

Students  
Of  
Mathematics

قال كذا ان مي يبي سيدين  
باري اهدنا ورتنا لكل خير

Chapter (1) Systems of Linear Equations & Matrices

Sec 1.1 Introduction to systems of Linear Equations

Def:- A linear equation in  $n$  variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  is an equation of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$  where  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b$  are real constants.

Examples:-

①  $2x + 3y = 7$  (Linear)

②  $2x - 3y + 7z - w = 5 - u$  (Linear)

③  $x_1 - x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0$  (Linear)

④  $x + 3y + z = 5$  (Linear)

⑤  $3x + \sqrt{y} = 0$  (Non Linear)

⑥  $xz + y = 2$  (Non Linear)

⑦  $\sin x - y = 0$  (Non Linear)

⑧  $x^2 + y^2 = 5$  (Non Linear)

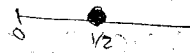
Def: A solution of a linear equation  $a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n = b$  is a sequence  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$  in which satisfy the equation that if we substitute as  $x_1 = s_1, x_2 = s_2, x_3 = s_3, \dots, x_n = s_n$  then

$$a_1s_1 + \dots + a_ns_n = b.$$

The set of solutions of a linear equation is the set of all its solutions.

Exampler

1)  $2x = 1 \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow S = \{\frac{1}{2}\}$



2)  $4x + y = 7 \Rightarrow$  (Line)

ثبت وادام  
برای تعیین جواب

$x = t, y = 7 - 4t$

$S = \{(t, 7 - 4t)\}$

3)  $x + y + z = 0$

ثبت اشیا

$\Rightarrow (0, 0, 0), (1, -1, 0), \dots$

$x = t, y = s, z = -t - s$

$S = \{t, s, -t - s\}$  (plane)

Def: A linear system (System of Linear equation) is a finite set of linear equations in the variable  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . A sequence  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$

مجموعه معادلات خطی در متغیرهای  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  است. یک دنباله  $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$

$s_1, \dots, s_n$  is called "A solution of the system" if  $x_1 = s_1, \dots, x_n = s_n$  is a solution of every equation in the system.

← حل سیستم است، اگر معادلات در معادلات سیستم  
← حل معادله است، اگر معادله در معادله سیستم

Exampler

1)  $x + y = 4$   
 $2x - y = 5$

$3x = 9$

$x = 3, y = 1$

$S = \{(3, 1)\}$  (one solution)

این جواب را در معادله دیگر جایگزین کنید  
 $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

2)  $2x - 3y = 2$

$\frac{6x}{3} - \frac{9y}{3} = \frac{6}{3}$

$\Rightarrow 2x - 3y = 2$

$S = \{t, \frac{2 - 2t}{-3}\}$

$x = t, y = \frac{2 - 2t}{-3}$

(infinite solutions)

3)  $x + y = 2$  (1)

$2x + 2y = 2$  (2)

$2x + 2y = 4$

$2x + 2y = 2$

$0 = 2$  (contradiction)

(has no solution)

در هر خطی یک نقطه است  
1) لا یوجد حل  
2) حل واحد  
3) عدد لا محدود جواب

④  $4x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = 2$   
 $x_2 - x_1 + x_4 = 5$   
 $x_2 - x_3 = 6$

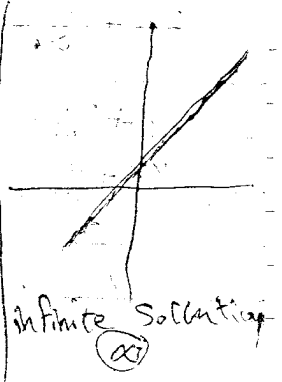
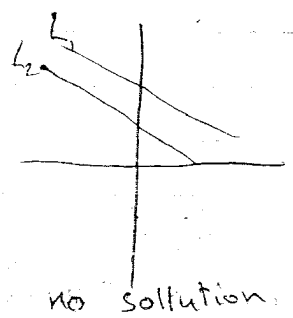
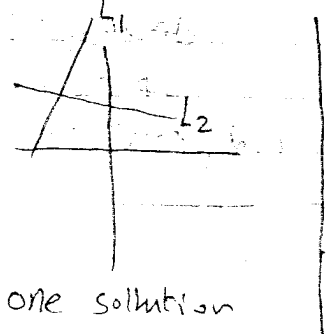
consistent  
 inconsistent

Def:- A system of equation with no solution is called inconsistent if the system has at least one solution then it called consistent.

Fact:- [Will be discuss later] every system of linear equations has

- 1] No solution OR
- 2] exactly one solution OR
- 3] infinitely many solution.

Example:-  $a_1x + b_1y = c_1$  (L1)  
 $a_2x + b_2y = c_2$  (L2)  
 (not both  $a_1, b_1$  are zero)



Augmented matrix:

Consider the system

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = b_1$$

$$a_m x_1 + \dots + a_{mn} x_n = b_m$$

then the allonge

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{array} \right]$$

is called the augmented matrix for the system

Example:- 1)  $x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$   
 $x_2 - x_1 + x_3 = 2$   
 $x_2 - x_3 = 1$

Solve for  $x_1, x_2, x_3$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + x_2 + x_3 &= 2 \\ 0 + x_2 - x_3 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2) \quad x+y-z &= 2 \\ x &= y-z+2 \\ x+y &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

معادلات  $x, y, z$

$$\begin{aligned} x+y-z &= 2 \\ x-y+z &= 3 \\ y+0+x &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Elementary Row operation  $\text{عملیات سطر اولیه}$   
(ERO)

① Multiply a row by a non zero constant.  
Multiply an equation by a non zero constant.

② Interchange two rows.  
Interchange two equations.

③ Add a multiple of one row to another row.  
Add a multiple of an equation to another equation.

Example Solve the system:-

$$\begin{aligned} x+y+2z &= 9 \\ 2x+4y-3z &= 1 \\ 3x+6y-5z &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Sol:  $x+y+2z=9$  — (1)  
 $2x+4y-3z=1$  — (2)  
 $3x+6y-5z=0$  — (3)

Multiply (1) by (-2)

$$-2x - 2y - 4z = -18 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$2x + 4y - 3z = 1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$3x + 6y - 5z = 0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

add  $e_1$  to  $(e_2)$

$$-2x - 2y - 4z = -18 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$0 + 2y - 7z = -17 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$3x + 6y - 5z = 0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Add  $(\frac{3}{2}e_1)$  to  $(e_3)$

Add  $(\frac{3}{2}e_2)$  to  $e_3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y & z & | & \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & | & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & | & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -2 & -4 & | & -18 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & | & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -2 & -4 & | & -18 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & | & -17 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & | & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -2 & -4 & | & -18 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & | & -17 \\ 0 & 3 & -11 & | & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -2 & 2 & | & -18 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & | & -17 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & | & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\frac{-1}{2}Z = -\frac{3}{2} \Rightarrow \boxed{Z=3} \otimes$$

$$2y - 7z = -17$$

$$2y - 21 = -17$$

$$\boxed{y=2} \otimes$$

$$-2x - 2y - 4z = -18$$

$$-2x - 4 - 12 = -18$$

$$\boxed{x=1} \otimes$$

Sol is

$$\boxed{x=1}, \boxed{y=2}, \boxed{z=3}$$

H.W.: Solve the system in the text book

③

$$x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

$$x_2 - x_1 + x_3 = 2 \Rightarrow -x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 2$$

$$x_2 - x_3 = 1 \Rightarrow x_2 - x_3 = 1$$

Augmented matrix:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{l} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{array} \right]$$

$$\otimes \otimes R_2: R_2 + R_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3: R_3 + R_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$3x_3 = 3$$

$$\boxed{x_3=1}$$

$$-x_2 + 4x_3 = 2$$

$$-x_2 + 4 = 2$$

$$-x_2 = -2$$

$$\boxed{x_2=2}$$

$$x_1 - 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

$$x_1 - 4 + 3 = 0$$

$$x_1 - 1 = 0$$

$$\boxed{x_1=1}$$

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (1, 2, 1) \otimes$$

Sec 1.2

انزاله جاون  
Gaussian Elimination :-

طريقه جاون لاسبقه

Def:

a) A matrix is in reduced row echelone form (RREF) if it has the following properties

1) If a row does not consist entirely of zeros then the first non zero number in the row is one we call it leading 1.

2) If there are any rows consist of zeros then they are group to gother in the bottom of the matrix.

3) In any two successive rows that don't consist of zero. then the leading one in the lower row occurs further to the right than the leading 1 in the higher row.

4) Each column that contains a leading 1 has zeros everywhere in that column

→ A matrix that has the first three properties is said to be row echelon form. REF

Remark:-

① Every RREF is REF

② Any matrix has a unique RREF & many REF

Examples:- RREF

a) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

b) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

c) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

d) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

e) 
$$[1] \checkmark$$

REF

f) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & -3 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

g) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

h) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

NOT RREF & NOT REF

i)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \textcircled{1} + \textcircled{3} \times$

j)  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{رسمي} \\ \textcircled{2} + \textcircled{3} \\ \times \end{matrix}$

k)  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \times \\ \text{RREF} \end{matrix}$

l)  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{RREF} \\ \times \end{matrix}$

Elimination method: طريقة الحذف

Gaussian Elimination: This method is using to convert a matrix to REF using the elementary row operation. Let us do this example:

Example: - Solve the system:-

$$x + y + 2z = 9$$

$$2x + 4y - 3z = 1$$

$$3x + 6y - 5z = 0$$

Sol: The augmented matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we convert the matrix to R.E.F.

(1) every RREF is REF  
(2) every matrix has infinite REF but has only one RREF.

1) Make the first entry in the first row is 1, using rearrangement or division

نستخدم الترتيب أو القسمة

2) Make all number below leading 1 is zeros using rearrangement or E.R.O

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 3R_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 2 & -7 & -17 \\ 0 & 3 & -11 & -27 \end{bmatrix}$$

3) Repeat step (1) (2) to the second row

$$R_2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} R_2$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 3R_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\ 0 & 3 & -11 & -27 \end{bmatrix}$$

4) Do step 3) to other rows

$$R_3 \rightarrow -2R_3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

↓

R.E.F

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

المعادلة المتبقية  
The corresponding system

$$\begin{cases} x + y + 2z = 9 \\ y - \frac{7}{2}z = -\frac{17}{2} \\ z = 3 \end{cases}$$

By Back substitution.

If the augmented matrix in R.E.F. then we can use the back-substitution to solve the system, as follow:-

$$z = 3$$

$$y - \frac{7}{2}(3) = -\frac{17}{2}$$

$$y = 2$$

$$x + y + z = 9$$

$$x + 2 + 3 = 9$$

$$x = 4$$

∴ The solution is  
(x, y, z) = (4, 2, 3)

② Gauss-Jordan elimination:-

Gauss & Jordan improve the last method and used this method to convert a matrix to R.R.E.F

Example  $\Rightarrow$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

لوحات الـ Gauss

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

لوحات الـ Jordan

نريد ان نحصل على REF لكي

Example: We will solve the last system using (G.G.E).

1) Use Gaussian Elimination to convert the matrix to R.E.F

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

2) For the last leading 1 to be zeros.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{7}{2} & -\frac{17}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + \frac{7}{2}R_3$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + 2R_3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

نريد ان نحصل على RREF لكي

3) Repeat 2) for the  $R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - R_2$  for all below leading 1

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

4) Repeat 3) for all other leading 1.

The corresponding system:-

$$\begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 2 \\ z = 3 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

for H.W:- Use G.E. to solve & then use G.G.E.

$$2x + 2y - z + w = 1$$

$$-x - y + 2z + w + u = 2$$

$$x + y - 2z - u = 3$$

$$z + w + u = 4$$

Sol. The Augment matrix is:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rearrangement :- Change  $R_3$  by  $R_1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 3 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$R_2: R_2 + R_1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 & 0 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

الأنظمة الخطية المتجانسة (Homogeneous) -

Homogenous Linear system:-

Def. A linear system of zero constant terms is called Homogenous linear system. It is the form

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = 0$$

Theorem (2.1): A Homogenous system of linear equation with more unknowns than equations has infinitely many solution. consistent

أي نظام من معادلات الخطية المتجانسة مع عدد متغير أكبر من عدد المعادلات له عدد لا نهائي من الحلول - أي على الأقل حل واحد

Note:- That any H.L.S has at least one solution  $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$ , which called the trivial solution. This mean that any H.L.S has one of the following two possibilities:-

1) Only the trivial solution.

2) Infinitely many solution.

Example Solve the system:-

$$2x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 + x_5 = 0$$

$$-x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 - x_5 = 0$$

$$x_3 + x_4 + x_5 = 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 - x_5 = 0$$

The augmented matrix:-

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

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_5 = 0$$

$$x_3 + x_5 = 0$$

$$x_4 = 0$$

$$x_4 = 0$$

let  $x_5 = t$ ,  $x_2 = s$

$x_3 = -t$ ,  $x_1 = -s - t$

Solutions is:-

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = (-s-t, s, -t, 0, t)$$

Remark: The arbitrary values,  $s, t, r, \dots$  etc are called parameter.

Section 1.3

$$\mathbb{C} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z} \leftarrow \mathbb{N} \leftarrow \mathbb{W} \leftarrow \mathbb{A}$$

$$\mathbb{C} \leftarrow \mathbb{R} \leftarrow \mathbb{Q} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z} \leftarrow \mathbb{N}$$

Matrices & Matrix operation

def: A matrix is a rectangular array of numbers called entries.

Examples:  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, [2, 1, 0, 4, 5], \begin{bmatrix} 3 \end{bmatrix}, [5]$

Remark ① The horizontal lines in the matrix are called Rows and vertical lines are called Columns.

② The size of a matrix is described by its rows & columns as numbers of rows & a number of columns.

# Rows X # Column

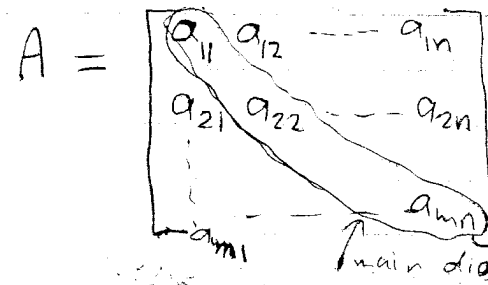
likes:

3x3, 2x3, 1x5, 2x1

③ We used capital letters (A, B, C, ...) to denote the matrices.

④ The entry in the row  $i$  and column  $j$  of a matrix  $A$  will be denoted by  $a_{ij}$ .

That if  $A$  is  $m \times n$  matrix, then we can write



and we can

write  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$  OR  $[a_{ij}]$  also, we

can write  $a_{ij} = (A)_{ij}$

def: A matrix  $A$  with  $n$  rows and  $n$  columns is called a square matrix of order  $n$ , and  $a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, a_{44}, \dots, a_{nn}$  are said to be in the main diagonal.

Ex:-

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 5 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, C = [1]$$

$$a_{22} = 4 \quad \rightarrow \quad b_{31} = 2$$

$$b_{33} = 4 \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{عنصر 33}$$

### Operations of matrices:-

1) Equality :-

def:- Two matrices A & B are called be equal if they have the same size

and their corresponding entries are equal

That if  $A = [a_{ij}]$ ,  $B = [b_{ij}]$  then  $A = B$  if and only if  $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$

Examples:-

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = B$$

$$A \neq C$$

$$A \neq D$$

انتهى لازم نفس الحجم  
 $A = B$

2) Sum and difference:-

def:- If A & B are matrices of the same size, the sum  $A+B$  (difference  $A-B$ ) is the matrix obtained by adding (subtracting) the corresponding entries of A and B.

We cannot do this for matrices with different size, a matrix notation

$$A \pm B = [a_{ij} \pm b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

Example:-



Example.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 2 & \sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A+B = \begin{bmatrix} 1+2 & 2+3 & 4-1 \\ 5+2 & 6+4 & 5-1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & 3 \\ 7 & 10 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A-B = \begin{bmatrix} 1-2 & 2-3 & 4+1 \\ 5-2 & 6-4 & -1-1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & 5 \\ 3 & 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A+C = \text{NOT } (X)$$

undefined

ليس له معنى

(3) Scalar Product :-

If  $A$  is any matrix and  $C$  is any scalar (CER) then the product  $CA$  is the matrix obtained by multiplying each entry of  $A$  by  $C$ .

$CA$  is called the scalar multiply of  $A$  in matrix notation.

$$CA = C [A_{ij}]_{m \times n} = [c a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

Ex: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  then

$$\frac{1}{2}A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{3}{2} & 2 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-2A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & -6 & -8 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

① Product of matrices:-

If A is a matrix with size  $m \times n$  and B is a matrix with size  $n \times p$  then the product AB is the  $m \times p$  matrix whose entries are determined as follows:-

To find the entry in the row  $i$  and column  $j$  of AB we single the row  $i$  of A and the column  $j$  of B and multiplying to corresponding the entries from the row and column together and add up the resulting product. That is If

$$A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}, B = [b_{ik}]_{n \times p}, \text{ then}$$

$$AB = [c_{jk}]_{m \times p}, \text{ where}$$

$$c_{jk} = a_{j1}b_{1k} + a_{j2}b_{2k} + \dots + a_{jn}b_{nk}$$

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 3}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 4}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2}$$

Sol. -  $A_{2 \times 3}, B_{3 \times 4}, C_{3 \times 2}$

Sol  $AB = ( )$  لا يوجد

$BA = (X)$  لا يوجد

$AC = ( )$  لا يوجد

$CA = ( )$  لا يوجد

$BC = (X)$  لا يوجد

$CB = (X)$  لا يوجد

هذا مثال على ضرب المصفوفات  
والدالة

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 27 & 30 & 13 \\ 8 & -4 & 26 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

~~2x3~~  $2 \times 3 \rightarrow 3 \times 2 \rightarrow 2 \times 2$  (2x4)

$$AC = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AC = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 \\ 34 & 2 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2}$$

$$CA = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remark: We can find a fixed row or a fixed column of AB as:-

$$j_{th} \text{ Column of } AB = A [j_{th} \text{ Column of } B]$$

$$i_{th} \text{ row of } AB = [i_{th} \text{ of } A] B$$

Matrix form of a linear system:-

Matrix form of a linear system:-

Consider the system:-

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = b_m$$

We can write the previous system as:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ \hline \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \hline \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ \hline \end{bmatrix}$$

We called A the coefficient matrix. Clearly the augmented matrix of this system is:-

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{array} \right] = [A|b]$$

المعكوس  
Transpose, Trace :-  
تجميع عناصر  
القطر الرئيسي

def: If A is any matrix (m x n), then the transpose of A denoted by  $A^T$  is the (n x m) matrix results by interchange the rows and the columns of A in matrix notation.

$$A^T = [a_{ji}]_{n \times m}$$

If A is a square matrix then the trace of A denoted by  $\text{tr}(A)$  is the sum of the entries in the main diagonal.

Example: (1) find  $A^T$  if

$$\textcircled{a} A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{b} A = [1 \ 2 \ 3] \Rightarrow A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{c} A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^T = [0 \ 1 \ 2]$$

$$\textcircled{d} A = [1] \Rightarrow A^T = [1]$$

2) find  $\text{tr}(A)$

Ⓐ  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 7 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & -8 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 7 & -3 \\ 4 & -2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{tr}(A) = 11$

Ⓑ  $A = [2] \Rightarrow \text{tr}(A) = 2$

Ⓒ  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{tr}(A) = \text{X}$   
 (square matrix)

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 a → 1  
 d → 2  
 h → 3

Section 1.4-1 Inverses, Rules of matrix Arithmetic

Properties of matrix operation

Theorem 1.4.1: Assuming that the size of the matrices are such that the indicated operations can be performed, then the following rules are valid:-

- ✓ a) (i)  $A+B = B+A$  (commutative of addition)
- ✓ b) (ii)  $A+(B+C) = (A+B)+C$  (associative of addition)
- ✓ c) (iii)  $A(BC) = (AB)C$  (associative of multiplication)
- ✓ d) (iv)  $A(B+C) = AB+AC$  (left distribution law)
- ✓ e) (v)  $(B+C)A = BA+CA$  (right distribution law)
- ✓ f) (vi)  $(B-C)A = BA-CA$
- ✓ g) (vii)  $a(B-C) = aB - aC$
- h) (viii)  $(a+b)A = aA + bA$
- ✓ i) (ix)  $(a-b)C = aC - bC$
- ✓ j) (x)  $a(bC) = (ab)C$
- ✓ k) (xi)  $a(BC) = (aB)C = B(aC)$

Proof:-

دلیل

$a, b, c$

(a)  $A+B = B+A$

let  $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$A+B = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$= [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$= [b_{ij} + a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$= [b_{ij}]_{m \times n} + [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$

$A+B = B+A$  \*

(e)  $(B+C)A = BA + CA$

We know that the size of determine such that the operation are performed so, assume B and C are  $m \times r$  matrix, A is  $r \times n$  matrix.

$[(B+C)A]_{ik} = (b_{i1} + c_{i1})a_{1k} + (b_{i2} + c_{i2})a_{2k} + \dots + (b_{ir} + c_{ir})a_{rk}$

$= (b_{i1}a_{1k} + a_{i2}a_{2k} + \dots + b_{ir}a_{rk}) + (c_{i1}a_{1k} + \dots + c_{ir}a_{rk})$

$+ c_{i2}a_{2k} + c_{ir}a_{rk}$

$= [BA]_{ik} + [CA]_{ik}$

$= [BA + CA]_{ik}$

$\Rightarrow (B+C)A = BA + CA$  \*

Ex: Given that  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$AB = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$AB \neq BA$

Remark: It is not necessary that  $\forall A, B$

$AB = BA$

def:- A matrix which all of its zero's is called a zero matrix

Ex.

