Contents

Linear Algebra Exercises

Lance Remigio

March 5, 2024

Chapter 1

Vector Spaces

1.1 Vector Spaces

Exercise 1.2.1

Label the following statements as true or false.

(a) Every vector space contains a zero vector.

(b) A vector space may have more than one zero vector.

(c) In any vector space, $ax = bx$ implies that $a = b$.

(d) In any vector space, $ax = ay$ implies that $x = y$.

Exercise 1.2.7

Let $S = \{0, 1\}$ and $F = \mathbb{R}$. In $\mathcal{F}(S, \mathbb{R}$, show that $f = g$ and where $f(t) = 2t+1$, $g(t) = 1+4t-2t^2$, and $h(t) = 5^t + 1$.

Proof. To show that $f = g$, we have to show that for each $s \in S$ that $f(s) = g(s)$. Since $S = \{0, 1\}$, we can just evaluate both f and g for elements in S. Note that

$$f(0) = 2(0) + 1 = 1$$

and likewise,

$$g(0) = 1 + 4(0) - 2(0)^2.$$

Hence, $f(0) = g(0)$. Now let us evaluate both functions f and g at $s = 1$. Hence, we have

$$f(1) = 2(1) + 1 = 3$$

and

$$g(1) = 1 + 4(1) - 2(1)^2 = 3.$$

Thus, we must have $f(s) = g(s)$ for all $s \in S$.

Now, we need to show that $f + g = h$. Like we did above, we have to show that this is the case for all $s \in S$. Note that

$$(f + g)(s) = f(s) + g(s).$$

Hence, we have

$$f(s) + g(s) = 2 + 6s - 2s^2.$$

Evaluating at $s = 0$, we have
$$f(0) + g(0) = 2.$$
and likewise,
$$h(0) = 5^0 + 1 = 2.$$
Hence, $(f+g)(0) = h(0)$. Now let us evaluate $f + g$ at $s = 1$
$$f(1) + g(1) = 2 + 6(1) - 2(1)^2 = 6$$
and likewise, we have
$$h(1) = 5^1 + 1 = 6.$$
Hence, we have $(f+g)(1) = h(1)$. Thus, we have that $f + g = h$ for all $s \in S$.

■

Exercise 1.2.8

In any vector space V, we have
$$(a+b)(x+y) = ax + ay + bx + by$$
for any $x, y \in V$ and any $a, b \in F$.

Proof. Observe the following set equalities:
$$\begin{aligned}(a+b)(x+y) &= a(x+y) + b(x+y) && \text{(VS 8)}\\ &= ax + ay + bx + by. && \text{(VS 7)}\end{aligned}$$
Hence, we have that
$$(a+b)(x+y) = ax + ay + bx + by$$
for any $x, y \in V$ and any $a, b \in F$. ■

Exercise 1.2.10

Let V denote the set of all differentiable real-valued functions defined on the real line. Prove that V is a vector space with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined in Example 3.

Proof. Let V denote the set of all differentiable real-valued functions defined on the real line. We need to show that V is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$ with addition and scalar multiplication defined in Example 3.

(VS 1) Let $f, g \in V$. We need to show that $f + g = g + f$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Since $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are also real numbers, we have
$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) = g(x) + f(x) = (g+f)(x).$$
Hence, we have $f + g = g + f$.

(VS 2) Let $f, g, h \in V$. We need to show that $f + (g+h) = (f+g) + h$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Since

$f(x), g(x), h(x) \in \mathbb{R}$, we can see that

$$\begin{aligned}(f + (g + h))(x) &= f(x) + (g + h)(x) \\ &= f(x) + g(x) + h(x) \\ &= (f + g)(x) + h(x) \\ &= ((f + g) + h)(x).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have $f + (g + h) = (f + g) + h$.

(VS 3) Observe that $f_0(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is also a real-valued function that is differentiable. We need to show that $f + f_0 = f$. Hence, we have

$$(f + f_0)(x) = f(x) + f_0(x) = f(x) + 0 = f(x).$$

Hence, $f + f_0 = f$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(VS 4) Take $c = -1$ and perform a scalar operation with a $f \in V$. Observe that $(-1 \cdot f)(x) = (-1)f(x) = -f(x)$. Denote $g = -f$. Since additive inverses exists in $\mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}(f - g)(x) &= (f - f)(x) \\ &= f(x) - f(x) \\ &= 0 \\ &= f_0(x).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $f - g = f_0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(VS 5) Let $f \in V$ and let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. We need to show that $1 \cdot f = f$. Since $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$, we can see that multiplicative identities in $\mathbb{R}$ are also preserved in V; that is, we have

$$(1f)(x) = 1 \cdot f(x) = f(x).$$

Hence, we have $1f = f$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(VS 6) Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f \in V$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. Then observe that

$$((ab)f)(x) = (ab)f(x) = a(bf(x)) = a(bf)(x).$$

Hence, we have $(ab)f = a(bf)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(VS 7) Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $f, g \in V$. We need to show that $a(f + g) = af + ag$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Observe that $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ imply

$$\begin{aligned}(a(f + g))(x) &= a(f + g)(x) \\ &= a(f(x) + g(x)) \\ &= af(x) + ag(x) \\ &= (af)(x) + (ag)(x).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we conclude that $a(f + g) = af + ag$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(VS 8) Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $f \in V$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}((a+b)f)(x) &= (a+b)f(x) \\ &= af(x) + bf(x) \\ &= (af)(x) + (bf)(x).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have $(a+b)f = af + bf$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Since all the properties of a vector space have been satisfied, we conclude that V is a vector space. ■

Exercise 1.2.11

Let $V = \{0\}$ consist of a single vector O and define $O + O = O$ and $cO = O$ for each scalar $c \in F$. Prove that V is a vector space over F.

Proof. Let $x, y \in O$. Since $V = \{0\}$, we know that x and y are both the 0 vector. By using the addition defined on V, we can see that

$$x + y = O + O = y + x.$$

Note that $x + y \in V$ implies that $x + y = O + O$ and likewise $y + z = O + O$ for every $x, y, z \in V$. Hence, we have that

$$x + (y + z) = O + (O + O) = (O + O) + O = (x + y) + z.$$

Since V consists of only the zero vector O, we know that (VS 3) and (VS 4) are satisfied. By the same reasoning, (VS 5) is satisfied because

$$1 \cdot O = O.$$

Let $a, b \in F$. Then (VS 6) and (VS 7) are satisfied because

$$(ab)O = 0 = a \cdot 0 = a(bO) \text{ and } a(O + O) = 0 = O + O = aO + aO \text{ respectively.}$$

Let $a, b \in F$ again. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}(a+b)O &= 0 \\ &= O + O \\ &= aO + bO.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, (VS 8) is satisfied. ■

Exercise 1.2.12

A real-valued function f defined on the real line is called an **even function** if $f(-t) = f(t)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Prove that the set of even functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$ with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined in Example 3 is a vector space.

Proof. First, let us show that for every $t \in \mathbb{R}$ that $(f + g)(t)$ is also an even function for every pair of even functions f, g and likewise $(cf)(t)$ is an even function for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}(f+g)(-t) &= f(-t)+g(-t)\\ &= f(t)+g(t)\\ &= (f+g)(t).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, the function $f+g$ is also even. Now observe that

$$\begin{aligned}(cf)(-t) &= cf(-t)\\ &= cf(t)\\ &= (cf)(t).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, cf is also even function.

Now we can show that the set of even functions is a vector space.

(VS 1) Let f, g be a pair of real-valued even functions. Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. We need to show that $f+g=g+f$. Since $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ are real numbers, observe that

$$(f+g)(t) = f(t)+g(t) = g(t)+f(t) = (g+f)(t).$$

Hence, we have that $f+g=g+f$.

(VS 2) Let f, g, h be even functions and let $t \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. We need to show that $f+(g+h)=(f+g)+h$. By the same reasoning we used to prove (VS 1), observe that

$$\begin{aligned}f(t)+((g+h)(t)) &= f(t)+(g(t)+h(t))\\ &= (f(t)+g(t))+h(t)\\ &= ((f+g)(t))+h(t)\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have that $f+(g+h)+(f+g)+h$.

(VS 3) Let f be an even function. Note that the zero function is an even function. Denote the zero function as f_0. For every $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $f_0(x) = O$. We need to show that $f+f_0=f$. Since $f_0(x)$ is just a real number, we have

$$(f+f_0)(t) = f(t)+f_0(t) = f(t)+O = f(t).$$

(VS 4) Let f be an even function and let f_0 be the zero function defined above. We need to show that there exists a even function g such that $f+g=f_0$. Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. Note that

$$(f+g)(t) = f(t)+g(t)$$

Since $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ are real numbers and there exists an additive identity in the real numbers, we have that $f(t)+g(t)=f_0(t)$. Hence, (VS 5) is satisfied.

(VS 5) Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and f an even function. Then we immediately have $(1 \cdot f)(t) = 1f(t) = f(t)$.

(VS 6) Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. We need to show that $(ab)f = a(bf)$. Hence, let $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then we have

$$(abf)(t) = a(bf)(t).$$

(VS 7) Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let f, g be even functions. Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$. We need to show that $a(f+g) = af + ag$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} a(f+g)(t) &= a[f(t)+g(t)] \\ &= af(t)+ag(t). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, (VS 7) is satisfied.

(VS 8) Now let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and let f be an even function. We need to show that $(a+b)f = af + bf$. Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} (a+b)f(t) &= af(t)+bf(t) \\ &= (af)(t)+(bf)(t) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, (VS 8) is satisfied.

■

Exercise 1.2.13

Let V denote the set of ordered pairs of real numbers. If (a_1, a_2) and (b_1, b_2) are elements of V and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$(a_1, a_2) + (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 + a_2, a_2 b_2) \text{ and } c(a_1, a_2) = (ca_1, a_2).$$

Is V is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$ with these operations? Justify your answer.

Proof. We have that V is not a vector space of $\mathbb{R}$. To see why, let $(2,1), (4,2) \in V$ where $x = (2,1)$ and $y = (4,2)$. We will show that (VS 1) does not hold; that is, $x + y \neq y + x$. Hence, observe that

$$(2,1) + (4,2) = (2+1, 2) = (3,2)$$

and

$$(4,2) + (2,1) = (4+2, 2) = (6,2)$$

Hence, we have $x + y \neq y + x$ and so V is **NOT** a vector space. ■

Exercise 1.2.14

Let $V = \{(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) : a_i \in C \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, n)\}$; so V is a vector space over C by Example 1. Is V is a vector space over the field of real numbers with the operations of coordinate-wise addition and multiplication?

Proof. Yes, V where

$$V = \{(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) : a_i \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, n\}$$

is a vector space of $\mathbb{R}$.

(VS 1) Let $x, y \in V$ such that $x = (a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n)$ and $y = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$. Since addition is entry-wise in V and each entry in both x and y are elements of $\mathbb{R}$ (where $\mathbb{R}$ is a field), we have $a_i + b_i = b_i + a_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Hence, $x + y = y + x$.

(VS 2) Let $x, y, z \in V$ with x and y as defined as before where z contains entries c_i for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots n$. We can see that the entries of x, y, z are elements of $\mathbb{R}$ so associativity is preserved; that is, $a_i + (b_i + c_i) = (a_i + b_i) + c_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Hence, we have $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$.

(VS 3) Since $\mathbb{R}$ contains the zero element 0 and V is the set of n-tuples, there exists an element denoted by O such that this element consisting of entries that only have the zero element 0; that is, $O = (0, 0, \ldots, 0)$. Take $x \in V$. Hence, we have $a_i + 0 = a_i$ for every $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Thus, we must have $x + O = x$.

(VS 4) Let $x \in V$ be arbitrary as defined before. Since every entry in x is an element of $\mathbb{R}$; that is, every $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, we know that every entry contains an element c_i such that $a_i + c_i = 0$ for every $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Denote $x' = (c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n)$. Hence, we have $x + x' = O$.

(VS 5) Let $x \in V$. Every entry $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, we have $1 \cdot a_i = a_i$ which holds for all i. Denote this identity element as I with entries consisting only of 1. Hence, we have $I \cdot x = x$.

(VS 6) Let $e, r \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $x \in V$. For every entry $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, we have $(er)a_i = e(ra_i)$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. By using the operations of scalar multiplication for n-tuples, this tells us that $(er)x = e(rx)$. Hence, (VS 6) is satisfied.

(VS 7) Let $e \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $x, y \in V$. We need to show that $e(x + y) = ex + ey$. Note that $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R}$ implies that $e(a_i + b_i) = ea_i + eb_i$. Hence, we have $e(x + y) = ex + ey$.

(VS 8) Let $e, r \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in V$ as defined before. We need to show that $(e + r)x = ex + rx$. Since $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ with $e, r \in \mathbb{R}$, we are guaranteed to have $(e + r)a_i = ea_i + ra_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Hence, we have $(e + r)x = ex + rx$.

∎

Exercise 1.2.16

Let V denote the set of all $m \times n$ matrices with real entries; so V is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$ by Example 2. Let F be the field of rational numbers. Is V a vector space over F with the usual definitions of matrix addition and scalar multiplication?

Proof. (VS 1) Let $A, B \in V$. Since A, B consist of elements $A_{ij}, B_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$, we know that $A_{ij} + B_{ij} = B_{ij} + A_{ij}$. Hence, $A + B = B + A$.

(VS 2) Let $A, B, C \in V$ with A, B defined as before and C containing real entries C_{ij}. With the same reasoning used to prove (VS 1), we know that $A_{ij} + (B_{ij} + C_{ij}) = (A_{ij} + B_{ij}) + C_{ij}$. Hence, we have $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$.

(VS 3) Let $A \in V$ once again. Since the entries of A imply that there exists an element O such that $A_{ij} + 0 = A_{ij}$, we know that $A + O = A$ where O is the **zero matrix** of V.

(VS 4) Since the real entries of A also consists of an element A'_{ij} such that $A_{ij} + A'_{ij} = 0$, this implies that $A + A' = O$ where A' is the additive inverse matrix of V.

(VS 5) Let $x \in V$ as defined as before. Every entry of A, $A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$, has the following property:

$1 \cdot A_{ij} = A_{ij}$ for all for all $1 \leq i \leq m$ and for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. The matrix whose entries consists of only one we can define as the **identity matrix** denoted by I where $I_{ij} = 1$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. Hence, we have $A \cdot I = A$.

(VS 6) Let $r, t \in \mathbb{Q}$ and let $A \in V$ as defined before. We need to show that $(rt)A = r(tA)$. Since $A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$, entry-wise scalar multiplication implies that $(rt)A_{ij} = r(tA_{ij})$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. Hence, we must have $(rt)A = r(tA)$.

(VS 7) Let $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $A, B \in V$ as defined before. Since $A_{ij}, B_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$, we know that $r(A_{ij} + B_{ij}) = rA_{ij} + rB_{ij}$. Hence, we have $r(A + B) = rA + rB$.

(VS 8) Let $r, t \in \mathbb{Q}$ and let $A \in V$ as defined before. Since $A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ for all i, j, we must have $(r + t)A_{ij} = rA_{ij} + tA_{ij}$. Hence, we have $(r + t)A = rA + tA$.

