

Getting mathematical concepts and learning proofs by computer aided linear algebra

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Two of the most important aims of learning mathematics are to get the exact mathematical concepts and to learn how to make proofs. To achieve these aims first year students need many examples and exercises as well as visualisations. Especially visualisations were the targets which should be realised by the computer learning environment for linear algebra¹. The fundamental concepts of linear algebra are vector space, linear dependency of vectors, basis of a vector space, systems of linear equations, matrices, linear mappings and their compositions, scalar product, eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

To get an impression of an n-dimensional vector space one could use examples like this of a storage rack. The needed parts (side frames, shelves, short und long screws) can be listed as

Diese Zahlentupel trifft man überall im täglichen Leben an.
Betrachten Sie folgendes Beispiel:

Bauteile	kl. Regal	gr. Regal
Seitenteile	3	5
Regalbretter	10	20
Kurze Schrauben	10	10
Lange Schrauben	5	15

Stellt man das geordnete 4-Tupel (Quadrupel) für ein Regal zusammen und schreibt es wieder in eine Spalte, so ergeben sich für die beiden Regale:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 20 \\ 10 \\ 15 \end{pmatrix}$$

Figure 1

vectors with four components. To construct more than one rack one gets the required parts by calculating according the vector space axioms. So we have an exemplar of a four-dimensional vector space. Similar examples can give an impression of higher dimensional vector spaces. With these vectors the concept of linear dependency or linear independency can be shown by calculating, if there are two numbers r and s which fulfill the equation

$$\mathbf{c} = r \mathbf{a} + s \mathbf{b} \quad ^2.$$

Many exercises will ensure the knowledge of this concept. These exercises also include geometrical vectors in two and in three dimensions. The students work interactively with the program.

Learning what will be a basis of a vector space is practised by tasks to

Lektion 1.5 Seite 45 von 145 LINEARE ALGEBRA

Lineare Abhängigkeit und Unabhängigkeit – Arithmetische Vektoren

Wie findet man nun diese Zahlen r und s , wenn man drei Vektoren auf lineare Unabhängigkeit untersucht?

Aus der Vektorgleichung $\begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 10 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = r \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 10 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + s \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ lassen sich vier

Komponentengleichungen, nämlich

$$\begin{aligned} 2r + 3s &= 7 &\Rightarrow 2r + 3 \cdot 3 &= 7 &\Rightarrow r &= -1 \\ 5r + 5s &= 10 &\Rightarrow 5 \cdot (-1) + 5 \cdot 3 &= 10 &\Rightarrow -5 + 15 &= 10 \\ 10r + 4s &= 2 &\Rightarrow 10 \cdot (-1) + 4 \cdot 3 &= 2 &\Rightarrow -10 + 12 &= 2 \\ 0r + 1s &= 3 &\Rightarrow s &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Die ermittelten Werte für s und r erfüllen auch die zweite und dritte Gleichung. Das heißt also, es gibt Zahlen s und r ,

so dass $\begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 10 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ eine Linearkombination aus $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 10 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ und $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ist.

Figure 2

¹ Lernprogramm Lineare Algebra published by Wolfgang Fraunholz and Max Schröder, Cornelsen Verlag 2003

² Bold figures indicate vectors, light figures indicate scalars.

TOOL Aufgabe 2 Basis eines Vektorraums

die Vektoren **a, b, c, d, e** eine Basis des \mathbb{R}^5 ?

Matrixrechner

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ 6 \\ 9 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -6 \\ 3 \\ 5 \\ -7 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 9 \\ -2 \\ -5 \\ 13 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{d} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 7 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{e} = \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ -4 \\ 8 \\ -8 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

ja
 nein

Richtig.

Hilfe

Figure 3

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

◊ Rang:
 ⇒ 3

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 6 & 6 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Allgemein

Umformen

Eigenschaften

+/- Strg+

Matrix #

Skalarprodukt

Vektorprodukt

Auswerten

Transponieren

Zeilenoperationen

Spaltenoperationen

Gauß-Elimination

Gauß-Jordan

Invertieren

multiplikativ inverse Matrix

Figure 4

Welche Matrix A gehört zur Verkettung fogoh der linearen Abbildungen im Rechenfenster?

Matrixrechner

"Matrix von f" = $\begin{pmatrix} -3 & 1 & -5 \\ 4 & 5 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 4 \\ 5 & -1 & 3 \\ -4 & 4 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$, "Matrix von g" = $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \\ -3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$, "Matrix von h" = $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -5 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -4 & -1 & -5 \end{pmatrix}$

◊ $A = \begin{pmatrix} 28 & -10 & 29 & 61 \\ 4 & -134 & -29 & -157 \\ -2 & -103 & -28 & -134 \\ -12 & -14 & -17 & -49 \\ 38 & -67 & 26 & 16 \end{pmatrix}$ (Dezimalzeichen ist hier nicht das Komma, sondern der Punkt.)

