# THE GENERAL LINEAR EQUATION ON VECTOR SPACES

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**Abstract.** General solution of linear equation of the form (1) and (3) are obtained by means of the generalized inverse functions. The obtained theorems are applied to equations on near-rings, linear functionals, matrix, differential and functional equations.

### 1. General theorems

Let X and Y be nonempty sets and let  $f: X \to Y$  be a surjection. The existence of a function  $g: Y \to X$  such that  $(\forall y \in Y) f(g(y)) = y$  is a well-known equivalent of the Axiom of Choice, due to Bernays [1] (see also [2]). By a slight modification of the argument, we prove the following

Theorem 1. Suppose that X and Y are nonempty sets, and let  $a \in X$ ,  $b \in Y$ . If  $f: X \to Y$  and f(a) = b, then there exists a function  $g: Y \to X$  such that:

- (i) fgf = f, i.e.  $(\forall x \in X) f(g(f(x))) = f(x)$ ;
- (ii) q(b) = a.

*Proof*. If f(X) is a singleton, then  $f(X) = \{b\}$  and the function  $g: Y \to X$  defined by  $(\forall y \in Y)g(y) = a$  satisfies (i) and (ii).

If f(X) contains more than one element, let  $X_y = \{x \mid f(x) = y\}$ , where  $y \in f(X)$ . Then  $X_y \neq \emptyset$ ,  $f(X) \setminus \{b\} \neq \emptyset$ , and according to the Axiom of Choice there exists a function  $G: f(X) \setminus \{b\} \to X \setminus X_b$  such that  $G(y) \in X_y$ . The function  $g: Y \to X$  defined by

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} G(y), & y \in f(X) \setminus \{b\} \\ a, & y = b \\ H(y), & y \in Y \setminus f(X) \end{cases}$$

where  $H: Y \setminus f(X) \to X$  is an arbitrary function (for example, H(y) = a, for every  $y \in Y \setminus f(X)$ ) satisfies the conditions (i) and (ii).

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Indeed, (ii) is trivial. To prove (i) notice that for arbitrary  $x \in X$  we have

$$g(f(x)) = \begin{cases} G(f(x)), & x \in X \backslash X_b (\Leftrightarrow f(x) \neq b) \\ a, & x \in X_b \quad (\Leftrightarrow f(x) = b) \end{cases}$$

and so

$$f(g(f(x))) = \begin{cases} f(x), & f(x) \neq b \\ a, & f(x) = b \end{cases} = f(x)$$

which completes the proof.

We now apply Theorem 1 to the general linear equation on groups. Namely, suppose that  $(G_1,*)$  and  $(G_2,\circ)$  are groups whose neutral elements are denoted by  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ , respectively. If  $f:G_1\to G_2$  is a homomorphism, then  $f(e_1)=e_2$ , and hence, according to Theorem 1 there exists a function  $g:G_2\to G_1$  such that fgf=f and  $g(e_2)=e_1$ .

THEOREM 2. Consider the equation in x:

$$(1) f(x) = e_2$$

The general solution of the equation (1) is given by:

$$(2) x = t * \overline{g(f(t))},$$

where  $t \in G_1$  is arbitrary and  $\overline{u}$  denotes the inverse of  $u \in G_1$  or  $G_2$ .

 $\mathit{Proof}$ . The proof of this statement is straight forward. Namely, since f is a homomorphism, from (2) follows

$$f(x) = f(t * \overline{g(f(t))}) = f(t) \circ f(\overline{g(f(t))}) = f(t) \circ \overline{f(g(f(t)))} = f(t) \circ \overline{f(t)} = e_2,$$

which means that (2) is a solution of (1). Conversely, suppose that  $x_0$  is a solution of (1), i.e. that  $f(x_0) = e_a$ . Then, putting  $t = x_0$  into (2) we get

$$x=x_0*\overline{g(f(x_0))}=x_0*\overline{g(e_2)}=x_0*\overline{e_1}=x_0*e_1=x_0.$$

In other words, the solution  $x_0$  of (1) is obtained from (2) by putting  $t = x_0$ , which means that (2) is the general solution of (1).