Hence, V is a vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$. ■

Exercise 1.2.17

Let $V = \{(a_1, a_2) : a_1, a_2 \in F\}$, where F is a field. Define addition of elements of V coordinate-wise, and for $c \in F$ and $(a_1, a_2) \in V$, define

$$c(a_1, a_2) = (ca_1, 0).$$

Is V a vector space over F with these operations? Justify your answer.

Proof. We claim that V is not a vector space over F because V fails to satisfy (VS 5). To see why, let $(1, 2) \in V$. Using (VS 5), we have

$$1 \cdot (1, 2) = (1, 0) \neq (1, 2).$$

Hence, V cannot be a vector space. ■

Exercise 1.2.18

Let $V = \{(a_1, a_2) : a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}\}$. For $(a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2) \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$(a_1, a_2) + (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 + 2b_1, a_2 + 3b_2) \text{ and } c(a_1, a_2) = (ca_1, ca_2).$$

Is V a vector space over $F = \mathbb{R}$ with these operations? Justify your answer?

Proof. We claim that V is not a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$ and we will use (VS 1) to show this. Let $x, y \in V$ be defined by $x = (1, 2)$ and $y = (3, 4)$. Observe that

$$x + y = (1, 2) + (3, 4) = (7, 14)$$

and

$$y + x = (3, 4) + (1, 2) = (5, 10).$$

Clearly, we have $x + y = (7, 14) \neq (5, 10) = y + x$ and so (VS 1) does not hold. ■

Exercise 1.2.19

Let $V = \{(a_1, a_2) : a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Define addition of elements of V coordinate-wise, and for $(a_1, a_2) \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$c(a_1, a_2) = \begin{cases} (0, 0) & \text{if } c = 0 \\ \left(ca_1, \frac{a_2}{c}\right) & \text{if } c \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Is V a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$ with these operations? Justify your answer.

Proof. We claim that V is not a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$. To see why, consider (VS 8). If we let $(0,1) \in V$ with $c = 2+1 = 3$. Observe that

$$(2+1)(0,1) = \left(0, \frac{1}{2+1}\right) = \left(0, \frac{1}{3}\right).$$

Likewise, we have

$$2(0,1) + 1(0,1) = \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(0, 1\right) = \left(0, \frac{3}{2}\right).$$

Notice that $(2+1)(0,1) \neq 2(0,1) + 1(0,1)$. Hence, V cannot be a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$. ■

Exercise 1.2.20

Let V denote the set of all real-valued functions f defined on the real line such that $f(1) = 0$. Prove that V is a vector space with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined in Example 3.

Proof. Define V as a vector space with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined in Example 3. We must show that V is a vector space.

(VS 1) Let $f, g \in V$. This means that $f(1) = 0$ and $g(1) = 0$. We need to show that $f + g = g + f$. Since $f(1), g(1) \in \mathbb{R}$ and commutativity holds in $\mathbb{R}$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}(f+g)(1) &= f(1) + g(1) \\ &= g(1) + f(1) \\ &= (g+f)(1)\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have $f + g = g + f$.

(VS 2) Let $f, g, h \in V$ then $f(1) = g(1) = h(1) = 0$. We need to show that $f + (g + h) = (f + g) + h$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}\Big(f + (g+h)\Big)(1) &= f(1) + (g+h)(1) \\ &= f(1) + g(1) + h(1) \\ &= (f+g)(1) + h(1) \\ &= \Big((f+g) + h\Big)(1).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have $f + (g + h) = (f + g) + h$.

(VS 3) Let $f \in V$. We need to show that $f + f_0 = f$ for some $f_0 \in V$. Since V contains elements of $f \in V$ such that $f(1) = 0$, we can choose f_0 such that $f_0(1) = 0$. We can show that this is indeed the additive inverse of V by writing the following:

$$(f + f_0)(1) = f(1) + f_0(1) = f(1) + 0 = f(1).$$

Hence, we have $f + f_0 = f$.

(VS 4) Let $f \in V$. We need to find an element $g \in V$ such that $f + g = f_0$ By definition of V, $f(1) = 0$. We need to show that $f + g = f_0$ with f_0 defined as before. Choose $g = -f$

as our additive inverse and observe that

$$\begin{aligned}(f+g)(1) &= (f-f)(1)\\ &= f(1)-f(1)\\ &= 0-0\\ &= 0\\ &= f_0(1).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $g=-f$ an element such that $f+g=f_0$.

(VS 5) Let $f \in V$. By definition of V, we have $f(1)=0$. Since $f(1)\in\mathbb{R}$, we know that $1\cdot f(1)=f(1)$. We need to show that $1f=f$. Observe that

$$(1f)(1)=1\cdot f(1)=f(1).$$

Hence, (VS 5) holds.

(VS 6) Let $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ and let $x\in V$. We need to show that $(ab)f=a(bf)$. By using scalar multiplication, we can see that

$$(ab\cdot f)(1)=(ab)f(1)=a(bf(1))=a(b\cdot f)(1).$$

Hence, (VS 6) must hold.

(VS 7) Let $a\in\mathbb{R}$ and let $f,g\in V$. We need to show that $a(f+g)=af+ag$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}a(f+g)(1) &= a(f(1)+g(1))\\ &= af(1)+ag(1)\\ &= (af)(1)+(ag)(1).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $a(f+g)=af+ag$ and so (VS 7) is satisfied.

(VS 8) Let $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ and let $f\in V$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}(a+b)f(1) &= af(1)+bf(1)\\ &= (af)(1)+(bf)(1)\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $(a+b)f=af+bf$. Thus, V must be a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$. ■

Exercise 1.2.21

Let V and W be vector spaces over a field F. Let

$$Z=\{(v,w): v\in v \text{ and } w\in W\}.$$

Prove that Z is a vector space over F with the operations

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

Proof. Let V and W be vector spaces over a field F.

(VS 1) Let $x,y\in Z$ where $x=(v_1,w_1)$ and $y=(v_2,w_2)$. Since V and W are vector spaces, commutativity holds. Since the addition defined on both V and W is entry-wise, we can see that

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= (v_1, w_1) + (v_2, w_2) \\ &= (v_1 + v_2, w_1 + w_2) \\ &= (v_2 + v_1, w_2 + w_1) \\ &= (v_2, w_2) + (v_1, w_1) \\ &= y + x. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we can see that (VS 1) is satisfied.

(VS 2) Let $x, y, z \in Z$ with x and y as defined before as well as $z = (z_3, w_3)$. Using the entry-wise addition defined for Z, we can see that

$$\begin{aligned} x + (y + z) &= (v_1, w_1) + \Big((v_2, w_2) + (v_3, w_3)\Big) \\ &= (v_1, w_1) + (v_2 + v_3, w_2 + w_3) \\ &= (v_1 + (v_2 + v_3), w_1 + (w_2 + w_3)) \\ &= ((v_1 + v_2) + v_3, (w_1 + w_2) + w_3) \\ &= (v_1 + v_2, w_1 + w_2) + (v_3, w_3) \\ &= (x + y) + z. \end{aligned}$$

(VS 3) Since V and W are vector spaces, we know that there exists an additive identity O_V and O_W respectively. Hence, we have $(O_V, O_W) \in Z$ and denote $O_Z = (O_V, O_W)$. Now, let $x \in Z$ as defined before. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} x + O_Z &= (v_1, w_1) + (O_V, O_W) \\ &= (v_1 + O_V, w_1 + O_W) \\ &= (v_1, w_1) \\ &= x. \end{aligned}$$

(VS 4) Observe that V and W contain additive inverses for each $v \in V$ and $w \in W$ respectively. Since $x = (v_1, w_1)$ with $v_1 \in V$ and $w_1 \in W$, there exists an additive inverse $v_1' \in V$ and $w_1' \in W$ such that $v_1 + v_1' = O_V$ and $w_1 + w_1' = O_W$. This implies that $(v_1', w_1') \in Z$ which we will denote by x' such that

$$\begin{aligned} x + x' &= (v_1, w_1) + (O_V, O_W) \\ &= (v_1 + v_1', w_1 + w_1') \\ &= (O_V, O_W) \\ &= O_Z. \end{aligned}$$

(VS 5) Let $x \in Z$. Since V and W are vector spaces (VS 5) implies that $1 \cdot v_1 = v_1$ and $1 \cdot w_1 = w_1$ respectively. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \cdot x &= 1 \cdot (v_1, w_1) \\ &= (1 \cdot v_1, 1 \cdot w_1) \\ &= (v_1, w_1) \\ &= x. \end{aligned}$$

(VS 6) Let $x \in Z$ and $a, b \in F$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
(ab)x &= (ab)(v_1, w_1) \\
&= ((ab)v_1, (ab)w_1) \\
&= (a(bv_1), a(bw_1)) && (V, W \text{ vector space}) \\
&= a(bv_1, bw_1) \\
&= a(bx)
\end{aligned}$$

(VS 7) Let $x, y \in Z$ as defined before. Let $a \in F$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
a(x+y) &= a\Big((v_1, w_1) + (v_2, w_2)\Big) \\
&= a\Big((v_1 + v_2, w_1 + w_2)\Big) \\
&= (a(v_1 + v_2), a(w_1 + w_2)) \\
&= (av_1 + av_2, aw_1 + aw_2) \\
&= (av_1, av_2) + (aw_1, aw_2) \\
&= a(v_1, v_2) + a(w_1, w_2) \\
&= ax + ay.
\end{aligned}$$

(VS 8) Let $a, b \in F$ and let $x \in V$ as defined before. Since V and W are vector spaces, we know that (VS 8) holds for bot entries $v_1 \in V$ and $w_1 \in W$. Hence, observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
(a+b)x &= (a+b)(v_1, w_1) \\
&= \Big((a+b)v_1, (a+b)w_1\Big) \\
&= (av_1 + bv_1, aw_1 + bw_1) \\
&= (av_1, aw_1) + (bv_1, bw_1) \\
&= a(v_1, w_1) + b(v_1, w_1) \\
&= ax + bx.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, Z is a vector space.

■

1.2 Subspaces

Exercise 1.3.3

Prove that $(aA + bB)^t = aA^t + bB^t$ for any $A, B \in M_{m\times n}(F)$ and any $a, b \in F$.

Proof. Let $A, B \in M_{m\times n}(F)$ and let $a, b \in F$ be arbitrary. Using scalar multiplication defined on $M_{m\times n}(F)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(aA + bB)^t &= (aA)^t + (bB)^t \\
&= aA^t + bB^t.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we are done. ■

Exercise 1.3.4

Prove that $(A^t)^t = A$ for each $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{m\times n}(F)$. By definition of transpose, we have

$$\left((A^t)^t\right)_{ij} = (A^t)_{ji} = A_{ij}$$

for all $1 \leq i, j \leq n$. Hence, $(A^t)^t = A$.

■

Exercise 1.3.5

Prove that $A + A^t$ is symmetric for any square matrix A.

Proof. Let A be an arbitrary square matrix. Since square matrices are symmetric, we have that $A^t = A$. We need to show that $(A + A^t)^t$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}(A + A^t)^t &= A^t + (A^t)^t \\ &= A + A^t.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have $A + A^t$ is symmetric. ■

Exercise 1.3.

Prove that $\text{tr}(aA + bB) = a\text{tr}(A) + b\text{tr}(B)$ for any $A, B \in M_{n\times n}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A, B \in M_{n\times n}(F)$ and let $a, b \in F$ be arbitrary. Now, let $i = j$ and observe that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{tr}(aA + bB) &= \sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} (aA + aB)_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} (aA)_{ij} + (bB)_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} (aA)_{ij} + \sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} (bB)_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} aA_{ij} + \sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} bB_{ij} \\ &= a\sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} A_{ij} + b\sum_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}^{n} B_{ij} \\ &= a\text{tr}(A) + b\text{tr}(B).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we conclude

$$\text{tr}(aA + bB) = a\text{tr}(A) + b\text{tr}(B)$$

for any $A, B \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. ■

Exercise 1.3.7

Prove that diagonal matrices are symmetric matrices.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$ be diagonal. Let $i \neq j$ where $A_{ij} = 0$. We need to show that $A^t = A$. If we apply a transpose on A, we get that $A_{ji} = 0$ since A^t is also diagonal and square. Since $A_{ij} = A_{ji} = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. Hence, $A^t = A$ ■

Exercise 1.3.8

Determine whether the following sets are subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$ under the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined on $\mathbb{R}^3$. Justify your answers.

(a) $W_1 = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : a_1 = 3a_2 \text{ and } a_3 = -a_2\}$

Proof. We claim that W_1 is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

(a) Note that $O_{\mathbb{R}^3} \in W_1$ where $O_{\mathbb{R}^3} = (0, 0, 0)$ because $0 = 3 \cdot 0$ and $0 = -1 \cdot 0$.

(b) Let $x, y \in W_1$ where $x = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$ and $y = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$. We need to show that $x + y \in W_1$. Since $a_1 = 3a_2$ and $a_3 = -a_2$ as well as $b_1 = 3b_2$ and $b_3 = -b_2$, we can write $a_1 + b_1 = 3(a_2 + b_2)$ and $a_3 + b_3 = -(a_2 + b_2)$. Hence, $x + y \in W_1$.

(c) Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in W_1$ with x defined as before. Then observe that $ca_1 = c(3a_2) = 3(ca_2)$ and $ca_3 = c(-a_2) = -(ca_2)$. Hence, $cx \in W_1$.

Since all the properties of a Theorem 3 have been satisfied, we can conclude that W_1 is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$. ■

(b) $W_2 = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : a_1 = a_3 + 2\}$

(c) $W_3 = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : 2a_1 - 7a_2 + a_3 = 0\}$

(d) $W_4 = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : a_1 - 4a_2 - 3a_3 = 1\}$

(e) $W_5 = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : a_1 + 2a_2 - 3a_3 = 1\}$

(f) $W_6 = \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : 5a_1^2 - 3a_2^2 + 6a_3^2 = 0\}$

Exercise 1.3.9

Let W_1, W_3, W_4 be as in Exercise 8. Describe $W_1 \cap W_3$, $W_1 \cap W_4$, and $W_3 \cap W_4$ and observe that each is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Proof. ■

Exercise 1.3.11

Prove that the set $W_1 = \{(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \in F^n : a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n = 0\}$ is a subspace of F^n, but $W_2 = \{(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)\} \in F^n : a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n = 1$ is not.

Proof. We need to show that W_1 is a subspace of F^n. We proceed by satisfying the properties of Theorem 3 to do this.

(a) Note that $O_{F^n} \in W_1$ since $0 + 0 + \cdots + 0 = 0$ n times.

(b) Let $x, y \in W_1$ with $x = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_3)$ and $y = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$. By definition of W_1, we can see that

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(a_i+b_i) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n}a_i+\sum_{i=1}^{n}b_i \\ &= 0+0 \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $x+y \in W_1$ which tells us that W_1 is closed under addition.

(c) Let $x \in W_1$ and $c \in F$. Then observe that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n}(ca_i) = c\sum_{i=1}^{n}a_i = c \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Hence, we have $cx \in F^n$.