⇒ "Richtig."

Figure 5

identify tuples of vectors as linear independent and spanning the whole space. If the matrix calculus is already well known this identification can be made by the determination of the rank of the matrix which is build by the vectors. To do so the program has got a matrix calculator whose features should be shown with the following figures.³

Commands:

Transformations:

- Transpose of a matrix
- Operations with rows
- Operations with columns
- Gauß-Elimination
- Gauß-Jordan-Elimination
- Revers of a matrix

Properties:

- Basis of rows
- Basis of columns
- Rank of the matrix
- Determinant
- Characteristic polynomial
- Eigenvalues
- Eigenvectors

Matrix:

- Insertion of a matrix with m rows and n columns
- Evaluation of a scalar product of vectors
- Evaluation of a vector product

For instance one can multiply three matrices, also with inverted matrices written as A^{-1} .

³ In the background of this matrix calculator is running the Computer Algebra System MuPAD.

Beispiele linearer Abbildungen: Spiegelung an der ersten Winkelhalbierenden

Spiegeln Sie das Dreieck an der 45°-Achse, indem Sie A', B' und C' mit der Maus an die richtigen Stellen ziehen. Was passiert dabei mit den Koordinaten der Punkte?

$$x' = y \quad y' = x$$

Mit folgendem Ansatz findet man die Matrix S_{45° , die das Spiegelbild berechnet:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix}$$

Das zugehörige Gleichungssystem:

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot x + b \cdot y &= x' \\ c \cdot x + d \cdot y &= y' \end{aligned}$$

liefert die Koeffizienten:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= 0 & ; & \quad b = 1 \\ c &= 1 & ; & \quad d = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Also:

$$S_{45^\circ} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{die Abbildungsmatrix der Spiegelung an der ersten Winkelhalbierenden})$$

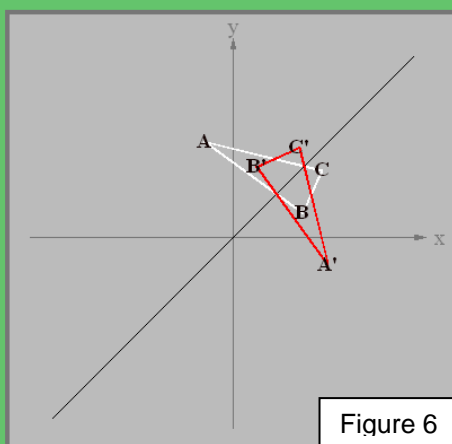


Figure 6

Beispiele linearer Abbildungen: Zentrische Streckung

Strecken Sie das Dreieck zentrisch mit dem Faktor 2, indem Sie A', B' und C' mit der Maus an die richtigen Stellen ziehen.

Hilfe Lösung

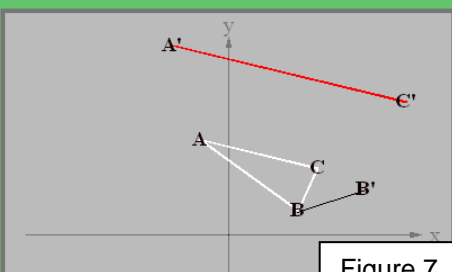


Figure 7

Beispiele linearer Abbildungen: Experimentierseite

Stimmt das ganze Bild, wenn die Einheitsvektoren stimmen?

Abbildungsmatrix (anklickbar)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos(2 \cdot 78^\circ) & \sin(2 \cdot 78^\circ) \\ \sin(2 \cdot 78^\circ) & -\cos(2 \cdot 78^\circ) \end{pmatrix}$$

Dreieck: $\begin{pmatrix} -0,28 & 0,62 & 0,93 \\ 0,76 & 0,18 & 0,41 \end{pmatrix}$

Bild-Dreieck: $\begin{pmatrix} 0,56 & -0,49 & -0,68 \\ 0,58 & 0,42 & 0,75 \end{pmatrix}$

Verändern Sie die Abbildungsmatrix oder klicken Sie unten auf eine Abbildung oder verschieben Sie e_1' und e_2' mit der Maus.

- Spiegelung an der x-Achse
- Spiegelung an der y-Achse
- Spiegelung an 1. Winkelhalbierenden
- Spiegelung an 2. Winkelhalbierenden
- Spiegelung an 78°-Ursprungsgerade
- Spiegelung am Ursprung

Ob die Matrix das Bild immer richtig berechnet, wird in Abschnitt 5.3 mit Hilfe von 5.2 untersucht.