Consider now the nonhomogeneous equation in x:

$$(3) f(x) = c$$

where  $c \in G_2$  is given. The equation (3) has a solution if and only if

$$(4) f(g(c)) = c$$

In that case the general solution of (3) is given by

(5) 
$$x = t * \overline{g(f(t))} * g(c)$$

where  $t \in G_1$  is arbitrary. Indeed, if (3) has a solution, then from (3) follows g(f(x)) = g(c), and again f(g(f(x))) = f(g(c)). But fgf = f which together with (3) and the last equality implies (4). Conversely, if (4) holds, then g(c) is clearly a solution of (3). The fact that (5) is the general solution of (3) is easily verified.

*Remark.* If g is the inverse function of f then (1) and (3) have unique solutions, namely:  $e_1$  and g(c), respectively.

*Problem.* According to Theorem 1, for a homomorphism  $f: G_1 \to G_2$  there exists a function  $g: G_2 \to G_1$  such that fgf = f and  $g(e_2) = e_1$ . What additional conditions, if any, are needed to ensure that g is also a homomorphism?

#### 2. The case of vector spaces

If  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector spaces over a scalar fields S and if  $f \in \text{Hom}(V_1, V_2)$ , i. e.  $f: V_1 \to V_2$  is a homomorphism, then there exists a function  $g: V_2 \to V_1$  such that fgf = f and g(0) = 0, and we obtain corresponding conclusions about the equations f(x) = 0 and f(x) = c.

However, in this case it is possible to obtain the form of the general solution of those equations. Namely, we have

THEOREM 3. If  $f \in \text{Hom}(V_1, V_2)$ , the general solution of the equation f(x) = 0 has the form x = h(t), where  $h \in \text{Hom}(V_1, V_1)$  and  $t \in V_1$  is arbitrary.

Proof. We first prove that there exists a homomorphism  $g: f(V_1) \to V_1$  such that fgf = f. Indeed, since  $f(V_1)$  is a vector space, it has a basis  $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots\}$ . Moreover,  $b_i \in f(V_1)$  and so the set  $X_i = \{x \mid f(x) = b_i\}$  is not empty. Hence, according to the Axiom of Choice, there exists a function  $g: B \to V_1$  such that  $g(b_i) = g_i \in X_i$ . For arbitrary  $y = \sum_{k=1}^{n(y)} \alpha_k b_k \in f(V_1)$  define  $g(y) = \sum_{k=1}^{n(y)} \alpha_k g_k$ . The function  $g: f(V_1) \to V_1$  defined in this way is clearly a homomorphism and it is easily verified that for all  $x \in V_1$  we have f(g(f(x))) = f(x). Hence, the general solution of f(x) = 0 is x = t - g(f(t)) = (i - gf)(t), where  $i: V_1 \to V_1$  is the identity mapping and  $t \in V_1$  is arbitrary. Since  $h = i - gf \in \text{Hom}(V_1, V_1)$ , the theorem is proved.

Therefore, the general solution of the linear equation f(x) = 0 is a linear function of an arbitrary element t. However, in order to obtain the solution explicitly. it is necessary to construct the function g.

#### 3. Applications

We now investigate some cases in which the function g can be determined.

**3.1. Linear equations on near-rings.** Suppose that  $(P, +, \cdot)$  is a near-ring (i. e. the group (P, +) need not be commutative). The function  $f: P \to P$  defined by f(x) = axb, where  $a, b \in P$  are fixed, is a homomorphism.

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If a,b are regular elements of P, i. e. if there exist  $\overline{a},\overline{b}\in P$ , such that  $a\overline{a}a=a,\ b\overline{b}b=b$ , then the function  $g:P\to P$  defined by  $g(x)=\overline{a}x\overline{b}$  is such that fgf=f. Hence, the general solution of the equation axb=0 is:  $x=t-\overline{a}atb\overline{b}$ . The nonhomogeneous equation axb=c has a solution if and only if  $a\overline{a}c\overline{b}b=c$ ; in that case, the general solution is  $x=t-\overline{a}atb\overline{b}+\overline{a}c\overline{b}$ . For instance, the general solution of axb=ab is:  $x=t-\overline{a}atb\overline{b}+\overline{a}ab\overline{b}$ , where  $t\in P$  is arbitrary.