We claim that W_2 is not a subspace because W_2 is not closed under addition. Let $(0,1),(1,0) \in F^2$. Observe that $0+1=1$ and $1+0=1$, but $(0+1)+(1+0)=1+1=2$. Hence, $(0,1)+(1,0) \notin W_2$.

■

Exercise 1.3.11

Is the set $W = \{f(x) \in P(F) : f(x) = 0 \text{ or } f(x) \text{ has degree } n\}$ a subspace of $P(F)$ if $n \geq 1$? Justify your answer.

Exercise 1.3.12

Prove that the set of $m \times n$ upper triangular matrices is a subspace of $M_{m\times n}(F)$.

Proof. Let V denote the set of $m \times n$ upper triangular matrices. We will show that V is a subspace of $M_{m\times n}(F)$ using Theorem 3.

(a) The zero matrix O from $M_{m\times n}(F)$ contains entries $O_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i > j$. Hence, $O \in V$.

(b) Let $A, B \in V$. By definition of V, A and B are upper triangular where $A_{ij} = 0$ and $B_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i > j$. Observe that

$$(A+B)_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij} = 0 + 0 = 0$$

whenever $i > j$. Hence, $A + B \in V$.

(c) Let $c \in F$ and $A \in V$ as defined before. Let $i > j$ and observe that $(cA)_{ij} = cA_{ij} = c \cdot 0 = 0$. Hence, $cA \in V$.

Since all the properties of theorem 3 have been satisfied, we conclude that V is indeed a subspace of $M_{m\times n}(F)$. ■

Exercise 1.3.13

Let S be nonempty set and F is a field. Prove that for any $s_0 \in S$, the set $\{f \in \mathcal{F}(S,F) : f(s_0) = 0\}$, is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(S,F)$.

Proof. We will proceed to prove that S is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(S,F)$ over the field F by satisfying the properties of Theorem 3. Let $V = \{f \in \mathcal{F}(S,F) : f(s_0) = 0\}$.

(a) Note that the zero function $f_0 \in \mathcal{F}(S,F)$ where $f_0(s_0) = 0$ for any $s_0 \in S$ implies that $f_0 \in V$.

(b) Let $f, g \in V$. By definition of V, $f(s_0) = 0$ and $g(s_0) = 0$ for any $s_0 \in S$. We have $f + g \in V$ since
$$(f+g)(s_0) = f(s_0) + g(s_0) = 0 + 0 = 0.$$
Hence, V is closed under addition.

(c) Let $f \in V$ and $c \in F$. We have $cf \in V$ since
$$(cf)(s_0) = cf(s_0) = c \cdot 0 = 0$$
for any $s_0 \in S$. Hence, V is closed under scalar multiplication.

■

Exercise 1.3.14

Let S be a nonempty set and F a field. Let $\mathcal{C}(S,F)$ denote the set of all functions $f \in \mathcal{F}(S,F)$ such that $f(s) = 0$ for all but a finite number of elements of S. Prove that $\mathcal{C}(S,F)$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(S,F)$.

Proof. We proceed by using Theorem 3 to prove that $\mathcal{C}(S,F)$ is a subspace where S is a nonempty set and F is a field.

(a) Note that the zero vector $f_0 \in \mathcal{F}(S,F)$ is in $\mathcal{C}(S,F)$ because $f_0(x_n) = 0$ where $x_n \in S$ for finitely many n.

(b) Let $f, g \in \mathcal{C}(S,F)$. We need to show that $f + g \in \mathcal{C}(S,F)$. Let $x_n \in S$ for finitely many n. Then using the addition defined on $\mathcal{F}(S,F)$, we can write
$$(f+g)(x_n) = f(x_n) + g(x_n) = 0 + 0 = 0.$$

(c) Let $f \in \mathcal{C}(S,F)$ and $c \in F$. We need to show that $cf \in \mathcal{C}(S,F)$. Let $x_n \in S$ for finitely many n. Using the scalar operation defined on $\mathcal{F}(S,F)$, we can write
$$(cf)(x_n) = cf(x_n) = c \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Since all the properties of Theorem 3 have been satisfied, we conclude that $\mathcal{C}(S,F)$ is indeed a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(S,F)$. ■

Exercise 1.3.15

Is the set of all differentiable real-valued functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$ a subspace of $C(\mathbb{R})$?

Proof. We claim that the set of all differentiable real-valued functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$ is a subspace of $C(\mathbb{R})$. Denote this set as V.

(a) Note that the zero function f_0 is differentiable for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and continuous for all $x \in R$. Hence, $f_0 \in V$.

(b) Let $f, g \in V$. Using the addition operation defined on $C(\mathbb{R})$, we get that the sum $(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ differentiable which implies that the sum of functions f, g is also continuous. Hence, $f + g \in V$.

(c) Let $f \in V$ and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $(cf)(x) = cf(x)$ is differentiable for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ which means that cf is also continuous. Hence, $cf \in V$.

Hence, V is a subspace of $C(\mathbb{R})$. ■

Exercise 1.3.16

Let $C^n(\mathbb{R})$ denote the set of all real-valued functions defined on the real line that have a continuous nth derivative. Prove that $C^n(\mathbb{R})$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$.

Proof. ■

Exercise 1.3.17

Prove that a subset W of a vector space V is a subspace of V if and only if $W \neq \emptyset$ and, whenever $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$, then $ax \in W$ and $x + y \in W$.

Proof. For the forwards direction, let $W \subseteq V$ where V is a vector space and W is a subspace of V. Let $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$. Since W is a subspace, we know that $O_V \in W$. So, W is nonempty. Since W is closed under addition and multiplication, we get that $x + y \in W$ and $ax \in W$ and we are done.

For the backwards direction, let $W \neq \emptyset$ and $W \subseteq V$. Let $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$ be arbitrary such that $ax \in W$ and $x + y \in W$. We need to show that W is a subspace of V. We need only show that $O_V \in W$ since W is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. Let $x \in W$. We can pick any $c \in F$ such that $c = 0$. So, we have $c \cdot x = 0 \cdot x = O_w$. Since the zero vector $O_W \in W$ is unique, we must have $O_V = O_W$. Hence, $O_V \in W$ and we conclude that W is a subspace of V. ■

Exercise 1.3.18

Prove that a subset W of a vector space V is a subspace of V if and only if $O \in W$ and $ax + y \in W$ whenever $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Let $W \subseteq V$ where W is a subspace of V. Since W is a subspace of V, we know that W is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. Let $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$. Using the third property of Theorem 3, we can see that $ax \in W$. Since W is closed under addition, we can take $y \in W$ and $ax \in W$ such that $ax + y \in W$. Since W is also a vector space by definition, we know that $O_W \in W$. But $O_W = O_V$ so $O_V \in W$.

($\Leftarrow$) Let $a \in F$ and $x, y \in W$. We want to show that $W \subseteq V$ is a subspace of V. We can do this by using Theorem 3.

(a) By assumption, the zero vector $O_V \in W$.

(b) Let $x, y \in W$. Choose $a = 1$ such that $ax + y = x + y$. Since $ax + y \in W$ and $ax + y = x + y$, we also have $x + y \in W$. Hence, W is closed under addition.

(c) Let $x \in W$ and $O_V \in W$. Let $a \in F$. Then we have $ax + O_V = ax \in W$.

Hence, W is a subspace of V by Theorem 3. ■

Exercise 1.3.19

Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a vector space V. Prove that $W_1 \cup W_2$ is a subspace of V if and only if $W_1 \subseteq W_2$ or $W_2 \subseteq W_1$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Let $W_1 \cup W_2$ is a subspace of V. We need to show that $W_1 \subseteq W_2$ or $W_2 \subseteq W_1$. We proceed by showing the contrapositive. Assume $W_2 \not\subseteq W_1$ and $W_1 \not\subseteq W_2$. We need to show that $W_1 \cup W_2$ is **NOT** a subspace of V. By assumption, $x \in W_1$ is not contained in W_2 as well as $y \in W_2$ is not contained in W_1. This implies that $W_1 \cup W_2 = \emptyset$. Since $W_1 \cup W_2$ is empty where $W_1 \cup W_2$ does not contain O_V, it cannot possibly be a subspace of V.

($\Leftarrow$) Let $W_1 \subseteq W_2$ or $W_2 \subseteq W_1$. We need to show that $W_1 \cup W_2$ is a subspace of V. We proceed by using Theorem 3 to do this. Without loss of generality, assume $W_1 \subseteq W_2$. The proof will be the same if we use $W_2 \subseteq W_1$.

(a) Since W_1 is a subspace of V, we get that $O_W \in W_1$. Furthermore, $W_1 \subseteq W_2$ implies that $O_V \in W$. Since $O_V \in W_1$ and $O_V \in W_2$, we get that $O_V \in W_1 \cup W_2$ by definition of union.

(b) Let $x, y \in W_1$. Since W_1 is a subspace, we get that $x + y \in W_1$. Since $W_1 \subseteq W_2$, we also get that $x + y \in W_2$. Since both $x + y \in W_1$ and $x + y \in W_2$, we know that $x + y \in W_1 \cup W_2$ by definition of the union.

(c) Let $x \in W_1$ and $c \in F$. Since W_1 is closed under scalar multiplication, we have that $cx \in W_1$. But $W_1 \subseteq W_2$ so W_2 also contains $cx \in W_1$. So we must have $cx \in W_1 \cup W_2$.

Hence, $W_1 \cup W_2$ is a subspace of a vector space V. ■

Exercise 1.3.20

Prove that if W is a subspace of a vector space V and $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n$ are in W, then $a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 + \cdots + a_nw_n \in W$.

Proof. Let W be a subspace of a vector space V. Our goal is to show that the following statement: $a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 + \cdots + a_nw_n \in W$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. We proceed by induction on $i \geq 1$. Let $i = 1$. Since W is closed under scalar multiplication, we know that $a_1 \in F$ and $w_1 \in W$ implies that $a_1w_1 \in W$. Now let $i = 2$, then $w_1, w_2 \in W$ and $a_1, a_2 \in F$ implies that $a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 \in W$ since W is closed under scalar multiplication and addition. Now, assume that our result holds for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. We want to show that it also holds for $i = n + 1$. By our inductive hypothesis, we know that $a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 + \cdots + a_nw_n \in W$. Let $a_{n+1} \in F$ and $w_{n+1} \in W$. Using vector addition and scalar multiplication, we know that

$$\Big(a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 + \cdots + a_nw_n\Big) + a_{n+1}w_{n+1} \in W.$$

■

Exercise 1.3.21

Let V denote the vector space of sequences in $\mathbb{R}$, as defined in Example 5 of section 1.2. Show that the set of convergent sequences (a_n) (that is, those for which $\lim\limits_{n\to\infty} a_n$ exists) is a subspace of V.

Proof. We will show that W (the set of convergent sequences in $\mathbb{R}$) is a subspace of V by using Theorem 3.

(a) Note that the zero sequence O_n is zero for all $n = 1, 2, \ldots$. Hence, the limit of O_n converges to 0 and so we have $O_n \in W$.

(b) Let (a_n) and (b_n) be two convergent sequences in $\mathbb{R}$. Then we get that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$ exists. Observe that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n + \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n.$$

Since the a_n and b_n are both convergent sequences, we also get that the sum $(a_n + b_n)$ also converges. Hence, $(a_n + b_n) \in W$.

(c) Let $t \in F$ and $a_n \in W$ as before. Then we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} ta_n = t \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n.$$

Since any constant $t \in F$ multiplied by a convergent sequence is convergent, we also get that the sequence (ta_n) is also convergent. Hence, $ta_n \in W$.

■

Exercise 1.3.22

Let F_1 and F_2 be fields. A function $g \in \mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$ is called an **even function** if $g(-t) = g(t)$ for each $t \in F_1$ and is called an **odd function** if $g(-t) = -g(t)$ for each $t \in F_1$. Prove that the set of all even functions in $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$ and the set of all odd functions in $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$ are subspaces of $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$.

Proof. Let V be the set of all even functions and let W be the set of all odd functions. We will first prove that V is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$ and the same with W.

(a) Note that the zero function f_0 from $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$ is even since $f_0(-t) = 0 = f_0(t)$ for all $t \in F_1$. Hence, $f_0 \in V$.

(b) Let $f, g \in V$. We need to show that $f + g \in V$; that is, we need to show that it is even. Let $t \in F_1$. Then observe that

$$(f+g)(-t) = f(-t) + g(-t) = f(t) + g(t) = (f+g)(t)$$

Hence, $(f+g)(-t) = (f+g)(t)$ for all $t \in F_1$.

(c) Let $f \in V$ and let $c \in F_2$. Then observe that

$$(cf)(-t) = cf(-t) = cf(t) = (cf)(t).$$

Hence, $cf \in V$.

Since all the properties of V are satisfied, we have that V is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$.

Now we will prove W is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$.

(a) Note that the zero function f_0 is in W because for any $t \in F_1$ we have $f_0(-t) = 0 = -1 \cdot 0 = -f(t)$. Hence, $f_0 \in W$.

(b) Let $f, g \in W$ and Let $t \in F_1$. Observe that

$$(f+g)(-t) = f(-t) + g(-t) = -f(t) - g(t) - (f+g)(t).$$

Hence, $f + g \in W$.

(c) Let $c \in F_2$ and $f \in W$. Let $t \in F_1$ such that $f(-t) = -f(t)$. Then observe that

$$(cf)(-t) = cf(-t) = cf(t) = (cf)(t).$$

Hence, $cf \in W$.

Hence, W is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(F_1, F_2)$ ■

Definition 1.2.1 (Sum of Two Sets). If S_1 and S_2 are nonempty subsets of a vector spaces V, then the **sum** S_1 and S_2, denoted $S_1 + S_2$, is the set $\{x + y : x \in S_1 \text{ and } y \in S_2\}$.

Definition 1.2.2 (Direct Sum). A vector space V is called the **direct sum** of W_1 and W_2 if W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of V such that $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$ and $W_1 + W_2 = V$. We denote that V is the direct sum of W_1 and W_2 by writing $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$.

Exercise 1.3.23

Let $W_1 + W_2$ is a subspace of a vector space V.

(a) Prove that $W_1 + W_2$ is a subspace of V that contains both W_1 and W_2.

Proof. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a vector space V. Define $W_1 + W_2$ as the set

$$\{x_1 + y_2 : w_1 \in W_1 \text{ and } w_2 \in W_2\}.$$

(a) Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of V, we know that the zero vector O_V is contained in both W_1 and W_2. Hence, the sum $O_V = O_V + O_V \in W_1 + W_2$.

(b) Let $u, v \in W_1 + W_2$ with $u = x_1 + y_1$ and $v = x_2 + y_2$. Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of V, we know that addition is closed in both subsets W_1 and W_2. Hence, $x_1 + x_2 \in W_1$ and $y_1 + y_2 \in W_2$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} u + v &= (x_1 + y_1) + (x_2 + y_2) \\ &= (x_1 + x_2) + (y_1 + y_2) \in W_1 + W_2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, addition is closed in $W_1 + W_2$.

