

MATH 416 Abstract Linear Algebra

Midterm 2 – Practice Exam 2

Exam Instructions: This is a **closed-book** exam and you have **50 minutes** to complete it. Show all work clearly; **partial credit** will be awarded for reasoning that demonstrates useful thinking even if the final answer is incorrect. When proving statements, always start from the **basic definitions** and clearly indicate on each line which definitions, properties, or theorems you are using.

“Chance favors the prepared mind.”

— Louis Pasteur

Question 1 (10 points): **Null Spaces and Ranges**

For this entire problem, let V, W be finite dimensional vector spaces and assume $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

- (i) (2 points) What is the definition of the range of T ?

Solution. The range of T is the set of all vectors in W that can be reached by acting T on some vector in V . Formally,

$$\text{range } T = \{Tv : v \in V\}. \quad (1)$$

- (ii) (2 points) Suppose $D \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}))$ is the differentiation map defined as $Dp = p'$. What is $\text{range } D$?

Solution. All polynomials can be reached by applying the differentiation operator to a polynomial of a higher degree. Because D is defined here from all polynomials to all polynomials, the range is simply $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$.

- (iii) (6 points) Prove that $\text{range } T$ is a subspace of W .

Proof. We must show that $0 \in \text{range } T$ and that it is closed under scalar multiplication and addition. For the zero vector, note that $T0 = 0$, thus $0 \in \text{range } T$. Now, let $u, v \in \text{range } T$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$. Then, there exists $u' \in V$ such that $u = Tu'$ and $v' \in V$ such that $v = Tv'$. It follows that

$$au + bv = aTu' + bTv', \quad (2)$$

$$= T(au' + bv'), \quad (3)$$

and $au' + bv' \in V$ because it is a vector space (and thus closed under linear combinations of elements). Thus, $au + bv \in \text{range } T$, as desired. Thus, $\text{range } T$ is a subspace of W .

□

Question 2 (10 points): **Matrices, Invertibility, and Change of Basis**

Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ be defined by

$$T(x, y) = (3x + y, x + 2y).$$

Let the *standard basis* of \mathbb{R}^2 be

$$E = \{e_1 = (1, 0), e_2 = (0, 1)\},$$

and let

$$B = \{b_1 = (1, 1), b_2 = (1, -1)\}$$

be another basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

- (i) (3 points) Find $\mathcal{M}(T)_E$, the matrix of T in the standard basis E .

Solution. In the standard basis we can usually just eye-ball the matrix; however, to be formal, we should consider the action of T on the standard basis

$$T(1, 0) = (3, 1), \tag{4}$$

$$T(0, 1) = (1, 2). \tag{5}$$

These become the columns of the matrix in the standard basis

$$\mathcal{M}(T)_E = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{6}$$

- (ii) (4 points) Express each vector in B in terms of the standard basis, and compute the *change-of-basis matrix*

$$P_{B \rightarrow E}$$

(from B -coordinates to E -coordinates). Then find its inverse $P_{E \rightarrow B}$.

Solution. To change from B to E , we need to consider acting I on the elements of B and then expressing them in terms of the standard basis vectors as follows

$$I(1, 1) = (1, 1) = 1(1, 0) + 1(0, 1), \tag{7}$$

$$I(1, -1) = (1, -1) = 1(1, 0) + (-1)(0, 1). \tag{8}$$

Taking these coefficients as the columns of the change-of-basis matrix, we obtain

$$P_{B \rightarrow E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{9}$$

To find the inverse, we may work in the opposite direction. We have

$$I(1,0) = (1,0) = \frac{1}{2}(1,1) + \frac{1}{2}(1,-1), \quad (10)$$

$$I(0,1) = (0,1) = \frac{1}{2}(1,1) + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)(1,-1) \quad (11)$$

from which we may form

$$P_{E \rightarrow B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

To check that we did not make any algebra mistakes, observe

$$P_{B \rightarrow E} P_{E \rightarrow B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

- (iii) (3 points) Compute the matrix of T in the basis B , denoted $\mathcal{M}(T)_B$, using your result from (ii). In words, does the invertibility of T depend on the choice of basis?