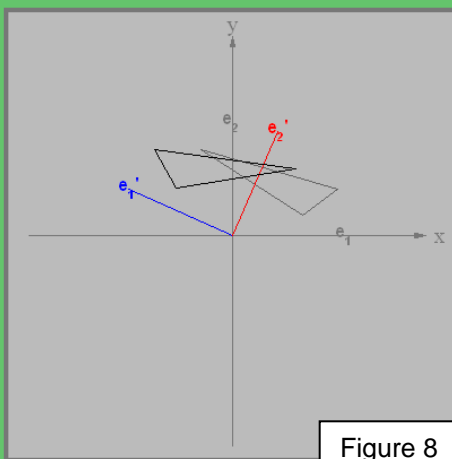


Figure 8

angle between the images of the unit vectors. The modification of the geometrical mapping is immediately shown on the screen. Not to be seen is, if the mapping is linear or not. Therefore one has to get the concept of linearity, meaning homology and additivity, by formula

$$f(\lambda x) = \lambda f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y) .$$

There are pages where it is explicated by visualisation. The students can directly watch the values of $f(\lambda x)$ and $f(x+y)$ of a chosen function which can be varied. They compare the value of $f(\lambda x)$ with the value of $\lambda f(x)$ and the value of $f(x+y)$ with the value of $f(x) + f(y)$ as it is shown in figure 9. The function $f(x) = x - 1$ is not additive because there are v_1 and v_2 so that $f(v_1+v_2) \neq f(v_1) + f(v_2)$.

The concept of mapping is introduced by some well known mappings as reflection on straight lines, rotation or dilation. For given points (of a triangle) the students construct by themselves the images and find out the matrix by which the image points can be calculated.

The next figure 7 shows the same task for a dilation. Students always can

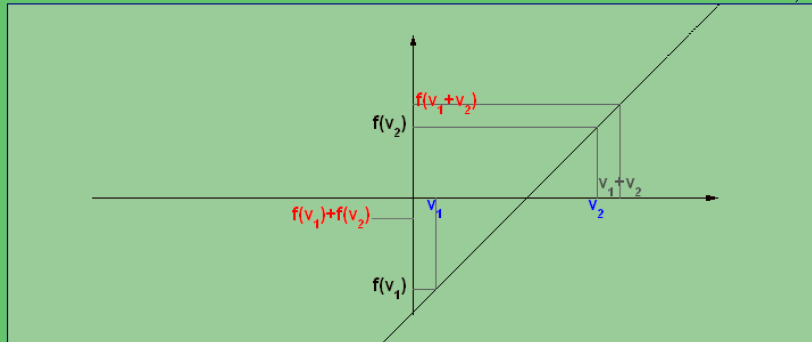
demand help, so that the task is eased. If they are not able to solve the problem they can choose the solution.

To get the concept of interrelation of mapping matrix and geometrical mapping there is a so called experimental page. Students find a preimage triangle and the image of the triangle generated by the given mapping matrix. As well they find the images of the standard unit vectors. Experimenting by changing the mapping (which can be chosen from a list of mappings; down left) or changing the matrix by giving in real numbers in the positions within the matrix or changing the

Der Begriff der linearen Abbildung und Eigenschaften

Additivität anschaulich in IR

Prüfen Sie die erste Bedingung der Linearität bei verschiedenen $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
 Verschieben Sie v_1 und v_2 mit der Maus! Verändern Sie $f: f(v) = v-1$ (Beenden Sie Ihre Eingabe mit RETURN)



$v_1 = 0,2 \rightarrow f(v_1) = -0,8$
 $v_2 = 1,62 \rightarrow f(v_2) = 0,62$
 $f(v_1) + f(v_2) = -0,18$
 $v_1 + v_2 = 1,82 \rightarrow f(v_1 + v_2) = 0,82$ } bei Linearität gleich für alle v_1, v_2