(c) Let $c \in F$ where F is a field and let $u \in W_1 + W_2$ with $u = x_1 + y_1$. Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of V, we know that $cx_1 \in W_1$ and $cx_2 \in W_2$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} cu &= c(x_1 + y_1) \\ &= cx_1 + cy_1 \in W_1 + W_2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $W_1 + W_2$ is a subspace of V. ■

(b) Prove that any subspace of V that contains both W_1 and W_2 must also contain $W_1 + W_2$.

Proof. Let X be a subspace of V. Suppose X contains both W_1 and W_2; that is, $W_1 \subseteq X$ and $W_2 \subseteq X$. We must show that $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq X$. Let $u \in W_1 + W_2$ with $u = x_1 + y_1$. By definition, we have $x_1 \in W_1$ and $y_1 \in W_2$. Since $W_1 \subseteq X$ and $W_2 \subseteq X$, we have $x_1 \in X$ and $y_1 \in X$. Since X is a subspace of V and X is closed under addition, we have $x_1 + y_1 \in X$. Hence, $u \in X$ and we conclude $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq X$. ■

Exercise 1.3.24

Show that F^n is the direct sum of the subspaces

$$W_1 = \{(a_1, a_2, \cdots a_n) \in F^n : a_n = 0\}$$

and

$$W_2 = \{(a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n) \in F^n : a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_{n-1} = 0\}.$$

Proof. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of F^n. Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces, they both contain the zero vector O_{F^n}. Observe that for any element $x \in W_1$, we have the nth element $a_n = 0$. On the other hand, $y \in W_2$ implies that $a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_{n-1} = 0$ except for the nth element. Thus, the only element that W_1 and W_2 have in common is the zero vector O_{F^n}. Hence, we have $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{O_{F^n}\}$.

Now, we show $W_1 + W_2 = F^n$. To do this, we need to show the following containments:

(i) $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq F^n$ and

(ii) $F^n \subseteq W_1 + W_2$.

Let $u \in W_1 + W_2$ with $u = x_1 + x_2$ where $x_1 \in W_1$ and $y_1 \in W_2$. Since $W_1 \subseteq F^n$, we know that $x_1 \in F^n$. Likewise, $W_2 \subseteq F^n$ implies that $y_1 \in F^n$. Since F^n is a vector space where addition is closed, we have that $u = x_1 + y_1 \in F^n$. Hence, $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq F^n$.

Now, let $u \in F^n$. Since F^n is a vector space over F, each entry in U (where each entry is an element of a field F) can written and separated using the addition defined in F^n in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} u &= (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \\ &= (a_1 + 0, a_2 + 0, \dots, 0 + a_n) \\ &= (a_1, a_2, \dots, 0) + (0, 0, \dots, a_n) \end{aligned}$$

where the first term is an element of W_1 and the second term is an element of W_2. Hence, $u \in W_1 + W_2$.

Since both containments are satisfied, we that $W_1 + W_2 = F^n$. Thus, $W_1 \oplus W_2 = F^n$. ■

Exercise 1.3.25

Let W_1 denote the set of all polynomials $f(x)$ in $P(F)$ such that in the representation

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0,$$

we have $a_i = 0$ whenever i is even. Likewise, let W_2 denote the set of all polynomials $g(x)$ in $P(F)$ such that in the representation

$$g(x) = b_m x^m + b_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \cdots + b_1 x + b_0,$$

we have $b_i = 0$ whenever i is odd. Prove that $P(F) = W_1 \oplus W_2$.

Proof. Let $f(x) \in W_1$. Then we have

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}a_nx^n$$

where $a_i = 0$ where i is even. Likewise, let $g(x) \in W_2$. Hence,

$$g(x) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + \cdots + b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + b_nx^n$$

where $b_i = 0$ for i odd. This tells us that the only representation that W_1 and W_2 have in common is the zero polynomial $f(x) = 0$ where $a_i = 0$ for all $0 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{O\}$.

Now, we want to show that $W_1 + W_2 = P(F)$; that is, we need to show $P(F) \subseteq W_1 + W_2$ and $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq P(F)$. Starting with the former, let $f \in P(F)$. Observe that for a_i where $1 \leq i \leq n$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n \\ &= \underbrace{(a_1x + a_3x^3 + \cdots + a_nx^n)}_{\in W_1} + \underbrace{(a_0 + a_2x^2 + a_4x^4 + \cdots + a_nx^n)}_{\in W_2} \end{aligned}$$

The first term of the last equality contains coefficients $a_i = 0$ for even i and the second term contains coefficients $a_i = 0$ for odd i. This implies that $f(x) \in W_1 + W_2$. Hence, $P(F) \subseteq W_1 + W_2$.

Now, let $u(x) \in W_1 + W_2$ with $u(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ with $f(x) \in W_1$ and $g(x) \in W_2$. Since W_1 and W_2 are subsets of $P(F)$, we have that $f(x), g(x) \in P(F)$. Since addition is closed in $P(F)$, we have that $u(x) = f(x) + g(x) \in P(F)$. Hence, $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq P(F)$. Since $W_1 + W_2 = P(F)$ and $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$, we have $W_1 \oplus W_2 = P(F)$. ■

Exercise 1.3.26

In $M_{m\times n}(F)$ define $W_1 = \{A \in M_{m\times n}(F) : A_{ij} = 0 \text{ whenever } i > j\}$ and $W_2 = \{A \in M_{m\times n}(F) : A_{ij} \text{ whenever } i \leq j\}$. Show that $M_{m\times n}(F) = W_1 \oplus W_2$. ($W_1$ is the set of all triangular matrices as defined in the previous section.)

Proof. **TO DO.** ■

Exercise 1.3.30

Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a vector space V. Prove that V is the direct sum of W_1 and W_2 if and only if each vector in V can be *uniquely* written as $x_1 + x_2$, where $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$.

Proof. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V. Let $v \in V$. Let $x_1, x_1' \in W_1$ and $x_2, x_2' \in W_2$ such that $v = x_1 + x_2 = x_1' + x_2'$. Since W_1 and W_2 is closed under addition, we know that $x_1 - x_2' \in W_1$ and $x_2 - x_2' \in W_2$. But observe that $x_1 - x_1' = x_2 - x_2' \in W_1 \cap W_2$. Since V is a direct sum of the two subspaces W_1 and W_2, we know that $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{O_V\}$ which implies that $x_1 = x_1'$ and $x_2 = x_2'$. This tells us that every v can be expressed uniquely as $x_1 + x_2$ with $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$.

Conversely, suppose every vector $v \in V$ can be *uniquely* written as $x_1 + x_2$ with $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$. We need to show that $W_1 \oplus W_2 = V$. Since $v \in V$ is uniquely expressed in terms of $x_1 + x_2$, the only vector that the two subspaces W_1 and W_2 share is the zero vector.

Hence, $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{O_V\}$. Now, we need to show that $V = W_1 + W_2$; that is, we need to show $V \subseteq W_1 + W_2$ and $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq V$. Suppose $v \in V$. Since $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$, we have that $v \in W_1 + W_2$. Hence, $V \subseteq W_1 + W_2$. Now, let $v \in W_1 + W_2$. Since $v = x_1 + x_2$ where $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$ and $W_1 \subseteq V$ and $W_2 \subseteq V$, we know that x_1 and x_2 are contained within V. Since V is vector space, we know that sum of x_1 and x_2 are contained in V. Hence, $v \in V$ and so $V \subseteq W_1 + W_2$. Thus, $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$. ■

Definition 1.2.3 (Cosets). Let W be a subspace of a vector space V over a field F. For any $v \in V$ the set $\{v\} + W = \{v + w : w \in W\}$ is called the **coset** of W **containing** v. It is customary to denote this coset by $v + W$ rather than $\{v\} + W$.

Definition 1.2.4 (Addition of Cosets). The **addition** of two cosets $v_1 + W$ and $v_2 + W$ is defined as

$$(v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) = (v_1 + v_2) + W$$

for all $v_1, v_2 \in V$.

Definition 1.2.5 (Scalar Multiplication of Cosets). The **scalar multiplication** of cosets by scalars of F can be defined as

$$a(v + W) = av + W$$

for all $v \in V$ and $a \in F$.

Exercise 1.3.31

The following exercises require the application of the definitions above.

(a) Prove that $v + W$ is a subspace of V if and only if $v \in W$.

Proof. Suppose $v + W$ is a subspace of V. Then $0_V \in v + W$ which implies that $O_V = v + w$. Hence, $v = -w$ where $-w \in W$ and thus $v \in W$. Conversely, suppose $v \in W$.

(a) Since W is a subspace of V, we know that $0_V \in W$. Since $v \in W$, there exists an element $v' \in W$ such that $v + v' = 0_V$. But this tell us that $O_V \in v + W$.

(b) Let $x, y \in v + W$. By definition, $x = v + w$ and $y = v + w'$ for $w, w' \in W$. Then observe that

$$x + y = (v + w) + (v + w') = v + (v + w + w')$$

where $v + w + w' \in W$ since W is a subspace of V. Hence, $v + W$ is closed under addition.

(c) Let $x \in v + W$. Choose $c \in F$ for which we will show that $cx \in v + W$. Then

$$cx = c(v + w) = cv + cw = v(cv + cw - v)$$

where $cv + cw - v$ since W is a subspace of V.

Hence, $v + W$ is a subspace of V. ■

(b) Prove that $v_1 + W = v_2 + W$ if and only if $v_1 - v_2 \in W$.

Proof. Let $x \in v_1 + W$. Then for $\alpha \in W$, we have $x = v_1 + \alpha$. Since $v_1 + W = v_2 + W$, then $x \in v_2 + W$ implies that for $\beta \in W$, we have $x = v_2 + \beta$. Then observe that

$$v_1 + \alpha = v_2 + \beta \Rightarrow v_1 - v_2 = \beta - \alpha.$$

Since W is a subspace, we have that $\beta - \alpha = v_1 - v_2 \in W$.

Conversely, suppose $v_1 - v_2 \in W$. By part (a), we know that $(v_1 - v_2) + W$ is a subspace of V. Hence, $0_V \in (v_1 - v_2) + W$. This means that there exists $w' \in W$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}
&(v_1 - v_2) + w' = 0_V \\
&\Rightarrow v_1 + w' = v_2 + (w - w) \\
&\Rightarrow v_1 + \underbrace{(w' + w)}_{\in W} = v_2 + \underbrace{w}_{\in W}.
\end{aligned}$$

This tells us that $v_1 + W = v_2 + W$ and we are done. ■

(c) Prove that the preceding operations are well defined; that is, show that if $v_1 + W = v_1' + W$ and $v_2 + W = v_2' + W$, then

$$(v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) = (v_1' + W) + (v_2' + W)$$

and

$$a(v_1 + W) = a(v_1' + W)$$

for all $a \in F$.

Proof. Suppose $v_1 + W = v_1' + W$ and $v_2 + W = v_2' + W$. Then $v_1 - v_1' \in W$ and $v_2 - v_2' \in W$ by part (b). Consequently, we have $(v_1 - v_1') + (v_2 - v_2') \in W$ if and only if $(v_1 + v_2) - (v_1' + v_2') \in W$ since W is subspace. Using part (b) again, we have that

$$(v_1 + v_2) + W = (v_1' + v_2') + W.$$

Using the addition defined on cosets, we get

$$(v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) = (v_1' + W) + (v_2' + W).$$

Since W is a subspace, we have $c(v_1 - v_1') \in W$ if and only if $cv_1 - cv_1' \in W$ for some $a \in F$. By part (b), we get that

$$av_1 + W = av_1' + W$$

which can be re-written to

$$a(v_1 + W) = a(v_1' + W)$$

as our desired result.

■

(d) Prove that the set $S = \{v + W : v \in V\}$ is a vector space with the operations defined in (c). This vector space is called the **quotient space of V modulo W** by $V \setminus W$.

Proof. It suffices to show that S is a subspace of V.

(a) Since W is a subspace of V, we know that $0_V \in W$. Then $0_V + 0_V = 0_V \in S$.

(b) Let $x, y \in S$. Then using the operations defined in part (c), we write

$$x + y = (v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) = (v_1 + v_2) + W.$$

This tells us that $x + y \in S$.

(c) Let $x \in S$. Our goal is to show that $c \in F$ implies $cx \in S$. Using the scalar multiplication in part (c), we get that

$$cx = c(v_1 + W) = cv_1 + W.$$

Thus, S is a vector space. ■

1.3 Linear Combinations

Exercise 1.4.7

In F^n, let e_j denote the vector whose jth coordinate is 1 and whose other coordinates are 0. Prove that $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ generates F^n.

Proof. Denote the set $V = \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$. Our goal is to find scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_n \in F$ such that for all $e_j \in V$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$,

$$\delta_1 e_1 + \delta_2 e_2 + \cdots + \delta_n e_n = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n). \tag{1}$$

Since $e_j = 1$ for the jth coordinate and the rest of the entries are zeros, we have that

$$\delta_j e_j = \delta_j(0, 0, \underbrace{1}_{j\text{th entry}}, \ldots, 0) = (0, 0, \delta_j, \ldots, 0)$$

for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. Summing up each term on the left side of (1) and equating each coordinate to the right side of (1), we get that $a_j = \delta_j$ for each $1 \leq j \leq n$. Hence, the set V can span the vector space F^n.

■

Exercise 1.4.8

Show that $P_n(F)$ is generated by $\{1, x, \ldots, x^n\}$.

Proof. Let $V = \{1, x, \ldots, x^n\}$. We need to find scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_n \in F$ such that

$$\delta_0 + \delta_1 x + \delta_2 x^2 + \cdots + \delta_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_n x^n. \tag{1}$$

Immediately, we have that equating coefficients in (1) gives us $a_i = \delta_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, V generates $P_n(F)$. ■

Exercise 1.4.9

Show that the matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

generate $M_{2\times 2}(F)$.

Proof. Define V with the given 2×2 matrices above. We need to find scalars $\delta_i \in F$ for all $1 \leq i \leq 4$ such that

$$\delta_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \delta_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \delta_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \delta_4 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{1}$$

Distributing each scalar δ_i for all $1 \leq i \leq 4$ for each term in (1), summing up each matrix in (1), and equating each term entry-wise, we have that $a_{11} = \delta_1, a_{12} = \delta_2, a_{21} = \delta_3$, and $a_{22} = \delta_4$. Hence, V spans $M_{2\times 2}(F)$. ∎

Exercise 1.4.10

Show that if

$$M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } M_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

then the span of $\{M_1, M_2, M_3\}$ is the set of all symmetric 2×2 matrices.

