

**Definition.** A **vector space** is a non-empty set  $V$ , whose elements are called vectors, on which there are defined two operations:

1. **addition**, which to any two vectors  $v, w$  assigns a vector  $v + w$ , called the sum of  $v$  and  $w$ ;
2. **scalar multiplication**, which to any number  $c$  and any vector  $v$  assigns a vector  $c \cdot v$  (we will often write just  $cv$ );

and these operations satisfy the following properties:

- V1. addition is associative, i.e.  $(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$  for any vectors  $u, v, w$ .
- V2. addition is commutative, i.e.  $v + w = w + v$  for any vectors  $v, w$ .
- V3. there is a vector  $0 \in V$  such that  $0 + v = v$  for every vector  $v$ .
- V4. for any vector  $v$  there is a vector  $w$  such that  $v + w = 0$ .
- V5.  $1 \cdot v = v$  for any vector  $v$ .
- V6.  $c \cdot (d \cdot v) = (cd) \cdot v$  for any numbers  $c, d$  and any vector  $v$ .
- V7.  $c \cdot (v + w) = c \cdot v + c \cdot w$  for any number  $c$  and any vectors  $v, w$ .
- V8.  $(c + d) \cdot v = c \cdot v + d \cdot v$  for any numbers  $c, d$  and any vector  $v$ .

It is not hard to see that the addition and scalar multiplication in vector spaces have additional familiar properties, for example:

- the vector  $0$  defined in V3. is unique with the required property. We call it the **zero vector**.
- for a given vector  $v$ , the vector  $w$  defined in V4. is unique with the required property. We call it the **negative** of  $v$  and denote it by  $-v$ .
- for any vector  $v$  we have  $0 \cdot v = 0$ . Note that the zero on the left is the number  $0$  and the zero on the right is the vector  $0$ .
- for any vector  $v$  we have  $-v = (-1) \cdot v$ .
- $c \cdot 0 = 0$  for any number  $c$ .

We can justify the above properties as follows. Suppose first that  $0$  and  $0_1$  both have the property stated in V3. Then  $0 + 0_1 = 0_1$  (apply V3 with  $v = 0_1$ ). On the other hand  $0 + 0_1 = 0_1 + 0$  by V2 and applying V3 with  $v = 0$  yields  $0 + 0_1 = 0_1 + 0 = 0$ . Thus  $0 = 0_1$ .

Suppose now that  $w$  and  $w_1$  both have the property stated in V4. Thus  $0 = v + w$ . Adding  $w_1$  to both sides and using associativity we get

$$w_1 = w_1 + 0 = w_1 + (v + w) = (w_1 + v) + w = 0 + w = w.$$

Next note that  $0 \cdot v = (0 + 0) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v + 0 \cdot v$ . Adding  $-0 \cdot v$  to both sides we get

$$0 = 0 \cdot v + (-0 \cdot v) = (0 \cdot v + 0 \cdot v) + (-0 \cdot v) = 0 \cdot v + (0 \cdot v + (-0 \cdot v)) = 0 \cdot v + 0 = 0 \cdot v.$$

Finally, we have  $v + (-1) \cdot v = 1 \cdot v + (-1) \cdot v = (1 + (-1)) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v = 0$ , so  $(-1) \cdot v = -v$  by uniqueness of the negative.

We leave the justification of the last property and other similar properties as exercise.

**Definition.** A subset  $U$  of a vector space  $V$  is called a **subspace**, if it is non-empty and for any  $u, v \in U$  and any number  $c$  the vectors  $u + v$  and  $cu$  are also in  $U$  (i.e.  $U$  is closed under addition and scalar multiplication in  $V$ ).

Clearly a subspace of a vector space is itself a vector space under the addition and scalar multiplication inherited from  $V$ .

Vector spaces appear often in mathematics and its applications and linear algebra provides tools to work with vector spaces.

**Examples of vector spaces.** The sets  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the usual addition and multiplication by scalars are fundamental examples of vector spaces.

The set of all functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  is a vector space with the usual addition of functions and multiplication by numbers. The subset of all continuous functions is clearly a subspace. A subset of all differentiable functions is a subspace of the space of continuous functions. The subset of all polynomial functions is a subspace of the space of all differentiable functions. The subset of all polynomials of degree at most  $d$  (where  $d$  is any non-negative integer) is a subspace of the space of all polynomial functions. All these spaces naturally appear in calculus.

The set of all  $m \times n$  matrices with the addition and multiplication by numbers we discussed in previous notes is a vector space.

If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix then the set of all solutions to the homogeneous system of linear equations  $Ax = 0$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

If  $L : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a linear transformation then the image of  $L$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

The last two examples are special cases of a more general result. To state it we introduce the following fundamental definition.