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $[0]$ ,  $[0 \ 0 \ 0]$

Example:- Given that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

then,

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AC = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AD = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

لا يوجد  
الاجابة

~~Notable~~

$$B \neq C \text{ but } AB = AC$$

$$A \neq 0 \neq D \text{ but } AD = 0$$

$$\therefore AB = AC \nRightarrow B = C$$

لا يمكن ان

Remark:-

1) The Cancellation law doesn't hold in matrices multiplication, that  
If  $AB = AC$ , then it is not necessary that  $B = C$

2) If  $AB = 0$ , then it is not necessary that  $A = 0$  or  $B = 0$

Theorem 1.4.2

Assuming that the size is determined such that the indicated operation can be performed, the following rules of matrix are valid:-

$$a) A + 0 = 0 + A = A$$

$$b) A - A = 0$$

$$c) 0 - A = -A$$

$$d) A0 = 0A = 0$$

Proof:-

d)

$$A0 = A(0) = A(0+0)$$

$$0 + A0 = A0 + A0$$

$$0 + A0 - A0 = A0 + A0 - A0$$

$$0 = A0$$

So, as  $0 = 0A$

Proof (d)  $0A = 0$

$$0 [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} = [0 a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$$

$$[0]_{m \times n} = 0$$

def:- A square matrix with one's on the main diagonal and zeros otherwise is called the identity matrix and denoted by  $I_n$  if its size is  $n \times n$ .

We can see that if  $A$  is  $m \times n$  matrix

then

$$I_m A = A$$

$$A I_n = A$$

مثال

Example:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[I] \checkmark$$

$$I_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Theorem: 1.4.3 If  $R$  is the RREF of the  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  then  $R$  has a row of zeros or it is the identity matrix  $I_n$ .

$$A_{m \times n} \xrightarrow{\text{RREF}} R$$

row of zeros

$$[I_n]$$

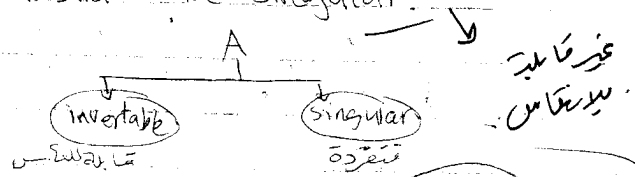
Proof:-

If  $R$  hasnt a row of zeros, then all rows has leading one. So we have  $n$  leading one & we put those leading one on the main diagonal and every column has leading one and so other entries are zero's on this column.

So we have  $I_n$ .

def:-

If A is a square matrix and there is a matrix B such that  $AB = BA = I$ , then A is said to be invertible and B is called an inverse of A. We will write  $B = A^{-1}$ . If no such B is found, then A is said to be singular.



Example:-  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$AB = BA = I$

$BA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

A is invertible and  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Q2  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is A invertible:-

Sol: Assume  $B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{bmatrix}$

then the column on ~~BA~~ = BA = B (the third column in A)

$= \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

So,  $BA = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & 0 \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & 0 \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

So,  $BA \neq I$ ,  $\forall B$ ,  $3 \times 3$  matrix

So A is singular.

Properties of Inverse:-

Theorem 14.4

If B and C are both inverses of A then  $B = C$  (Inverse is Unique)

Proof:-

$B = BI = B(AC) = (BA)C = IC = C$   
 $\therefore B = C$

(AC = I, since C is inverse to A)  
 (BA = I since B is inverse of A)



Theorem 1.4.5

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  and  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , then

A is invertible and  $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$

Proof:

Exercise (show that  $AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$ )

$$AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$$

$$AI = A$$

كل ماتريسة انفرسبل  
ديت اياها لا يساوي صفر

Theorem 1.4.6 If A and B are invertible matrices of same size then AB is invertible and  $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$  (تسوية انفرسبل)

$$(AB)(B^{-1}A^{-1}) = A(BB^{-1})A^{-1} = AI A^{-1} = AA^{-1} = I$$

$$(B^{-1}A^{-1})(AB) = B^{-1}(A^{-1}A)B = B^{-1}IB = B^{-1}B = I$$

$$\text{So, } (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1} \quad \text{انفرسبل}$$

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & \frac{3}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 6 \\ 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(7 \cdot 8 - 9 \cdot 6) = 2$$

$$(AB)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -6 \\ -9 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -\frac{9}{2} & \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \#$$

$$B^{-1}A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -\frac{9}{2} & \frac{7}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \#$$

$$A^{-1}B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ -2 & \frac{5}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1} \quad \#$$

Def. - If  $A$  is a square matrix then we define the non negative power of  $A$  as:-

$$\underline{A^0 = I}, \quad A^n = \underbrace{A \cdot A \cdot A \dots A}_{n \text{ times}}$$

If  $A$  is invertible, then the negative powers to be

$$A^{-n} = (A^{-1})^n = \underbrace{A^{-1} \cdot A^{-1} \cdot A^{-1} \dots A^{-1}}_{n \text{ times}}$$

Theorem 1.4.7

If  $A$  is a square matrix and  $(r)$  and  $(s)$  are integers then:  
non negative

$$A^r \cdot A^s = A^{r+s}, \quad (A^r)^s = A^{rs}$$

Proof:-

$$A^r \cdot A^s = \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{r \text{ times}} \cdot \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{s \text{ times}}$$

$$= \underbrace{(A \cdot A \cdot A \dots)}_{(s+r) \text{ times}} = A^{r+s}$$

$$(A^r)^s = \underbrace{(A^r \cdot A^r \cdot A^r \dots A^r)}_{s \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{r \text{ times}} \cdot \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{r \text{ times}} \dots \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{r \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{rs \text{ times}} = A^{rs}$$

Theorem 1.4.8

If  $A$  is invertible matrix then

- a)  $A^{-1}$  is invertible and  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$
- b)  $A^n$  is invertible and  $(A^n)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^n = A^{-n}$
- c) for non zero scalar  $k$ ,  $kA$  is invertible and  $(kA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{k} A^{-1}$

Proof:- a) since  $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I \Rightarrow (A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{b) } (A^n)(A^{-n}) &= \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{n \text{ times}} \cdot \underbrace{(A^{-1} \cdot A^{-1} \dots A^{-1})}_{n \text{ times}} \\ &= \underbrace{(A \cdot A^{-1})}_{= I} \cdot \underbrace{(A \cdot A^{-1})}_{= I} \dots \underbrace{(A \cdot A^{-1})}_{= I} = I \\ \text{c) } (kA)^{-1} &= \underbrace{(A \cdot A \dots A)}_{n-1} \cdot \underbrace{(A^{-1} \cdot A^{-1} \dots A^{-1})}_{n-1} = A \cdot A^{-1} = I \end{aligned}$$

~~So as  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$~~

So as  $(A^{-1})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^{-1}$

(c)  $(k \cdot A) \left(\frac{1}{k} \bar{A}^{-1}\right) = \left(k \cdot \frac{1}{k}\right) (A \cdot \bar{A}^{-1}) = 1 \cdot I = I$

$\left(\frac{1}{k} \bar{A}^{-1}\right) (kA) = \frac{1}{k} \cdot k \cdot \bar{A}^{-1} \cdot A = 1 \cdot I = I$

$(kA)^{-1} = \frac{1}{k} \cdot \bar{A}^{-1}$

Example:-

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 41 & -30 \\ -15 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$

def:- If  $A$  is  $m \times m$  matrix, and  $P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$  is any polynomial then we can define

$P(A) = a_0I + a_1A + a_2A^2 + \dots + a_nA^n$

Clearly,  $P(A)$  is  $m \times m$  matrix.

Example  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $P(x) = 2x^2 - 3x + 4$

$P(A) = 2A^2 - 3A + 4I$

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

$= \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2 \\ 0 & 13 \end{bmatrix} *$

النتيجة انك تتأكد تكونه بدو  
الوقت على صوتك

Properties of transpose:-

Theorem 1.4.9

If the size of matrices are such that the stated operations can be performed, then:-

a)  $((A^T))^T = A$ , b)  $(A \pm B)^T = A^T \pm B^T$

c)  $(kA)^T = kA^T$ , d)  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

غير مطلوب الاثبات

Theorem 1.4.10 If  $A$  is invertible, the

$A^T$  is also invertible and

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

Proof:

$$(A^T)(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1}A)^T = (I)^T = I$$

$$(A^{-1})^T(A^T) = (AA^{-1})^T = (I)^T = I$$

So,  $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

Example: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow (A^T)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & +2 \\ 3 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow (A^{-1})^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

The End of sec 1.4.

sec 1.5

Elementary Matrices and a method for finding  $(A^{-1})^T$  :-

def: An  $n \times n$  matrix is called elementary matrix if it can be obtained from  $n \times n$  Identity matrix  $I_n$  by a single Elementary Row Operation.

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$  Elementary matrix ( $\checkmark$ ) because  $I_n R_2 \rightarrow -R_2 \rightarrow E$

B)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  ( $\checkmark$ )  $I_n R_2 \leftrightarrow R_4 \rightarrow E$

C)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  ( $\checkmark$ )  $I_n R_1 \rightarrow 3R_3 + R_1 \rightarrow E$

D)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  ( $\checkmark$ )  $I_n R_1 \rightarrow R_1 \rightarrow E$

e)  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  ( $\times$ ) (2 operation)

f)  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  ( $\times$ ) (2 operation)

The only we support we all

Theorem 1.5.1

If the elementary matrix  $E$  results from forming a certain operation on  $I_m$  and if  $A$  is  $m \times n$  matrix, then the product  $EA$  is the matrix result when this same row operation is performed on  $A$ .

$$\begin{matrix} I \\ A \end{matrix} \xrightarrow{ERO} \begin{matrix} E \\ EA \end{matrix}$$

Example: let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$   $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$EA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{(R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 3R_1)} E$$

$$A \xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 3R_1} E \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 10 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverse Row operation:-

Every elementary operation that product

the elementary matrix  $E$  has an inverse operation obtain the inverse of  $E$

$$E \xrightarrow{\text{inverse}} I \xrightarrow{\text{op}} E$$

Sub 1

Row operation Product  $E$

- 1) multiply row  $i$  by  $c \neq 0$
- 2) Interchange row  $i$  and  $j$
- 3) Add  $c$  times row  $i$  to row  $j$

Sub 1 rule

R.O. Product  $E^{-1}$

- 1) multiply by  $\frac{1}{c}$
- 2) Interchange  $i$  and  $j$
- 3) Add  $-c$  times of  $i$  to  $j$

Examples:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow 3R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + 2R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 2R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Section 2.1

Theorem 1.5.2 Every elementary matrix is invertible and

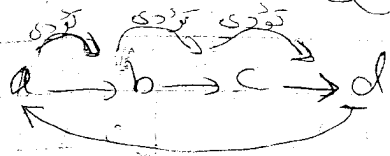
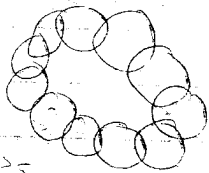
the inverse is also an elementary matrix.

Theorem 1.5.3

$$In \xrightarrow{E} E$$

$$In \xrightarrow{E^{-1}} E^{-1}$$

If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then the following statements are equivalent (T.F.S.E)



رکنز علی الاشیان

a)  $A$  is invertible.

b)  $Ax=0$  has only the ~~trivial~~ <sup>trivial</sup> solution.

c) The reduced row echelon form of  $A$  is  $I_n$ .

d)  $A$  is expressible as a product of elementary matrices.

Proof :-

a)  $\rightarrow$  b)

assume  $A$  is invertible so  $A^{-1}$  exist.

now, if  $Ax=0$

$$A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}0$$

$$x=0$$

So we have only the trivial solution.

b)  $\rightarrow$  c)

assume  $Ax=0$  has only the trivial solution then the system  $a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$

X

After solution  $\rightarrow$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} & 0 \\ | & | & | & & | & 0 \\ | & | & | & & | & 0 \\ | & | & | & & | & 0 \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \dots & a_{nn} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}x_1 + a_{n2}x_2 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\xrightarrow[\text{R.R.E.F.}]{\text{G.G.E.}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \xrightarrow{\text{G.G.E.}} I$$

So, the RREF of  $A$  is  $I_n$ .

c)  $\rightarrow$  d) assume that RREF of A is  $I_n$

So, we can obtain  $I_n$  from A by performing a finite sequence of E.R.O and

since every E.R.O on A is done as product elementary matrix  $E_i$  of A is done as product of elementary matrix ( $E_i$  of A)  $E$  of A.

So we can set

$$E_m E_{m-1} E_{m-2} \dots E_3 E_2 E_1 A = I_n$$

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \dots E_{m-2}^{-1} E_{m-1}^{-1} E_m^{-1}$$

$$A = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} \dots E_{m-2}^{-1} E_{m-1}^{-1} E_m^{-1}$$

So A is ~~operati~~ is a product of elementary matrices. ~~is a~~

d)  $\rightarrow$  a)

assume A is a product of elementary matrices

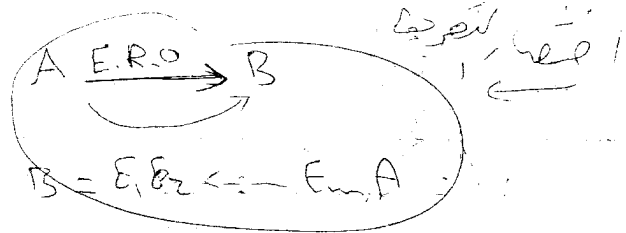
$$\text{So, } A = E_1 E_2 \dots E_m$$

but every  $E_i$  is invertible

So A is invertible

Def:-

Two matrices A and B are said to be row equivalent if we can obtain B from A using a finite number of elementary row operations.



طريقة - طريقة  
A method for inverting matrices:-

From theorem 1.5.3, A is invertible if

$A = E_1 E_2 \dots E_m$ , where  $E_i$  is elementary matrices

$A^{-1} = (E_1 E_2 \dots E_m)^{-1} = E_m^{-1} E_{m-1}^{-1} \dots E_1^{-1}$

So, we will begin with  $[A | I]$

$[A | I] \xrightarrow{E, R, O} [I | B]$  where B is  $A^{-1}$

Example: Find the inverse of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[A | I] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

لازم نبتل  
هنا نبتل  
هنا نبتل

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 5 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

نبتل  
هنا نبتل

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 2R_2$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -5 & 2 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow -R_3$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 3R_3$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 + 3R_3$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 2 & 0 & -14 & 6 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - 2R_2$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & -2 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 16 & 9 \\ 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Example Show that  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  is

singular.

Sol.

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\substack{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + R_1}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -8 & -9 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 9 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + R_2 \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -8 & -9 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

We can not obtain  $(I_3)$  in the first part  
So  $A$  is singular.

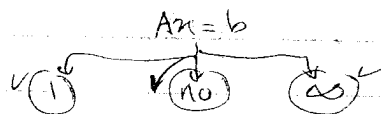
not invertible

EX 5/11  
page 96

Section 1.6 Further results on systems of equation and invertability:-

Theorem:- 1.6.1

Every system of linear equations has no solution or has exactly one solution or has infinitely many solution.



Proof:- If the system is inconsistent, then it has no solution. ~~✗~~

Assume that the system  $Ax = b$  is consistent system. ~~✗~~

Assume that  $Ax = b$  has the two distinct solution  $x_1, x_2$  So  $x_0 = x_1 - x_2$

$$Ax_1 = b, \quad Ax_2 = b$$

let  $x_0 = x_1 - x_2$  then

$$Ax_0 = A(x_1 - x_2) = Ax_1 - Ax_2$$

$$Ax_0 = b - b = \text{zero}$$

Now, let  $\tilde{x} = x_1 + kx_0$

$k \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{Now } A\tilde{x} = A(x_1 + kx_0)$$

$$A\tilde{x} = Ax_1 + kAx_0$$

$$A\tilde{x} = b + k(Ax_0)$$

$$A\tilde{x} = b + 0 = b$$

So  $\tilde{x}$  is a solution for  $Ax = b \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{R}$

So we have (inf) many solution ~~✗~~

Theorem 1.6.2

If  $A$  is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix then for each  $n \times 1$  matrix  $b$  the system  $Ax = b$  has exactly one solution namely

$x = A^{-1}b$

$Ax = b$   
 $A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}b$

Example: solve  $x + 2y + 3z = 5$   
 $2x + 5y + 3z = 3$   
 $x + 8z = 17$

Sol: write  $Ax = b$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

(we calculate  $A^{-1}$  before)

$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 10 & 9 \\ 3 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  the matrix is invertible

Now  $x = A^{-1}b$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -40 & 10 & 9 \\ 3 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

So solution  $x = 1, y = -1, z = 2$

Linear Systems with Common Coefficient matrix

To solve the system  $Ax = b_1, Ax = b_2, \dots, Ax = b_k$  we write  $[A | b_1 | b_2 | \dots | b_k]$  and solve together

Example: Solve (a)  $x + 2y + 3z = 4$   
 $2x + 5y + 3z = 5$   
 $x + 2z = 9$

(b)  $x + 2y + 3z = 1$   
 $2x + 5y + 3z = 6$   
 $x + 2z = -6$

Solution  $\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 9 & -6 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{RREF}}$

$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$

a)  $x = 1$   
 $y = 0$   
 $z = 1$

b)  $x = 2$   
 $y = 1$   
 $z = -1$



a) A is invertible.

$AB=I$

That mean every system of the following have solution

$Ax_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, Ax_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, Ax_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, Ax_{n-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, Ax_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

So, let  $x_1$  be  $\Rightarrow Ax_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $x_2$  be  $\Rightarrow Ax_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $x_3$  be  $\Rightarrow Ax_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $\vdots$   
 $x_{n-1}$  be  $\Rightarrow Ax_{n-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $x_n$  be  $\Rightarrow Ax_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$[Ax_1 | Ax_2 | Ax_3 | \dots | Ax_{n-1} | Ax_n] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$

$A [x_1 | x_2 | x_3 | \dots | x_{n-1} | x_n] = I$

let  $B = [x_1 | x_2 | \dots | x_n]$ , So be is  $n \times n$  matrix and

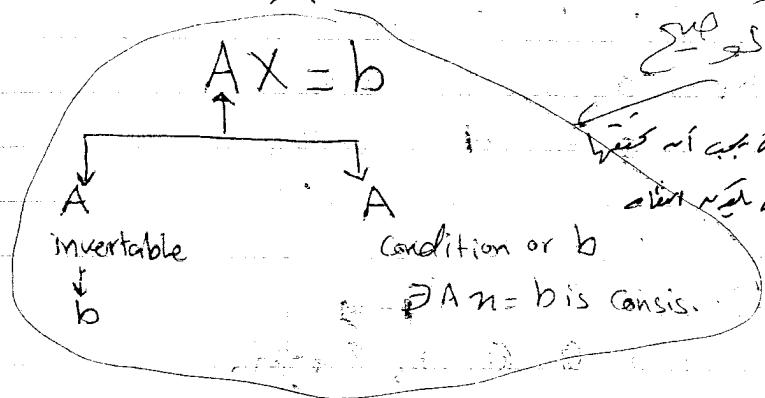
$AB=I$ , So is invertible

Theorem 1.6.5

let A and B a square matrices of same size. If AB is invertible, then A and B are also invertible.

إذا كان  $AB$  معكوفين مبرهنه من رتبة  $n$  و  $A$  و  $B$  معكوفين

where we can say (the system is consistant)?



We Ask about the values of b in which  $AX=b$  is consistant for a fixed matrix b.

Example: What condition must  $b$  have in which the following systems are consistant

$b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$

ب

المسألة الأولى

a)

باستخدام

$$x + y + 2z = b_1$$

$$x + z = b_2$$

$$2x + y + z = b_3$$

Sol:

the augmented matrix is

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 & b_1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & b_2 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & b_3 \end{array} \right]$$

$\begin{pmatrix} i+j \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

GE

$$\begin{array}{l} R_2: R_2 - R_1 \\ R_3: R_3 - 2R_1 \end{array} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 & b_1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & b_2 - b_1 \\ 0 & -1 & -3 & b_3 - 2b_1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{l} R_2: -R_2 \\ R_3: R_3 + R_2 \end{array} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 2 & b_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & b_2 - b_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & b_3 - b_2 - b_1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$b_3 - b_2 - b_1 = 0$$

$$b_3 = b_2 + b_1$$

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_1 + b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, we must have

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_1 + b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \checkmark$$

$$b) \quad x + 2y + 3z = b_1$$

$$2x + 5y + 3z = b_2$$

$$x + 8z = b_3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

We know that A is invertible so, we have no condition on b to give the system consistency.

$$X = A^{-1} b = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 16 & 9 \\ 13 & -5 & -3 \\ 5 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$  So

$$x = -4b_1 + 16b_2 + 9b_3$$

$$y = 13b_1 - 5b_2 - 3b_3$$

$$z = 5b_1 - 2b_2 - b_3$$

no cond

The end of the section

المصفوفات القطرية والمصفوفات المثلثية والمصفوفات المتماثلة

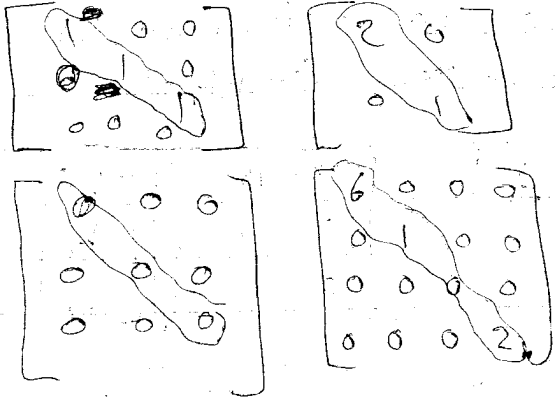
Sec (7) ~~Diagonal~~, Triagonal and symmetric Matrices:-  
 Diagonal, Triagonal and " = "

Diagonal matrices:-

def. A square matrix is with all the entries off the main diagonal are zero is called a diagonal.