Proof. We need to show that the set $\{M_1, M_2, M_3\}$ spans the set of all symmetric 2×2 matrices. We need to find scalars a_1, a_2, a_3 such that

$$a_1M_1 + a_2M_2 + a_3M_3 = \begin{pmatrix} \delta_{11} & \delta_{12} \\ \delta_{21} & \delta_{22} \end{pmatrix} = A \tag{1}$$

where A is any 2×2 symmetric matrix. Observe that for $i = j$, we have $\delta_{12} = \delta_{21}$. Performing scalar multiplication on matrices M_1, M_2, and M_3, addition of all three terms on (1), and equating entry-wise, we get that $\delta_{12} = \delta_{21} = \delta_3$ and $\delta_{11} = \delta_1$ and $\delta_2 = a_{22}$. Hence, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ a_3 & a_2 \end{pmatrix}^t = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ a_3 & a_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, the set $\{M_1, M_2, M_3\}$ spans the set of all symmetric 2×2 matrices. ∎

Exercise 1.4.11

Prove that $\text{span}(\{x\}) = \{ax : a \in F\}$ for any vector x in a vector space V. Interpret this result geometrically in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Proof. We need to show that $\text{span}(\{x\}) = \{ax : a \in F\}$, we need to show two containments; that is, $\text{span}(\{x\}) \subseteq \{ax : a \in F\}$ and $\{ax : a \in F\} \subseteq \text{span}(\{x\})$. Let $v \in \text{span}(\{x\})$. Then observe that we can find $\delta \in F$ such that multiplying by $x \in V$ leads $v = \delta x$. But this means that $v \in \{ax : a \in F\}$ by definition. Hence, $\text{span}(\{x\}) \subseteq \{ax : a \in F\}$. Let $v \in \{ax : a \in F\}$. Then $v = ax$ for some $a \in F$. But this is a linear combination of x that makes v. So $v \in \text{span}(\{x\})$ and hence, $\{ax : a \in F\} \subseteq \text{span}(\{x\})$. This result can be viewed as the scaling of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$. ∎

Exercise 1.4.12

Show that a subset W of a vector space V is a subspace of V if and only if $\text{span}(W) = W$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Let W be a subspace of V. To show that $\text{span}(W) = W$, we need to show two containments; that is, $\text{span}(W) \subseteq W$ and $W \subseteq \text{span}(W)$. Clearly, W contains itself. Hence, $\text{span}(W) \subseteq W$ Theorem 5. Let $v \in W$. Since W is a subspace, we can find scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots . a_n \in F$ and vectors $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n \in W$ such that

$$v = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \cdots + a_n x_n \in W$$

using the result in Exercise 1.3.20. But this tells us that $v \in \text{span}(W)$. Hence, $W \subseteq \text{span}(W)$.

($\Leftarrow$) Since the span of any subset of W is a subspace and $W = \text{span}(W)$, we have that W is a subspace as well by Theorem 5. ■

Exercise 1.4.13

Show that if S_1 and S_2 are subsets of a vector space V such that $S_1 \subseteq S_2$, then $\text{span}(S_1) \subseteq \text{span}(S_2)$. In particular, if $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ and $\text{span}(S_1) = V$, deduce that $\text{span}(S_2) = V$.

Proof. Let S_1 and S_2 be subsets of a vector space V. Let $v \in \text{span}(S_1)$. We can find scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_n \in F$ and $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_1$ such that

$$v = \delta_1 x_1 + \delta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \delta_n x_n.$$

Since $S_1 \subseteq S_2$, we know that $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_2$ so we must have $v \in \text{span}(S_2)$. Hence, $\text{span}(S_1) \subseteq \text{span}(S_2)$.

Now, let $\text{span}(S_1) = V$. We need to show that $\text{span}(S_2) = V$; that is, we need to show $\text{span}(S_2) \subseteq V$ and $V \subseteq \text{span}(S_2)$. By assumption, $S_2 \subseteq V$ and $\text{span}(S_2)$ is a subspace. Clearly, $\text{span}(S_2) \subseteq V$. Since $\text{span}(S_1) = V$ and $\text{span}(S_1) \subseteq \text{span}(S_2)$, we have $V \subseteq \text{span}(S_2)$. Hence, $\text{span}(S_2) = V$. ■

Exercise 1.4.14

Show that if S_1 and S_2 are arbitrary subsets of a vector space V, then $\text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2) = \text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2)$. (The sum of two subsets is defined in the exercises of Section 1.3.)

Proof. Let S_1 and S_2 be subsets of a vector space V. We need to show $\text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2) = \text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2)$; that is, $\text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2) \subseteq \text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2)$ and $\text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2) \subseteq \text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2)$. Let $v \in \text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2)$. We can find $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_n \in F$ such that $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_1 \cup S_2$ implies that

$$v = \delta_1 x_1 + \delta_2 x_2 + \cdots + \delta_n x_n.$$

Hence, either $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_1$ or $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_2$. If $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_1$, then $v \in \text{span}(S_1)$. Since $\text{span}(S_2)$ is a subspace, we know that $O_V \in \text{span}(S_2)$. Hence, $O_V \in \text{span}(S_1)$ and $v \in \text{span}(S_1)$ imply that $v + O_V = v \in \text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2)$. The other case follows a similar process. Hence, $\text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2) \subseteq \text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2)$.

Let $s \in \text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2)$. Hence, $s = u + v$ where $u \in \text{span}(S_1)$ and $v \in \text{span}(S_2)$. The former implies that we can find scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ such that $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S_1$ where

$$u = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i$$

and the latter implies that there exists scalars $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n \in F$ such that $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n \in S_2$

where

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i y_i.$$

Since both $x_i \in S_1$ and $y_i \in S_2$ for all $1 \le i \le n$, we have $x_i, y_i \in S_1 \cup S_2$ for all $1 \le i \le n$. So we must have $s \in \text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2)$. Hence, $\text{span}(S_1) + \text{span}(S_2) \subseteq \text{span}(S_1 \cup S_2)$. ■

Exercise 1.4.15

Let S_1 and S_2 be subsets of a vector space V. Prove that $\text{span}(S_1 \cap S_2) \subseteq \text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2)$. Give an example in which $\text{span}(S_2 \cap S_2)$ and $\text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2)$ are equal and one in which they are not unequal.

Proof. Let S_1 and S_2 be subsets of a vector space V. Let $v \in \text{span}(S_1 \cap S_2)$. Then we can find scalars $a_i \in F$ and vectors $x_i \in S_i \cap S_2$ for all $1 \le i \le n$ such that

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i.$$

If $x_i \in S_1 \cap S_2$ for all $1 \le i \le n$, then $x_i \in S_1$ and $x_i \in S_2$ for all $1 \le i \le n$. This implies that $v \in \text{span}(S_1)$ and $v \in \text{span}(S_2)$. Hence, $v \in \text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2)$. Thus, we conclude that $\text{span}(S_1 \cap S_2) \subseteq \text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2)$. ■

Example 1.3.1. Define S_1 as the set

$$\{(1, 1, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}$$

and S_2 as the set

$$\{(1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}.$$

Observe that $S_1 \cap S_2 = \{(1, 1, 0)\}$ and thus the of this set yields $\{a(1, 1, 0) : a \in F \text{ and } (1, 1, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}$. The span of S_1 yields the following set $\{a(1, 1, 0) : a \in F$ and $(1, 1, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}$ and the span of S_2 yields the following set

$$\{a(1, 10) + b(1, 0, 1) + c(0, 1, 1) : a, b, c \in F \text{ and } (1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}.$$

Note that $\text{span}(S_1 \cap S_2) \neq \text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2)$ since $\text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2) \neq \emptyset$.

Now define $S_1 = \{O_V\} = S_2$. Clearly, $S_1 \cap S_2 = \{O_V\}$, $\text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2) = \{O_V\}$, and that $\text{span}(S_1 \cap S_2)$ is also equal to this set. $\text{span}(S_1 \cap S_2) = \text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2)$

Exercise 1.4.16

Let V be a vector space and S a subset of V with the property that whenever $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in S$ and $a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \cdots + a_n v_n = 0$, then $a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_n = 0$. Prove that every vector in the span of S can be *uniquely* written as a linear combination of vectors of S.

Proof. Let $x \in \text{span}(S)$. Suppose there exists two sets of scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n \in F$ such that whenever $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in S$ such that

$$a_1 v_1 + a_2 v_2 + \cdots + a_n v_n = x \tag{1}$$

and

$$b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2 + \cdots + b_n v_n = x \tag{2}$$

implies that a_i Setting (1) and (2) together, we have

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \cdots + a_nv_n = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_nv_n \tag{3}$$

which implies that

$$(a_1 - b_1)v_1 + (a_2 - b_2)v_2 + \cdots + (a_n - b_n)v_n = 0.$$

Since $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in S$, we have that $a_i - b_i = 0$ and thus $a_i = b_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, every vector in the span of S can be *uniquely* written as a linear combination of vectors of S. ■

1.4 Linear Dependence and Linear Independence

Exercise 1.5.1

Label the following statements as true or false.

(a) If S is a linearly dependent set, then each vector in S is a linear combination of other vector in S.

Proof. **True** ■

(b) Any set containing the zero vector is linearly dependent.

Proof. **True** ■

(c) The empty set is linearly dependent.

Proof. **False**. It is linearly independent. ■

(d) Subsets of linearly dependent sets are linearly dependent.

Proof. This is **False**. We can have a linearly independent subset of a set that is linearly dependent. ■

(e) Subsets of linearly independent sets are linearly independent.

Proof. **True** by corollary to Theorem 6. ■

(f) If $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n = 0$ and $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ are linearly independent, then all the scalars a_i are zero.

Proof. **True** this is by definition. ■

Exercise 1.5.4

In F^n, let e_j denote the vector whose jth coordinate is 1 and whose other coordinates are 0. Prove that $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ is linearly independent.

Proof. Choose a finite amount of scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ to create the following linear combination:

$$a_1e_1 + a_2e_2 + \cdots + a_ne_n = (0, 0, \ldots, 0). \tag{1}$$

To show that the set $\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ is linearly independent, we need to show that the scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ have the trivial representation; that is, $a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_n = 0$.

Since the jth coordinate of e_j is 1 but 0 in all the other entries, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
&a_1(1,0,\dots,0)+a_2(0,1,\dots,0)+\cdots+a_n(0,0,\dots,1)\\
&=(a_1,0,\dots,0)+(0,a_2,\dots,0)+\cdots+(0,0,\dots,a_n)\\
&=(a_1,a_2,\dots,a_n).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$(a_1,a_2,\dots,a_n)=(0,0,\dots,0).$$

Equating each entry of the left side of the equation above to 0, we find that $a_i=0$ for all $1\le j\le n$. Hence, the set $\{e_1,e_2,\dots,e_n\}$ is linearly independent. ■

Exercise 1.5.4

Show that the set $\{1,x,x^2,\dots,x^n\}$ is linearly independent in $P_n(F)$.

Proof. Just like the prior exercise, we need to show that we can find scalars $a_0,a_1,\dots,a_n\in F$ such that

$$a_0+a_1x+a_2x^2+\cdots+a_nx^n=0$$

where $a_i=0$ for all $0\le i\le n$. Note that the 0 polynomial is just

$$0+0x+0x^2+\cdots+0x^n=0.$$

Hence, equating coefficients we immediately get that $a_i=0$ for all $0\le i\le n$. Thus, the set $\{1,x,x^2,\dots,x^n\}$ is linearly independent. ■

Exercise 1.5.6

In $M_{m\times n}(F)$, let E^{ij} denote the matrix whose only nonzero entry is 1 in the ith row and jth column. Prove that $\{E^{ij}:1\le i\le m,1\le j\le n\}$ is linearly independent.

Proof. First, we create a linear combination of a finite amount vectors in $E=\{E^{ij}:1\le i\le m,1\le j\le n\}$ with scalars δ_k for $1\le k\le N$ with $N=mn$ as the number of total entries in each matrix in $\{E^{ij}:1\le i\le m,1\le j\le n\}$. Note that after doing our scalar multiplication and summing up each term, we find that each $\delta_kE_{ij}=\delta_k$ in our linear combination can equated with a corresponding i and j entry in the zero matrix such that $\delta_k=0$ for all $1\le k\le N$. Hence, E is a linearly independent set. ■

Exercise 1.5.7

Recall from Example 3 in Section 1.3 that the set of diagonal matrices in $M_{2\times 2}(F)$ is a subspace. Find a linearly independent set that generates this subspace.

Proof. Define W as the linearly independent spanning set of the set of diagonal matrices in $M_{2\times 2}$ where

$$W=\left\{\begin{pmatrix}1&0\\0&0\end{pmatrix},\begin{pmatrix}0&0\\0&1\end{pmatrix}\right\}.$$

To see why W is a linearly independent set, choose scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in F$ such that

$$\delta_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \delta_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Performing scalar multiplication and vector addition gives us the following equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \delta_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \delta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since the zero matrix is a diagonal matrix, we know that equation entries where $i = j$yields $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$. Hence, W is a linearly independent set that generates the set of diagonal matrices of $M_{2\times 2}(F)$. ■

Exercise 1.5.8

Let $S = \{(1,1,0), (1,0,1), (0,1,1)\}$ be a subset of the vector space F^3.

(a) Prove that if $F = \mathbb{R}$, then S is linearly independent.

Proof. ■

(b) Prove that if F has characteristic two, then S is linearly dependent.

Proof. ■

Exercise 1.5.9

Let u and v be distinct vectors in a vector space V. Show that $\{u, v\}$ is linearly dependent if and only if u or v is a multiple of the other. I have written two proofs for this:

Proof. Let u and v be distinct vectors in a vector space V.

($\Rightarrow$) Since $\{u, v\}$ is a linearly dependent set, we can find scalars $a_1, a_2 \in F$ such that

$$a_1 u + a_2 v = 0 \tag{1}$$

Suppose v is not a multiple of u and choose $a_1 \neq 0$ since $\{u, v\}$ is linearly dependent. We need to show that u is a multiple of v. Solving for u, we get that

$$u = -\frac{a_2}{a_1} v.$$

Hence, u is a multiple of v.

($\Leftarrow$) Suppose u or v is a scalar multiple of the other. Assume u is the scalar multiple of v. Then for some $c \neq 0 \in F$, we have $u = cv$. Hence, we have $u - cv = 1u - cv = 0$. This tells us that $\{u, v\}$ is linearly dependent. ■

Exercise 1.5.12

Prove Theorem 1.6 and its corollary.

Proof. See proof in notes. ■

Exercise 1.5.13

Let V be a vector space over a field of characteristic not equal to two.

(a) Let u and v be distinct vectors in V. Prove that $\{u, v\}$ is linearly independent if and only if $\{u + v, u - v\}$ is linearly independent.

Proof. Let u and v be distinct vectors in V.

For the forwards direction, assume $\{u, v\}$ is a linearly independent set. We need to show that $\{u+v, u-v\}$ is linearly independent. Hence, we need to find $a, b \in F$ such that

$$a(u + v) + b(u - v) = 0. \tag{1}$$

Note that (1) leads to

$$\begin{aligned} a(u + v) + b(u - v) &= au + av + bu - bv \\ &= au - bv + av + bu. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\{u, v\}$ is a linearly independent set, we have that

$$au - bv = 0$$

and

$$av + bu = 0$$

for $a = b = 0$. Hence,

$$a(u + v) + b(u - v) = 0$$

for $a = b = 0$ and so $\{u - v, u + v\}$ is a linearly independent set.