**Definition.** A **linear transformation** between vector spaces  $V$  and  $W$  is a function  $L : V \rightarrow W$  such that  $L(u + v) = L(u) + L(v)$  and  $L(cu) = cL(u)$  for any vectors  $u, v$  in  $V$  and any number  $c$ .

Clearly this definition is a straightforward generalization of the concept of linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . As in this special case, the linear transformations have the following properties.

**Proposition.** Let  $L : V \rightarrow W$  and  $T : W \rightarrow U$  be linear transformations.

1.  $L(0) = 0$
2.  $L(a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_s v_s) = a_1L(v_1) + a_2L(v_2) + \dots + a_sL(v_s)$  for any vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s \in V$  and any numbers  $a_1, \dots, a_s$ .
3. the composition  $T \circ L : V \rightarrow U$  is a linear transformation.
4. if  $L$  is a bijection then the inverse function  $L^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$  is a linear transformation.

All these properties are justified in the same way as we did before for linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . For example,

$$(T \circ L)(u + v) = T(L(u + v)) = T(L(u) + L(v)) = T(L(u)) + T(L(v)) = (T \circ L)(u) + (T \circ L)(v)$$

for any  $u, v$  in  $V$ . This verifies one of the properties needed for  $T \circ L$  to be a linear transformation. The other property is verified in a similar way.

To show that  $L^{-1}(u + w) = L^{-1}(u) + L^{-1}(w)$  it suffices to show that when we apply  $L$  to each side of the last equation, we get equal results (since  $L$  is one-to-one):

$$L(L^{-1}(u) + L^{-1}(w)) = L(L^{-1}(u)) + L(L^{-1}(w)) = u + w = L(L^{-1}(u + w))$$

(we use the fact that  $L(L^{-1}(x)) = x$  for any  $x$ ).

The verification of the other properties is left as an exercise.

**Definition.** The kernel  $\ker(L)$  of a linear transformation  $L : V \rightarrow W$  is the set of all vectors  $v$  in  $V$  such that  $L(v) = 0$ :

$$\ker(L) = \{v \in V : L(v) = 0\}.$$

**Remark.** The name **nullity** of  $L$  is sometimes used instead of the word "kernel".

The following proposition extends the observation we made for linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  made in our list of examples of vector spaces.

**Proposition.** Let  $L : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. Then

1.  $\ker(L)$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
2. the image  $L(V)$  of  $L$  is a subspace of  $W$ .

Indeed, let  $u, v$  be in  $\ker(L)$  and let  $c$  be a number. Then

$$L(u + v) = L(u) + L(v) = 0 + 0 = 0, \text{ and } L(cv) = cL(v) = c \cdot 0 = 0$$

so  $u + v \in \ker(L)$  and  $cv \in \ker(L)$ . This shows that  $\ker(L)$  is a subspace of  $V$  (note that  $0 \in \ker(L)$ , so the kernel is non-empty).

Suppose now that  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are in the image of  $L$ . This means that  $w_1 = L(v_1)$  and  $w_2 = L(v_2)$  for some  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ . Thus

$$w_1 + w_2 = L(v_1) + L(v_2) = L(v_1 + v_2), \text{ and } cw_1 = cL(v_1) = L(cv_1)$$

for any number  $c$ . This shows that both  $w_1 + w_2$  and  $cw_1$  belong to the image of  $L$ , i.e. the image is indeed a subspace of  $W$  (note that  $0 = L(0)$  is in the image, so the image is non-empty).

The following observation is often useful.

**Proposition.** Let  $L : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear transformation. Then  $L(u) = L(v)$  if and only if  $u - v$  belongs to  $\ker(L)$ . In particular,  $L$  is one-to one if and only if  $\ker(L) = \{0\}$ , i.e.  $0$  is the only vector  $v$  in  $V$  such that  $L(v) = 0$  (we say that the kernel of  $L$  is trivial in this case).

Indeed,  $L(u) = L(v)$  if and only if  $L(u - v) = 0$ .

If  $L$  is one-to-one then there is at most one  $v$  such that  $L(v) = 0$ , so  $\ker(L) = \{0\}$ . Conversely, suppose that  $\ker(L) = \{0\}$  and that  $L(v) = L(u)$ . Since  $u - v$  is in the kernel of  $L$ , we have  $u - v = 0$ , i.e.  $u = v$ . This shows that  $L$  is one-to-one.

We end with the following example.

**Example** Let  $V$  be the space of all twice differentiable functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  and let  $W$  be the space of all functions from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Define  $L : V \rightarrow W$  by  $L(f) = f'' + f$ . It is a simple calculus exercise that  $L$  is a linear transformation. Clearly  $L(\sin x) = 0 = L(\cos x)$ , so  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  are both in the kernel of  $L$ . It is not obvious, but can be proved, that

$$\ker(L) = \{a \sin x + b \cos x : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Describing the image of  $L$  is a challenging calculus problem.