Figure 9

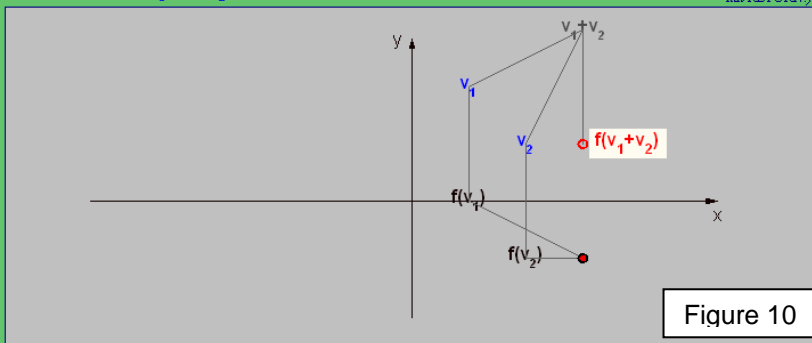
v_1 and v_2 can be moved along the v -axis. The values of $v_1, v_2, f(v_1) + f(v_2)$ and $f(v_1 + v_2)$ are shown underneath the graphics. Correspondingly there is a page for functions with two variables. The two variables v_1, v_2 can be moved within the entire plane as it is found in figure 10.

Both figures show non additive functions.

Der Begriff der linearen Abbildung und Eigenschaften

Additivität anschaulich in der Ebene

Prüfen Sie die erste Bedingung der Linearität bei verschiedenen $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$.
 Verschieben Sie v_1 und v_2 mit der Maus! $f(x|y) = (x|y-1)$ (Beenden Sie Ihre Eingabe mit RETURN)



$v_1 = (0,5 | 1) \rightarrow f(v_1) = (0,5 | 0)$
 $v_2 = (1 | 0,5) \rightarrow f(v_2) = (1 | -0,5)$
 $f(v_1) + f(v_2) = (1,5 | -0,5)$
 $v_1 + v_2 = (1,5 | 1,5) \rightarrow f(v_1 + v_2) = (1,5 | 0,5)$ } bei Linearität gleich für alle v_1, v_2

Figure 10

To get the concept of linear mapping also in three dimension an experimental page is provided where the students may create their own three dimensional solids (starting in the plane and moving vertices in the third dimension) or choose a cube, a tetrahedron or an octahedron, on which a mapping is performed.

Figure 11 shows a rotation.

Matrizen als Darstellung linearer Abbildungen – Experimentierseite

Abbildungsmatrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos[60^\circ] & -\sin[60^\circ] \\ 0 & \sin[60^\circ] & \cos[50^\circ] \end{pmatrix}$$

Koordinaten

(-56 | -36 | 92)
 (-93 | 82 | 32)
 (50 | 43 | 197)
 (77 | -22 | -9)
 (16 | -34 | 309)

genauere Bildkoordinaten

(-56 | -97,67433715 | 27,95954)
 (-93 | 13,28718708 | 91,583286)
 (50 | -149,10700455 | 163,868251)
 (77 | -3,20577137 | -24,83764737)
 (16 | -284,60184977 | 169,176507)

- Drehung um 90° um die x-Achse
- Drehung um 90° um die y-Achse
- Drehung um 90° um die z-Achse
- Drehung um 60° um die x-Achse
- Drehung um 60° um die y-Achse
- Drehung um 60° um die z-Achse