More general equations, together with applications to matrix equations are considered in [3].

**3.2. Linear functionals.** Let V be a vector space over the field S, let  $f:V\to S$  be a linear functional on V and consider the equation in x:

$$(6) f(x) = 0$$

We suppose that there exists  $x_0 \in V$  such that  $f(x_0) \neq 0$ ; otherwise (6) holds for all  $x \in V$ .

For the function  $g: S \to V$  defined by  $g(s) = sx_0/f(x_0)$  it is easily verified that fgf = f. Hence, the general solution of (6) is  $x = t - x_0 f(t)/f(x_0)$ , where  $t \in V$  is arbitrary. Moreover, the general solution of the nonhomogeneous equation f(x) = c is:  $x = t + (c - f(t))x_0/f(x_0)$ , where  $t \in V$  is arbitrary.

Various applications of this result, particularly to integral equations, are given in [4].

**3.3.** The function f satisfies a polynomial equation. Let  $f:V\to V$ , where V is a vector space over a field S and suppose that the function f satisfies an equation of the form:

(7) 
$$\lambda_n f^n + \lambda_{n-1} f^{n-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 f + \lambda_0 i = 0,$$

where  $\lambda_0, \ldots, \lambda_n \in S$ ,  $i: V \to V$  is the identity mapping and  $f^k$  is the k-th iterate of f. We have the following conclusions:

(i) If  $\lambda_0 \neq 0$ , then the function g defined by

$$g = -\lambda_0^{-1}(\lambda_n f^{n-1} + \lambda_{n-1} f^{n-2} + \dots + \lambda_1 i)$$

is the inverse of f.

(ii) If  $\lambda_0 = 0$ ,  $\lambda_1 \neq 0$ , then the function g defined by

$$g = -\lambda_1^{-1}(\lambda_n f^{n-2} + \lambda_{n-1} f^{n-3} + \dots + \lambda_2 i)$$

is such that fgf = f.

Hence, in those cases it is possible to write down the general solutions of the equations f(x) = 0 and f(x) = c.

Remark. If  $\lambda_0 = \lambda_1 = 0$ , then  $x = \lambda_n f^{n-1}(t) + \cdots + \lambda_2 f(t)$ , where  $t \in V$  is arbitrary, is clearly a solution of the equation f(x) = 0, but examples can be constructed to show that this solution need not be general.

In particular, if f can be written in the form

(8) 
$$f(x) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{m} \sigma_{1\nu} A_{\nu}(x) \qquad (\sigma_{1\nu} \in S),$$

where the linear functions  $A_1, \ldots, A_m : V \to V$  form a semigroup, then

(9) 
$$f^{k}(x) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{m} \sigma_{k\nu} A_{\nu}(x) \qquad (k = 1, \dots, m),$$

and eliminating the  $A_{\nu}(x)$ 's between (8), (9) and i(x) = x, we arrive at an equation of the form (7).

This method was applied in [5] to the linear matrix equation

$$A_1XB_1 + \dots + A_mXB_m = 0.$$

**3.4. Differential equations.** This example shows how the existing theory of linear differential equations can be interpreted within the framework of the general method given here. Namely, it can be shown [6] that the differential equation

$$y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$$

is equavilent to the equation

$$y - \frac{W(y,\psi)}{W(\varphi,\psi)}\varphi - \frac{W(\varphi,y)}{W(\varphi,\psi)}\psi = 0,$$

where  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are linearly independent solutions of (10) and  $W(u, \nu) = u'\nu - u\nu'$ . However, for the function f defined by

$$f(y) = y - \frac{W(y, \psi)}{W(\varphi, \psi)}\varphi - \frac{W(\varphi, y)}{W(\varphi, \psi)}\psi$$

we have  $f^2 = f$ , and hence the general solution of f(y) = 0, i. e. the general solution of (10) is

y = t - f(t) (t arbitrary twice differentiable function) i.e.

$$y = \frac{W(t, \psi)}{W(\varphi, \psi)}\varphi + \frac{W(\varphi, t)}{W(\varphi, \psi)}\psi.$$

Since it can be shown that the expressions  $W(t,\psi)/W(\varphi,\psi)$  and  $W(\varphi,t)/W(\varphi,\psi)$  do not depend on x (provided that p has a primitive function), the last expression takes the familiar form:  $y = C_1\varphi + C_2\psi$ , where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are arbitrary constants.

