

Linear Algebra

University of Tlemcen
Faculty of Sciences

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1 Vectorial Spaces

Définition 1.1 Let $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} , and E be a set equipped with two rules laws, one denoted by \oplus (internal) and the other denoted by \otimes (external), defined by:"

$$\oplus : E \times E \longrightarrow E$$

$$\otimes : E \times \mathbb{K} \longrightarrow E$$

$$(x, y) \longrightarrow x \oplus y,$$

$$(x, \alpha) \longrightarrow \alpha \otimes x.$$

E is called a vector space over \mathbb{K} , and it is denoted as $\mathbb{K}.v.s$ if and only if:

1. $u \oplus v = v \oplus u$ (for all $u, v \in E$)
2. $u \oplus (v \oplus w) = (u \oplus v) \oplus w$ (for all $u, v, w \in E$).
3. There exists a neutral element $0_E \in E$ such that $u \oplus 0_E = u$ for all $u \in E$.
4. Every $u \in E$ has a symmetric element u' such that $u \oplus u' = 0_E$. This element u' is noted $-u$.
5. $\forall u \in E : 1 \otimes u = u$.
6. $\forall u \in E, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{K} : a \otimes (b \otimes u) = (a.b) \otimes u$ ($.$ denotes the usual multiplication).
7. $\forall u \in E, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{K} : (a + b) \otimes u = (a \otimes u) \oplus (b \otimes u)$ ($+$ denotes the usual addition).
8. $\forall u, v \in E, \forall a \in \mathbb{K} : a \otimes (u \oplus v) = (a \otimes u) \oplus (a \otimes v)$.

The elements of E are called **vectors**, and the elements of \mathbb{K} are called **scalars**

Exemple 1.2 We equip \mathbb{R}^2 with the following two rules of computation:

$$\forall (x, y), (x', y') \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x, y) + (x', y') = (x + x', y + y')$$

and

$$\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} : \alpha.(x, y) = (\alpha x, \alpha y),$$

where $+$ and \cdot represent the usual addition and multiplication, respectively. Equipped with these two operations, $(\mathbb{R}^2, +, \cdot)$ forms an \mathbb{R} -vector space. More generally, for \mathbb{R}^n with the rules:

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$

and The operation defined by $\alpha \cdot (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2, \dots, \alpha x_n)$ constitutes an \mathbb{R} -vector space.

Proposition 1.3 Let (E, \oplus, \otimes) be a \mathbb{K} -vector space.

1. $\forall u \in E, 0 \otimes u = 0_E$ (where 0_E is the neutral element of E).
2. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{K} : \alpha \otimes 0_E = 0_E$
3. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{K}, \forall u \in E : \alpha \otimes (-u) = (-\alpha) \otimes u = -\alpha \otimes u$
4. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{K}, \forall u \in E : \alpha \otimes u = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha = 0$ ou $u = 0_E$.

2 Vectorial subspaces

Définition 2.1 A non-empty subset F of a \mathbb{K} -vector space E , equipped with the rules $+$ and \cdot , is a vector subspace of E . We denote it as F v.s. of E if and only if:

1. $F \neq \emptyset$.
2. $\forall u, v \in F, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K} : \alpha u + \beta v \in F$.

Exemple 2.2 Let's show that

$$E_1 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 / x + y - z = 0\}$$

is a vectorial subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 ,

1. $E_1 \neq \emptyset$, because $(0, 0, 0) \in E_1$.
2. $\forall u = (x, y, z) \in E_1, \forall v = (x', y', z') \in E_1, \forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R} :$

$$\lambda u + \mu v = (\lambda x + \mu x', \lambda y + \mu y', \lambda z + \mu z').$$

Or,

$$(\lambda x + \mu x') + (\lambda y + \mu y') - (\lambda z + \mu z') = \underbrace{\lambda(x + y - z)}_{=0} + \underbrace{\mu(x' + y' - z')}_{=0} = 0.$$

because $u = (x, y, z) \in E_1$ et $v = (x', y', z') \in E_1 \Rightarrow \lambda u + \mu v \in E_1$.

Conclusion: E_1 is a vectorial subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Proposition 2.3 Every vectorial subspace of a \mathbb{K} -vector space E contains 0_E .

3 Linearly independent family, linearly dependent family

Définition 3.1 n non-zero vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in E are linearly independent (free) if and only if

$$\forall a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{K} : (a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n = 0) \Rightarrow (a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0).$$

Exemple 3.2 Consider the vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 : $e_1 = (1, 0, 0)$, $e_2 = (0, 1, 0)$, and $e_3 = (0, 0, 1)$. Let's show that they are linearly independent:

$$a_1e_1 + a_2e_2 + a_3e_3 = a_1(1, 0, 0) + a_2(0, 1, 0) + a_3(0, 0, 1)$$

$$= (0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow \begin{cases} a_1 = 0 \\ a_2 = 0 \\ a_3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Thus, the family e_1, e_2, e_3 is linearly independent.

Définition 3.3 n vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n in E are linearly dependent if and only if the equation

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n = 0,$$

has at least one solution with $a_i \neq 0$.