Urbild beim Abbilden löschen
 Bezeichner

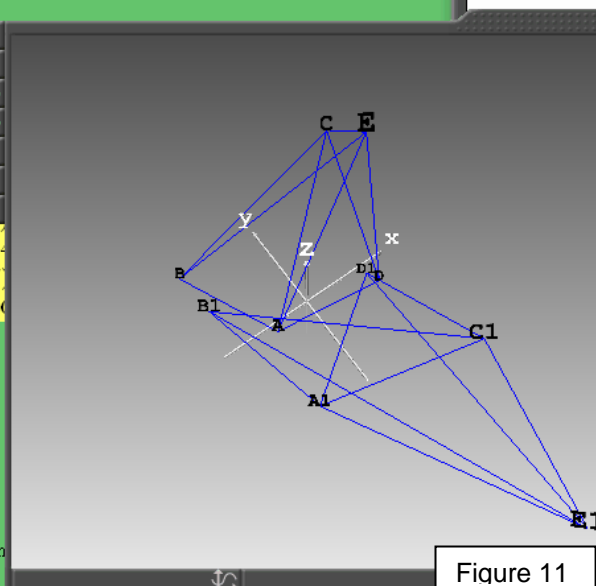
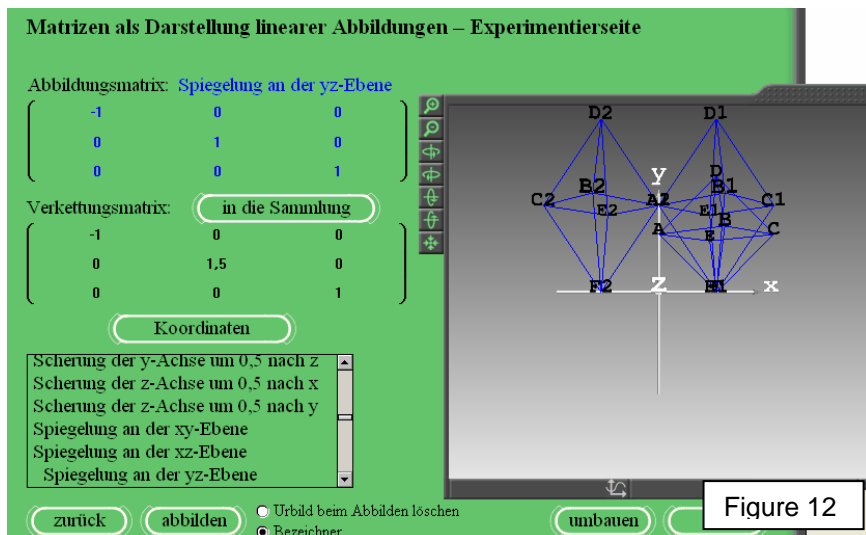
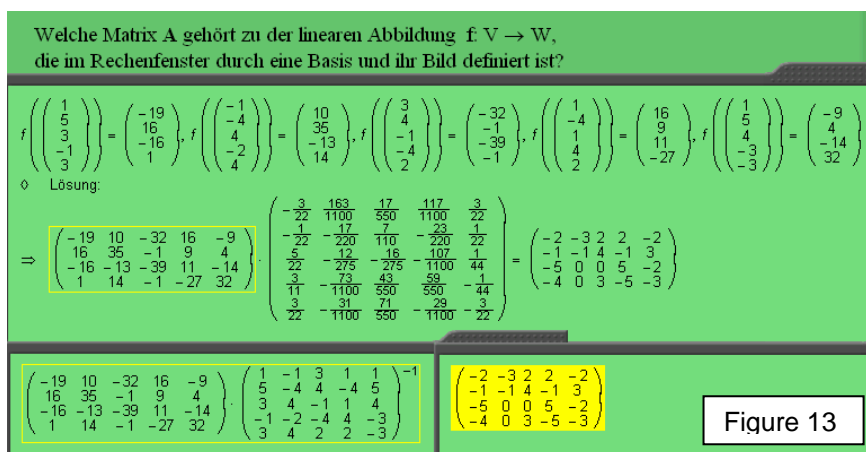


Figure 11

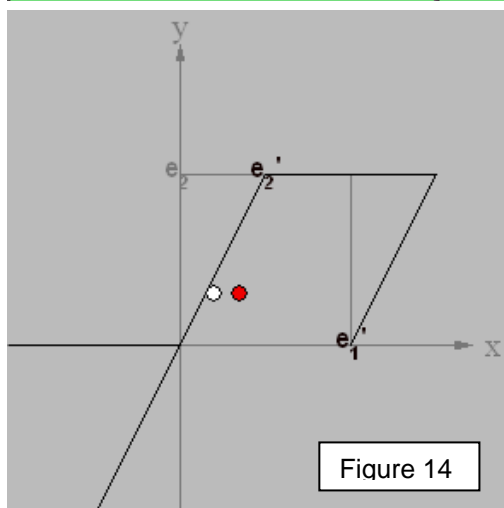


The mapping matrix can be changed by selecting one of the mappings in the list or by changing the real numbers within the matrix.

Also the composition of mappings and accordingly the composition of matrices can be tried out with the same experimental page. In figure 12 a reflection of an octahedron at the yz-plane is performed and the composition of two matrices is shown.



All variations of mappings or of matrices respectively may be studied. The composition of matrices can easily be acted out using the matrix calculator. This is shown in the lower part of figure 13.



Other important concepts of linear mapping are the concept of the fixed point and the concept of the eigenvector. To learn about fixed points there is a mapping, e. g. $f(\mathbf{v}) = A \mathbf{v}$ with $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0,5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. To

give an impression of the mapping a square and its image are drawn. The white point is a preimage point, the red point is the image point of the white one. If the white point is moved the red one will follow according the directive of the given mapping. The task is to find the positions where the white point and the red point coincide. These positions are the fixed points. There may be one single fixed

point; then of course the origin due to the linearity of the mapping, but also there may be many fixed points. Therefore one has to learn to find the fixed points by solving the equation

$$A \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \text{ or } A \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \text{ or } (A - E) \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$$

If the arrow from the origin to the white point and as well from the origin to the red point is plotted the students can search for eigenvectors. They have to move the white point round the origin (e. g. on a circumference like in figure 15); the red point will follow according the mapping. So they may find some positions where the (red) image vector is on a straight line with the (white) preimage vector. Vectors in the direction of this straight line are called

eigenvectors and the multiple λ of the length of the two vectors are called eigenvalues. Patiently trying out all possible positions all eigenvalues are found.

