into W . If c is any element of F , the cT defined by $(cT)x = c(Tx)$ is a linear transform from V into W . The set of all linear transforms from V into W , together with the addition and scalar multiplication defined above, is a vector space over the field F .

Proof:-

Suppose T and U linear transforms from V into W and that c is defined $(T+U)$ as above.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } (T+U)(c\alpha + p) &= T(c\alpha + p) + U(c\alpha + p) \\ &= c(T\alpha) + Tp + U(c\alpha) + Up \\ &= c(T\alpha) + Up + Tp + Up \\ &= c(T+U)\alpha + (T+U)p \end{aligned}$$

which it shows that $(T+U)$ is a linear transform ^{III}.

$$cT(c\alpha + p) = c[T(c\alpha + p)]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= C(T(d\alpha) + T\beta) \\
 &= C(d(T\alpha)) + T\beta \\
 &= d(C(T\alpha)) + T\beta \\
 &= d(C(T\alpha)) + (CT)\beta \\
 CT(\alpha + \beta) &= d(CT\alpha) + (CT)\beta
 \end{aligned}$$

Ex 4

$$(T * U)(C\alpha + \beta) = C(T\alpha)U + (T * U)\beta$$

Note: We shall denote the space of linear map from V into W by $L(V, W)$.

Theorem 5

Let V be n -dim. vector space over the field F . and let W be m -dim. vector space over F . Then this space $L(V, W)$ is first countable and has dimension.

Proof:

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m\}$$

$\mathcal{B}' = \{\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n\}$ be order basis for V and W , respectively.

for each pair of integers (p, q) with $1 \leq p \leq m$ and $1 \leq q \leq n$. we define a lin. trans. E^{pq} from V into W by

$$E^{(p,q)}(\alpha_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq p \\ \beta_q & \text{if } i = p \end{cases}$$

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$$= \sum_{p=1}^m \sum_{q=1}^n A_{pq} \beta_q$$

There is an unique lin. trans. from V into W satisfying these condition. We claim that our transformations $E^{(p,q)}$ form a basis for $L(V, W)$.

Let T be a lin. trans. from V into W . For each j , $1 \leq j \leq n$

let A_{ij} , A_{mj} be the co-ordinates of the vector $T\alpha_j$ in the order basis \mathcal{B} .

$$\text{ie. } T\alpha_j = \sum_{p=1}^m A_{pj} \beta_p \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Let us S.T., $T\alpha_j = \sum_{p=1}^m A_{pj} \beta_p$

$$T = \sum_{p=1}^m \sum_{q=1}^n A_{pq} E^{pq} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Let U be the lin. trans. onto the right but not E^{pq} (2)

$$\text{Then for each } j, U\alpha_j = \sum_{p=1}^m \sum_{q=1}^n A_{pq} E^{pq}(\alpha_j)$$

$$= \sum_{p=1}^m \sum_{q=1}^n A_{pq} \delta_{jq} \beta_p$$

$$= \sum_{p=1}^m A_{pj} \beta_p$$

$$= T\alpha_j$$

And consequently U

Now eqn ② shows that E^{Pq} span $L(V, W)$ we must prove that they are independent. Therefore let transf $U = \sum_{ij} U_{ij} E^{Pq}$. As the α transformation, $U_{ij} = 0$ for each j .

$$E^P \in A^P, P_p = 0$$

and the independent of P_p implies that $A_{ij} = 0$ for every P_p . for every P_p and similar non zero terms. Then $A_{ij} = 0$ since $A_{ij} \neq 0$ and $A_{ij} = 0$

of W, W, X be the vector spaces of the field F .

Q3. Q4. If T be a linear transf V into W and U be a linear transf W into Z then the composed to UT defined by $(UT)\alpha = U(T\alpha)$ is a linear transf V into Z .

$$\begin{aligned} UT(C\alpha + \beta) &= U[T(C\alpha + \beta)] \\ &= U(CT\alpha + T\beta) \\ &= U(CT\alpha) + UT\beta \\ &= C(U\alpha) + (UT)\beta \end{aligned}$$

UT is linear trans.

Ex: If V is a vectorspace over the field F , a linear operator on V is a linear transf from V into V .

NOTE.

In case the thm to $V = W = Z$, S.T U, V are linear operators on the space V .

The composition UT is again linear operator on V .

Therefore this space $L(V, V)$ has a multiplication defined on it by composition.

In this case the operator T_0 is also defined and in general $UT \neq TU$

$$i) UT - TU \neq 0$$

Lemma:-

Let V be a vectorspace over F . Let T_1, T_2 and T_3 be linear operators on V and let C be an element of F .

- a) $I \cdot U = UI = U$
- b) $U(T_1 + T_2) = UT_1 + UT_2$
- c) $(T_1 + T_2)U = T_1U + T_2U$
- d) $C(U T_1) = (CU) T_1 = U(C T_1)$

Proof:-

$$\begin{aligned} a) (I \cdot U) \alpha &= I(U\alpha) = U(I\alpha) = U\alpha \\ (U \cdot I)\alpha &= (U\alpha) \cdot I = (U\alpha) \cdot 1 = U\alpha. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$(IU) = UI = U.$$

$$\begin{aligned} b) [U(T_1 + T_2)]\alpha &= U[(T_1 + T_2)\alpha] \\ &= U[T_1\alpha + T_2\alpha] \\ &= U(T_1\alpha) + U(T_2\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

$$= (UT_1)x + (UT_2)x$$

Hence $U(T_1 + T_2)x = UT_1x + UT_2x$

$$\text{III}^3 \quad (T_1 + T_2)U = T_1U + T_2U$$

$$\text{C}(UT_1)x = \text{C}(U(T_1)x)$$

$$= \text{C}(UT_1x)$$

$$= \text{C}(UT_1)x$$

Theorem EX-8

If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with entries in F , we have the linear transfr. T defined by \exists

$$T(x) = Ax \text{ from } F^{(n)} \text{ into } F^{(m)}$$

If B is a $p \times m$ matrix we have the linear transfr. U from $F^{(m)}$ into $F^{(p)}$ defined by $U(y) = By$. Find the composition of UT .

$$(UT)x = U(Tx)$$

$$= U(Ax)$$

$$= B(Ax)$$

$$= (BA)x.$$

Ex-9

Let F be a field V be the vector space of all polynomial fct- from F into F .