For the backwards direction, suppose $\{u+v, u-v\}$ is linearly independent. We need to show that $\{u, v\}$ is linearly independent. Note that $a, b \in F$ such that

$$a(u + v) + b(u - v) = 0$$

for $a = b = 0$ since $\{u - v, u + v\}$ is linearly independent. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} a(u + v) + b(u - v) &= au + av + bu - bv \\ &= au - bv + av + bu \\ &= 0 + av + bu \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $av + bu = 0$ where a, b both zero. Thus, the set $\{u, v\}$ is linearly independent. ■

(b) Let $u, v,$ and w be distinct vectors in V. Prove that $\{u, v, w\}$ is linearly independent if and only if $\{u + v, u + w, v + w\}$ is linearly independent.

Proof. For the forwards direction, suppose $\{u, v, w\}$ is linearly independent. Then choose scalars $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in F$ such that

$$a_1 u + a_2 v + a_3 w = 0$$

with $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$. We need to show that $\{u + v, u + w, v + w\}$ is linearly independent; that is, we need to show that we can find scalars $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in F$ such that

$$a_1(u + v) + a_2(u + w) + a_3(v + w) = 0 \tag{1}$$

for $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$. Observe that (1) can be written in the following way

$$(a_1u + a_3v + a_2w) + (a_1v + a_2u + a_3w) = 0 \tag{2}$$

Since $\{u, v, w\}$ is linearly independent, we know that $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$. But this also has to mean that $\{u + v, u + w, v + w\}$ is a linearly independent set.

For the backwards direction, suppose $\{u + v, u + w, v + w\}$ is linearly independent. Then choose scalars $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in F$ such that

$$a_1(u + v) + a_2(u + w) + a_3(v + w) = 0. \tag{1}$$

We need to show that $\{u, v, w\}$ is linearly independent. Observe that (1) can be re-written as

$$\begin{aligned}
&(a_1u + a_3v + a_2w) + (a_1v + a_2u + a_3w) = 0\\
&\Rightarrow 0 + (a_1v + a_2u + a_3w) = 0\\
&\Rightarrow a_1v + a_2u + a_3w = 0
\end{aligned}$$

where $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$. Hence, $\{u, v, w\}$ is linearly independent. ■

Exercise 1.5.14

Prove that a set S is linearly dependent if and only if $S = \{0\}$ or there exists distinct vectors $v, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$ such that v is a linear combination of $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$.

Proof. For the forwards direction, Let S be a linearly dependent. Then we need to show that either $S = \{0\}$ or S contains distinct vectors $v, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$ such that $v \in \text{span}(S)$. Suppose there does not exists distinct vectors $v, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$ such that $v \in \text{span}(S)$. This tells us that S only contains the singleton $S = \{v\}$. Furthermore, we must require $v = 0$ since S is linearly dependent. Otherwise, $v \neq 0$ would imply that S is linearly independent. Hence, we have $S = \{0\}$. Now suppose $S \neq \{0\}$. Since S is linearly dependent, there exists scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n+1}$ and vectors $v, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$ such that

$$a_1v + a_2u_1 + a_3u_2 + \cdots + a_{n+1}u_n = 0$$

with all $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n, a_{n+1}$ not all equal to zero. Solving for v, we get that

$$v = -(a_1^{-1}a_2)u_1 - (a_1^{-1}a_3)u_2 - \cdots - (a_1^{-1}a_{n+1})u_n.$$

Since v is a linear combination of $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$, we have that $v \in \text{span}(S)$.

Conversely, suppose that either $S = \{0\}$ or there exists distinct vectors $v, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$ such that v is a linear combination of $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$. Assume $S = \{0\}$. Then S is linearly dependent because the singleton is the zero vector. Now suppose v is a linear combination of vectors $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$. Then there exists scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and distinct vectors $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$ such that

$$v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \cdots + a_nu_n.$$

Subtracting v from both sides of this equation yields the following equation

$$a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \cdots + a_nu_n - 1v = 0.$$

Since not all scalars in the equation above are zero and $v, u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$, we must have that S is a linearly dependent set. ■

Exercise 1.5.15

Prove that a set $S = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n\}$ be a finite set of vectors. Prove that S is linearly dependent if and only if $u_1 = 0$ or $u_{k+1} \in \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\})$ for some k where $1 \leq k < n$.

Proof. Suppose $u_{k+1} \notin \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\})$ for all $1 \leq k < n$. Since S is linearly dependent, we know that the zero vector is contained in S. Choose $k = 1$ such that $u_1 = 0$ and we are done. On the other hand, suppose $u_1 \neq 0$. We need to show that $u_{k+1} \in \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\})$. Choose $k = n - 1$. Then clearly $n = k + 1$. Since S is linear independent, choose scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \cdots + a_k u_k + a_{k+1} u_{k+1} = 0. \tag{1}$$

where $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k, a_{k+1}$ not all zero. Solving for u_{k+1} by subtracting $a_{k+1} u_{k+1}$ on both sides of (1) and multiplying $-a_{k+1}^{-1}$ on both sides of (1), we end up with the following equation:

$$u_{k+1} = -(a_{k+1}^{-1} a_1) u_1 - (a_{k+1}^{-1} a_2) u_2 - \cdots - (a_{k+1}^{-1} a_k) u_k.$$

This tells us that u_{k+1} can be written as a linear combination of vectors $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k$. Hence, $u_{k+1} \in \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \ldots u_k\})$.

Conversely, either $u_1 = 0$ or $u_{k+1} \in \text{span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k)$. Suppose $u_1 = 0$. Then S contains the zero vector so S must be linearly dependent. On the other hand, choose $k = n - 1$ where $1 \leq k < n$ such that $u_{k+1} \in \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\})$ implies that there exists scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} u_{k+1} &= a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \cdots + a_k u_k \\ \Rightarrow u_n &= a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \cdots + a_{n-1} u_{n-1}. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Subtracting u_n on both sides of (1) implies that

$$(a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \cdots + a_{n-1} u_{n-1}) - 1 u_n = 0.$$

Since not all scalars in the linear combination above are zero, we know that S must be linearly dependent.

■

Exercise 1.5.16

Prove that a set S of vectors is linearly independent if and only if each finite subset of S is linearly independent.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Suppose S is a linearly independent set. Let S' be any finite subset of S. By corollary to Theorem 6, we can see that $S' \subseteq S$ implies that S' is also linearly independent. ($\Leftarrow$) We will proceed by proving the contrapositive. Let $S' \subseteq S$ be a finite subset that is linearly dependent set. We will prove that S is a linearly dependent set. Since $S' \subseteq S$, we have that S must be a linearly dependent set by Theorem 6. ■

Exercise 1.5.17

Let M be a square upper triangular matrix (as defined in Section 1.3) with nonzero diagonal entries. Prove that the columns of M are linearly independent.

Proof. Let M be a square upper triangular matrix. Note that M have the following form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \ddots & a_{n-1n} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We can define the following columns as vectors $v_1, v_2, \dots v_n$ where

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, v_n = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Choose scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_n \in F$ such that

$$\delta_1 v_1 + \delta_2 v_2 + \cdots + \delta_n v_n = 0$$

where the zero vector 0 is denoted as

$$0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Using scalar multiplication and addition, we arrive at the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_1 a_{11} + \delta_2 a_{12} + \cdots + \delta_{n-1} a_{1n-1} + \delta_n a_{1n} &= 0 \\ \delta_2 a_{22} + \delta_3 a_{23} + \cdots + \delta_n a_{2n} &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ \delta_{n-1} a_{n-1n-1} + \delta_n a_{n-1n} &= 0 \\ \delta_n a_{nn} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Since all the diagonal entries of M are non-zero, we can see from the equation above that $\delta_n = 0$ which subsequently tells us that $\delta_{n-1} = 0$. We claim that $\delta_1 = \cdots = \delta_{n-1} = \delta_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$. We can prove this via induction. Let our base case be $n = 1$. Then we have $\delta_1 a_{11} = 0$ with $a_{11} \neq 0$ implies $\delta_1 = 0$. Now let $n = 2$. Then observe that we have an upper triangular 2×2 matrix such that the linear combination of the columns lead to the following system of linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_1 a_{11} + \delta_2 a_{12} &= 0 \\ 0 + \delta_2 a_{22} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Observe that $\delta_2 = 0$ which also implies that $\delta_1 = 0$. Now suppose our claim that $\delta_1 = \cdots = \delta_{n-1} = \delta_n = 0$ holds for all $n \geq 1$. We want to show that our claim still holds for the $n+1$ case. Observe that $\delta_{n+1} = 0$ derived from an $n+1 \times n+1$ matrix. Using the same process that proved the base case, we find that $\delta_n = \delta_{n+1} = 0$. By our inductive hypothesis, we know that $\delta_1 = \cdots = \delta_{n-1} = \delta_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$. This tells us that $\delta_1 = \cdots = \delta_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 1$. Hence, the columns of M are linearly independent. ∎

Exercise 1.5.18

Let S be a set of nonzero polynomials in $P(F)$ such that no two have the same degree. Prove that S is linearly independent.

Proof. Let $0 \leq n \leq k$ such that $S = \{p_0(x), p_1(x), p_2(x), \ldots, p_k(x)\}$ where every $p_n(x)$ non-zero such that no two polynomials in this set have the same degree. Define $p_n(x) = x^n + x^{n+1} + \cdots + x^k$. Choose scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k \in F$ such that

$$a_1 p_1(x) + a_2 p_2(x) + \cdots + a_k p_k(x) = 0 \tag{1}$$

We need to show that $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \cdots = \delta_k = 0$. Observe that (1) implies that

$$a_0 + (a_0 + a_1 + a_2)x^2 + \cdots + (a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_k)x^k = 0. \tag{2}$$

Setting each x^n to both sides of the equation above leads to the following system of linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= 0 \\ a_0 + a_1 &= 0 \\ a_0 + a_1 + a_2 &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_k &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

It can be proved via induction that $a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_k = 0$ for all $1 \leq n \leq k$. Hence, S is a linearly independent set. ■

Exercise 1.5.19

Prove that if $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k\}$ is a linearly independent subset of $M_{n\times n}(F)$, then $\{A_1^t, A_2^t, A_3^t, \ldots, A_k^t\}$ is also linearly independent.

Proof. Suppose $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k\}$ is a linearly independent set. Choose a finite set of scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_k \in F$ such that

$$\delta_1 A_1 + \delta_2 A_2 + \cdots + \delta_k A_k = 0$$

with $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \cdots = \delta_k = 0$. Apply the transpose to both sides, we know that $0^t = 0$ and $(\delta_i A_i)^t = \delta_i (A_i)^t$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &(\delta_1 A_1 + \delta_2 A_2 + \cdots + \delta_k A_k)^t = 0^t \\ &\Rightarrow (\delta_1 A_1)^t + (\delta_2 A_2)^t + \cdots + (\delta_k A_k)^t = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow \delta_1 A_1^t + \delta_2 A_2^t + \cdots + \delta_k A_k^t = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the set $\{A_1^t, A_2^t, \ldots, A_k^t\}$ is also linearly independent. ■

Exercise 1.5.20

Let $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ be the functions defined by $f(t) = e^{rt}$ and $g(t) = e^{st}$, where $r \neq s$. Prove that f and g are linearly independent in $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$.

Proof. Let $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ where f and g are defined by $f(t) = e^{rt}$ and $g(t) = e^{st}$ with

$r \neq s$. Suppose for sake of contradiction that the set $\{f, g\}$ is a linearly dependent set of vectors. By Exercise 1.5.9, we know that either f is a multiple of g or g is a multiple of f. Assume f is a multiple of g. Hence, there exists a $c \in R$ such that $f(t) = cg(t)$. In other words,

$$f(t) = cg(t) \Rightarrow e^{rt} = ce^{st}.$$

To solve for c, let $t = 0$. Then we have

$$f(0) = cg(0) \Rightarrow 1 = c.$$

Hence, we have

$$e^{rt} = e^{st}.$$

This equality is valid only when $r = s$ because otherwise f would not be a scalar multiple of g. But note that $r \neq s$ by assumption. Hence, we have a contradiction and thus $\{f, g\}$ must be linearly independent. ■

Exercise 1.5.21

Let S_1 and S_2 be disjoint linearly independent subsets of V. Prove that $S_1 \cup S_2$ is linearly dependent if and only if $\text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2) \neq \{0\}$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) We will proceed via contrapositive. Since $\text{span}(S_1) \cap \text{span}(S_2) = \{0\}$, let $v \in \text{span}(S_1)$ such that we can find a $w \in \text{span}(S_2)$ such that both $v = w$ where both $v = 0$ and $w = 0$. Since $v \in \text{span}(S_1)$, we can find a finite set of vectors $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in S_1$ and scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i = 0.$$

Likewise, $w \in \text{span}(S_2)$ implies that we can find $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n \in S_2$ and scalars $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n \in F$ such that

$$w = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j y_j = 0.$$

Observe that

$$v = w \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j y_j.$$

Then we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j y_j = 0.$$

Since S_1 and S_2 are disjoint linearly independent sets, we know that $x_i \notin S_2$ and $y_i \notin S_1$ and that $a_i = 0$ and $b_j = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$ respectively. Hence, $S_1 \cup S_2$ is a linearly independent set.

($\Leftarrow$) We will proceed via contrapositive for this direction as well. Suppose $S_1 \cup S_2$ is linearly independent. Then choose a finite number of distinct vectors $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in S_1 \cup S_2$ and scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i}_{\in \text{span}(S_1)} = 0$$

with $a_i = 0$ for all $1 \le i \le m$. Since $x_i \in S_1 \cup S_2$, then either $x_i \in S_1$ or $x_i \in S_2$. Without loss of generality, suppose $x_i \in S_1$. Then we know that $x_i \notin S_2$ since $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$. Since S_2 is linearly independent, choose a finite number of vectors $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m \in S_2$ and scalars $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n \in F$ such that

$$\underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j y_j}_{\in \operatorname{span}(S_2)} = 0$$

with $b_j = 0$ for all $1 \le j \le m$. Observe that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j y_j = 0.$$

Hence, we have $\operatorname{span}(S_1) \cap \operatorname{span}(S_2) = \{0\}$. ■

1.5 Bases and Dimension

Exercise 1.6.11

Let u and v be distinct vectors of a vector space V. Show that if $\{u, v\}$ is a basis for V and a and b are nonzero scalars, then both $\{u + v, au\}$ and $\{au, bv\}$ are also bases for V.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) We want to show that $\{u+v, au\}$ and $\{au, bv\}$ is a basis for V; that is, we want to show that $\{u + v, au\}$ and $\{au, bv\}$ is both linearly independent and generates V. We will start by showing that $\{u + v, au\}$ is linearly independent. Choose scalars δ_1, δ_2 such that

$$\delta_1(u + v) + \delta_2(au) = 0 \tag{1}$$

with $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$. Let us algebraically manipulate (1) into the following form:

$$\delta_1 u + \delta_1 v + (\delta_2 a)u = 0.$$

Since $\{u, v\}$ is linearly independent and $a \neq 0$, we get that

$$\delta_1 v + (\delta_2 a)u = 0$$

implies $\delta_1 = 0$ and $\delta_2 a = 0$ such that $\delta_2 = 0$. But this implies that $\{u+v, au\}$ is also linearly independent. To show that $\{u+v, au\}$ spans V, it suffices to show that $V \subseteq \{u+v, au\}$ since the other containment $\{u + v, au\} \subseteq V$ follows immediately. Let $v \in V$. By Theorem 1.7, we know that adjoining an arbitrary vector $w \in V$ but not in $\{u + v, au\}$ creates a linearly dependent set. So, we must have $w \in \operatorname{span}(\{u + v, au\})$ and thus $V \subseteq \operatorname{span}(\{a + v, au\})$.