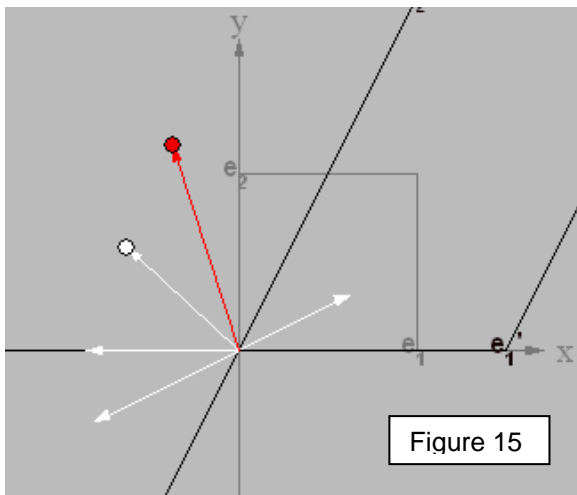


Figure 15

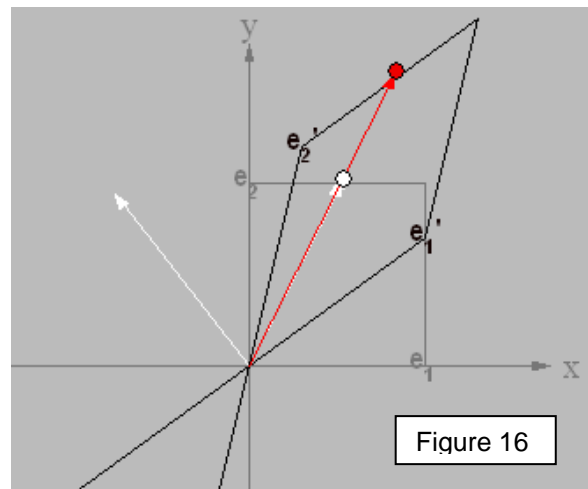


Figure 16

Regrettably this can not be done in three dimensions. In figure 16 one of these positions is demonstrated. The related eigenvalue is inserted on the screen. Students find out that in two dimensions there are mappings without eigenvalues, others with one or with two eigenvalues. The eigenvectors can be figured out by solving the equation

$$A \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} \text{ or } A \mathbf{v} - \lambda \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \text{ or } (A - \lambda E) \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} .$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -8 & 9 & -6 \\ 1 & 6 & -8 \\ 9 & -3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$
 ◊ charakteristisches Polynom:
 $\Rightarrow k^3 - 4 \cdot k^2 - 39 \cdot k + 456$
 ◊ Lösung:
 $\Rightarrow \text{Eigenwerte} = \{-8\}$
 ◊ Lösung:
 $\Rightarrow \text{Eigenvektoren} = \left\{ \left[\begin{matrix} -4 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right] \right\}$

Figure 17

Non trivial solutions of $(A - \lambda E) \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ exist, if the determinant $\det(A - \lambda E) = 0$. With this formula one is on the right path to determine eigenvalues of any (n,n)-matrix. With the matrix calculator e. g. the solution for a (3,3)-matrix is like in figure 17.

Learning proofs is a rather complicated task. To get the idea for a proof intuition is needed. This can be learnt by reading proofs and proofs again. Each step within a proof has to be given reasons. Often the steps are signed by the implication sign \Rightarrow without any explication in the written text. The reason is to

keep the text short and clearly laid out. The learner however has to be clear in the mind on the grounds of these steps.of deduction.

Die Addition von Vektoren ist **kommutativ**:
 Für alle Vektoren **a** und **b** gilt: $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$ → Beweis

Dies ergibt sich aus der Kommutativität der reellen Zahlen.
 Es gilt ja:

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \dots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + b_1 \\ b_1 + a_1 \\ b_2 + a_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n + a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 + a_1 \\ b_2 + a_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n + a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \dots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \dots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$$

Das gilt wegen der Kommutativität der Addition der reellen Zahlen.

Figure 18

The computer screen gives the chance to keep the clear layout of the proof and to give all explanations to the essential reasons of the steps of deduction. Blue marked signs like equals signs, less than signs or

implication signs will display upon mouse over the needed explanations. Figure 18 shows the example: the proof for the commutativity of vector addition. The equals signs are well founded by the definition of vector addition and by the commutativity of the addition of real numbers.