Solution. To obtain $\mathcal{M}(T)_B$, we recall that $\mathcal{M}(T)_B = P_{E \rightarrow B} \mathcal{M}(T)_E P_{B \rightarrow E}$. Thus, we obtain

$$\mathcal{M}(T)_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 3/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (14)$$

Invertibility can be determined without ever choosing a basis. Because the matrix of a product of maps is simply the product of the matrices (regardless of bases) we know that if T is invertible, $\mathcal{M}(T)$ is invertible regardless of the chosen basis.

Above would be sufficient justification. However, we can go a step further and show that if T is invertible, then there exists a T^{-1} such that $TT^{-1} = I$. This implies

$$\mathcal{M}(I) = \mathcal{M}(TT^{-1}) = \mathcal{M}(T)\mathcal{M}(T^{-1}), \quad (15)$$

which, by the uniqueness of the inverse, implies $\mathcal{M}(T^{-1}) = \mathcal{M}(T)^{-1}$. This holds for all bases and we are done.

Question 3 (10 points): Invariant Subspaces, Eigenvalues, and Eigenvectors

- (i) (3 points) Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and V_1, \dots, V_m are subspaces of V invariant under T . Prove that $V_1 + \dots + V_m$ is invariant under T .

Proof. Let $v_i \in V_i$ for all i . Then, any $v \in V_1 + \dots + V_m$ may be written as

$$v = v_1 + \dots + v_m \quad (16)$$

for some $v_i \in V_i$. Since each V_i is a T -invariant subspace, we know that $Tv_i \in V_i$. Thus,

$$Tv = T(v_1 + \dots + v_m), \quad (17)$$

$$= Tv_1 + \dots + Tv_m, \quad (18)$$

but each $Tv_i \in V_i$, thus $Tv \in V_1 + \dots + V_m$ and we conclude that $V_1 + \dots + V_m$ is T -invariant, as desired. \square

- (ii) (3 points) Suppose $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ is defined by $T(x, y) = (-3y, x)$. Find the eigenvalues of T .

Solution. From the definition of an eigenvalue, we have $T(x, y) = (\lambda x, \lambda y)$. Expanding the definition of the map, we obtain

$$(-3y, x) = (\lambda x, \lambda y). \quad (19)$$

This yields the simultaneous equations $-3y = \lambda x$ and $x = \lambda y$. Clearly, neither x nor y can be zero because it would imply the other component is zero. Plugging the second into the first, we see

$$-3y = \lambda^2 y \implies (\lambda^2 + 3)y = 0. \quad (20)$$

We see that the only way this is true is if $\lambda^2 + 3 = 0$, which has no solutions over the reals. Thus, as defined, the operator does not have any eigenvalues. If instead, it was defined over complex numbers, the eigenvalues would clearly be $\pm\sqrt{3}i$.

- (iii) (4 points) Suppose $P \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ such that $P^2 = P$. Prove that if λ is an eigenvalue of P , then $\lambda = 0$ or $\lambda = 1$.

Proof. If λ is an eigenvalue of P , then for some non-zero $v \in V$, we have

$$Pv = \lambda v. \tag{21}$$

We may then write $P^2v = P(\lambda v) = \lambda(Pv) = \lambda^2v$. However, $P^2 = P$, thus we have

$$\lambda v = \lambda^2v \implies (\lambda - \lambda^2)v = 0. \tag{22}$$

Finally, because $v \neq 0$ by the assumption that λ is an eigenvalue, we may conclude $(\lambda - \lambda^2) = 0$ or, equivalently, $\lambda(1 - \lambda) = 0$. Thus, $\lambda = 0$ or $\lambda = 1$. \square