Exemple 3.4 Consider the vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 : $u_1 = (1, 1, 0)$, $u_2 = (0, 1, 1)$, and $u_3 = (1, 2, 1)$. Let's show that they are linearly dependent:

$$a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + a_3u_3 = a_1(1, 1, 0) + a_2(0, 1, 1) + a_3(1, 2, 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow (0, 0, 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} a_1 + a_3 = 0 \\ a_1 + a_2 + 2a_3 = 0 \\ a_2 + a_3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} a_1 = -a_3 \\ a_2 = -a_3 \end{cases}$$

So, the family u_1, u_2, u_3 is linearly dependent (It can be noticed that $u_3 = u_1 + u_2$, which implies that the family u_1, u_2, u_3 is linearly dependent).

Définition 3.5 Let E be a \mathbb{K} -vector space, and v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n , n vectors in E . Any expression of the form

$$\alpha_1v_1 + \alpha_2v_2 + \dots + \alpha_nv_n,$$

where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{K}$ are the coefficients, is called a linear combination of the vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n .

4 Bases and dimension of a vectorial space

Définition 4.1 A family v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n is said to be generating for E if and only if

$$\forall v \in E, \exists \alpha_i \in \mathbb{K} \text{ such that } v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n,$$

that is:

$$E = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i / \alpha_i \in \mathbb{K} \right\},$$

and we have écrit, $E = \text{lin}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ or $E = \text{Vect}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$.

Exemple 4.2 Let $E = \{(x + y, y - 3x, x) \in \mathbb{R}^3 | x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

For $u \in E \Rightarrow u = (x + y, y - 3x, x) = (x, -3x, x) + (y, y, 0) = x(1, -3, 1) + y(1, 1, 0)$.

So $\{(1, -3, 1), (1, 1, 0)\}$ is a generating family for E .

Définition 4.3 A base of a vector space E is any family that is both linearly independent and generating for E .

Exemple 4.4 The family e_1, e_2, e_3 with $e_1 = (1, 0, 0), e_2 = (0, 1, 0), e_3 = (0, 0, 1)$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 . We have already shown that it is linearly independent. Let's now show that it is generating:

For $u \in \mathbb{R}^3$ we have: $u = (x, y, z) = (x, 0, 0) + (0, y, 0) + (0, 0, z) = x(1, 0, 0) + y(0, 1, 0) + z(0, 0, 1)$.

Therefore, e_1, e_2, e_3 is a generating family for \mathbb{R}^3 . Thus, it is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 and is called the canonical basis of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Définition 4.5 If e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n is a basis for the vector space E , then E is of finite dimension n . We denote it as $\dim E = n$. By convention, $\dim 0_E = 0$.

5 Linear application

Let E and F be two \mathbb{K} -vectorial spaces.

Définition 5.1 A linear map T from E to F is defined as linear if and only if:

$$\forall u, v \in E, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K} : T(\alpha u + \beta v) = \alpha T(u) + \beta T(v).$$

Exemple 5.2 $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ a map defined by $T(x, y) = (x + y, x - y)$. T is linear. Indeed, let $u = (x, y), v = (x', y') \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\begin{aligned} T(\alpha u + \beta v) &= T(\alpha(x, y) + \beta(x', y')) = T(\alpha x + \beta x', \alpha y + \beta y') \\ &= (\alpha x + \beta x' + \alpha y + \beta y', \alpha x + \beta x' - \alpha y - \beta y') \\ &= (\alpha(x + y) + \beta(x' + y'), \alpha(x - y) + \beta(x' - y')) \\ &= (\alpha(x + y), \alpha(x - y)) + (\beta(x' + y'), \beta(x' - y')) \\ &= \alpha(x + y, x - y) + \beta(x' + y', x' - y') = \alpha T(x, y) + \beta T(x', y') = \alpha T(u) + \beta T(v). \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 5.3 If T from E to F is a linear map, then:

1. $\forall u \in E : T(-u) = -T(u)$.
2. $T(0_E) = 0_F$.

Définition 5.4 Let $T : E \rightarrow F$ be a linear map. The kernel of T , denoted as $\ker(T)$, is defined as

$$\ker T = \{u \in E; T(u) = 0_F\}.$$

Définition 5.5 Let $T : E \rightarrow F$ be a linear map. The image of T , denoted as $\text{Im}(T)$, is defined as

$$\text{Im}T = \{v \in F; v = T(u) \text{ avec } u \in E\} = T(E).$$

Proposition 5.6 Let $T : E \rightarrow F$ be a linear map. Then, $\ker(T)$ is a subspace of E , and $\text{Im}(T)$ is a subspace of F .

Theorem 5.7 Let $T : E \rightarrow F$ a linear application, then:

1. T is injective $\iff \ker T = \{0_E\}$.
2. T is surjective $\iff \text{Im}T = F$.

Theorem 5.8 (Kernel-Image Theorem) Let $T : E \rightarrow F$ be a linear map, with $\dim E = n$ (finite), then

$$\dim E = \dim \ker T + \dim \text{Im}T.$$

Proposition 5.9 If $T : E \rightarrow F$ is linear and $\dim E = \dim F = n$, then the following properties are equivalent.

- T is bijective.
- T is injective.
- T is surjective.

6 Rank of a linear map

Définition 6.1 (Rank of a linear map) Let $T : E \rightarrow F$ be a linear map. The rank of T is defined as the dimension of $\text{Im}(T)$. It is denoted as

$$\text{rg}(T) = \dim(\text{Im}(T)) = \dim(T(E)).$$