Beh.: $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$ Cauchy-Schwarzsche Ungleichung

Bew.: $\|x+y\|^2 = (x+y) \cdot (x+y) = \|x\|^2 + 2x \cdot y + \|y\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 + 2|x \cdot y| + \|y\|^2 \leq$
 $\leq \|x\|^2 + 2\|x\| \cdot \|y\| + \|y\|^2 = (\|x\| + \|y\|)^2 \Rightarrow \|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$
Behauptung

Figure 19

Beweis der Eindeutigkeit von $f: V \rightarrow W$ mit $f(v_i) = w_i$

Angenommen, es sei $g: V \rightarrow W$ ebenfalls linear mit $g(v_i) = w_i$ ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$).

Da die v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n eine Basis von V sind, gibt es zu jedem $x \in V$ Körperelemente $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ mit $x = \lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n$.

Wegen der Linearität von f Linearität von f

$f(x) = f(\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n) = \lambda_1 f(v_1) + \lambda_2 f(v_2) + \dots + \lambda_n f(v_n) =$
 $= \lambda_1 w_1 + \lambda_2 w_2 + \dots + \lambda_n w_n = \lambda_1 g(v_1) + \lambda_2 g(v_2) + \dots + \lambda_n g(v_n) =$
 $= g(\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n) = g(x)$

Figure 20

well $g(v_i) = w_i$, if v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n constitute a basis of the vector space V . The proof uses the

The example in figure 19 is the proof of the triangle inequality, where the Cauchy-Schwarz-inequality is used. By mouse over the

blue marked signs the declarations are given of the particular steps.

The third example (in figure 20) gives the proof for the uniqueness of linear mappings f and g with $f(v_i) = w_i$ and as

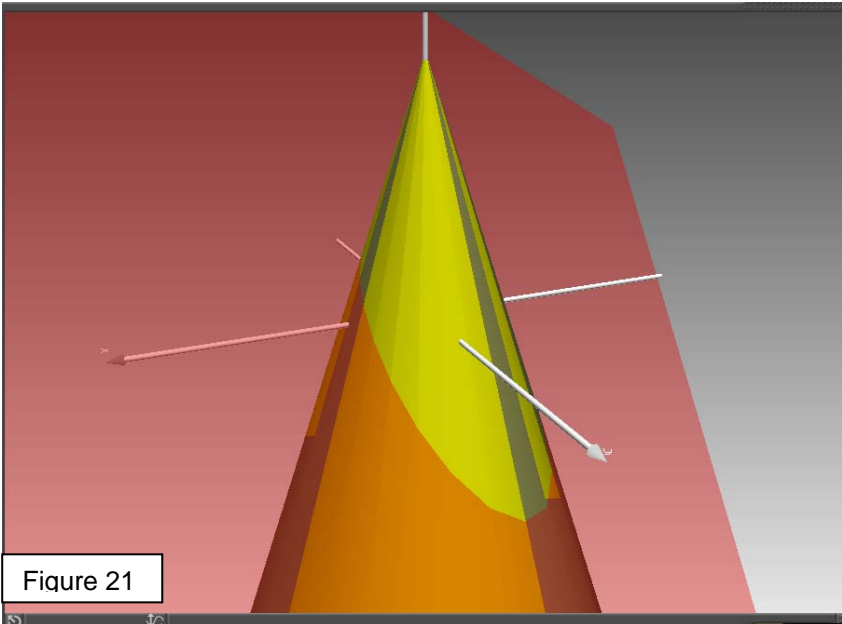


Figure 21

linearity of f and of g , which is shown by mouse over the blue equals signs. To create own visualisations the computer program has got a graphic tool for three dimensional graphics. Students can generate vectors, straight lines, planes, triangles, discs, spheres, cones, cylinders and cuboids (see figure 22). In figure 21 an intersection of a cone with a plane is drawn to get an ellipse. The generated objects can be translated,

rotated, linear mapped (see figure 23).