المصفوفة التي جميع عناصرها خارج القطر الرئيسي هي صفرية  
 قطرية

Examples



Remark:-

If  $D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & d_n \end{bmatrix}$ , then

a)  $d_i \neq 0 \forall i$ , then  $D$  is invertable

and  $D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{d_1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{d_2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d_3} & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d_n} \end{bmatrix}$

b)  $D^k = \begin{bmatrix} d_1^k & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2^k & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3^k & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n^k \end{bmatrix}$

Example:-

$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ , then

→ Diagonal  
 → Invertable  
 → لا يمكن أن يكون مصفوفة

$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$

$A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -27 \end{bmatrix}$

$A^{-3} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{8} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{27} \end{bmatrix}$

المصفوفات

## Trigonal matrices:-

def:- A square matrix with zero entries in all position above the main diagonal is called ~~trigonal~~ matrices a lower trigonal matrix.

المصفوفة المربعة التي جميع الموضع أعلى القطر الرئيسي صفر، تسمى مصفوفة المثلثية السفلية.  
a lower trigonal matrix.

def:- " " " " "  
below  
called upper trigonal matrix

A matrix that is either upper or lower trigonal is called trigonal matrix.

a)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  U.T

b)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$  L.T

c)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  U.T & diagonal matrix.  
L.T

## Theorem 1.7.1

a) The Transpose of a lower (upper) trigonal matrix is upper (lower) trigonal.

b) The product of lower (upper) trigonal matrices is lower (upper) trigonal matrix.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Lower} \times \text{Lower} &= \text{Lower} \\ \text{Upper} \times \text{Upper} &= \text{Upper} \end{aligned}$$

← (b)

c) A trigonal matrix is invertable if and only if its diagonal entries are non zeros. (if)

d) The inverse of an invertable lower (upper) trigonal matrix is lower (upper) trigonal matrix.

(مصفوفة المثلثية العكس للمصفوفة المثلثية العكس)

Example: let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

then  $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{3}{2} & \frac{7}{5} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{2}{5} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{5} \end{bmatrix}$

B is not invertable because the main diagonal contain zero

$$A^B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Upper. Upper = Upper

Symmetric Matrices:-

متريتك مربعة

A square matrix is called symmetric iff

$$A^T = A$$

متريتك مربعة

Example

a)  $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$



b)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

d)  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

sym. Diagonal

متريتك مربعة  
متريتك مربعة

Theorem:- 1.7.2

If A and B are symmetric matrices with same size if K is any scalar, then:-

a)  $A^T$  is symmetric.

b)  $A \pm B$  is symmetric.

c)  $KA$  is symmetric.

The proof  $A + B$  Exercise:-

$\because A$  is symmetric

$\therefore A^T$  is symmetric

$$(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T = A \pm B \Rightarrow A \pm B \text{ is sym}$$

$$(KA)^T = KA^T = KA \Rightarrow KA \text{ is sym}$$



Proof (b)

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

So  $A+B$  is symmetric.

Remark: If  $A$  and  $B$  are symmetric, then it is not necessary that  $AB$  is symmetric.

Example: a)  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ not sym.}$$

b)  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 3 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is sym.}$$

Theorem 1.7.3

If  $A$  is an invertible symmetric matrix then

$A^{-1}$  is symmetric.

Proof: ~~Example~~ Assume  $A$  is sym & inv.

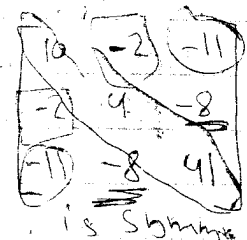
$$(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1} = A^{-1}$$

So  $A^{-1}$  is symmetric.

Example: If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$  then

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3 \times 2)$$

$$AA^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -2 & -11 \\ -2 & 4 & -8 \\ -11 & -8 & 41 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \\ 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 4 \\ 3 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 21 & -17 \\ -17 & 34 \end{bmatrix}$$

conclusion is inv

Theorem: 1.7.4

If  $A$  is an invertible matrix then  $AA^T$  and  $A^T A$  are invertible.

Proof: Ex

$$(AA^T)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A$$

conclusion is

Chapter (2) Determinants

sec (1) Determinate by cofactor expansion.

def: The determinant of a square matrix  $A$  denoted by  $\det(A)$  or  $|A|$  is a function determinate on the set of all square a matrix to the set of real numbers if  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  is any  $2 \times 2$  matrix.

then  $\det(A) = ad - bc$

Example a)  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$   $\det(A) = 4 - 6 = -2$

b)  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$   $\det(A) = \text{no det.}$

c)  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$   $\det(A) = \text{is difficult to calculate now.}$

cofactor  $C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$

def: If  $A$  is a square matrix, then the minor of the entry  $a_{ij}$  denoted by  $M_{ij}$  is the

is the determinant of the submatrix remains when we delete the row  $i$  and the column  $j$  from  $A$ .

The number  $(-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$  denoted by  $C_{ij}$  is called the cofactor of the entry  $a_{ij}$ .

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

$M_{11} = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = 18 - 5 = 13$

$C_{11} = (-1)^{1+1} M_{11} = (-1)^2 \cdot 13 = 13$

$M_{23} = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -2 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 10 - 2 = 8$

$C_{23} = (-1)^{2+3} M_{23} = (-1)^5 \cdot 8 = -8$

Cofactor expression:-

a) If  $A$  is  $3 \times 3$  matrix then  $\det(A) = a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + a_{13}C_{13}$

b) If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  matrix, then  
 $\det(A) = a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + \dots + a_{1n}C_{1n}$

this method is called Cofactor expansion along the first row of  $A$

هذا الأسلوب يسمى بالتوسيع على سطر الأول

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

Find  $\det(A)$       Cofactor

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= a_{11}C_{11} + a_{12}C_{12} + a_{13}C_{13} \\ &= 2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 6 \end{vmatrix} - (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ -2 & 6 \end{vmatrix} + 0 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ -2 & 5 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 2 \times 13 + 1(24 + 2) + 0 \\ &= 26 + 26 = \boxed{52} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.11

The determinant of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be computed by multiplying the entries in any row and any column by their cofactors and adding the resulting products, that is for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , or each  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , we have:-

$$\det(A) = a_{i1}C_{i1} + a_{i2}C_{i2} + \dots + a_{in}C_{in}$$

هذا الأسلوب يسمى بالتوسيع على صف أو عمود

$$\det(A) = a_{1j}C_{1j} + a_{2j}C_{2j} + \dots + a_{nj}C_{nj} \text{ entry}$$

$a_{ij}$       طريقة حساب كل عنصر بالتوسيع

Example: Find  $\det(A)$  if

هذا الأسلوب يسمى بالتوسيع على عمود أو صف

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A) &= a_{12}C_{12} + a_{22}C_{22} + a_{32}C_{32} \\ &= (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ -2 & 6 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -2 & 6 \end{vmatrix} + 5 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 26 + 36 - 10 = \boxed{52} \end{aligned}$$

$$b) A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

نجدد كل  $a_{ij}$  الأثر

حاصل ضرب  $4 \times 4$  في كل عنصر  
بإشارة  $\pm$

A long the second Column.

$$\det(A) = a_{22} C_{22}$$

$$= 1(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1[-2(-1) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix}] = (1)(-2)(1)(3) = -6$$

Adjoint of a matrix: -

If A any  $n \times n$  matrix and  $C_{ij}$  the cofactor of  $a_{ij}$  then the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} & \dots & C_{1n} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & C_{23} & \dots & C_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{n1} & C_{n2} & C_{n3} & \dots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

is called Cofactor matrix of A.

The transpose of this matrix is called

co-factor

the adjoint matrix of A and we write

$$\text{adj}(A) = C^T$$

Example: Find  $\text{adj}(A)$  if  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 8 \\ 4 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{array}{l} C_{11} = 13 \\ C_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ -2 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = -26 \\ C_{13} = 26 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} C_{21} = -6 \\ C_{22} = 12 \\ C_{23} = -8 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} C_{31} = -1 \\ C_{32} = 2 \\ C_{33} = 10 \end{array}$$

$$\text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & -26 & 26 \\ -6 & 12 & -8 \\ -1 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 13 & -6 & -1 \\ -26 & 12 & 2 \\ 26 & -8 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

(1-19) odd sec(2) 20, 22, 25, 27, 28, 31

sec(3)  $\Rightarrow$  1, 2, 5, 3, 8, 12, 13, 14, 19, 20, 22, 25, 27, 29

sec(4)  $\Rightarrow$  1-5 odd, 16, 17, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 29, 30, 31, 39, 35

sec(5)  $\Rightarrow 1, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 14, 16, 19, 22$

sec(6)  $\Rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 21$ , 24, 27, 28, 30

sec(7)  $\Rightarrow 1-16, 18, 19, 22, 30$

sec(2.1) ①  $1 \rightarrow 23$  odd, 24, 24, 27, 35

sec 2.2 ②  $1-11$  odd, 12, 13, 20, 21

sec(2.3)  $\Rightarrow 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 16, 18, 20, 22, 23$

sec(2.4)  $\Rightarrow 1-13$  odd, 18, 20, 21, 23

اذا كان لدينا مصفوفة مثلية قطرية  $A$  من الرتبة  $n$ ، فإن  
 محدد  $A$  هو حاصل ضرب عناصر القطر  $a_{11} a_{22} \dots a_{nn}$

المصفوفة العكسية

Theorem (2.1.2)

If  $A$  is invertable, then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \cdot \text{adj}(A)$$

Example:

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ , then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \cdot \text{adj}(A) = \frac{1}{52} \begin{bmatrix} 13 & -6 & -1 \\ -26 & 12 & 2 \\ 26 & -8 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{3}{26} & -\frac{1}{52} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{13} & \frac{1}{26} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{2}{13} & \frac{5}{26} \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem: (2.1.3)

If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  triangular matrix, then

$$\det(A) = a_{11} a_{22} a_{33} \dots a_{nn}$$

Example:

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & -3 & 8 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 & 5 & 7 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 7 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 9 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$  upper triangular

then

$$\det(A) = 2 \cdot (-3) \cdot (6) \cdot (9) \cdot (4) = -1296$$

قاعدة كرامر

Cramer's Rule:  $x_1 = \frac{\det(A_1)}{\det(A)}, x_2 = \frac{\det(A_2)}{\det(A)}, \dots, x_n = \frac{\det(A_n)}{\det(A)}$

Theorem (2.1.4): If  $AX=b$  is any system of  $n$  linear equation on  $n$  unknowns, such that  $\det(A) \neq 0$ , then the system has a unique solution and this solution is :-

$$x_1 = \frac{\det(A_1)}{\det(A)}, x_2 = \frac{\det(A_2)}{\det(A)}, \dots, x_n = \frac{\det(A_n)}{\det(A)}$$

where  $A_j$  is the matrix obtained by replacing the entries in the  $j$ th column of  $A$  the

$$\text{matrix } b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Solve the system by using Cramer Rule:-

$$2x - y = 3$$

$$4x + 3y + z = 3$$

$$-2x + 5y + 6z = 5$$

$$AX = b \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \\ 5 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

بالتعويض في المعادلات

$$\frac{15}{3} = 5, \quad \frac{15}{5} = 3, \quad \frac{15}{5} = 3$$

حل الأنظمة باستخدام كرامر

$$A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 4 & 3 & 3 \\ -2 & 5 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = 52, \det(A_1) = 52, \det(A_2) = -52, \det(A_3) = 104$$

$$x = \frac{\det(A_1)}{\det(A)} = \frac{52}{52} = 1$$

$$y = \frac{\det(A_2)}{\det(A)} = \frac{-52}{52} = -1$$

$$z = \frac{\det(A_3)}{\det(A)} = \frac{104}{52} = 2$$

The Solution  $(x, y, z) \Rightarrow (1, -1, 2)$

See: En (2+3+6+7) sec(1) المعادلات الخطية

Solve the system:- المعادلات الخطية

$$3x + y = 1$$

$$-2x - 4y + 3z = 1$$

$$5x + 4y - 2z = 2$$

$(0, 1, 1)$

sec(2) Evaluation Determination by Row Reduction:-

Theorem(2.2.1) let A be a square matrix with a row of zero's or a column of zero's then

$\det(A) = 0$

$(a_{ij}, a_{ij})$

Theorem:- (2.2.2)

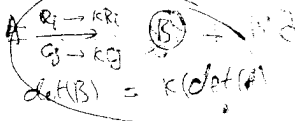
let A be a square matrix then  $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$

Theorem (2.2.3)

let A be nxn matrix, then

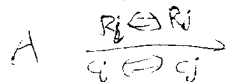
a) If B is the matrix results when a single row or a single column k, then

$\det(B) = k \det(A)$



b) If B is the matrix results when

two rows or columns of A are interchanging then  $\det(B) = -\det(A)$



c) If B ... when a multiple of a row or column of A is added to another row or column, then

$\det(A) = \det(B)$

Theorem(2.2.4):-

let E be nxn elementary matrix, then

a) If E is results from  $I_n$  by multiplying a row of  $I_n$  by k, then  $\det(E) = k$

b) If ... interchanging two rows then  $\det(E) = -1$

b) If ... by adding a multiple of a row of  $I_n$  to another row, then

$\det(E) = 1$

For

$I_n$	$\xrightarrow{k \cdot \text{row } i}$	E	$\det E = k$
$I_n$	$\xrightarrow{\text{row } i \leftrightarrow \text{row } j}$	E	$\det E = -1$
$I_n$	$\xrightarrow{\text{row } i + k \cdot \text{row } j}$	E	$\det E = 1$

Example 5

a)  $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2$   $\overset{k}{2}$  is a scalar

بروزی

b)  $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -1$  بدی

بروزی

c)  $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1$   $\begin{matrix} \text{بروزی} \\ \text{بروزی} \end{matrix}$

Theorem (2.2.5) If A is a square matrix with two proportional rows or columns, then  $\det(A) = 0$

a)  $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = 0$   $R_3 = 3R_1$

b)  $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 & 7 \\ -4 & 8 & 5 \\ 2 & -4 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 0$   $C_2 = -2C_1$

Examples:- Calculate the following determinants:-

ERO

1)  $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{\begin{matrix} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + R_1 \end{matrix}} \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 \end{vmatrix}$

$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - \frac{4}{5}R_2$   $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{26}{5} \end{vmatrix} = 2 \cdot 5 \cdot \frac{26}{5} = 52$

2)  $\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 15 & 3 \\ 3 & -6 & 9 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -6 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 2R_1 \Rightarrow -3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & -5 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \cdot 0 = 0$



$$\textcircled{3} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 7 & 3 & 1 & -5 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{C_4 \rightarrow C_4 - 3C_1} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 7 & 3 & 1 & -26 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1 \cdot 7 \cdot 3 \cdot (-26) = \boxed{-546} \#$$

$$\textcircled{4} \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 5 & -2 & 6 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 7 & 5 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 5 & -2 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 7 & 5 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_1 \\ R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 2R_1 \\ R_4 \rightarrow R_4 - 3R_1 \end{array} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 8 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{l} R_4 \rightarrow R_4 + R_2 \\ R_3 \rightarrow \frac{1}{3}R_3 \end{array}} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$R_4 \rightarrow R_4 - 9R_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -6 \end{vmatrix} \xrightarrow{(-3)} = (-1) \cdot (1) \cdot (-6) = \boxed{-18} \#$$

The End of the sec(3)

## sec(3) Properties of the determinates function

Remark: If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  matrix and  $k$  is any scalar, then  $\det(kA) = k^n \det(A)$

$$|kA| = \begin{vmatrix} k a_{11} & k a_{12} & \dots & k a_{1n} \\ k a_{21} & k a_{22} & \dots & k a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k a_{n1} & k a_{n2} & \dots & k a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\det(kA) = k^n \det(A)$$

Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \det(A) = 52$$

$$\det(2A) = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & -2 & 0 \\ 8 & 6 & 2 \\ -4 & 10 & 12 \end{vmatrix} = (2^3) \cdot (52) = \boxed{416}$$

$$\text{Example } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = 5 - 4 = \boxed{1}, \det(B) = 9 - 1 = \boxed{8}$$

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \det(A+B) = \boxed{23}$$

$$\det(A+B) = 23 \neq \boxed{9} = \det(B) + \det(A)$$

Remark In the general

$$\det(A+B) \neq \det(A) + \det(B)$$

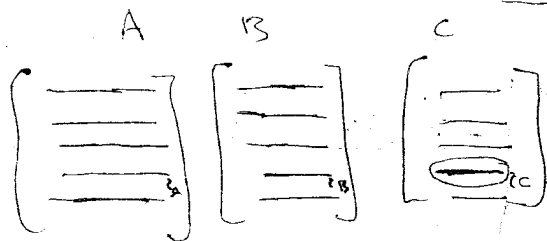
Theorem (2.3.10)

Let  $A, B, C$  be  $n \times n$  matrices, that differ only on a single row (say in the  $i$ th row) and assume that the  $i$ th row of  $C$  can be obtained by adding corresponding entries in the  $i$ th row of  $A$  and  $B$ , then

$$\det C = \det(A) + \det(B)$$

The same results hold for columns:

توضيح النظرية



$$C = iA + iB$$

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$   $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

$C = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 0 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  جميع المصفوفات  $A, B, C$  هي  $3 \times 3$  وهذا هو المطلوب

$\det(A) = 36$	24
$\det(B) = 24$	28
$\det(C) = 60$	52

$$\det(C) = 60$$

$$\det(C) = \det(A) + \det(B) \quad \#$$

$$36 + 24$$

صحيح قبل انهاء البيت

lemma (2.3.2)

If  $B$  is ~~non~~ matrix and  $E$  is an elementary matrix then:-

$\det(EB) = \det(E) \cdot \det(B)$  — (a)

Note/

we can generalize this for a finite number elementary matrices, that is

$\det(E_1 E_2 E_3 \dots E_n B) = \det(E_1) \det(E_2) \det(E_3) \dots \det(E_n) \det(B)$

Theorem (2.3.3)

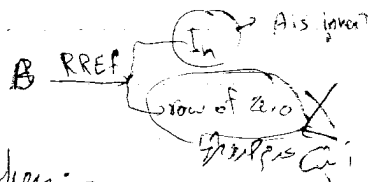
A matrix  $A$  is invertible iff  $\det(A) \neq \text{zero}$  — (c)

Proof:- Assume that  $A$  is invertible, then:-  
we can write  $A = E_1 E_2 E_3 \dots E_n$  where  $E_i$  is an elementary matrix  $\forall i$ .

Now,  $\det(A) = \det(E_1 E_2 E_3 \dots E_n) = \det(E_1) \det(E_2) \dots \det(E_n)$

But  $\det(E_i) \neq 0 \forall i$

So  $\det(A) \neq 0$



assume  $\det(A) \neq 0$

now, If  $B$  is the RREF of  $A$ , then:-

$B = E_1 E_2 E_3 \dots E_n A$

$\det(B) = \det(E_1) \det(E_2) \det(E_3) \dots \det(E_n) \det(A) \neq 0$

So  $B = I_n$

$(E_1 E_2 \dots E_n) A = I_n$

So  $A$  is invertible and  $A^{-1} = (E_1 E_2 \dots E_n)$

Example  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$   $\det(A) = 1((2 \times 10) - 24) - 2(20 - 16) + 3(12 - 8) = 0$

$\det(A) = 0$ , So  $A$  is not invertible.

Theorem (2.3.4) If  $A$  and  $B$  are square matrices of the same size, then

$\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B)$  — (c)

Proof:-

If  $A$  is invertible, then we can write

$A = E_1 E_2 \dots E_k$  where  $E_i$  is elementary matrix  $\forall i$ .

Now,  $\det(AB) = \det(E_1 E_2 \dots E_k B) = \det(E_1) \dots \det(E_k) \det(B)$

$= \det(E_1 E_2 \dots E_k) \det(B) = \det(A) \det(B)$  (invertible)

Now, If  $A$  is not invertible,  $\det(A) = 0$

then  $AB$  is not invertible

$\det(AB) = 0$   
 $= 0 \cdot \det(B)$   
 $= \det(A) \cdot \det(B)$

$\det(AB) = \det(A) \cdot \det(B) \neq$

Example:-  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 5 \\ 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 17 \\ 7 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$

$\det(AB) = -23$

$\det(A) = 1$

$\det(B) = -23$

Theorem (2.3.5): If A is invertible then

$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$

المعكوس  
المتبادلة

5

Proof:- Since A is invertible

then  $\det(A) \neq 0$  and  $AA^{-1} = I$

Now

$\det(AA^{-1}) = \det(I)$

$\det(AA^{-1}) = 1$

$\det(A) \cdot \det(A^{-1}) = 1$

$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$

نظريتي (2.3.6)  
Theorem (2.3.6)

دالة لا تتغير

A is invariant ( $b \rightarrow f$ )

$\det(A) \neq 0$

End of sec(3)

Sec(4): A combinatorial Approach of

Determinates:-

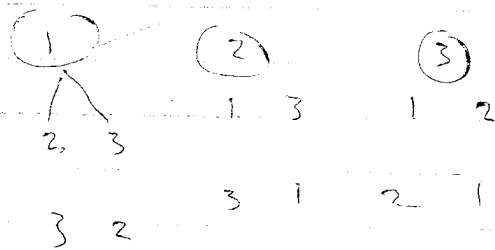
هذا لطيفة تتعلم للمبررات (المعززة) في التوافيق

def:- A permutation of the set of integers  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$  is an arrangement of these integers in some order without omissions or repetitions.