Let D be the differentiation operator defined by $(D)f(x) = c_1 + 2c_2x + \dots + nc_nx^{n-1}$ and

Let T be the link operator multi by $\#x$ therefore $(TS)x = xf(x)$ then $DT \neq TD$

Theorem-7

Let V and W be vector spaces over the field F and

Let T be a link transfr. from V into W . If T is invertible then the inverse fct- T^{-1} is a link transfr. from W onto V .

Proof-

Let T is one-one and on-to there is a uniquely determinant Inverse fct- T^{-1} which map W onto V such that $T^{-1}T$ is the identity fct- on V and TT^{-1} is the identity fct- on W .

Therefore if a link fct- T is invertible, then the inverse T^{-1} is also link.

Let p_1, p_2 be vector to W and c be a scalar we show that $T(p_1 + p_2) = cT(p_1) + T(p_2)$

$$\text{Let } d_i = T^{-1}p_i, i=1,2.$$

i.e. Let d_i be the unique vector to V .

Such that $Tx_i = \beta_i$

Since T is lin.

$$\therefore T(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = (\beta_1 + \beta_2) + T\alpha_2 \\ = C\beta_1 + \beta_2$$

Thus $C\beta_1 + \beta_2$ is a unique vector in V , which is sent by T onto $C\beta_1 + \beta_2$.

$$T^{-1}(C\beta_1 + \beta_2) = C\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$(e) \quad = C(T\beta_1) + T(\beta_2)$$

$\therefore T^{-1}$ also lin.

Note:-

* Suppose that we have an invertible left-transf. T from V onto W and an invertible left-transf. U from W onto Z . Then UT is invertible $(UT)^{-1} = T^{-1}U^{-1}$. That conclusion does not require the linearity. Therefore UT is 1-1 and onto.

* $T^{-1}U^{-1}$ is both left & right inverse for UT .

* If T is lin., then $T(\alpha - \beta) = T\alpha - T\beta$ hence $T\alpha = T\beta$ iff $T(\alpha - \beta) = 0$. Therefore T is onto & one.

Let us call T non-singular if $T\gamma = 0 \rightarrow \gamma = 0$

re) If null space of T is $\{0\}$ evidently T is one-one iff T is non-singular.

* The non-singular lin.-transf. are lin.-independent.

Thm:-

If T be a lin. transf. from V into W then T is non-singular iff T carries each lin.-indept. subset of V onto lin.-indept. subset of W .

Proof:-

* Suppose that T is non-singular.

Let S be lin.-indept. subset of V . If $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are vectors in S .

Then the vector $T\alpha_1, T\alpha_2, \dots, T\alpha_n$ are lin.-independent for iff

$$c_1(T\alpha_1) + c_2(T\alpha_2) + \dots + c_n(T\alpha_n) = 0$$

$$T(c_1\alpha_1 + c_2\alpha_2 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n) = 0.$$

Since T is non-singular,

$$c_1\alpha_1 + c_2\alpha_2 + \dots + c_n\alpha_n = 0$$

From which it follows that each $c_i = 0$ because S is an indept. set.

This argument implies that the image of S under T is indept.

Suppose that T carries predep. subspaces onto independent subset.

Let α be the non-zero vector in V . Then the set S consisting of the one vector α is independent. The image of S is the set consisting of one vector $T\alpha$ and this set is independent.

Therefore $T\alpha \neq 0$. Because the set consisting of the zero vector alone is dependent.

Thus shows that the null space of T is the 0 subspace. Therefore T is non-singular.

Ex-1

Let F be a subfield of complex no- at B be the space of polynomial fn over F . Consider the differential operator D and multi- by X the operator T defined as follows

$$(Tf)x = Tf(x), \quad DT = T D$$

Since T sends all constants onto 0.

T is singular. however T is not finite dim. the range of T is all of V and that is possible to define a right inverse for T .

20. For ex- If E is the infinite integral operator.

$$E(C_0 + C_1x + C_2x^2 + \dots + C_nx^n) = C_0I + \frac{C_1}{2}x^2 + \frac{C_2}{3}x^3 + \dots + \frac{C_n}{n+1}x^{n+1}$$

Then E is left operator on E and $DE = I$.

On the other hand $ED \neq I$. Because E, D sends the constant into 0. the operator T is called the reverse situation. If $f(f(x)) = 0 \quad \forall x$, then $f = 0$. Thus T is non-singular and it is possible to find the left inverse of T .

Let F be a field and T be the left operator E^2 defined by $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 + x_2, x_1)$. Then T is non-singular if $T(x_1, x_2) = 0$ therefore $x_1 + x_2 = 0$ and $x_1 = 0$.

S.T. $x_1 + x_2 = 0$ and T is onto.

let (x_1, x_2) be any vector in F^2 . To S.T. x_1, x_2 is in the range of T we must find scalars x_1, x_2 $\Rightarrow x_1 + x_2 = x_1$ and $x_1 = x_2$. Therefore the scalars are $x_1 = x_2$, $x_2 = x_1 - x_2$. This last computation gives us formula for T^{-1} namely $T^{-1}(x_1, x_2) = (x_2, x_1)$