This method of approach to linear differential equations has certain advantages over the standard method. They are discussed in [6].

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**3.5. Equations on algebras.** Suppose that V is a commutative algebra, and cosider the equation in  $x \in V$ :

$$(11) a_{11}A_1x + \dots + a_{1n}A_nx = 0,$$

where  $a_{11}, \ldots, a_{1n} \in V, A_1, \ldots, A_n : V \to V$  are linear functions with the properties:

- (i)  $G = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$  is a group of order n;
- (ii)  $A_i(\nu A_j x) = A_i(\nu) A_i(A_j x)$  for all  $x, \nu \in V$  and  $i, j = 1, \ldots, n$ , Then, if we put

(12) 
$$f(x) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} a_{1\nu} A_{\nu} x,$$

it again follows that

(13) 
$$f^{k}(x) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} a_{k\nu} A_{\nu} x \qquad (k = 1, \dots, n),$$

and again eliminating the  $A_{\nu}x$ 's between (12), (13) and  $i(x) = x(i \in G)$ , we arrive at an equation of the form

$$a_n f^n + a_{n-1} f^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 f + a_0 i = 0.$$

Though the coefficients  $a_0, \ldots, a_n$  belong to V, it can be shown, by a technique similar to Prešić's [7] that  $f(a_k f^k) = a_k f^{k+1}$ , and so the function g can be formed analogously as in 3.3. The fact that  $f(a_k f^k) = a_k f^{k+1}$  corresponds to the condition "compatible with the group G" which appears in [7].

*Remark*. The equation (11) can be treated in the same way as Prečić [7] solved its special case, the equation for  $\varphi: E \to K$ 

$$a_1(x)\varphi(g_1x) + \cdots + a_n(x)\varphi(g_nx) = 0,$$

where  $g_1, \ldots, g_n : E \to E$  form a group of order n. In this case E is a nonempty set, K is field and  $a_1, \ldots, a_n : E \to K$ .

Example. As an example, we solve the following functional equation

(14) 
$$a(x)\varphi(x) + b(x)\varphi(-x) = 0,$$

where  $a,b:R\to R$  are given, and  $\varphi:R\to R$  is the unknown function. Let  $f:R^R\to R^R$  be defined by

(15) 
$$f(\varphi(x)) = a(x)\varphi(x) + b(x)\varphi(-x).$$

Then

(16) 
$$f^{2}(\varphi(x)) = (a(x)^{2} + b(x)b(-x))\varphi(x) + (a(x)b(x) + a(-x)b(x))\varphi(-x),$$

and elimination of  $\varphi(x)$  and  $\varphi(-x)$  between (15), (16) and  $i(\varphi x) = \varphi(x)$  leads to the equation

(17) 
$$f^2 - (a(x) + a(-x))f + (a(x)a(-x) - b(x)b(-x))i = 0.$$

If  $a(x)a(-x) \neq b(x)b(-x)$ , f has its inverse  $f^{-1}$  and  $\varphi(x) \equiv 0$  is the only solution of (14). Suppose that a(x)a(-x) = b(x)b(-x) and that  $a(x) + a(-x) \neq 0$ . Then (17) reduces to

$$f^2 - (a(x) + a(-x))f = 0,$$

and the function  $g: \mathbb{R}^R \to \mathbb{R}^R$  defined by

$$g = (a(x) + a(-x))^{-1}i$$

is such that fgf = f, which is easily verified. Hence, the general solution of (14) is

$$\varphi(x) = t(x) - \frac{a(x)t(x) + b(x)t(-x)}{a(x) + a(-x)}$$

i. e.

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{a(-x)t(x) - b(x)t(-x)}{a(x) + a(-x)} \quad (t: R \to R \text{ is arbitrary}).$$

The research which lead to [3]—[6] and finally to this paper, was initiated mainly by [7] and [8].

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