Example:-

(1)  $A = [1, 2, 3]$

$3! = 6$

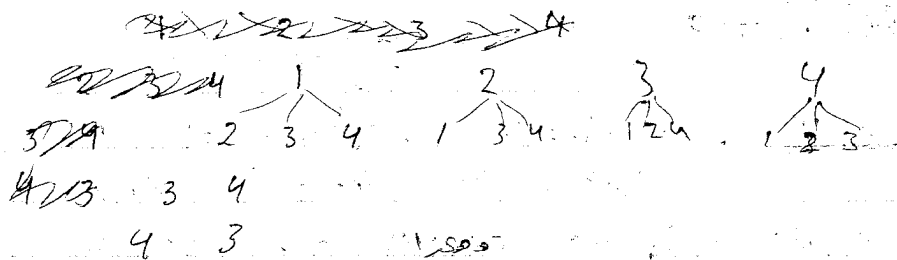


- $(1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2), (2, 1, 3), (2, 3, 1), (3, 1, 2), (3, 2, 1)$

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B. Mansour  
✓ X

②  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$4! = 24$



$24 = 4!$  Remark:

The number of permutations on a set  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$  is  $n!$

تعريف: ان inversion يقال ان يكون في الترتيب عددان  $(j_1, j_2, j_3, \dots, j_n)$  عندما يكون عددان  $j_i$  و  $j_j$   $j_i > j_j$  و  $i < j$   $j_i$  يسبق  $j_j$ .

If the total number of inversion in a permutation is even (odd) then we say the permutation is even (odd).

Example: (a)  $(7, 2, 1, 5, 4, 3, 6)$

$6 + 1 + 2 + 0 + 0 + 0 = 10 \leftarrow$  even

So the permutation is even.

(b)  $(6, 2, 3, 1, 4, 5)$

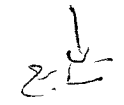
$5 + 1 + 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 = 7 \leftarrow$  odd  
So a permutation is odd

(c)  $(1, 2, 3, 4)$

$0 + 0 + 0 + 0 = 0 \leftarrow$  even

So a permutation is even.

(d) Classify the permutation on  $\{1, 2, 3\}$



classifier

(1,2,3)  $\rightarrow$  0 <sup>inversion</sup>  $\leftarrow$  even

(1,3,2)  $\rightarrow$  1 odd

(2,1,3)  $\rightarrow$  1 odd

(2,3,1)  $\rightarrow$  2 even

(3,1,2)  $\rightarrow$  2 even

(3,2,1)  $\rightarrow$  3 odd

b.p.v

odd no. = even

Def. [1] If A is  $n \times n$  matrix, then we mean by an elementary product from the product of  $n$  entries from A, No two of them come from the same rows or the same column. In other word  $a_{i_1 j_1} \cdot a_{i_2 j_2} \cdot a_{i_3 j_3} \cdot \dots \cdot a_{i_n j_n}$  where

$$j_i \neq j_k \quad \forall i, k \leq n$$

[2] A single Elementary product from  $n \times n$  matrix A is elementary product  $a_{i_1 j_1} a_{i_2 j_2} a_{i_3 j_3} \dots a_{i_n j_n}$  multiplied by  $[1]$  or  $[-1]$  we used. [1] if the permutation  $(j_1, j_2, j_3, \dots, j_n)$  is even permutation and used  $[-1]$  if it is odd.

Remark: If A is  $n \times n$  matrix, the A has  $n!$  elementary product.

Example

$$(a) \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$a_{11} a_{22}$

Permutation (1,2)

Inversion 0

S.E.P  
even  $[a_{11} a_{22}]$

$a_{12} a_{21}$

(2,1)

S.E.P  
odd  $[-a_{12} a_{21}]$

$$\det(A) = a_{11} a_{22} - a_{12} a_{21}$$

$$(b) \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

E.P

$a_{11} a_{22} a_{33}$

Permutation (1,2,3)

0

Per  
 $a_{12} a_{23} a_{31}$  (2,3,1) 2

$a_{11} a_{23} a_{32}$

(1,3,2)

1

$a_{13} a_{22} a_{31}$  (3,2,1) 2

$a_{12} a_{21} a_{33}$

(2,1,3)

1

$a_{13} a_{21} a_{32}$  (3,1,2) 3

even  $[a_{11} a_{22} a_{33}]$   
odd  $[-a_{12} a_{21} a_{33}]$

Def- let  $A$  be a square matrix. we define  $\det(A)$  to be the sum of all signed elementary product from  $A$ .

Example:

(a)  $\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$

(b)  $A = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = -6 - 4 = -10 \#$

$B = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 & -2 & 5 \end{vmatrix}$

$\det(B) = (36 + 2 + 0) - (0 + 10 - 24)$   
 $38 + 14 = 52$

The End of Chapter (2)

Chapter (5) General vector spaces :-

Sec (5.1) Real vector spaces :-  $\rightarrow$  الفضاء المتجهي الحقيقي

def- Given that  $V$  is a non-empty set. We define two operations on  $V$ , one is called (addition) denoted by  $(+)$  and associating with a pair of element  $u$  and  $v$  of  $V$ . The other is called a scalar multiplication denoted by  $(\cdot)$  and associating with an element  $v$  of  $V$  and scalar element  $(k)$ . (here is  $\mathbb{R}$ )

If the following ten axioms hold for all  $u, v, w \in V$  and scalars  $k, m$  then we called  $V$  a vector space and the element  $V$  is

called a vector.

(1)  $u + v \in V \quad \forall u, v \in V$   
 (closed under addition)

(2)  $u + v = v + u$  (commutative)

(3)  $u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w$  (associative)

(4) There is an element  $0 \in V$  called (zero or Identity) vector such that

$u + 0 = 0 + u = u \quad \forall u \in V$

(5) For each  $u \in V$ , there is an element

usual addition

(-u) called (negative or inverse) of u such that  
 $u + (-u) = 0$

⑥  $ku \in V \forall u \in V$  (closed under scalar multiplication)  
 $k \in \mathbb{R}$  (field  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ )

⑦  $k(u+v) = ku + kv$  } (Distribution)

⑧  $(k+m)u = ku + mu$

⑨  $k(mu) = (km)u$

⑩  $1 \cdot u = u$

vector space = (مجموعة متجهية) + (مجال) + (عملية)  
 في كل متجه، كل العمليات  
 (vector space) تقول

في كل متجه، كل العمليات

في كل متجه، كل العمليات

في كل متجه، كل العمليات

Example: ①

$(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$

① Take  $V = \mathbb{R}$  with usual operation.

Sol:

①  $u+v \in \mathbb{R} \forall u, v \in \mathbb{R}$

②  $u+v = v+u \forall u, v \in \mathbb{R}$

③  $u+(v+w) = (u+v)+w \forall u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}$

④  $0 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $u+0 = 0+u = u \forall u \in \mathbb{R}$

⑤ If  $u \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $-u \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $u+(-u) = 0$

⑥  $ku \in \mathbb{R} \forall u \in \mathbb{R}, k \in \mathbb{R}$

⑦  $k(u+v) = ku + kv \forall u, v \in \mathbb{R}, k \in \mathbb{R}$

⑧  ~~$(k+m)u = ku + mu$~~   $\forall k, m \in \mathbb{R}, u \in \mathbb{R}$

⑨  $k(mu) = (km)u \forall u \in \mathbb{R}, k, m \in \mathbb{R}$

⑩  $1 \cdot u = u \forall u \in \mathbb{R}$

$(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$  is vector space with st operation.

في كل متجه، كل العمليات

في كل متجه، كل العمليات

في كل متجه، كل العمليات



$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\} \quad (\mathbb{R}^n, +, \dots)$$



Example 2) Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Define

$$x + y = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n) \\ = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$

and

$$kx = k(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$kx = (kx_1, kx_2, kx_3, \dots, kx_n)$$

is vector space.

Sol:

let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $k, m \in \mathbb{R}$

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \quad z = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n) \text{ two scalars}$$

$$y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

$$\textcircled{1} x + y = (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ = ((x_1 + y_1), \dots, (x_n + y_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\textcircled{2} x + y = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n) \\ = (y_1 + x_1, \dots, y_n + x_n) \\ = (y_1, \dots, y_n) + (x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ = y + x$$

$$\textcircled{3} x + [y + z] = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n + [(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) + (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n)] \\ = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) + (y_1 + z_1, y_2 + z_2, \dots, y_n + z_n) \\ = (x_1 + y_1 + z_1, \dots, x_n + y_n + z_n) \\ = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n) + (z_1, \dots, z_n) \\ = [x + y] + z$$

$$\textcircled{4} (0, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \text{let } 0 = (0, 0, \dots, 0)$$

$$x \neq 0 = (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (0, \dots, 0) \\ = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ = x \\ = 0 + x$$

$$\textcircled{5} \text{ If } x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \text{take } (-x) = (-x_1, \dots, -x_n) \\ x + (-x) = (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (-x_1, \dots, -x_n) \\ = (x_1 - x_1, \dots, x_n - x_n) \\ = 0 \\ = (-x) + x$$

Example 3):-  $(M, +, \dots)$ ,  $M_{m \times n}$  is the set of all matrices of size  $m \times n$ , with usual addition and scalar multiplication.

This is a vector space. For the proof see Theorem (1.4.1).

The zero vector is the zero matrix of size  $m \times n$ .

Q.E.D.

Example (4):

$(V, +, \cdot)$  where  $V$  is the set of all real-valued functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  ( $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ).

and

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) \quad \text{كبرية}$$

$(kf)(x) = k(f(x))$  These is a vector space, for the proof, it is clearly that (1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10) one hold.

(4) The zero vectors is The zero functions

$$0: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow 0(x) = 0 = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(f+0)(x) = f(x) + 0(x)$$

$$= f(x) + 0$$

$$= f(x)$$

$$f+0 = f$$

(5) If  $f \in V$ ,  $f \in V$

where  $(-f)(x) = -f(x)$

$$(f+(-f))(x) = f(x) - f(x)$$

$$= f+(-f) = 0$$

(6)  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f \in V$ ,  $(kf) \in V$

since  $(kf)(x) = k f(x) \in \mathbb{R} \quad \forall x$

$$\Rightarrow kf \in V$$

Example (5):

$(\{0\}, +, \cdot)$  The zero vector space

where

$$0+0=0$$

$$k0=0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{R}$$

Ex (6)

plane through the origin

$(V, +, \cdot)$  where

$$V = \{(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$a x + b y + c z = 0\}$$

with usual operation on  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$\text{let: } (a, b, c) + (a', b', c') = (a+a', b+b', c+c')$$

$$k(a, b, c) = (ka, kb, kc) \quad A = (a, b, c)$$

$$A \oplus B$$

$$B = (a', b', c')$$

$$(1) (a, b, c) + (a', b', c') \in V ?? \quad C = (a', b', c')$$

$$(a+a', b+b', c+c') \in V ??$$

$$(a+a')x + (b+b')y + (c+c')z =$$

$$= (ax+by+cz) + (a'x+b'y+c'z)$$

$$0 + 0 = 0$$

(2+3) hold.

$$(4) 0 = (0, 0, 0) \in V ??$$

$$0(x) + 0(y) + 0(z) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$(5) (a, b, c) \in V \Rightarrow (-a, -b, -c) \in V \text{ ?}$$

$$ax + by + cz = 0$$

$$(-a)x + (-b)y + (-c)z = 0$$

$$(6) (a, b, c) \in V \Rightarrow k(a, b, c) \in V \text{ ?}$$

$$ax + by + cz = 0$$

$$(ka)x + (kb)y + (kc)z = 0$$

(7) + (8) + (10) are hold

$$\mathbb{R} \rightarrow [a] \text{ ab plane}$$

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [a, b]$$

$$\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow [a, b, c]$$

every plane through the origin  
is a vector space

$$\text{if } (x_1, y_1, z_1) \in V$$

$$(x_2, y_2, z_2)$$

$$ax_1 + by_1 + cz_1 = 1$$

$$ax_2 + by_2 + cz_2 = 1$$

$$\text{but } (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2, z_1 + z_2) \notin V$$

$$\text{since } a(x_1 + x_2) + b(y_1 + y_2) + c(z_1 + z_2)$$

$$= a(x_1 + by_1 + cz_1) + a(x_2 + by_2 + cz_2)$$

$$= 1 + 1 = 2 \neq 1$$

Example (7)

$$(\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot)$$

Usual operation

$$1) 0 \notin \mathbb{N}$$

$$2) -n \notin \mathbb{N} \quad \forall n$$

$$3) kn \notin \mathbb{N}, \quad k = \sqrt{2}$$

NOT vector space

Example

$$8) (\mathbb{R}^2, +, \cdot)$$

$$(a, b) + (x, y) = (a+x, b+y)$$

$$k(a, b) = (ka, 0)$$

$$1(a, b) = (a, 0) \neq (a, b) \quad b \neq 0$$

Not a vector space

Example (9)

$$(V, +, \cdot) \text{ where } V = \{ (a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : ax + by + cz = 1 \}$$

$$\text{with usual operation on } \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\text{if } (a, b, c), (a', b', c') \in V$$

$$ax + by + cz = 1 \text{ and } a'x + b'y + c'z = 1$$

$$(a+a')x + (b+b')y + (c+c')z = 2 \neq 1$$

$$(a+\tilde{a}, b+\tilde{b}, c+\tilde{c}) \notin V$$

*We all mostly*

$$(0, 0, 0) \notin V$$

$$0x + 0y + 0z = 0 \neq 1$$

Not vector space

بلا حتى لا يمر بتصفية المتجه

Example (10)  $(V, +, \cdot)$  where

$$V = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ 1 & b \end{bmatrix}, a, b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

with usual operation:

sol:

If  $k=2$  then

$$k \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ 1 & b \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ 1 & b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2a & 2 \\ 2 & 2b \end{bmatrix} \notin V$$

Not vector space

Problem 13

Homework

Problem 15

Page (227)

$$(u \quad ku) = 0 \Rightarrow k=0, u=0$$

assume  $ku=0$

if  $k=0$  then it is done

if  $k \neq 0$  then  $\frac{1}{k} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\frac{1}{k} \cdot ku = \frac{1}{k} \cdot 0$$

$$1 \cdot u = 0 \Rightarrow u=0$$

Theorem (5,1,1)

~~A~~

$V$   
 $\downarrow$

let  $V$  be a vector space let  $u \in V$  and  $k$  is any scalar, then

a)  $0u = 0$

b)  $k0 = 0$

c)  $(-1)u = -u$

d) If  $ku=0$ , then  $k=0$  or  $u=0$

proof

a)  $0u + 0u = (0+0)u = 0u$  adding  $-0u$

$$-0u + 0u + 0u = -0u + 0u$$

$$0 + 0u = 0$$

$$\boxed{0u = 0} \quad \#$$

b)  $k0 + k0 = k(0+0) = k(0)$

$\rightarrow k0$  as a)  $k0 = 0$

c)  $u + (-1)u = 1u + (-1)u = (1+(-1))u = 0u = 0$  add  $(-u)$

$$-u + u + (-1)u = 0 + (-1)u$$

$$\boxed{(-1)u = -u} \quad \#$$

Proof Exercise.  
d)

we support ~~the~~ EL Zamalet club by our hearts before

The End of the section 5.1

قوله الحق

all Mansour

الفضاء الجزئية

section 5.2

Subspaces

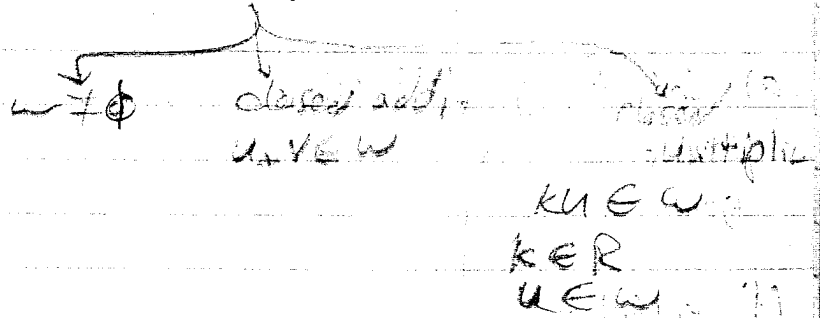
def:- A subset  $W$  of a vector space  $V$  is called a subspace of  $V$  if  $W$  is itself a vector space under the same operation defined on  $V$ .

Theorem (5.2.1):- If  $W$  is a non empty subset of a vector space  $V$ , then  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$  iff the following hold:-

a) If  $u$  and  $v \in W$ , then  $u+v \in W$   
(closed under addition)

b) If  $u \in W, k \in R$ , then  $ku \in W$   
(closed under scalar multiplication)

Subspaces



Ex (1)

في  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$(V, +, \cdot) \subseteq (\mathbb{R}^3, +, \cdot)$$

where

$$V = \{(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : ax + by + cz = 0\}$$

is a subspace.

Example (2)

$$(P_n, +, \cdot) \subseteq (F(\mathbb{R}), +, \cdot)$$

where

$$P_n = \{a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n, a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$F(\mathbb{R}) : [f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}]$$

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

$$(kf)(x) = k \cdot f(x)$$

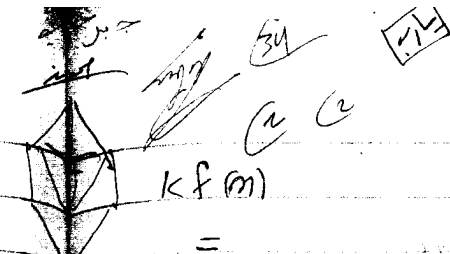
Sol.  $P_n \neq \emptyset$  since  $0 \in P_n$

a) let  $f, g \in P_n$

$$f(x) = a_0 +$$

$$g(x) =$$

$$(f+g)(x) =$$



$kf(x)$

So  $(P_n, +, \cdot)$  is a subspace of  $(F(\mathbb{R}), +, \cdot)$

$$(3) (S, +, \cdot) \subseteq (M_{n \times n}, +, \cdot)$$

$$S = \{A \in M_{n \times n} : A \text{ is symmetric}\}$$

$$\text{clearly } S \neq \emptyset = \{A \in M_{n \times n} : A^T = A\}$$

$$\text{clearly } S \neq \emptyset \neq \{0\} \in S$$

inverse = sym

$$\text{If } A, B \in S \Rightarrow A^T = A \quad B^T = B$$

$$(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T = A+B \Rightarrow A+B \in S$$

$$(kA)^T = kA^T = kA \Rightarrow kA \in S$$

subspace

matrix is not subspace ← inversible  
subspace ← symmetric

Example (4)

$(U, +, \cdot) \subseteq (\mathbb{R}^3, +, \cdot)$  where

$$U = \{ (a, b, 0) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

usual operation.

$$(a, b, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$V \neq \emptyset$  since  $(0, 0, 0) \in V$

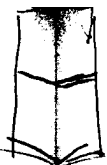
① let  $(a, b, 0), (c, d, 0) \in V$

$$(a, b, 0) + (c, d, 0) = (a+c, b+d, 0)$$

② If  $k \in \mathbb{R}, (a, b, 0) \in V$

$$k(a, b, 0) = (ka, kb, 0)$$

So it is a subspace.



Ex (5) :=  $(V, +, \cdot) \subseteq (\mathbb{R}^3, +, \cdot)$

$$V = \{ (a, b, 1) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

Not a subspace, since  $(a, b, 1) + (c, d, 1) = (a+c, b+d, 2) \notin V$

Example (6)  $(V, +, \cdot) \subseteq (\mathbb{R}^2, +, \cdot)$  where

$$V = \{ (x, y) \mid x \geq 0, y \geq 0 \}$$

Sol.