Now, we want to show that $\{au, bv\}$ is a basis. Choose scalars δ_1, δ_2 such that

$$\delta_1(au) + \delta_2(bv) = 0 \tag{2}$$

such that $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$. We can manipulate (2) by rewriting it in the following form:

$$(\delta_1 a)u + (\delta_2 b)v = 0. \tag{3}$$

Since $\{u, v\}$ is a linearly independent set, we know that $\delta_1 a = \delta_2 b = 0$. Since $a, b \neq 0$, this implies that $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$. Hence, the representation in (2) is trivial and thus the set $\{au, bv\}$ is linearly independent. Since adjoining any $w \in V$ not in $\{au, bv\}$ creates a linearly dependent set, we get that $w \in \text{span}(\{au, bv\})$ by Theorem 1.7. Hence, $\{au, bv\}$ generates V.

■

Exercise 1.6.12

Let u, v, and w be distinct vectors of a vector space V. Show that if $\{u, v, w\}$ is a basis for V, then $\{u + v + w, v + w, w\}$ is also a basis for V.

Proof. First, we prove that $\{u+v+w, v+w, w\}$ is linearly independent. Choose $\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3 \in F$ such that

$$\delta_1(u + v + w) + \delta_2(v + w) + \delta_3 w = 0. \tag{1}$$

We can rewrite (1) in the following way:

$$(\delta_1 u + \delta_2 v + \delta_3 w) + \delta_1(v + w) + \delta_2 w = 0.. \tag{2}$$

Since $\{u, v, w\}$ is also a basis, we know that $\{u, v, w\}$ is also linearly independent. Hence, $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \delta_3 = 0$. Thus, (1) contains the trivial representation and so $\{u + v + w, v + w, w\}$ is linearly independent.

Now, to prove that $S = \{u + v + w, v + w, w\}$ generates V, it suffices to show that $V \subseteq \text{span}(S)$. Adjoining a vector $x \in V$ but not in S produces a linearly independent set. Hence, Theorem 1.7 implies that $s \in \text{span}(S)$. Hence, S generates V and that S is a basis for V.

■

Exercise 1.6.19

Complete the proof of Theorem 1.8.

Proof. See proof in notes. ■

Exercise 1.6.20

Let V be a vector space having dimension n, and let S be a subset of V that generates V.

(a) Prove that there is a subset of S that is a basis for V. (Be careful not to assume that S is finite.)

Proof. Let $\dim(V) = n$. Suppose S is a subset of V such that S generates V. Then S could be either $S = \{0\}$ or $S = \emptyset$. In either case, we find that $\text{span}(\emptyset) = \{0\} = V$ or $\text{span}(\{0\}) = \{0\} = V$. Now, suppose S contains a non-zero vector u_1. Thus, the set $\{u_1\}$ is linearly independent. Suppose we continue adding vectors inductively $u_2, u_3, \ldots, u_k$ into this set such that this process stops at exactly k vectors. We claim that our constructed set

$$L = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\}$$

is linearly independent for $k \geq 1$. Suppose we assume that L holds for the kth case. We want to show that it also holds for the $k + 1$ case. Observe that

$$L = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{k+1}\} = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\} \cup \{u_{k+1}\}.$$

If $u_{k+1} = 0$, then L would be linearly dependent. Otherwise $u_{k+1} \neq 0$ and so $\{u_{k+1}\}$ is linearly independent. By inductive hypothesis, we also know that $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\}$ is linearly independent. Since $\text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}) \cap \text{span}(\{u_{k+1}\}) = \{0\}$ and that the two sets are disjoint, we know that $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\} \cup \{u_{k+1}\}$ is linearly independent. This ends our induction proof.

Note that we cannot have $S \neq L$ since S could be an infinite set. Since L is a subset of V where $\dim(V) = n$, L can be extended into a basis for V by Corollary 2 of the Replacement Theorem that contains exactly n vectors. ■

(b) Prove that S contains at least n vectors.

Proof. Denote the basis constructed from part (a) as β. Since β is a basis for V, β must contain exactly n vectors. Since $\beta \subseteq S$ and S is a generating set for V, then S must contain at least n vectors. ■

Exercise 1.6.21

Prove that a vectors space is infinite-dimensional if and only if it contains an infinite linearly independent subset.

Proof. Let V be a vector space. For the forwards direction, suppose V is an infinite-dimensional vector space. By definition, V contains a basis β that is infinite-dimensional. By definition, β is also linearly independent. Thus, V contains an infinite linearly independent set.

For the backwards direction, we proceed using the converse. Suppose V is a finite-dimensional vector space. Let $\dim(V) = n$. By definition, V contains a basis β that contains exactly n vectors. Since β is also linearly independent, β is a finite linearly independent subset. ■

Exercise 1.6.22

Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a finite-dimensional vector space V. Determine the necessary and sufficient conditions on W_1 and W_2 so that $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_1)$.

Proof. We must have $W_1 \subseteq W_2$ in order for $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_1)$. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a finite dimensional vector space V. Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces, we must also have $W_1 \cap W_2$ as a subspace. Hence, $W_1 \cap W_2$ is finite-dimensional by Theorem 1.11. This implies that $W_1 \cap W_2$ contains a basis β containing exactly $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2)$ vectors. Since β is a linearly independent subset of W_1, we know that β must contain at most $\dim(W_1)$ vectors. Hence, we have $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) \leq \dim(W_1)$. Since $W_1 \cup W_2$, then $W_1 \subseteq W_1 \cap W_2$. Since W_1 is finite-dimensional, let α be a basis containing exactly $\dim(W_1)$ vectors. Since $\alpha \subseteq W_1 \cap W_2$ and α is a linearly independent set, α must contain at most $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2)$ amount of vectors. Hence, $\dim(W_1) \leq \dim(W_1 \cap W_2)$. Thus, we have $\dim(W_1) = \dim(W_1 \cap W_2)$.

Conversely, we have $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_1)$. By Theorem 1.11, we have $W_1 \cap W_2 = W_1$. Since $W_1 \cap W_2 \subseteq W_2$, we know that $W_1 \subseteq W_2$. ■

Exercise 1.6.23

Let $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v$ be vectors in a vector space V, and define $W_1 = \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\})$, and $W_2 = \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v\})$.

(a) Find necessary and sufficient conditions on v such that $\dim(W_1) = \dim(W_2)$.

Proof. The condition we need is $v \in W_1$. Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces, we also have $W_1 \cap W_2$ is a subspace. Hence, theorem 1.11 tells us that $W_1 \cap W_2$ is also finite-dimensional. Suppose $v \in W_1$. Since $v \in W_2$ as well, we have that $W_1 \subseteq W_2$. Now let $v \in W_2$. Then choose scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k$ such that

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \cdots + a_nv_k = v.$$

But this tells us that $v \in W_1$. So, $W_2 \subseteq W_1$ and thus $W_1 = W_2$. By theorem 1.11, $\dim(W_1) = \dim(W_2)$.

Conversely, $\dim(W_1) = \dim(W_2)$. Since $v \in W_2$, this also means that $v \in W_1$ since $W_1 = W_2$ by theorem 1.11. ■

(b) State and prove a relationship involving $\dim(W_1)$ and $\dim(W_2)$ in the case that $\dim(W_1) \neq \dim(W_2)$.

Proof. If $\dim(W_1) \neq \dim(W_2)$, then $v \notin W_1$. This is just the contrapositive of the statement above. ■

Exercise 1.6.24

Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial of degree n in $P_n(\mathbb{R})$. Prove that for any $g(x) \in P_n(\mathbb{R})$ there exists scalars $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_n$ such that

$$g(x) = c_0f(x) + c_1f^{(1)}(x) + c_2f^{(2)}(x) + \cdots + c_nf^{(n)}(x),$$

where $f^{(n)}(x)$ denotes the nth derivative of $f(x)$.

Proof. Since f is differentiable n times, we can construct the set

$$W = \{f(x), f^{(1)}(x), f^{(2)}(x), \ldots, f^{(n)}(x)\}$$

containing $n+1$ polynomials such that no two polynomials contain the same degree (with each derivative of $f(x)$, the degree decreases by one). Since W is a subset of $P_n(\mathbb{R})$ with no two polynomials having the same degree, we see that following the process seen in example 4 in section 1.5 shows that W is a linearly independent set containing $n+1$ vectors. Hence, W is a basis for $P_n(\mathbb{R})$ such that any $g(x) \in P_n(\mathbb{R})$ by Theorem 1.11. Consequently, $g(x)$ can be expressed in terms of the vectors in W such that

$$g(x) = c_0f(x) + c_1f^{(1)}(x) + c_2f^{(2)}(x) + \cdots + c^nf^{(n)}(x)$$

for unique scalars $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_n$ by Theorem 1.8. ■

Exercise 1.6.29

(a) Prove that if W_1 and W_2 are finite-dimensional subspaces of a vector space V, then the subspace $W_1 + W_2$ is finite-dimensional, and $\dim(W_1 + W_2) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(W_1 \cap W_2)$.

Proof. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V. Since W_1 and W_2 are finite-dimensional, we also know that $W_1 + W_2$ is finite-dimensional. Now, we will show that

$$\dim(W_1 + W_2) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(W_1 \cap W_2).$$

Consider $W_1 \cap W_2$ and note that $W_1 \cap W_2$ being finite-dimensional implies that it contains a basis $\beta_0 = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\}$. We can extend β_0 into a basis for W_1 by adding vectors $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m$ into β_0. Denote this new set as β_1. Likewise, we add vectors $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p$ into β_0 to make a basis β_2 for W_2. We claim that $\beta = \beta_0 \cup \beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a basis for $W_1 + W_2$. First, we will show that β is linearly independent. To do this, we need to show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i u_i + \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j v_j + \sum_{\ell=1}^{p} \gamma_\ell w_\ell = 0. \tag{1}$$

Subtracting the third term on both sides of (1) produces the following equation:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k} a_i u_i + \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j v_j = -\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} \gamma_\ell w_\ell.$$

Observe that the left-hand side is an element of W_1 while the other side is an element of W_2. Hence, we know that the term on the right-hand side of (1) is also an element of $W_1 \cap W_2$. This implies that

$$-\sum_{\ell=1}^{p} \gamma_\ell w_\ell = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_i u_i$$

which can be re-written as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_i u_i + \sum_{\ell=1}^{p} \gamma_\ell w_\ell = 0.$$

Since β_2 is a basis for W_2, we know that $\delta_i = 0$ and $\gamma_\ell = 0$ implying that $a_i = 0$ and $\gamma_\ell = 0$. We can re-write (1) in the following form:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k} a_i u_i + \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j v_j = 0. \tag{2}$$

Since β_1 is a linearly independent set, we get that $a_i = 0$ and $b_j = 0$. Hence, (1) contains the trivial-representation which implies that $\beta = \beta_0 \cup \beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a linearly independent set.

Now, we will show that β spans $W_1 + W_2$. Observe that $\operatorname{span}(\beta) \subseteq W_1 + W_2$. Now, we will show $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq \operatorname{span}(\beta)$. Suppose we take a vector $v \in W_1 + W_2$ that is not in β and adjoin this vector in β. Note that $\beta \cup \{v\}$ produces a linearly dependent set that by which Theorem 1.7 implies that $v \in \operatorname{span}(\beta)$ and we are done. Hence, β spans $W_1 + W_2$ and thus β is a basis.

Note that β contains exactly $m+p+k$ vectors. Hence, denote $\dim(W_1+W_2) = m+p+k$ which can be re-written as

$$\begin{aligned}
\dim(W_1 + W_2) &= m + p + k \\
&= (k + m) + (k + p) - k \\
&= \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(W_1 \cap W_2).
\end{aligned}$$

■

(b) Let W_1 and W_2 be finite-dimensional subspaces of a vector space V, and let $V = W_1 + W_2$. Deduce that V is the direct sum of W_1 and W_2 if and only if $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)$.

Proof. Suppose V is a direct sum of W_1 and W_2. Then $V = W_1 + W_2$ and $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$. We need to show that $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)$. Since $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$, we know that it contains the empty set $\emptyset$ as the basis for $W_1 \cap W_2$. Hence, $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = 0$. Using the formula derived in part (a), we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\dim(V) &= \dim(W_1 + W_2)\\ &= \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(W_1 \cap W_2)\\ &= \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)\end{aligned}$$

and we are done.

Conversely, $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)$ implies that $V = W_1 + W_2$. Using part (a) again, we see that the sum $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - 0$ implies that $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = 0$ and hence $W_1 \cap W_2$ must be equal to the zero set $\{0\}$ (which we know by definition that $\mathrm{span}(\emptyset) = \{0\}$. Hence, V is a direct sum of W_1 and W_2. ■

Exercise 1.6.31

Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a vector space V having dimensions m and n, respectively, where $m \geq n$.

(a) Prove that $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) \leq n$.

Proof. Observe that W_1 and W_2 being subspaces of V implies that $W_1 \cap W_2$ is a subspace of V. Hence, $W_1 \cap W_2$ is finite-dimensional. Denote $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = k$ and let β be a basis for $W_1 \cap W_2$. Since $W_1 \cap W_2 \subseteq W_2$, we know that β must contain at most $\dim(W_2) = n$. Hence, $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) \leq n$. ■

(b) Prove that $\dim(W_1 + W_2) \leq m + n$.

Proof. Using the formula found in part (a) of Exercise 1.3.29, part (a) of this exercise, and $\dim(W_1) \geq \dim(W_2)$, we find that

$$\dim(W_1 + W_2) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_1) - \dim(W_1 \cap W_2) \leq \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2).$$

■

Exercise 1.6.33

(a) Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of a vector space V such that $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$. If β_1 and β_2 are bases for W_1 and W_2, respectively, show that $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a basis for V.

Proof. Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V. Assume β_1 and β_2 are bases for W_1 and W_2 respectively. We need to show that $\beta_1 \cap \beta_2 = \emptyset$ and $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a basis for V.

Since β_1 and β_2 contain distinct linearly independent vectors, we must have $\beta_1 \cap \beta_2 = \emptyset$. Since V is a direct sum of the W_1 and W_2, we know that $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$ by definition. Since β_1 and β_2 generate W_1 and W_2 respectively, we must have $\mathrm{span}(\beta_1) \cap \mathrm{span}(\beta_2) = \{0\}$. Now, we have the set $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ as a linearly independent set by exercise 1.5.21. Observe that $\mathrm{span}(\beta_1 \cup \beta_2) \subseteq V$ follows immediately. Now, take any $v \in V$ that is not in $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ such that adjoining this vector $v \in V$ produces a linearly dependent set. By Theorem 1.7, we have $v \in \mathrm{span}(\beta_1 \cup \beta_2)$. Thus, we have $V \subseteq \mathrm{span}(\beta_1 \cup \beta_2)$. Hence, $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a generating set for V and we are done. ■

(b) Conversely, let β_1 and β_2 be disjoint bases for subspaces W_1 and W_2, respectively, of a vector space V. Prove that if $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a basis for V, then $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$.