Figure 22



Figure 23

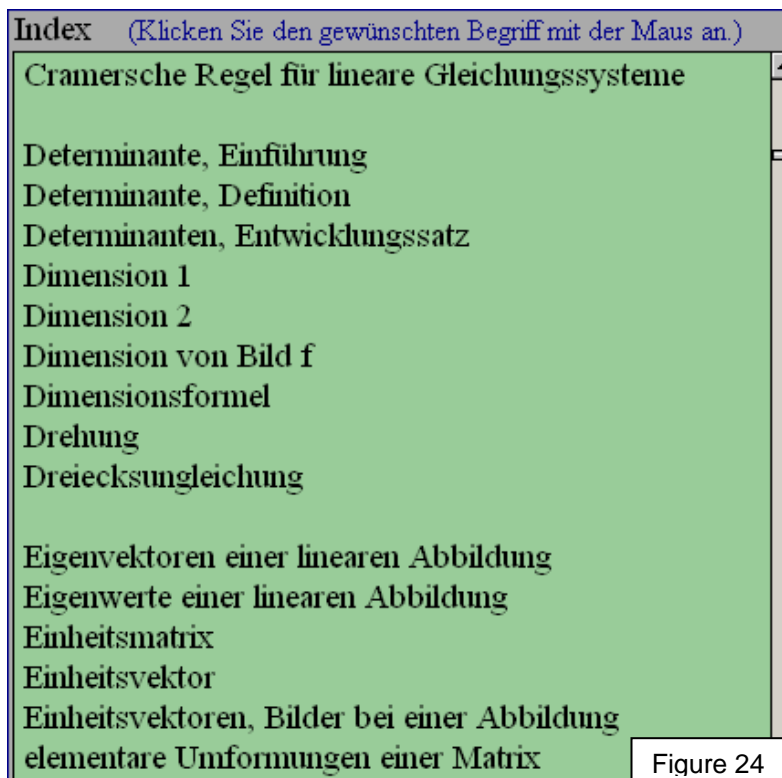


Figure 24

To allow students a fast direct access to the content and the concepts an index in alphabetical order is provided. As shown in figure 24 for instance they may choose concepts like determinant, dimension, eigenvector and eigenvalue. They need not to leaf through the lessons to get the keyword but they can jump there immediately.

Likewise they can jump to the problems by using the index of tasks (see figure 25). E. g. they find a problem to search out the orthogonal space to a given subspace (see figure 26).

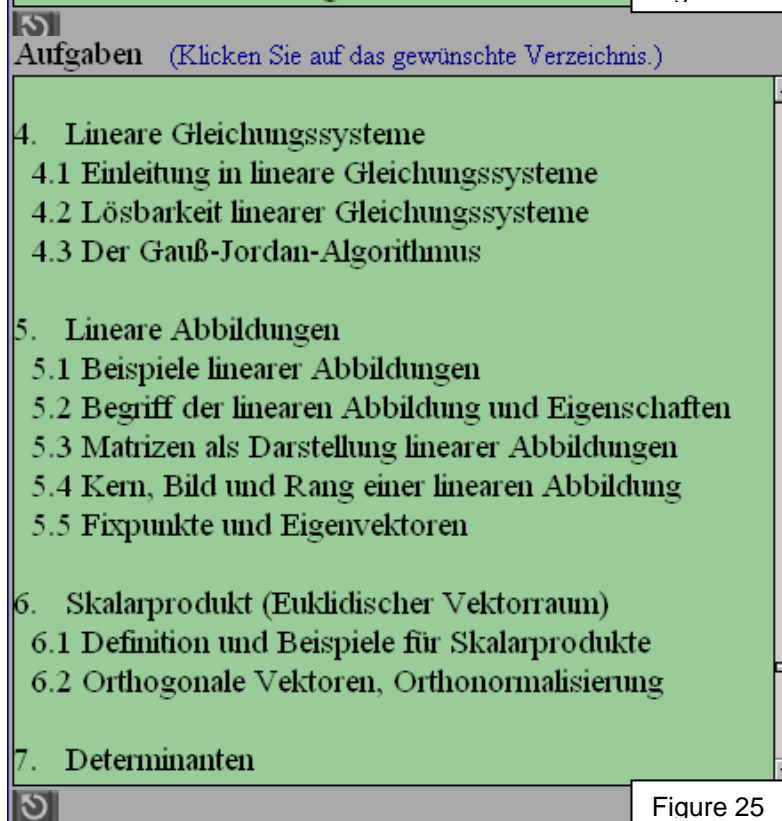


Figure 25

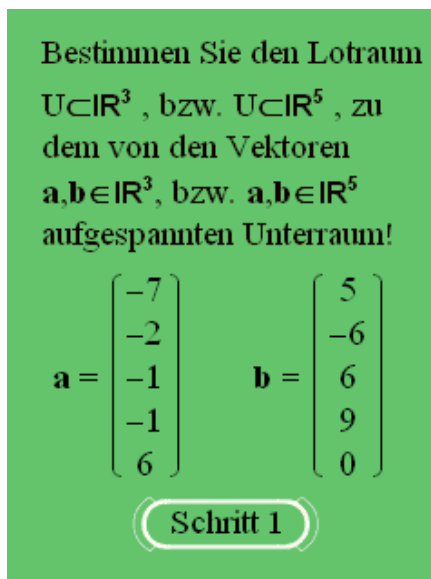


Figure 26