①  $V \neq \emptyset$  since  $(0, 0) \in V$

②  $(x, y), (a, b) \in V$   
 $x, y, a, b \geq 0$

$$(x, y) + (a, b) = (x+a, y+b) \in V$$

since  $x+a \geq 0$

$$y+b \geq 0$$

③ If  $k \in \mathbb{R}, (x, y) \in V$   $k(x, y) = (kx, ky)$

since if  $k < 0$ , the

$$kx \leq 0, ky \leq 0, \text{ since}$$

$$(1, 1) \in V, -1 \in \mathbb{R}$$

but  $-1(1,1) = (-1,-1) \notin V$  since:

$$-1 < 0$$

$$-1 < 0$$

So it is not a subspace

Theorem: (5.2.2) ✓

If  $AX=0$  a homogeneous linear sys of  $(m)$  equations  $(n)$  unknowns

the set of solution vectors is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

Proof:

let  $V =$  The set of all solution of  $AX=0$

$$\Rightarrow V = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : AX=0\}$$

$$= \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : AX=0\}$$

clearly,  $0 \in V$  ( $0 = (0, 0, \dots, 0)$ )

since  $AX=0$  has the trivial solution

let  $x_1, x_2 \in V$

$$Ax_1 = 0, Ax_2 = 0$$

$$A(x_1 + x_2) = Ax_1 + Ax_2 = 0 + 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 + x_2 \in V$$

If  $k \in \mathbb{R}, x_1 \in V$

$$A(kx_1) = k(Ax_1) = k(0) = 0$$

$$kx_1 \in V$$

$V$  subspace

Exercise:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

because  $A$  is invertible

then is trivial subspace.

$$V = \{(0, 0, 0)\}$$

$$\text{Q.2) } \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 4 & 7 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U = \{(x, y, z) = (-5t, 3t, t) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$



$$c) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 2 & 6 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

plane through the origin normal the vector  $x+2y-z-k$

$$d) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$V = \mathbb{R}^3$  the entire space

def:- A vector  $w$  is called a linear combination of the vectors  $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_r$

If we can write  $w = k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + \dots + k_r v_r$  where  $k_i \in \mathbb{R} \forall i \leq r$

Example: Every element in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is a linear combination of the vectors  $i = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $j = (0, 1, 0)$ ,  $k = (0, 0, 1)$ .

since  $(a, b, c) = ai + bj + ck$

claw; Ex 9 110

② Show that  $w_1 = (9, 2, 7)$

is a linear combination and  $w_2 = (4, -1, 8)$  is not a linear combination of

$u = (1, 2, -1)$  and  $v = (6, 4, 2)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

sol:

we will search for a constants  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$w_1 = k_1 u + k_2 v$$

$$(9, 2, 7) = k_1(1, 2, -1) + k_2(6, 4, 2)$$

$$(9, 2, 7) = (k_1 + 6k_2, 2k_1 + 4k_2, -k_1 + 2k_2)$$

$$9 = k_1 + 6k_2$$

$$2 = 2k_1 + 4k_2$$

$$7 = -k_1 + 2k_2$$

system

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 9 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{ERO}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$k_1 = -3, k_2 = 2$$

$$w_1 = -3u + 2v \quad \text{L.C.}$$

So,  $w$  is a linear combination of  $u$  and  $v$  (L.C.)

claw is  $\neq \mathbb{C}$

(b) by same method we will obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{ERO}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 & -9 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

this system is with no solution so  $w_1$  is not a linear combination (L.C) of  $u$  and  $v$ .

Theorem 5.2.3

If  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  are vectors in a vector space  $V$ , then

a) The set  $W$  of all linear combinations of  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  form subspace of the space  $V$ .

b)  $W$  is the smallest ~~subspace~~ subspace of  $V$  that contain  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$

That is, If  $T$  is another space contain  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  then  $W \subset T$ .

① ~~imp~~ ~~of~~ ~~is~~ ~~not~~ ~~an~~ ~~integer~~  $z = 2 \times \frac{1}{2} + 10 \times 10$   $\square$   $\square$   $\square$

Proof:-

a)  $W = \{a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_r v_r : a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$   
 since  $0v_1 + 0v_2 + \dots + 0v_r = 0$ , then  $0 \in W$  and  $W \neq \emptyset$

let  $a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_r v_r \in W$   
 and  $b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 + \dots + b_r v_r \in W$

$$\begin{aligned} & (a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_r v_r) + (b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 + \dots + b_r v_r) \\ &= (a_1 + b_1) v_1 + (a_2 + b_2) v_2 + \dots + (a_r + b_r) v_r \in W \end{aligned}$$

If  $k \in \mathbb{R}$

$$k(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_r v_r) = (ka_1) v_1 + \dots + (ka_r) v_r \in W$$

$W$  is a subspace of  $V$

b) let  $T$  be another subspace  $\ni v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r \in T$ .

let  $a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_r v_r \in W$   
 then since  $T$  is a subspace, hence  $T$  is closed under addition and scalar multiplication, then  $a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_r v_r \in T$   
 $\& W \subset T$ .

المجموعة المتولدة من  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  هي  $\text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$

Def:  $\text{spanned}$

If  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$  is a set of element in a vector space  $V$ , then the subspace  $W$  of  $V$  consisting of all linear combination of the vectors is called the subspace spanned by  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  and we say the vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r$  span  $W$ . we write  $W = \text{span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$

$$W = \text{Span } S$$

span  $\rightarrow$  مجموعة التوليد  $\rightarrow$  linear combination

Example:  $\square$  let  $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ . let  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$   
let  $W = \text{span}\{(x, y, z)\}$

$$= \{a(x, y, z) : a \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$= \{(ax, ay, az) : a \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is a line pass through the origin.

linear combination of  $v_1, v_2, v_3$  is  $kv_1 + kv_2 + kv_3$

linear combination of  $v_1, v_2, v_3$

2) let  $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^3$   $a \neq kb$   
 $\forall k \in \mathbb{R}$

$$a = (a_1, a_2, a_3), b = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$$

$$W = \text{span}\{a, b\}$$

$$= \{k_1(a_1, a_2, a_3) + k_2(b_1, b_2, b_3) : k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$= \{(k_1 a_1 + k_2 b_1, k_1 a_2 + k_2 b_2, k_1 a_3 + k_2 b_3)\}$$

is a plane through the origin.  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

3)  $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $i = (1, 0, 0)$   
 $j = (0, 1, 0)$   
 $k = (0, 0, 1)$

then  $W = \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\mathbb{R}^3 = \text{span}\{i, j, k\}$$

4) let  $V = P_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n\}$   
 $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$

then  $P_n(\mathbb{R}) = \text{span}\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$

since  $a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n \in P_n(\mathbb{R})$

$$a_0 \downarrow v_1 + a_1 \downarrow v_2 x + a_2 \downarrow v_3 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n$$

Example: Determine if  $v_1 = (1, 1, 2)$   
 $v_2 = (1, 0, 1)$   $v_3 = (2, 1, 3)$  span  $\mathbb{R}^3$

Sol. let  $(b_1, b_2, b_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  we must search  
for constant  $k_1, k_2, k_3 \rightarrow (b_1, b_2, b_3) = k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + k_3 v_3$

$$b_1 = k_1 + k_2 + 2k_3$$

$$b_2 = k_1 + k_3$$

$$b_3 = 2k_1 + k_2 + 3k_3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k_1 \\ k_2 \\ k_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & b_1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & b_2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & b_3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & b_1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & b_1 - b_2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & b_3 - b_2 - b_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This system has a solution iff  $\Leftrightarrow$   
 $b_3 - b_2 - b_1 = 0$

Now, If we take any element with this  
condition doesn't hold, then we cannot find  
 $k_1, k_2, k_3$   $(0, 0, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , and  
 $(0, 0, 1) \neq k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + k_3 v_3$  for

any  $k_1, k_2, k_3 \in \mathbb{R}$  if has mean  
 $v_1, v_2, v_3$  cannot span  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Theorem (5.2.4)

If  $S = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$  and  $S' = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k)$   
are two sets of vectors in vector space  $V$   
then  $\text{span}(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) = \text{span}(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k)$   
iff each vectors in  $S$  is a linear combination  
of those in  $S'$  and each vectors in  $S'$  is  
a linear combinations of those in  $S$   
 $L \subset \text{in } S$

Proof: Exercise - ~~Exercise~~ Exercise

Section (5.3) Linear ~~independence~~ <sup>استقلال</sup> :-

def: If  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$  is a non empty set of vectors then the vector equation

$$k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + \dots + k_r v_r = 0$$

has at least one solution, namely  $k_1 = 0, k_2 = 0, \dots, k_r = 0$

If this is the only solution, then  $S$  is called a linear independent set.

If there are other solutions, then  $S$  is called a linear dependent set.

independent  $\rightarrow$   $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$   
 dependent  $\rightarrow$   $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$

Example 1  $v_1 = (2, -1, 0, 3), v_2 = (1, 2, 5, -1)$   
 $v_3 = (7, -1, 5, 8)$

det A = 0  $\rightarrow$  LD  $\rightarrow$  w.l.  $\rightarrow$   $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$   
 $\rightarrow$   $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is a linear dependent set

$$3v_1 + v_2 - v_3 = 3(2, -1, 0, 3) + (1, 2, 5, -1) - (7, -1, 5, 8)$$

$$= (0, 0, 0, 0) = 0$$

$$k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + k_3 v_3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow k_1 = 3, k_2 = 1, k_3 = -1$$

So,  $S$  is linear dependent set.

2  $P_1 = 1 - x, P_2 = 5 + 3x - 2x^2, P_3 = 1 + 3x - x^2$

$$S = \{P_1, P_2, P_3\}$$

$$3P_1 - P_2 + 2P_3 = 0$$

$$k_1 P_1 + k_2 P_2 + k_3 P_3 = 0$$

$$k_1 = 3$$

$$k_2 = -1$$

$$k_3 = 2$$

So Linear dependent.

3  $S = \{i, j, k\}$

let

$$k_1 i + k_2 j + k_3 k = 0$$

$$(k_1, 0, 0) + (0, k_2, 0) + (0, 0, k_3) = (0, 0, 0)$$

$$\boxed{k_1 = 0}, \boxed{k_2 = 0}, \boxed{k_3 = 0} \leftarrow \text{only one solution}$$

So is a linear Independent.

4  $\{ \underbrace{(1, -2, 3)}_{v_1}, \underbrace{(5, 6, -1)}_{v_2}, \underbrace{(3, 2, 1)}_{v_3} \}$

$$k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + k_3 v_3 = 0$$

$$k_1(1, -2, 3) + k_2(5, 6, -1) + k_3(3, 2, 1) = 0$$

$$k_1 - 2k_2 + 3k_3 + 5k_2 + 6k_2 - k_2 + 3k_3 + 2k_3 + k_3 = (0, 0, 0)$$

$$2k_1 + 10k_2 + 6k_3 = (0, 0, 0)$$

$$k_1 + 5k_2 + 3k_3 = 0$$

$$-2k_1 + k_2 + 2k_3 = 0$$

$$3k_1 + k_2 + k_3 = 0$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 5 & 3 & 0 \\ -2 & 6 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\text{ERO}} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$k_1=0$   $k_2=0$   $k_3=0$  then L.I

⑤  $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$  are Linear Independent is for

$$k_1(1) + k_2(x) + k_3(x^2) + \dots + k_{n+1}(x^n) = 0$$

$x=0 \Rightarrow k_1=0$

after diff:-

$$k_2 + 2k_3x + \dots + nk_{n+1}x^{n-1} = 0$$

$x=0 \Rightarrow k_2=0$

$x=0 \Rightarrow nk_{n+1} = 0$

$k_{n+1} = 0$

$k_1 = k_2 = k_3 = \dots = k_{n+1} = 0$

$\Rightarrow$  L.I

Theorem 5.3.1

A set  $S$  with two or more vectors is :-

a) linearly dependent (iff) at least one of these vectors is expressible as a linear combination of the other vectors in  $S$

b) linearly independent (iff) no vector in  $S$  is expressible as a linear combination of the other vectors in  $S$

Proof:- take  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r\}$ ,  $r \geq 2$

a) Assume that  $S$  is linearly dependent that mean the vector equation  $k_1v_1 + k_2v_2 + \dots + k_rv_r = 0$  has non trivial solution. this mean at least one scalar is not equal zero.

let this scalar be  $k_1$

$$k_1v_1 + k_2v_2 + \dots + k_rv_r = 0$$

and  $k_1 \neq 0$

$$v_1 = - \left[ \frac{k_2}{k_1}v_2 + \frac{k_3}{k_1}v_3 + \dots + \frac{k_r}{k_1}v_r \right]$$

$\Rightarrow$  So  $v_1$  is linear combination of the other vectors in  $S$ .

$\leftarrow$  assume at least one of these vectors is a linear combination of the other vectors.

let this vector (after rearrangement) be  $V_1$

$$V_1 = c_2 V_2 + c_3 V_3 + \dots + c_r V_r$$

$$(1) V_1 + (-c_2) V_2 + (-c_3) V_3 + \dots + (-c_r) V_r = 0$$

$$(4) \cancel{V_1} + k_1 V_1 + k_2 V_2 + \dots$$

has a non trivial solution

So,  $S$  is linearly dependent set.

proof (b) the contrapositive of (a)

Example: (1)  $\{V_1, V_2, V_3\}$  in Ex (1)

(2)  $\{i, j, k\}$  in Exercise (3)

(a) see Ex 1

(b) see Ex 3

### Theorem (5.3.2)

a) A finite set vectors that contains the zero vector is linearly dependent (بوجود المتجه الصفرى  $0$   $\Rightarrow$   $v_1 = 0$   $\Rightarrow$   $S$  is linearly dependent)

b) A set with exactly two vectors is linearly independent iff neither vector is scalar multiple of the other vector

المجموعة التي فيها جزيئين باقون عنها linear indep اذا كانا متنوعين و Multiplication

proof (a) let  $S = \{0, v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_r\}$ . let

$$k_0 \cdot 0 + k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + \dots + k_r v_r = 0$$

this vector equation has nontrivial solution

$$k_0 = 1, k_1 = k_2 = \dots = k_r = 0$$

So,  $S$  is linearly dependent. \*

(b) let  $S = \{v_1, v_2\}$  is L.I. set iff we cannot write one of these vectors as a linear combination of the other iff

$$v_1 \neq k v_2 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{R}$$

iff no one of them is a scalar multiple of the other #

Example 1  $\{x, \sin x\}$  is L.I. set since  $x \neq k \sin x$   $\forall k \in \mathbb{R}$

$\{0, 2\pi, \pi^3\}$  is linearly dependent set since  $0 \in \{0, 2\pi, \pi^3\}$

$\{x, \frac{x}{2}\}$  is linearly dependent set since  $x = 2(\frac{x}{2})$ ,  $2 \in \mathbb{R}$

Theorem (5.3.3) let  $S = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$  be a set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $r > n$ , then  $S$  is L.D set

Example:  
 a)  $\{(1,2), (3,4), (5,6)\}$  Linearly Dependent  
 (3 vector then L.D.)

b)  $\{(1,1,1), (2,2,2)\}$  L.D.  
 (2 vectors are multiples of each other)

Linear Independence of Function:-

Def. let  $f_1 = f_1(x), f_2 = f_2(x), \dots, f_n = f_n(x)$  are  $n-1$  times differentiable functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then we define the Wronskian

of  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  denoted by

$w(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$  as

$$w(x) = \begin{vmatrix} f_1(x) & f_2(x) & f_3(x) & \dots & f_n(x) \\ f_1'(x) & f_2'(x) & f_3'(x) & \dots & f_n'(x) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ f_1^{(n-1)}(x) & f_2^{(n-1)}(x) & f_3^{(n-1)}(x) & \dots & f_n^{(n-1)}(x) \end{vmatrix}$$

Note that  $w(x)$  is function on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Theorem (5.3.4)

If the functions  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  have  $n-1$  continuous derivatives on the interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and if the wronskian of these functions is not identically zero on  $(-\infty, \infty)$  then these functions form a linear independent set in  $C^{n-1}(-\infty, \infty)$  [The vector space of all  $(n-1)$  time diff. functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  with usual operation]

Example:  $\{x, \sin x, \cos x\}$

$w(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x & \sin x & \cos x \\ 1 & \cos x & -\sin x \\ 0 & -\sin x & -\cos x \end{vmatrix}$



$$W(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x & \sin x & \cos x \\ 1 & \cos x & -\sin x \\ 0 & -\sin x & -\cos x \end{vmatrix}$$

دستگاه را حل کنید  
-2x + 2x = 0

$$= x[-\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x] - [\cancel{\cos x \sin x}] + \cos x \sin x - 1[-\cos x \sin x + \cos x \sin x]$$

$$= x[-1] = -x \quad \boxed{= -x}$$

$$W(x) = -x$$

$$W(1) = -1 \neq 0$$

So,  $\{x, \sin x, \cos x\}$  is linearly independent

b)  $\{x, e^x, e^{2x}\}$

$$W(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x & e^x & e^{2x} \\ 1 & e^x & 2e^{2x} \\ 0 & e^x & 4e^{2x} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= x[4e^{3x} - 2e^{3x}] - [4e^{3x} - e^{3x}]$$

$$= x \cdot 2e^{3x} - 3e^{3x}$$

$$= e^{3x}[2x - 3]$$

$$W(0) = -3 \neq 0$$

So,  $\{x, e^x, e^{2x}\}$  is Linear Independent

check  
L.I. or L.D.

c)  $\{x, 2x, x^3\}$

$$W(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x & 2x & x^3 \\ 1 & 2 & 2x \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 2[2x - 2x] = 0$$

$$W(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

this method doesn't give us any information in this case, so we try another method

clearly  $\{x, 2x, x^2\}$  is L.D.

Remark: The converse of last theorem is not true.

Example:  $\{x^2, x|x|\}$

$$W(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x^2 & x|x| \\ 2x & 2|x| \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

but,  $\{x^2, x|x|\}$  is L.I. set

$$ax^2 + b|x|x| = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$a = b = 0$$

## Section (4) Basis and Dimension

Def. If  $V$  is any vector space and  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is a set of vectors in  $V$ , then  $S$  is called a basis for  $V$  if the following two conditions hold:-

a)  $S$  is linearly independent

b)  $S$  spans  $V$ .

Example ①  $\{i, j, k\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$

In general the set

$\{(1, 0, 0, \dots, 0), (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1)\}$   
is basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

②  $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$  is a basis

for  $P_n(x)$ .

③  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

is a basis for  $M_{2 \times 2}$

④ If  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  are linearly independent set in  $V$  the  $S$  is basis for the subspace generated by the vectors in  $S$ .

⑤ Show that  $v_1, v_2, v_3$  are linearly independent

$v_1 = (2, 0, -1), v_2 = (4, 0, 7), v_3 = (-1, 1, 4)$   
a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

① is L.I? راجع لتبني

take  $k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + k_3 v_3 = 0$

$$k_1(2, 0, -1) + k_2(4, 0, 7) + k_3(-1, 1, 4) = 0$$

$$2k_1 + 4k_2 - k_3 = 0$$

$$k_3 = 0$$

$$-k_1 + 7k_2 + 4k_3 = 0$$

$$\boxed{k_1 = k_2 = k_3 = 0}$$

So,  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is linearly independent set.

② span? let  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . we must find constant  $a_1, a_2, a_3 \exists$   
 $a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + a_3 v_3 = (x, y, z)$

$$2a_1 + 4a_2 - a_3 = x$$

$$a_3 = y$$

$$-a_1 + 7a_2 + 4a_3 = z$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 7 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \\ -1 & 7 & 4 & z \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & x \\ -1 & 7 & 4 & z \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{x}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{2} - \frac{2}{1}(\frac{z}{2} - \frac{7}{2}y - \frac{x}{2}) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{9}(z + \frac{7}{2}y - \frac{x}{2}) \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a_1 = \frac{11}{18}x + \frac{23}{18}y - \frac{2}{9}z$$

$$a_2 = \frac{z}{9} - \frac{7}{18}y - \frac{x}{18}$$

$$a_3 = y$$

We find the scalar to solve the equation and that mean  $(x, y, z)$  is a linear combination of  $v_1, v_2, v_3$  and this implies  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  span  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

So  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

~~###~~

Example (6):  $\{(2, -1, 0, 3), (1, 2, 5, -1), (7, -1, 5, 8), (2, 3, 4, 1)\}$

not a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^4$

Since these vectors are form a linear dependent set

dep vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  are not a basis

Ex (7)  $\{(1, 1, 2), (1, 0, 1), (2, 1, 3)\}$  not a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$  since they cannot span  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

~~not span~~  
not basis because not span.

Theorem: (5.4.1)

If  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is a basis for a vector space  $V$ , then every vector  $v \in V$  can be expressed in the form

$$v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n$$

in exactly one way.

Proof: - every vector in  $V$  can be written as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

5

$$V = \underline{C} \underline{S}$$

Proof: The existence of this form comes from that  $S$  is a basis for  $V$ .

$$(V)_S = (c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_n)$$

Now, let  $v \in V$ , let

$$v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n$$

$$v = a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_n v_n$$

$$0 = (v - v)$$

$$= (c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n) - (a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_n v_n)$$

$$= (c_1 - a_1) v_1 + (c_2 - a_2) v_2 + \dots + (c_n - a_n) v_n$$

Since  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  are L.I. set then

$$c_1 - a_1 = 0, c_2 - a_2 = 0, \dots, c_n - a_n = 0$$

$$c_1 = a_1, c_2 = a_2, \dots, c_n = a_n$$

So this form is unique.

Def: If  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is a basis for

a vector space  $V$  and  $v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n$

then the scalars  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  are called the coordinates of  $v$  relative to a basis  $S$ .

The vector  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  constructed from these coordinates is called the coordinate vector  $v$  relative to  $S$ , we write

Example:

If  $v = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and

$S = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$  is the standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , where

$$e_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots), e_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots), \dots$$

$$\dots, e_n = (0, 0, \dots, 1)$$

then  $v = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_n)$

$$v = c_1 e_1 + c_2 e_2 + \dots + c_n e_n$$

$\mathbb{R}^n$  has standard basis

$$(n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots, n_n) = c_1 (1, 0, 0, \dots) + c_2 (0, 1, 0, \dots) + \dots + c_n (0, 0, \dots, 1)$$

$$v = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_n) = (c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_n)$$

then

$$c_1 = n_1, c_2 = n_2, \dots, c_n = n_n$$

In this case (only)

$$(V)_S = v$$

Note:

S.b  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow S = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$

S.b  $P_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow S = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$

...

...

② If  $V = P_3(x)$  with standard basis

$$S = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\} \text{ let}$$

$$f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x - 2, \text{ To Find}$$

$(f(x))_S$ , we must solve

$$f(x) = c_1(1) + c_2(x) + c_3(x^2) + c_4(x^3)$$

~~$2x^2 + 3x - 2$~~  To Find  $(f(x))_S$

$$-2 + 3x + 2x^2 = c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2 + c_4x^3$$

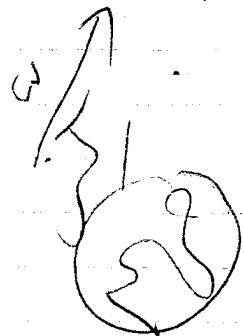
$$\boxed{c_1 = -2}, \boxed{c_2 = 3}, \boxed{c_3 = 2}, \boxed{c_4 = 0}$$

$$(f(x))_S = (-2, 3, 2, 0)$$

Example: let  $v_1 = (2, 4, -2), v_2 = (-1, 3, 5)$

$$v_3 = (0, 1, 6)$$

a) Show that  $S = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . (Ex بوسيلة)



سؤال

b) Find the Coordinate Vector of  $V = (5, -1, 9)$  relative to  $S$ .

Sol: we will solve

$$V = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + c_3v_3$$

$$(5, -1, 9) = c_1(2, 4, -2) + c_2(-1, 3, 5) + c_3(0, 1, 6)$$

$$(5, -1, 9) = 2c_1 - c_2 + 4c_1 + 3c_2 + c_3 + (-2c_1 + 5c_2 + 6c_3)$$

$$2c_1 - c_2 = 5$$

$$4c_1 + 3c_2 + c_3 = -1 \Rightarrow$$

$$-2c_1 + 5c_2 + 6c_3 = 9$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 5 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 & -11 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 & -25 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 & -25 \\ 0 & 0 & 26 & 114 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 & -25 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{114}{26} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$c_3 = \frac{114}{26}, c_2 = -25 + \frac{570}{26}, c_1 = 5 - 25 + \frac{570}{26}$$

$$c_1 = \frac{114}{26}, c_2 = \frac{-80}{26}, c_3 = \frac{150}{26}$$

$$(V)_S = \left( \frac{150}{26}, \frac{-80}{26}, \frac{114}{26} \right)$$

c) Find the vector  $V$  in  $R^3$  whose coordinate vector with respect to  $S$ .

$(V)_S = (-1, 3, 2)$

$V = C_1 v_1 + C_2 v_2 + C_3 v_3$

$= -1(2, 4, -2) + 3(-1, 3, 5) + 2(0, 1, 6)$   
 $= (-5, 7, 29)$

def. A non zero vector space  $V$  is called finite dimension if it contains a finite set of vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  that form a basis.

If no such set exist, then  $V$  is called infinite dimensional.

The zero vector space is of finite dimension.

Ex: ①  $R^n, P_n(x), M_{m \times n}$  are finite dimensional.

②  $F(R), C(R), C^n(R)$  are infinite dimensional.

Theorem (5.4.2)

let  $V$  be a finite dimensional vector space

let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  be any basis. then

(a) If a set has more than  $n$  elements, then this set is linearly dependent set.

(b) If a set has less than  $n$  elements, then this set doesn't span  $V$ .

$r > n \rightarrow L.D.$

$\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$

$n > n$

Not span

$\dim V = n$

$n$

$n < n$

Linearly Dependent

Example: let  $V = R^3$  then  $\{i, j, k\}$  is a basis for  $V$ .

a)  $S = \{(1, 2, 3), (0, 1, 5), (2, 4, -2), (0, 0, 3)\}$   $n=3$

This set is linearly dependent. (new?)

$v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4 \rightarrow r$

$r=3$

$n=3, r=4$

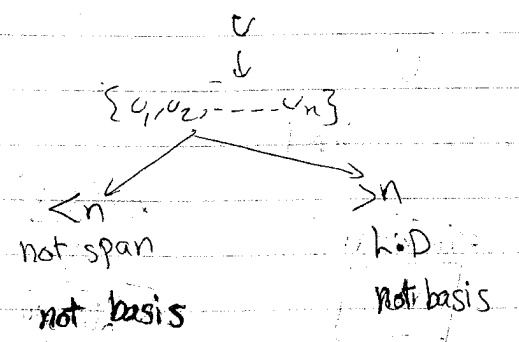
$r > n$  then L.D.

b)  $S = \{(1, 2, 3), (0, 1, 3)\}$   $\mathbb{R}^3$   $n=3$   
 $n > r$   $r=2$

Does it span  $\mathbb{R}^3$  since  $(0, 0, 1)$  cannot be written as linear combination of these elements.

Theorem (5.4.3)

All basis for a finite dimensional vector space have the same number of elements.

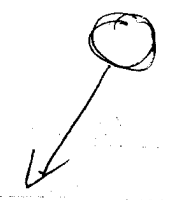


Def: The dimension of a finite dimensional vector space  $V$  denoted by  $\dim V$  is the number of vectors in a basis of  $V$ . The zero vector space is of dimension zero.

- Example:
- ①  $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$   $s = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$
  - ②  $\dim P_n(x) = n+1$   $s = (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n)$
  - ③  $\dim M_{m \times n} = m \times n$   $s = (e_{ij})$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$   
 $\dim \{0\} = 0$   $2 \times 2 = 4$

$AX=0 \Rightarrow SS$  is V.S



Example: Determine the basis and dimension for the solution space of the system.

$2x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 + x_5 = 0$   
 $-x_1 - x_2 + 2x_3 - 3x_4 + x_5 = 0$   
 $x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 - x_5 = 0$   
 $x_3 + x_4 + x_5 = 0$

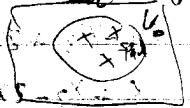
by Ex 7 sec 1

Sol:  
 The solution of this system is  $x_2 = s, x_4 = 0, x_5 = t$   
 $x_1 = -s - t, x_3 = -t, x_4 = 0, x_5 = t$   
 (Ex. 7) sec. 1.2  $\dim \{0\} = 0$

$W = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5)\} = \{(-s-t, s, -t, 0, t)\}$   
 $\uparrow$  subspace  
 $= \{(-s, s, 0, 0, 0) + (-t, 0, -t, 0, t)\}$   
 $= \{s u_1 + t u_2\}$   
 $= \text{Span} \{(-1, 1, 0, 0, 0), (-1, 0, -1, 0, 1)\}$   
 clearly  $u_1, u_2$  are L.I (how Ex. 7)  
 So, our basis is  $\{u_1, u_2\} = \{(-1, 1, 0, 0, 0), (-1, 0, -1, 0, 1)\}$   
 $\dim W = 2$   
 basis  $\rightarrow$

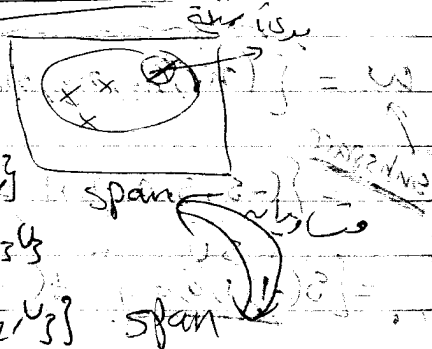
Theorem (5.4.4) Let  $S$  be a nonempty set of vectors in a vector space  $V$ , then:-

a) If  $S$  is a linearly independent set, and  $v \in V$  that outside  $\text{span } S$ , then the set  $S \cup \{v\}$  is still linearly independent.



b) If  $v$  is a vector in  $S$  that is expressible as linear combination of other elements in  $S$ , then  $S - \{v\}$  span the same space spanned that  $\text{span}(S) = \text{span}(S - \{v\})$

(b)  $\text{span}(S) = \text{span}(S - \{v\})$



$$S = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$$

$$v_4 = a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + a_3 v_3$$

$$S - \{v_4\} = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$$

(A)  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$  is linearly independent

(B)  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is linearly independent

Theorem (5.4.5) If  $V$  is an  $n$ -dimensional vector space and  $S$  is a set in  $V$  with exactly  $n$  vectors, then  $S$  is a basis for  $V$  if either  $S$  spans  $V$  or  $S$  is linearly independent.

Proof:- let  $S$  be subset of  $V$  with  $n$ -element ( $\dim V = n$ ). Assume that  $S$  is linearly independent set. Assume  $S$  does not span  $V$ . That means there exist  $v \in V \Rightarrow v$  is a linear combination of the element in  $S$ .

$\Rightarrow S \cup \{v\}$  is a linear independent set contradiction since  $S \cup \{v\}$  has  $n+1$  element, so it is linear dependent.

The other part

Exercise.

Exercise: show that  $v_1 = (-3, 7), v_2 = (5, 5)$  form a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Show that  $\{v_1, v_2\}$  is L.I.

$$k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 = 0$$

$$-3k_1 + 5k_2 = 0$$

$$7k_1 + 5k_2 = 0$$

$$\begin{cases} -10k_1 = 0 \\ k_1 = 0 \end{cases} \text{ then } \begin{cases} k_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$k_1 = k_2 = 0$$

then  $\{v_1, v_2\}$  Linearly Independent

(2)  $v_1, v_2$  are linearly independent

Linearly independent



Theorem  
(5.4.6)

Theorem (5.4.7)

~~Logic~~ \*\*

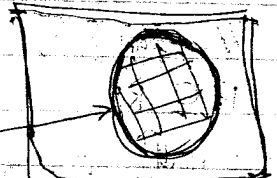
If  $W$  is a subspace of vector space  $V$  which is finite dimensional, then

$\dim W \leq \dim(V)$  ← vector space

If  $\dim W = \dim V$ , then  $W = V$

$W \neq V$  is

توضیح نظریه



Section 5 - Row space, Column space and null space :-

Def:- If  $A$  is  $m \times n$  matrix, then the subspace of  $R^n$  spanned by the row vectors of  $A$  is called the row space. Also the subspace of  $R^n$  spanned by column vectors is called the column space.

The solution space of the system  $AX=0$ , which a subspace of  $R^n$  is called the null space of  $A$ .

$AX=0$  is

2) Show that

$v_1 = (2, 0, -1), v_2 = (4, 0, 7), v_3 = (-1, 1, 4)$  form a basis for  $R^3$ .

(hint: show that  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  span  $R^3$ .)

Let  $(x, y, z)$  &

$a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + a_3 v_3 = (x, y, z)$

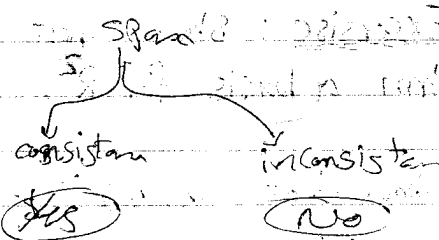
$2a_1 + 4a_2 - a_3 = x$

$a_3 = y$

$-a_1 + a_2 + 4a_3 = z$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & -1 & x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & y \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & z \end{bmatrix}$$

spanned  
Answer



Theorem 5.5.1

A system of  $n$  linear equations  $AX=b$  is consistent iff  $b$  is in the column space of  $A$ .

EX:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 5 & 7 \\ 3 & 4 & -2 & 13 & 9 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 0 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$

The row space is  $W = \text{span}\{(2, 0, 1, 5, 7), (3, 4, -2, 13, 9), (1, 2, 5, 0, 12)\}$

$W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^5$

The column space is

$H = \text{span}\{(2, 3, 1), (0, 4, 2), (1, -2, 5), (5, 13, 0), (7, 9, 12)\}$

$H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$

The null space is the solution space of  $AX=0$ .

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 25 & -21 & 37 \\ 0 & -2 & -17 & 13 & -27 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 0 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 25x_3 - 21x_4 + 37x_5 = 0 \\ x_5 = t, x_4 = s \\ x_3 = 21s - 37t \\ x_2 = -13s + 27t + \frac{(21s - 37t)}{25} \end{matrix}$

$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = s v_1 + t v_2$   
null space =  $\text{span}\{v_1, v_2\}$

Example: ①

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is consistent since

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

②  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

clearly  $a_1, a_2, a_3 \notin$

$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = a_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + a_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + a_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

inconsistent

Theorem (5.5.2) :- If  $x_0$  denoted

any single solution of a consistent linear system  $AX=b$ , if  $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_k$  form a basis of

null space of  $A$ , then that every solution of  $AX=b$  can be express in the form

$X = x_0 + c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_k v_k$   
and conversely for all choice

of scalars  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  the vector  $x$  is

Ex: Solve the system :-

$x_1 + 3x_2 - 2x_3 + 2x_5 = 0$   
 $2x_1 + 6x_2 - 5x_3 - 2x_4 + 4x_5 - 3x_6 = 1$   
 $5x_3 + 10x_4 + 15x_6 = 5$   
 $2x_1 + 6x_2 + 8x_4 + 4x_5 + 18x_6 = 6$

Sol:

$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \\ x_6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3r - 4s - 2t \\ r \\ -2 \\ s \\ t \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + r \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$= x_0 + r v_1 + s v_2 + t v_3$   
Clearly,  $x_0$  is a partial solution of  $AX=b$  and  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  form a basis for null space of the matrix of  $A$ .

Bases for Row, Column and null space :-

Theorem (5.5.3)

Elementary row operation doesn't change the null space of a matrix

Theorem (5.5.4) : Elementary row operation doesn't change the row space of a matrix

Remark :-

Elementary row operation may change the column space of a matrix

Example

If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$  ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$A \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} B$

$(1, 2) \in$  Column space of  $A$

$(1, 2) \notin$  Column space of  $B$

C.S of  $A \neq$  C.S of  $B$

EX  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

C.S of  $A =$  C.S of  $B$

Theorem (5.5.5)

R.O. is invertible  $\Rightarrow$  reversible

If  $A$  and  $B$  are Row equivalent

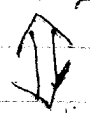
vectors

a) a given set of column ~~space~~ of  $A$  is linearly independent  $\iff$  the corresponding column vector of  $B$  are linearly independent

b) a given set of column vectors of  $A$  form a basis for the column space of  $A$  iff the corresponding column vectors of  $B$  form a basis for the column space of  $B$ .

$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ c_1 & c_3 & c_{10} & c_{100} \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$  ,  $B = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ c_1 & c_3 & c_{10} & c_{100} \\ | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$

$\{c_1, c_3, c_{10}, c_{100}\} \in L.A$



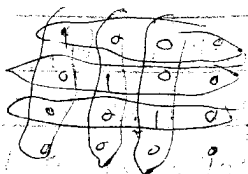
$\{c_1, c_3, c_{10}, c_{100}\}$  are L.I

Theorem (5.5.6) If a matrix  $R$  is in R.E.F. then the row vectors with leading 1's form a basis for the row space

And the Column vector with leading one's form a basis for the Column space of  $R$ .

کو پینچ لکھو

$R \rightarrow R.E.F$



Example 1

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 5 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Basis for the R.S. is

$$\{(1, -2, 5, 0, 3), (0, 1, 3, 0, 0), (0, 0, 0, 1, 0)\}$$

The Basis for the C.S. is

$$\{(1, 0, 0, 0), (-2, 1, 0, 0), (0, 0, 1, 0)\}$$

(A) Column اور Row کی

2) Find a basis for the row space and Column space and null space of :-

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & -2 & 5 & 4 \\ 2 & -6 & 9 & -1 & 8 & 2 \\ 2 & -6 & 9 & -1 & 9 & 7 \\ -1 & 3 & -4 & 2 & -5 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sol: The R.E.F of  $A$  is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & -2 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & -2 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

① For row space the basis

$$\{(1, -3, 4, -2, 5, 4), (0, 0, 1, 3, -2, -6), (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 5)\}$$

پہلی تین افقیوں

② For the Column space the basis is

$$\{(1, 2, 2, -1), (4, 9, 9, -4), (5, 8, 9, -5)\}$$

Column کی  
پہلی تین عمودیوں

پہلی تین عمودیوں کی بقائیں ہی Column

$$AX = 0$$

③ null space

$$x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 2x_4 + 5x_5 + 4x_6 = 0$$

$$x_3 + 3x_4 - 2x_5 - 6x_6 = 0$$

$$x_5 + 5x_6 = 0$$

↓  
پہلی

$$x_6 = t \Rightarrow x_6 = -5t$$

$$x_4 = s \Rightarrow x_3 = -3s - 4t$$

$$x_2 = r \Rightarrow x_1 = 3r + 14s + 37t$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \\ x_6 \end{bmatrix} = r \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 37 \\ 0 \\ -4 \\ -5 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ 0 \\ -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

basis is  $\{ (3, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0), (37, 0, -4, -5, 1, 1), (14, 0, -3, 1, 0, 0) \}$

Find

a basis for the vector space spanned by the vectors:-

$$V_1 = (1, -2, 0, 0, 3), V_2 = (2, -5, -3, -2, 6)$$

$$V_3 = (0, 5, 15, 10, 0), V_4 = (2, 6, 18, 8, 6)$$

Sol.

We put these vectors as a row vector in a matrix it

A.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -5 & -3 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & 15 & 10 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 18 & 8 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

We do some elementary row operation to get the REF of A.

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -3 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector  $\{ (1, -2, 0, 0, 3), (0, 1, -3, -2, 0), (0, 0, 1, 10, 0) \}$  are basis for the row space of R.

= row space of A.

= space spanned by  $S = \{V_1, V_2, V_3, V_4\}$

So, our basis is

$$\{ (1, -2, 0, 0, 3), (0, 1, -3, -2, 0), (0, 0, 1, 10, 0) \}$$

رکز:  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4, \vec{v}_5$

Example:- Find a basis for the space spanned by the vectors in the last example consisting of these vectors.

بسیاسی:  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4, \vec{v}_5$   
 basis:  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4, \vec{v}_5$

Sol:

1 We construct A as before

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 2 & -5 & -3 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & 15 & 10 & 0 \\ 2 & 6 & 18 & 8 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

2 We calculate  $A^T$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ -2 & -5 & 5 & 6 \\ 0 & -3 & 15 & 18 \\ 0 & -2 & 10 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

3 We ~~can~~ convert  $A^T$  to REF  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_4, \vec{v}_5$

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & \textcircled{1} & -5 & -16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Column 1, 2, 3 & 4

4 The basis column space is.

$$\{(1, -2, 0, 0, 3), (2, -5, -3, -2, 6), (2, 6, 18, 8, 6)\}$$

Exercise:-  $v_1 = (1, -2, 0, 3), v_2 = (2, -5, 3, 6)$

$v_3 = (0, 1, 3, 0), v_4 = (2, -1, 4, -7), v_5 = (5, -8, 1, 2)$

using two methods. (row, column)

## sec(6) Rank and nullity:-

Remark:- Consider the matrix  $A$  and its transpose  $A^T$ , then

- (1) The column space of  $(A^T)$  is the row space of  $(A)$ .
- (2) The row space of  $(A^T)$  is the column space of  $A$ .
- (3) The null space of  $A$  is not always the nullspace of  $A^T$ .

### Theorem (5.6.1)

If  $A$  is any matrix, then the row space of  $A$  and the column space of  $A$  have the same dimension.

def. The common dimension of the row space and column space is called the Rank of  $A$ . we can write rank( $A$ ).

The dimension of the null space of  $A$  is called the nullity of  $A$  and we write nullity( $A$ ).

Example:- Find the rank and nullity of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 5 & -3 \\ 3 & -7 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & -5 & 2 & 4 & 6 & 1 \\ 4 & -9 & 2 & -4 & -4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sol:-

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -4 & -28 & -37 & 13 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & -12 & -16 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

rank(A) = 2

after solution, we have  $AX=0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \\ x_6 \end{bmatrix} = r \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} 28 \\ 12 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 17 \\ 16 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + u \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

nullity(A) = 4 ← parameter

parameter

Theorem (5.6.2)

If A is any matrix then  $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$

Proof

$\text{rank}(A) = \dim(\text{Row space of } A) = \dim(\text{Column space of } A)$

$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$

Theorem (5.6.3)

$\text{rank} + \text{nullity} = \text{columns}$

If A is any matrix with n columns, then  $\text{rank}(A) + \text{nullity}(A) = n$

Theorem (5.6.4) If A is  $m \times n$  matrix, then

(a)  $\text{rank}(A) =$  the number of leading variables in the solution of  $AX=0$

(b)  $\text{nullity}(A) =$  the number of the variables (parameter) in the general solution of  $AX=0$ .

$\text{nullity} = \text{number of parameters}$

ES



$A^T$  7x5

Example:- If  $A$  is  $5 \times 7$  matrix, with  $\text{rank}(A) = 3$ , then

(1) nullity =  $7 - 3 = 4$        $\text{rank} + \text{nullity} = n$

(2)  $\text{rank}(A^T) = 3 = \text{rank}(A)$

(3) nullity  $(A^T) = 5 - \text{rank}(A^T) = 5 - 3 = 2$   
*A's rows*

Remark:-

For any (every) matrix we have

$\text{rank}(A) \leq \min(n, m)$

Example:- If  $A$  is  $3 \times 5$  matrix, the maximum of the rank.

$\text{rank}(A) \leq \min(3, 5)$

$\text{rank}(A) \leq 3$

The End of sec (6)

The End of the chapter.

تطبيق

Chapter (7)

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors:-

section(1):- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors :-

def:-

If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  matrix, then a nonzero vector  $X \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is called an Eigenvector of  $A$  if there ~~exist~~  $AX = \lambda X$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . The scalar  $\lambda$  is called an eigenvalue and  $X$  is said to be an eigenvector of  $A$ .

Corresponding to  $\lambda$

Example:- The vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  is an eigenvector

of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  corresponding to the eigen

value  $\lambda = 3$  since

$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$AX = 3X$

$\lambda = 3$

↑  
eigen vector

$X$  engine vector

$\lambda$  engine value

How to find the eigen value of matrix  $A$ ??

1) We write first  $AX = \lambda X$

2) since we search ~~a non zero~~ a non zero vector  $X$  that solve  $AX = \lambda X$  we must have

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$$

This called the characteristic equation.

*أليس*  
 $AX = \lambda X$   
 $(\lambda I - A)X = 0$

3) The value of  $\det(\lambda I - A)$  is always a polynomial  $P$  of  $\lambda$  which called the characteristic polynomial

That  $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$

$$P(\lambda) = \lambda^n + c_1 \lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_n = 0$$

4) we must find the roots of this polynomial to find the eigen values.

Sol: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & 8 \end{bmatrix} X = \lambda X$$

The characteristic equation

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$$

$$\det \left( \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \right) = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & -1 \\ -4 & 17 & \lambda - 8 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

جاءت

$$\text{جاءت } \lambda^3 - 8\lambda^2 + 17\lambda - 4 = 0$$

So,  $\lambda = 4$  is root

$(\lambda - 4)$  is factor

Ex: Find the eigen values of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sol  $\Rightarrow$

$$(x-4)(x^2-4x+1) = 0$$

using the general law we have

The eigen values are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= 4 \\ \lambda_2 &= 2 - \sqrt{3} \\ \lambda_3 &= 2 + \sqrt{3} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$(\lambda-4) \sqrt{\frac{\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 1}{\lambda^3 - 8\lambda^2 + 17\lambda - 4}}$$

$$\frac{-4\lambda^2 + 17\lambda - 4}{-4\lambda^2 + 16\lambda}$$

$$\lambda - 4$$

$$\lambda \pm 4$$

$$a \quad 0$$

Theorem (7.1.1)

If  $A$  is a triangular, then the eigen values of  $A$  are entries in main diagonal.

Example:-

The eigen values of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & a & 0 \\ -1 & \frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ 5 & p & -\frac{1}{11} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2} \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{2}{3} \quad \lambda_3 = -\frac{1}{11}$$

المسقط  
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1, 5, 8, 10

Theorem (7.1.2) :-

If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  matrix and  $\lambda$  is a real number, then the following statements are equation equivalent

(a)  $\lambda$  is eigen value of  $A$ .

(b) The system  $(\lambda I - A)x = 0$  has non-trivial

(c) There is a non zero vector  $x$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $Ax = \lambda x$

(d)  $\lambda$  is a solution of  $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$

How to find the eigenvectors of  $A$ ?

(1) First we calculate the eigen values of  $A$ .

(2) For each eigen value  $\lambda$ , we solve the system  $(\lambda I - A)x = 0$

(3) The eigen vectors corresponding to  $\lambda$  are the solution of  $(\lambda I - A)x = 0$ , that is the null space of  $(\lambda I - A)$ .

(4) we call this solution the eigenspace of  $A$  corresponding to  $\lambda$ .

Example:- Find basis for the eigenspace of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \left| \begin{array}{ccc} \lambda & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & \lambda - 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & \lambda - 3 \end{array} \right|$$

Sol: The characteristic equation is

$$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\lambda^3 - 5\lambda^2 + 8\lambda - 4 = 0$$

to factorize the polynomial we will substitute by  $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4$ .  $\lambda = 1$  is a root, so  $(\lambda - 1)$  is a factor.

Now, using long division, we have

$$\lambda - 1 \overline{\lambda^3 - 5\lambda^2 + 8\lambda - 4}$$

$$\underline{+\lambda^3 - \lambda^2}$$

$$(\lambda - 1)(\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 4) = 0 \quad \begin{array}{r} -4\lambda^2 + 8\lambda - 4 \\ -4\lambda^2 + 4\lambda \end{array}$$

$$(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 2) = 0 \quad \begin{array}{r} 4\lambda - 4 \\ -4\lambda + 4 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

$$(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 2)^2 = 0$$

The eigen values are  $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2$

① For  $\lambda_1 = 1$

$$(\lambda_1 I - A)X = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{E.R.O.}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$z = t, y = t, x = -2t$$

The eigen space corresponding to  $\lambda_1 = 1$  is

$$W_1 = \{(x, y, z) = (-2t, t, t)\}$$

$$= \{t(-2, 1, 1) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

= span  $\{(-2, 1, 1)\}$  with the basis is

$$S_1 = \{(-2, 1, 1)\}$$

② For  $\lambda_2 = 2$

$$(\lambda_2 I - A)X = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x + z = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{E.R.O.}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$z = t, y = s, x = -t$$

$$W_2 = \{(x, y, z) = (-t, s, t)\}$$

$$= \{t(-1, 0, 1) + s(0, 1, 0) : t, s \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

= span  $\{(-1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 0)\}$  with basis  
 $S_2 = \{(-1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 0)\}$

### Theorem (7.1.3)

If  $k$  is a positive integer,  $\lambda$  is an eigen value of  $A$  and  $X$  is one of its corresponding eigen vectors then  $\lambda^k$  is an eigen value of  $A^k$  and  $X$  is one of its corresponding eigen vectors.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \lambda & A & X \Rightarrow AX = \lambda X \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \lambda^k & A^k & X \Rightarrow A^k X = \lambda^k X \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} AX &= \lambda X \\ A(AX) &= A(\lambda X) \\ A^2 X &= \lambda(A X) \\ &= \lambda(\lambda X) \\ &= \lambda^2 X \end{aligned}$$

Example:-

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ with}$$

$\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2$  are eigen values.

then  $A^{10}$  has eigen values

$$\lambda_1^{10} = 1^{10} = 1, \lambda_2^{10} = 2^{10} = 1024$$

### Theorem (7.1.4)

A square matrix  $A$  is invertible iff  $\lambda = 0$  is not an eigen value of  $A$ .

Proof:-  $\Rightarrow$  Assume  $A$  is  $n \times n$  invertible matrix.

Assume that  $\lambda = 0$  is an eigen value of  $A$

$$\det(0I - A) = 0$$

$$\det(-A) = 0$$

$$(-1)^n \det(A) = 0$$

$$\det(A) = 0$$

ie LVL

contradiction

So,  $\lambda = 0$  is not eigen value of  $A$ .

$\Leftarrow$  assume  $\lambda = 0$  is not eigen value of  $A$ .

That mean

$$\det(\lambda I - A) \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^n + c_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + c_{n-1} \lambda + c_n = 0$$

then  $c_n \neq 0$

Now

$$\det(A) = (-1)^n (-1)^n \det(A)$$

$$= (-1)^n \det(-A)$$

$$= (-1)^n \det(0I - A) = 0$$

$$= (-1)^n \det(dI - A), d=0$$

$$= (-1)^n [d^n + c_1 d^{n-1} + \dots + c_n], d = (-1)^n c_n \neq 0 \text{ A is invertible}$$

Section (2) Diagonalization

def: A square matrix  $A$  is called diagonalizable if there is an invertible matrix  $P$  such that  $P^{-1}AP$  is diagonal matrix. The matrix  $P$  is said to diagonalize  $A$ .

Theorem 7.2.1 If  $A$  is  $n \times n$  matrix then the following are equivalent

- $A$  is diagonalizable.
- $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigen vector.

How to diagonalize a matrix  $A$  :- ??

- We calculate the Eigen values of  $A$ .
- We find for each eigen value  $\lambda$  of  $A$ , a basis for the corresponding eigen space.

- We collect these vector (basis).  
# vectors  $\leftarrow n$
- If the number of these vector are less than  $n$ , then  $A$  is not diagonalizable.

$A$  is  $5 \times 5$

$A^{-1}$  is  $5 \times 5$

not dia.  $\times$   $1 \times 1$  is

$5 = 5$

Other wise, by clearly theorem if these vectors number are  $n$ , then they are linearly independent.

We construct the matrix  $P$  by putting these vectors as columns.

The matrix  $P^{-1}AP$  will be diagonal matrix with its main diagonal entries are the eigen values of  $A$  in some order.

Remark: If  $P$  exist, then it is not unique.

Example: Find the matrix  $P$  that diagonalizes

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sol:

The eigen values and there corresponding basis are found later as

$$\lambda_1 = 1 \quad S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2 \quad S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

فإذا لم يكن  $P^{-1}AP = L \cdot I$  فـ  $P$  موجودة تعال

Now  $P = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -4 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

So,  $P^{-1}AP = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -3 & -4 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix}$

diag.  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$   
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$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Example:- The matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \\ -3 & 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  is not

diagonalizable since its eigen values with their basis eigenspaces basis are

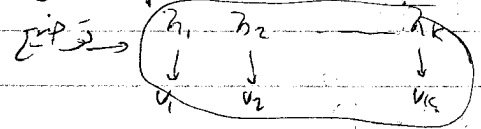
$\lambda_1 = 1 \Rightarrow P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{8} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \otimes$

$\lambda_2 = 2 \Rightarrow P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \otimes$

$2 < n$  i.e.  $P$  is not square then is not

Theorem 7.2.2 :- If  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  are eigen vectors of  $A$  corresponding to distinct eigen values

$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k$ , then  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$  is linearly independent set



Theorem 7.2.3 If  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  has distinct eigen values, then it is diagonalizable.

Example:- The matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -17 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$  is

diagonalizable since it has three distinct eigen values  $\lambda_1 = 4$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ ,  $\lambda_3 = 2 - \sqrt{3}$

Example: The matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

is diagonalizable with eigen values

$\lambda_1 = -1$     $\lambda_2 = 3$     $\lambda_3 = 5$     $\lambda_4 = -2$

diagonalizable yes

Computing Powers of matrix:-

This method is valued only for diagonal matrices:-

The method is as follow:-

① If  $A$  is diagonalizable, then  $\exists$  matrix  $P \ni P^{-1}AP = D$  (diagonal)

② Now,  $(P^{-1}AP)^2 = D^2$

$P^{-1}APP^{-1}AP = D^2$

$P^{-1}A^2P = D^2$

by induction, we can say every positive integer  $k$ , we have

$P^{-1}A^kP = D^k$

So

$A^k = P D^k P^{-1}$

③ If  $D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & d_n \end{bmatrix}$

$D^k = \begin{bmatrix} d_1^k & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & d_2^k & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3^k & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & d_n^k \end{bmatrix}$

is diagonal

So, we can calculate  $A^k$  trivially by this method.

Ex:- find  $A^{13}$  if  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Sol:-

we know that  $P = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

and  $P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -3 & -4 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  now  $A^{13} = P D^{13} P^{-1}$



$$A^{13} = P D P^{-1}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^{13} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2^{13} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -3 & -4 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{13} = \begin{bmatrix} -8190 & 0 & -6382 \\ 8191 & 8192 & 8191 \\ 8191 & 0 & 6383 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Chapter (8) :-

### Linear Transformations :-

Sec (1) :- General linear transformation :-

def: If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a function from a vector space  $(V)$  to a vector space  $(W)$ , then  $T$  is called a linear transformation from  $V$  into  $W$  if for all  $u$  and  $v$  in  $V$  and scalars  $c$ , we have

$$(1) T(u+v) = T(u) + T(v)$$

$$(2) T(cu) = cT(u)$$

If  $V=W$ , then  $T$  is called a linear operator.

Example (1) The zero linear transformation If  $V$  and  $W$  are two vector spaces, the zero linear transformation is defined as:-

$$O: V \rightarrow W \text{ given by}$$

$$O(u) = 0_W \quad \forall u \in V$$

of  $W$  let  $u, v \in V$ ,  $a$  be scalar then:-

$$\begin{aligned} T(u+v) &= 0_W = 0_W + 0_W \\ &= T(u) + T(v) \\ &= O(u) + O(v) \end{aligned}$$

$$O(u+v) = \{O(u) + O(v)\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} O(au) &= 0_W = a \cdot 0_W \\ &= a O(u) \end{aligned}$$

$$O(au) = a(O(u))$$

② The identity operator :-  
 If  $V$  be a vector space define the map  
 $I: V \rightarrow V$  given by  
 by  $I(u) = u$

If  $u, v \in V$ ,  $a$  a scalar, then

1)  $I(u+v) = u+v$   
 $= I(u) + I(v)$

$I(u+v) = I(u) + I(v)$

2)  $I(au) = au = aI(u)$

$I(au) = aI(u)$

③ Define  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  by

$T(x) = Ax \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $A$  is a fixed

$n \times m$  matrix. This is a linear transformation  
 (It is a type of Equilinear transformation)

let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $a$  be any scalar.

1)  $T(x_1+x_2) = A(x_1+x_2)$   
 $= Ax_1 + Ax_2$

$T(x_1+x_2) = T(x_1) + T(x_2)$

2)  $T(ax_1) = A(ax_1)$

$T(ax_1) = a(Ax_1) = aT(x_1)$

Numerical Example:

$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$T(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$CA = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$T\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$

④ The relative coordinates linear transformation:-

given that  $V$  is an  $n$ -dimensional vector space  
 with basis

$S = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n\}$

Remember that, the coordinate of a vector  $v \in V$   
 relative to the basis  $S$  is given by

$(v)_S = (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$ , where

$v = k_1 w_1 + k_2 w_2 + \dots + k_n w_n$

Now, defined the map

$T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  given by

$T(u) = (v)_S$ , let  $u, v \in V$  a be

a scalar, then

If  $U = k_1 w_1 + k_2 w_2 + \dots + k_n w_n$   
 and  $V = b_1 w_1 + b_2 w_2 + \dots + b_n w_n$   
 then  $(U)_S = (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$

$$(V)_S = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$$

$$(U+V)_S = (k_1+b_1, k_2+b_2, \dots, k_n+b_n)$$

Now:-

$$\begin{aligned} T(U+V) &= (U+V)_S \\ &= (k_1+b_1, k_2+b_2, k_3+b_3, \dots, k_n+b_n) \\ &= (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) + (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) \\ &= (U)_S + (V)_S \\ &= T(U) + T(V) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(aU) &= (aU)_S \\ &= (ak_1, ak_2, \dots, ak_n) \\ &= a(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) \\ &= a(U)_S \\ &= aT(U) \end{aligned}$$

So, L.T.  $\#$

⑤ Define:-

$$T: P_n \rightarrow P_{n+1}$$

given by

$$T(P(x)) = xP(x)$$

$$T(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n) =$$

$$a_0x + a_1x^2 + a_2x^3 + \dots + a_nx^{n+1}$$

This is

a linear transformation, since if  $f, g \in P_n$   
 $a$  be scalar then:-

$$1) T(f+g) = x(f+g)$$

$$= xf + xg$$

$$= T(f) + T(g)$$

دو خط بر یک خط

$$2) T(af) = x(af)$$

$$= a(xf)$$

$$= aT(f)$$

دو خط بر یک خط

Numerical Example:-

$$T: P_2 \rightarrow P_3 \text{ then}$$

$$T(1 - 2x + x^2) = x(1 - 2x + x^2)$$

$$= x - 2x^2 + x^3$$

⑥  $T: P_n \rightarrow P_n$  given by

$$T(P(x)) = P(ax+b)$$

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n$$

~~$P(x) =$~~

$u, v \in V$

$\mathbb{R}$  scalar

$$P(ax+b) = a_0 + a_1(ax+b) + a_2(ax+b)^2 + \dots + a_n(ax+b)^n$$

Let  $u, v \in V$  & a scalar

$$T(u+v) = T$$



⑦  $D: C^1(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow F(\mathbb{R})$

$C^1(\mathbb{R})$ : The set of all Functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  with continuous first derivatives. given by:-

$$D(f) = f'$$

Is a linear transformations since

$$D(f+g) = (f+g)'$$

$$= f' + g' = D(f) + D(g)$$

$$D(cf) = (cf)'$$

$$= cf' = cD(f)$$

Example

$$D(e^x \sin x)$$

$$= e^x \sin x + e^x \cos x$$

⑧  $L: C(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{R})$

$C(\mathbb{R})$ : The set of all continuous function on  $\mathbb{R}$  given by:-

$$L(f) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$$

Is a linear transformation since

$$L(f+g) = \int_0^x (f+g)(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^x f(t) dt + \int_0^x g(t) dt$$

$$= L(f) + L(g)$$

$$L(cf) = \int_0^x cf(t) dt$$

$$= c \int_0^x f(t) dt = cL(f)$$

$$L(\cos 2x + 5)$$

$$= \int_0^x (\cos 2t + 5) dt$$

$$= \frac{\sin 2t}{2} + 5t \Big|_0^x$$

$$= \frac{\sin 2x}{2} + 5x$$

④  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  given by

$$T(x, y, z) = (2x + y - z, x + y - 2z)$$

is a linear transformation since

$$T((x, y, z) + (a, b, c)) \\ = T(x+a, y+b, z+c)$$

$$= (2(x+a) + (y+b) - (z+c), x+a + y+b - 2(z+c)) \\ = ((2x+y-z) + (2a+b-c), (x+y-2z) + (a+b-2c))$$

$$= \underline{2x+y-z, x+y-2z} + \underline{(2a+b-c, a+b-2c)}$$

$$= T(x, y, z) + T(a, b, c)$$

~~\*~~

Same thing for  $cT(x, y, z)$

$$T(k(x, y, z)) = kT(x, y, z)$$

or

This transformation can be written as

$$T(x, y, z) = (2x + y - z, x + y - 2z) \\ = x(2, 1) + y(1, 1) + z(-1, -2)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = AX$$

$$\text{where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example (v) :-  $\text{Defn. } M_{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$T: M_{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ by}$$

$$T(A) = \det(A)$$

is not a linear transformation since

$$T(A+B) \neq T(A) + T(B) \quad \text{In general!}$$

Remark 2:- We can generalize the definition

as:-  $\forall v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in V$

$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  be scalars, we have

$$T(a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \dots + a_n v_n)$$

$$= a_1 T(v_1) + a_2 T(v_2) + \dots + a_n T(v_n)$$

### Theorem (8.1.1)

If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation then

~~1)  $T(0_V) = 0_W$~~   
a)  $T(0_V) = 0_W$

b)  $T(-v) = -T(v)$

c)  $T(v-w) = T(v) - T(w)$

Proof Exercise 2  $v \in V, w \in W$

let  $0$  is any vector in  $V$  and  
 $0 \cdot v = 0$

$T(0 \cdot v) = 0 \cdot T(v) = [0]$

$T(-v) = T((-1)v) = (-1)T(v) = -T(v)$

Let  $v, w \in V$

$T(v) + T(-v)w$

$= T(v) + (-1)T(w)$

$= T(v) - T(w)$

~~\*~~

### Finding L.T from Images of Basis Vectors

If  $V$  is a finite dimensional vector space with basis  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  and

$T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear transformation then:-

we can determine the transformation completely using the images of the basis vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  as following:-

If  $u \in V$ , then we can write

$u = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n$

Now

$T(u) = T(c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n)$

$= c_1 T(v_1) + c_2 T(v_2) + \dots + c_n T(v_n)$

That is, we only find the values

$T(v_1), T(v_2), \dots, T(v_n)$

Example Consider basis  $S = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$

where  $v_1 = (1, 1, 1), v_2 = (1, 1, 0), v_3 = (1, 0, 0)$

If  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is a linear transformation

such that  $T(v_1) = (1, 0), T(v_2) = (2, -1), T(v_3) = (4, 3)$

Find  $T(2, -3, 5)$

$\downarrow$   
 $\downarrow$

Sol:- First we find the scalars  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  such that for an arbitrary element  $(x, y, z)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$\text{we have } (x, y, z) = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + c_3 v_3$$

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

after solution we have

$$c_1 = z, c_2 = y - z, c_3 = x - y$$

that

$$(x, y, z) = z(1, 1, 1) + (y - z)(1, 1, 0) + (x - y)(1, 0, 0)$$

So:

$$T(x, y, z) = z(T(1, 1, 1) + (y - z)(1, 1, 0) + (x - y)T(1, 0, 0))$$

$$T(x, y, z) = z(1, 0) + (y - z)(2, -1) + (x - y)(4, 3)$$

$$T(x, y, z) = (z + 2y - 2z + 4x - 4y, -y + z + 3x - 3y)$$

$$= (4x - 2y - z, 3x - 4y + z)$$

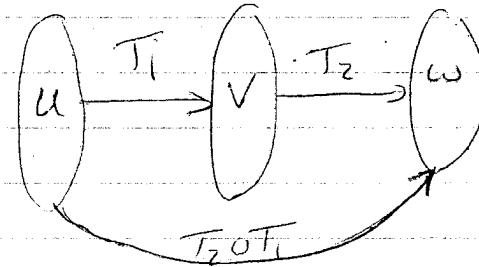
$$T(2, -3, 5)$$

$$= (8 + 6 - 5, 6 + 12 + 5)$$

$$= (9, 23)$$

$$T(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & -1 \\ 3 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x$$

def. If  $T_1: U \rightarrow V$  and  $T_2: V \rightarrow W$  are linear transformations, then the composition of  $T_2$  with  $T_1$  denoted by  $T_2 \circ T_1$  (read  $T_2$  circle  $T_1$ ) is a function defined by  $(T_2 \circ T_1)(u) = T_2(T_1(u))$  where  $T_2 \circ T_1: U \rightarrow W$



Theorem (8.1.2): If  $T_1: U \rightarrow V$  and  $T_2: V \rightarrow W$  are linear transformations, the composition  $T_2 \circ T_1: U \rightarrow W$  is also a linear transformation.

Proof:- let  $x, y \in U$ ,  $a$  be scalar, then

$$\rightarrow T_2 \circ T_1(x + y) = T_2(T_1(x + y))$$

$$= T_2(T_1(x) + T_1(y))$$

$$= T_2(T_1(x)) + T_2(T_1(y))$$

$$= T_2 \circ T_1(x) + T_2 \circ T_1(y)$$

$$\rightarrow T_2 \circ T_1(ax) = T_2(T_1(ax)) = T_2(aT_1(x))$$

$$= aT_2(T_1(x))$$

$$= aT_2 \circ T_1(x)$$

$T_2 \circ T_1$  is linear transformation

Example: let  $T_1: P_1 \rightarrow P_2$  &  $T_2: P_2 \rightarrow P_2$  given by

$$T_1(P(x)) = xP(x)$$

$$T_2(P(x)) = P(2x+4)$$

Now,  $T_2 \circ T_1: P_1 \rightarrow P_2$  and given by

$$T_2 \circ T_1(P(x)) = T_2(T_1(P(x))) = T_2[xP(x)] \\ = (2x+4)P(2x+4)$$

$$T_2 \circ T_1(5x-2) = T_2(T_1(5x-2)) \\ = T_2(x(5x-2)) = T_2(5x^2 - 2x) \\ = 5(2x+4)^2 - 2(2x+4) \\ = 20x^2 + 80x + 80 - 4x - 8 \\ = 20x^2 + 76x + 72$$

Is  $T_1 \circ T_2$  define: Note define.

Remark:

$$1) T \circ I = I \circ T = T$$

$$2) (T_3 \circ T_2) \circ T_1 = T_3 \circ (T_2 \circ T_1)$$

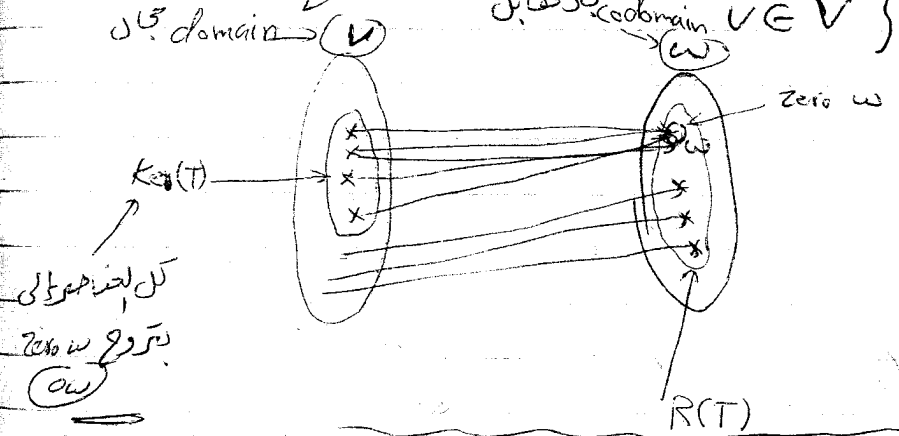
Section (2): kernel and Range:-

def: If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear transformation then the set of vector in  $V$  that  $T$  maps into  $0_W$  is called the kernel of  $T$  denoted by  $\ker(T)$

$$\ker T = \{u \in V : T(u) = 0\}$$

The set of all vectors in  $W$  that are images under  $T$  (تصاویر) of at least one vector in  $V$  is called the range of  $T$  denoted by  $R(T)$ .

$$R(T) = \{w \in W : w = T(v) \text{ for some } v \in V\}$$



Example:

$T: R^n \rightarrow R^m$  where  $T(x) = AX$  and  $A$  is  $m \times n$  matrix.

$$\ker(T) = \{x \in R^n : T(x) = 0\}$$

$$= \{x \in R^n : T(x) = AX = 0\}$$

$$= \{x \in R^n : AX = 0\}$$

null space of  $A$



= The null space of A

$$R(T) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : T(x) = y \text{ for some } x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

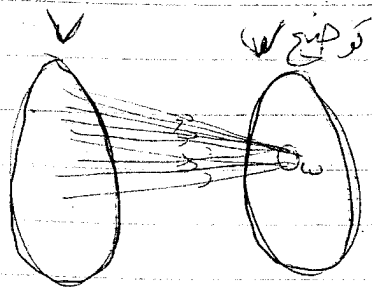
$$= \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : Ax = y\}$$

$$= \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : Ax = y \text{ is consistent}\}$$

= The column space of A.

2)  $O: V \rightarrow W$  where  $O(u) = 0 \leftarrow \text{zero}$   $\forall u \in V$

$$\ker(O) = \{u \in V : O(u) = 0\} = V$$



$$R(O) = \{w \in W : O(u) = w \text{ for some } u \in V\}$$

$$= \{0\}$$

3)  $I: V \rightarrow V$  where  $I(u) = u$

$$\ker(I) = \{u \in V : I(u) = 0\}$$

$$= \{u \in V : u = 0\}$$

$$= \{0\}$$

Range: ان عناصر في المجال تصير في النطاق

$$R(T) = \{v \in V : T(u) = v \text{ for some } u \in V\}$$

$$= \{u \in V : u = v \text{ for some } u \in V\}$$

$$= \{V\}$$

4)  $D: C(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow F(\mathbb{R})$  given by

$$D(f) = f'$$

$$\ker(D) = \{f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : Df = 0\}$$

$$= \{f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : f' = 0\}$$

The set of all constant functions.

جميع الدوال الثابتة

Theorem (8.2.1): If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation

- a)  $\ker(T)$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
- b)  $R(T)$  is a subspace of  $W$ .

Proof - EX

انظر المثال

defn If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear transformation where  $V, W$  are vector spaces, then the dimension of the range of  $T$  is called the rank of  $T$  denoted by  $\text{rank}(T)$  and the dimension of kernel  $T$  is called the nullity of  $T$  denoted by  $\text{nullity}(T)$ .

Theorem(8.2.2)

If  $A$  is  $m \times n$  matrix and  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a multiplication by  $(T_A(x) = Ax)$ , then

a)  $\text{nullity}(T_A) = \text{nullity}(A)$

b)  $\text{rank}(T_A) = \text{rank}(A)$

Example If  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^6 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$  where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 5 & -3 \\ 3 & -7 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & -5 & 2 & 4 & 6 & 1 \\ 4 & -9 & 2 & -4 & -4 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

find  $\text{rank } T_A, \text{nullity } T_A$

$\text{rank}(T_A) = \text{rank}(A) = 2$

$\text{nullity}(T_A) = \text{nullity}(A) = 4$

Theorem(8.2.3)

If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear transformation from  $n$ -dimensional vector space of  $V$  to  $W$ , then

$\text{rank}(T) + \text{nullity}(T) = n$

Def (3):- Invers linear Transformation:-

Def- a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is said to be one to one (1-1) if  $T$  maps distinct elements in  $V$  into distinct vectors in  $W$ .

That if  $x \neq y$  in  $V$  then  $T(x) \neq T(y)$

in  $W$  or:-

$\forall x, y \in V \Rightarrow T(x) = T(y), \text{ we have } x = y$

Ex:- 1)  $T: P_n \rightarrow P_{n+1}$  given by  $T(P(x)) = xP(x)$  is one to one linear transformation since:-

let  $P_1, P_2 \in P_n$  such that:

$T(P_1) = T(P_2)$

$x P_1(x) = x P_2(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$(x(P_1(x) - P_2(x))) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

since  $x$  is arbitrary

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} - x=0$

False

So  $T$  is one to one

$P_1(x) = P_2(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $P_1 = P_2$

سؤال 1 سؤال 2 سؤال 3

(1)  $A$  is invertable  
then  $T$  is 1-1 since  
if  $T(x_1) = T(x_2)$   
 $AX_1 = AX_2$   
 $A^{-1}AX_1 = A^{-1}AX_2$   
 $x_1 = x_2$   
 $\Rightarrow T$  is 1-1

(2)  $A$  is not invc  
if  $T(x_1) = T(x_2)$   
 $AX_1 = AX_2$   
 $A(x_1 - x_2) = 0$   
with non trivial sol  
 $x_1 - x_2 \neq 0$   
 $x_1 \neq x_2$   
but  $T(x_1) = T(x_2)$   
So  $T$  is not 1-1

Remark:  $T(AX) = AX$  is  
1-1 iff  $A$  is invc

سؤال 1 سؤال 2 سؤال 3  
2)  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  given by  $T(x) = AX$   
where  $A$  is  $n \times n$  matrix is one-one  
iff  $A$  is invertable since if  $A$  is  
invertable and  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow T(x_1) = T(x_2)$

$$AX_1 = AX_2$$
$$X_1 = X_2$$

$\Rightarrow T$  is one-one

assume  $T$  is one-one. consider the system  
 $AX = 0$ . This can be written as  $T(x) = 0$   
but  $0 = T(0)$

$$\Rightarrow T(x) = 0 = T(0)$$

but  $T$  is one-one

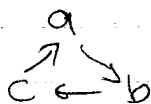
$$\Rightarrow x = 0$$

So  $AX = 0$  has only trivial solution  
 $\Rightarrow A$  is invertable

3)  $D: \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R})$  given by  
 $D(f) = f'$  is not one-one  
since  $f_1 = 2, f_2 = 4 \in \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R})$  with  
 $f_1 \neq f_2$   
but  $D(f_1) = 0 = D(f_2)$   
So  $D$  is not one-one

Theorem (8.3.1)

If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear transformation then the following are equivalent :-



- a)  $T$  is 1-1
- b)  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$
- c) nullity( $T$ ) = 0

Proof:

using the definition, clearly  $b \Leftrightarrow c$   
 so we only proof that  $a \Leftrightarrow b$

$a \Rightarrow b$   
 assume  $T$  is one-one h.  $T$ .  
 let  $x \in \ker(T) \Rightarrow T(x) = 0$   
 So,  $T(x) = 0 = T(0) \Rightarrow x = 0$   
 So,  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$

$b \Rightarrow a$   
 assume  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$   
 let  $x, y \in V \Rightarrow T(x) = T(y)$   
 $\Rightarrow T(x) - T(y) = 0 \Rightarrow T(x-y) = 0$   
 $x-y \in \ker(T) = \{0\}$

$x-y = 0$  one-one  
 $\Rightarrow x = y$  the  $T$  is ①-①  
 $b \Leftrightarrow \ker T = \{0\}$  iff  $\dim(\ker T) = \dim\{0\}$  iff nullity  $T = 0$

Theorem (8.3.2)

vector space

If  $V$  is a finite dimensional vector space and  $T: V \rightarrow V$  is a linear operator then the following are equivalent :-

- a)  $T$  is one to one onto
- b)  $\ker(T) = \{0\}$  iff 1-1
- c) nullity( $T$ ) = 0
- d)  $R(T) = V$  Range =  $V$

proof:  
 from theorem (8.3.1)  $\Rightarrow a \Leftrightarrow b \Leftrightarrow c$

we will prove that  $c \Leftrightarrow d$   
 $c \Rightarrow d$  :- assume nullity( $T$ ) = 0  
 So,  $\text{rank}(T) = n - \text{nullity}(T) = n - 0 = n$   
 $\dim(R(V)) = \text{rank}(T) = n = \dim(V)$   
 $\Rightarrow R(T) = V$

$d \Rightarrow c$  IF  $R(T) = V$ , then  
 $\text{rank}(T) = \dim(R(T)) = \dim(V) = n$   
 $\Rightarrow \text{nullity}(T) = n - \text{rank}(T) = n - n = 0$

Example:  $T_A: \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$  where  $T(x) = Ax$

$$\text{and } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 & 4 \\ 2 & 6 & -4 & 8 \\ 3 & 9 & 1 & 5 \\ -1 & 1 & 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Is not 1-1 since  $\det(A) = 0$   
So  $A$  is not invertible.

def: Given that  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is one-one map from  $V$  into  $R(T)$  then we can define the inverse of  $T$  denoted by  $T^{-1}$  as a function from  $R(T)$  into  $V$  as:-

$T^{-1}: R(T) \rightarrow V$  given by

$$T^{-1}(w) = v, \text{ where}$$

$$T(v) = w$$

clearly  $T^{-1}(T(u)) = u \quad \forall u \in V$

and  $T(T^{-1}(w)) = w \quad \forall w \in R(T)$

Example ①  $T: P_n \rightarrow P_{n+1}$  given by  $T(P(x)) = xP(x)$

is 1-1. Now, we can define

$T^{-1}: R(T) \rightarrow P_n$  as:-

Now, for  $f \in R(T)$ , we must have

$f = T(P)$  for some  $P \in P_n$

$$f = T(P(x)) = T(c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_nx^n)$$

$$= c_0x + c_1x^2 + \dots + c_nx^{n+1}$$

$$\text{So, } T^{-1}(f) = T^{-1}(c_0x + c_1x^2 + \dots + c_nx^{n+1}) \\ = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_nx^n$$

2) If  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$T(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -4 & 3 \\ 5 & 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

domp is  $\rightarrow$   
range

Find a formula for  $T^{-1}$  if it exists.

Sol:

Clearly  $T^{-1}$  exist since  $T$  is ~~one-one~~ one-one since  $\det(A) \neq 0$ . Now

$T^{-1}: R(T) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ , given

$$(a, b, c) \in R(T)$$

$$\Rightarrow (a, b, c) = T(x_1, x_2, x_3) \text{ for some } (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -4 & 3 \\ 5 & 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Range is  $\rightarrow$   
domp is  $\rightarrow$

$$\text{دیکھو} \rightarrow \begin{cases} y = A_1 x \\ x = A^{-1} y \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -4 & 3 \\ 5 & 4 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & -3 \\ -11 & 6 & 9 \\ -12 & 7 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4a - 2b - 3c \\ -11a + 6b + 9c \\ -12a + 7b + 10c \end{pmatrix}$$

$x \qquad \qquad \qquad x_2 \qquad \qquad \qquad x_3$

Theorem (8.3.3)

If  $T_1: U \rightarrow V$ ,  $T_2: V \rightarrow W$  are one to one linear transformation then:-

1)  $T_2 \circ T_1$  is one to one

2)  $(T_2 \circ T_1)^{-1} = T_1^{-1} \circ T_2^{-1}$  تسوية

Proof:-

$$T_2 \circ T_1 : U \rightarrow W$$

let  $x, y \in U$

$$T_2 \circ T_1(x) = T_2 \circ T_1(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_2(T_1(x)) &= T_2(T_1(y)) \\ \Rightarrow T_1(x) &= T_1(y) \quad (T_2 \text{ is one to one}) \\ x &= y \quad (T_1 \text{ is one to one}) \end{aligned}$$

So,  $T_2 \circ T_1$  is one to one

Exercise: مطلوب مسائل

8.3.3. Show  $(T_2 \circ T_1)^{-1} = T_1^{-1} \circ T_2^{-1}$

$$(T_2 \circ T_1)^{-1}(w) = (T_1^{-1} \circ T_2^{-1})(w)$$

$$u = (T_2 \circ T_1)^{-1}(w) \quad \text{~~AT}_1^{-1} \text{ or } T_1^{-1}~~$$

$$u = (T_1^{-1} \circ T_2^{-1})(w)$$

$$w = (T_2 \circ T_1)(u)$$

$$u = (T_1^{-1} \circ T_2^{-1})(w)$$

$$(T_2 \circ T_1)u = w$$

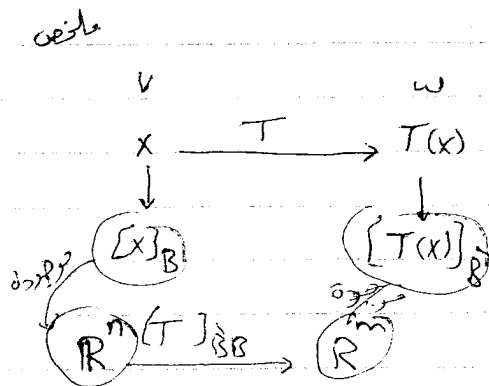
$$\boxed{w = w} \quad \#$$

sec(4) Matrices of General linear Transformation:-

Given that a linear transformation  $T: V \rightarrow W$  where  $V$  and  $W$  are finite dimensional vector spaces let  $B = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$  be a basis for  $V$  and  $B' = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m\}$  be a basis for  $W$ .

Then  $T$  can be regarded as a matrix transformation as following:-

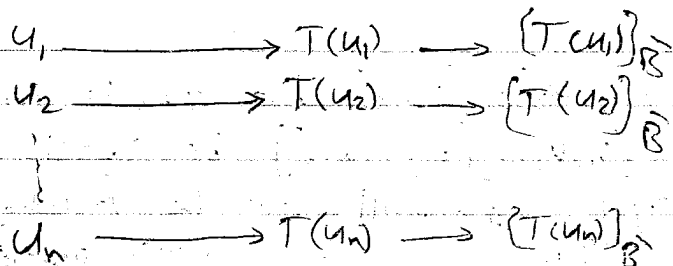
1) Given that  $x \in V$ , then let  $[x]_B$  be the coordinate vector of  $x$  relative to  $B$ , we know that  $[x]_B \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $[T(x)]_{B'}$  be the coordinate vector of  $T(x)$  relative to  $B'$ , we know that  $[T(x)]_{B'} \in \mathbb{R}^m$



we must find the matrix  $A$  such that  $A[x]_B = [T(x)]_{B'}$

$A$  is called the matrix for  $T$  with respect to the basis  $B'$  and  $B$ .

After calculations we find that the column of  $A$  are the vectors  $[T(u_1)]_{B'}$ ,  $[T(u_2)]_{B'}$ , ...,  $[T(u_n)]_{B'}$



so, that  $A = [ [T(u_1)]_{B'}, [T(u_2)]_{B'}, [T(u_3)]_{B'}, \dots, [T(u_n)]_{B'} ]$

3) The  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  will be denoted by  $[T]_{B', B}$  and we have the formula

$$[T]_{B', B} [x]_B = [T(x)]_{B'}$$

$V=W$

4) If  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear operator, we will write  $[T]$  which called the matrix  $T$  with respect  $B$  to basis  $B$  and write

$$[T]_B [X]_B = [T(x)]_B$$

~~$[T(x)]_B$~~

1) If  $T: P_1 \rightarrow P_2$  given by  $[T(x)]_B$

$$T(P(x)) = x P(x)$$

let  $B = \{u_1, u_2\} = \{1, x\}$  be a basis for  $P_1$  and  $\tilde{B} = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} = \{1, x, x^2\}$  be a basis for  $P_2$  to find  $[T]_{\tilde{B}, B}$  we will do the following operator

① Find the values of  $T(u_1), T(u_2), \dots$  etc.

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

② we find the coordinate vector of each  $T(u_i)$  with respect to  $\tilde{B}$

$$T(1) = x = 0(1) + 1(x) + 0(x^2)$$
$$[T(1)]_{\tilde{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$[T(x)]_{\tilde{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

③ Construct  $[T]_{\tilde{B}, B}$

$$[T]_{\tilde{B}, B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

we know prove the fact verify result

$$[T]_{\tilde{B}, B} [X]_B = [T(x)]_{\tilde{B}}$$

let  $a + bx \in P_1$

$$a + bx = a(1) + b(x)$$

$$[a + bx]_B = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T(a + bx) = ax + bx^2 = 0(1) + a(x) + b(x^2)$$

$$[T(a + bx)]_{\tilde{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[T]_{\tilde{B}, B} [X]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

~~$[T(x)]_{\tilde{B}}$~~



Example 2) let  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  given by

$$T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ -5x+13y \\ -7x+16y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, B' = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + (-2) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \right]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \right]_{B'} = 3 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + (-1) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right) \right]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ T \right]_{B, B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise (3)

$T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  given by

$$T \left( \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} x+y \\ -2x+4y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Find  $[T]_B$

$$T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ T \right]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[ T \right]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex 1:  $v \rightarrow v \Rightarrow [I]_B = I$

Ex:  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  given by

$$T(x, y) = (x + y, -2x + uy)$$

$B = \{(b_1), (b_2)\}$  is basis of  $\mathbb{R}^2$

Find the matrix of  $T$  with respect to  $B$

so  $u_1 = (1, 1)$   $u_2 = (1, 2)$

$w_1 = (1, 1)$   $w_2 = (1, 2)$

$T(u_1) = (2, 2)$

$[T(u_1)]_B = (2, 0)$

$T(u_2) = (3, 0)$

$[T(u_2)]_B = (0, 3)$

$$[T]_B = \begin{bmatrix} [T(u_1)]_B & [T(u_2)]_B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

② Use the last matrix to evaluate  $T(-b_3)$



ok

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let  $u = (-1, 3)$

$[u]_B = ??$

$u = a v_1 + b v_2$

$(-1, 3) = a(1, 1) + b(1, 2)$

$-1 = a + b \rightarrow b = -1 - a$

$3 = a + 2b \rightarrow a = 9$

$[u]_B = (-9, -1)$

Now

$[T]_B [u]_B = [T(u)]_B$

$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = [T(u)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} -10(b_1) + 12(b_2) \\ = (2, 14) \end{bmatrix}$

$[T(u)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix}$

$T(u) = -10w_1 + 12w_2$