Proof. Let β_1 and β_2 be disjoint bases for subspaces W_1 and W_2 respectively. Suppose $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a basis for V. This tells us that $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is linearly independent. Thus, $\text{span}(\beta_1) \cap \text{span}(\beta_2) = \{0\}$ and hence $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$ since $\text{span}(\beta_1) = W_1$ and $\text{span}(\beta_2) = W_2$. This tells us that $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = 0$. Using the fact that $\beta_1 \cup \beta_2$ is a basis for V that contains exactly $\dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)$, we get that

$$\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2).$$

By part (b) of Exercise 1.6.29, we get that $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$. ■

Exercise 1.6.34

(a) Prove that if W_1 is any subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V, then there exists a subspace W_2 of V such that $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$.

Proof. Since W_1 is a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V, we know that W_1 is also finite-dimensional and $\dim(W_1) \leq \dim(V)$ by Theorem 1.11. Thus, let β be a basis for W_1 and let α be a basis for V. Since α is a generating set consisting of $\dim(V)$ vectors and β is a linearly independent subset of V, we can find a subset σ of α consisting of $\dim(V) - \dim(W_1)$ vectors such that $\beta \cup \sigma$ generates V by the Replacement Theorem. Suppose σ is a basis for a subspace of V denoted by W_2 for which $\dim(W_2) = \dim(V) - \dim(W_1)$. Note that $\beta \cup \sigma$ contains exactly $\dim(V)$ vectors so it is also a basis for V and that $\beta \cap \sigma = \emptyset$. Hence, $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)$ for which it implies that $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$. ■

(b) Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $W_1 = \{(a_1, 0) : a_1 \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Give examples of two different subspaces W_2 and W_2' such that $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$ and $V = W_1 \oplus W_2'$.

Proof. **TO DO.** ■

Exercise 1.6.35

Let W be a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V, and consider the basis $\beta_0 = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\}$ for W. Let $\beta_1 = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, u_{k+1}, \ldots, u_n\}$ be an extension of this basis to a basis for V.

(a) Prove that $\beta_2 = \{u_{k+1} + W, u_{k+2} + W, \ldots, u_n + W\}$ is a basis for V/W.

Proof. To show that β_2 is a basis, we need to show that β_2 is a linearly independent set and a generating set for V. Observe that

$$\sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \delta_j (u_j + W) = W \tag{1}$$

for scalars δ_j for $k+1 \leq j \leq n$. Note that W, in this case, is the zero vector of V/W. Hence, (1) implies that

$$\left[\sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \delta_j u_j \right] + W = W. \tag{2}$$

This implies that

$$\sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \delta_j u_j \in W. \tag{3}$$

Since W contains β_0 as a basis, we can write

$$\sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \delta_j u_j = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i u_i$$

for scalars γ_i for all $1 \leq i \leq k$ which can be re-written to

$$\sum_{j=k+1}^{n} \delta_j u_j - \sum_{j=1}^{k} \gamma_i u_i = 0$$

where all $\delta_j = 0$ and $\gamma_i = 0$ since β_1 is a basis for V. Since all $\delta_j = 0$, we get that β_2 is a linearly independent set.

To show that β_2 is a generating set for V/W, we need to show that $\text{span}(\beta_2) = V/W$. Note that the containment $\text{span}(\beta_2) \subseteq V/W$. To show that other containment, let $v \in V$ not in β_2. Observe that adjoining v to β_2 creates a linearly dependent set. By Theorem 1.7, we have $v \in \text{span}(\beta_2)$. Hence, $V \subseteq \text{span}(\beta_2)$.

■

(b) Derive a formula relating $\dim(V), \dim(W)$, and $\dim(V/W)$.

Proof. In part (a), we see that β_2 contains n amount of vectors. Unioning this set with β_1 creates a basis for V that contains $\dim(W) + \dim(V/W)$ vectors. Hence, we must have

$$\dim(V/W) = \dim(V) - \dim(W).$$

■

Chapter 2

Linear Transformations and Matrices

2.1 Linear Transformations, Null spaces, and Ranges

Exercise 2.1.1

Label the following statements as true or false. In each part, V and W are finite-dimensional vector spaces (over F), and T is a function from V to W.

(a) If T is linear, then T preserves sums and scalar products.

> **Solution.** True. This is by definition. ■

(b) If $T(x+y) = T(x) + T(y)$, then T is linear.

> **Solution.** False. We also need to have $T(cx) = cT(x)$ where $x \in V$ and $c \in F$ in order for T to be a linear map. ■

(c) If T is one-to-one if and only if the only vector x such that $T(x) = 0$ is $x = 0$.

> **Solution.** True. This is Theorem 2.2. ■

(d) If T is linear, then $T(0_V) = 0_W$.

> **Solution.** True by properties of linear maps. ■

(e) If T is linear, then $\text{nullity}(T) + \text{rank}(T) = \dim(W)$.

> **Solution.** False. This only happens when V and W have equal equal dimensions. ■

(f) If T is linear, then T carries linearly independent subsets of V onto linearly independent subsets of W.

> **Solution.** False. We need T to be injective in order to make this valid. ■

(g) If $T, U : V \to W$ are both linear and agree on a basis for V, then $T = U$.

> **Solution.** True by Corollary to Theorem 2.6. ■

(h) Given $x_1, x_2 \in V$ and $y_1, y_2 \in W$, there exists a linear transformation $T : V \to W$ such that $T(x_1) = y_1$ and $T(x_2) = y_2$.

Solution. False. We need to have a basis for V. ■

For Exercises 2 through 6, prove that T is a linear transformation, and find bases for both $N(T)$ and $R(T)$. Then compute the nullity and rank of T, and verify the dimension theorem. Finally, use the appropriate theorems in this section to determine whether T is injective or surjective.

Exercise 2.1.2

$T : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $T(a_1, a_2, a_3) = (a_1 - a_2, 2a_3)$.

Solution. Our first goal is to show that T is linear. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ where $x = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$ and $y = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
T(cx + y) &= T(ca_1 + b_1, ca_2 + b_2, ca_3 + b_3) \\
&= ([ca_1 + b_1] - [ca_2 - b_2], 2(ca_3 + b_3)) \\
&= ([ca_1 - ca_2] + [b_1 - b_2], 2ca_3 + 2b_3) \\
&= (c(a_1 - a_2), 2ca_3) + (b_1 - b_2, 2b_3) \\
&= c(a_1 - a_2, 2a_3) + (b_1 - b_2, 2b_3) \\
&= cT(x) + T(y).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is linear. Now, let's compute the bases for both $N(T)$ and $R(T)$. To compute $N(T)$, we need to have all the solutions needed for

$$T(a_1, a_2, a_3) = (a_1 - a_2, 2a_3) = 0$$

to hold. Solving the equation above gives us the following solutions

$$a_1 = a_2 \text{ and } a_3 = 0.$$

Hence, for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$N(T) = \{(a, a, 0) : a \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Note that $N(T)$ is generated by the linearly independent set $\{(1, 1, 0)\}$. Thus, $\{(1, 1, 0)\}$ is a basis for $N(T)$ and contains 1 vector. So, $\text{nullity}(T) = 1$ by the Dimension Theorem. This immediately tells us that T is not injective since $\text{nullity}(T) \neq 0$ and hence $\text{rank}(T) = 2$. But $\text{rank}(T) = \dim(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Hence, T must be surjective. Since $R(T) = \mathbb{R}^2$, the basis is just $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$. ■

Exercise 2.1.8

$T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ defined by $T(a_1, a_2) = (a_1 + a_2, 0, 2a_1 - a_2)$.

Solution. First, we show that T is linear. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $x = (a_1, a_2)$ and $y = (b_1, b_2)$. Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Note that

$$cx + y = (ca_1 + b_1, ca_2 + b_2).$$

Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx+y) &= \Big((ca_1+b_1)+(ca_2+b_2), 0, 2(ca_1+b_1)-(ca_2+b_2)\Big) \\ &= \Big(c(a_1+a_2)+(b_1+b_2), 0, c(2a_1-a_2)+(b_1-b_2)\Big) \\ &= (c(a_1+a_2), c(2a_1-a_2))+(b_1+b_2, 2b_1-b_2) \\ &= c(a_1+a_2, 2a_1-a_2)+(b_1+b_2, 2b_1-b_2) \\ &= cT(x)+T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is linear. ■

Exercise 2.1.7

Prove properties $1, 2, 3$, and 4 on page 65.

Proof. See proof in notes. ■

Exercise 2.1.8

Prove that the transformations in Example 2 and 3 are linear.

Proof. First we prove that $T_\theta : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by

$$T_\theta(a_1, a_2) = (a_1\cos\theta - a_2\sin\theta, a_1\cos\theta + a_2\sin\theta)$$

is linear. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $x = (a_1, a_2)$ and $y = (b_1, b_2)$. Let $c \in F$ such that $cx = (ca_1, ca_2)$. To make the computation less difficult, we have

$$cx + y = (ca_1 + b_1, ca_2 + b_2).$$

Using the definition T_θ now, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} T_\theta(cx+y) &= ((ca_1+b_1)\cos\theta - (ca_2+b_2)\sin\theta, \\ &(ca_1+b_1)\cos\theta + (ca_2+b_2)\sin\theta) \\ &= (c(a_1\cos\theta - a_2\sin\theta) + (b_1\cos\theta - b_2\sin\theta), \\ &c(a_1\cos\theta + a_2\sin\theta) + (b_1\cos\theta + b_2\sin\theta)) \\ &= c(a_1\cos\theta - a_2\sin\theta, a_1\cos\theta + a_2\sin\theta) \\ &+ (b_1\cos\theta - b_2\sin\theta, b_1\cos\theta + b_2\sin\theta) \\ &= cT_\theta(a_1, a_2) + T_\theta(b_1, b_2) \\ &= cT_\theta(x) + T_\theta(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we get that T_θ is linear.

Using the same process, we show that $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $T(a_1, a_2) = (a_1, -a_2)$ is linear. That is, we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx+y) &= (ca_1+b_1, -(ca_2+b_2)) \\ &= (ca_1+b_1, -ca_2-b_2) \\ &= c(a_1, -a_2) + (b_1, -b_2) \\ &= cT(a_1, a_2) + T(b_1, b_2) \\ &= cT(x) + T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is also linear.

Now, let's compute $N(T)$. We need to find solutions to the scalars a_1 and a_2 such that

$$(a_1 + a_2, 0, 2a_1 - a_2) = (0, 0, 0).$$

Equating entries, we get the following system of linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 + a_2 &= 0 \\ 2a_1 - a_2 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Using elimination, we get that $a_1 = 0$ and $a_2 = 0$. This tells us that $N(T) = \{0\}$ and that T is injective by Theorem 2.4. Note that $\emptyset$ is a basis for $N(T)$. Furthermore, $N(T) = \{0\}$ tells us that nullity$(T) = 0$. Using the dimension theorem, this means that rank$(T) = 2$.

To find the basis of $R(T)$, note that $\beta = \{(1,0),(0,1)\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$ and that $T(\beta)$ generates $R(T)$. Thus,

$$T(\beta) = \{(1,0,2),(1,0,-1)\}$$

which solving the following equation

$$a(1,0,2) + b(1,0,-1) = (0,0,0)$$

for scalars a and b yields $a = 0$ and $b = 0$. Hence, $T(\beta)$ is a basis for $R(T)$. ■

Exercise 2.1.10

Suppose that $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ is linear, $T(1,0) = (1,4)$, and $T(1,1) = (2,5)$.

Solution. First, observe that $(2,3) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ can be expressed in terms of a linear combination of $(1,0)$ and $(1,1)$. Hence, we need to find scalars $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$a(1,0) + b(1,1) = (2,3).$$

Solving for the scalars gives us the solutions $a = -1$ and $b = 3$. Since T is linear, we can now compute $T(2,3)$ by doing the following:

$$\begin{aligned} T(2,3) &= T(-(1,0) + 3(1,1)) \\ &= -T(1,0) + 3T(1,1) \\ &= -(1,4) + 3(2,5) \\ &= (5,11). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we get that $T(2,3) = (5,11)$.

Note that the domain and codomain have equal finite dimensions. Hence, Theorem 2.5 tells us that T must be one-to-one (injective). ■

Exercise 2.1.11

Prove that there exists a linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ such that $T(1,1) = (1,0,2)$ and $T(2,3) = (1,-1,4)$. What is $T(8,11)$?

Solution. Note that $\beta = \{(1,0),(0,1)\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$. By Theorem 2.6, T being linear implies that there exists a unique linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ such that $T(1,1) =$

$(1, 0, 2)$ and $T(2, 3) = (1, -1, 4)$.

To compute $T(8, 11)$, we need to find scalars $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$a(1, 1) + b(2, 3) = (8, 11).$$

Solving for a and b gives us the following linear combination:

$$2(1, 1) + 3(2, 3) = (8, 11).$$

Since T is linear, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} T(8, 11) &= T(2(1, 1) + 3(2, 3)) \\ &= 2T(1, 1) + 3T(2, 3) \\ &= 2(1, 0, 2) + 3(1, -1, 4) \\ &= (5, -3, 16) \end{aligned}$$

■

Exercise 2.1.13

Let V and W be vector spaces, let $T : V \to W$ be linear, and let $\{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_k\}$ be a linearly independent subset of $R(T)$. If $S = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ is chosen so that $T(v_i)$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ then S is linearly independent.

Proof. Consider

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i v_i = 0 \tag{1}$$

for some scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k \in F$. In order to show that S is linearly independent, we need to show that $a_i = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. Since T is linear, we get that $T(0) = 0$ implies

$$T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i v_i\Big) = 0.$$

Since T is linear and S is chosen so that $T(v_i) = w_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$, we get that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i T(v_i) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i w_i = 0.$$

Since $\{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_k\}$ is linearly independent, we must have $a_i = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. But this tell us that (1) must have the trivial representation. Hence, S must also be linearly independent. ■

Exercise 2.1.14

Let V and W be vector spaces and $T : V \to W$ be linear.

(a) Prove that T is injective if and only if T carries linearly independent subsets of V onto linearly independent subsets of W.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Let T be injective. Since $\mathcal{W}$ is a linearly independent subset of W, we have $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n \in \mathcal{W}$ and scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i w_i = 0.$$

Since $T(v_i) = w_i$ and T is linear, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i) = 0 \Leftrightarrow T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i\Big) = 0$$

with $v_i \in S$ being linearly independent. Since T is injective, we must have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = 0$$

with $v_i \in S$ being linearly independent. Hence, T carries S onto $\mathcal{W}$.

($\Leftarrow$) Suppose T carries linearly independent subsets of V onto linearly independent subsets of W. Our goal is to show that T is injective. Suppose

$$T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i\Big) = T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i v_i\Big) \tag{1}$$

for some scalars a_i, b_i and vectors $v_i \in S$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. Since T is linear and $T : S \to \mathcal{W}$ is onto, we can re-write (1) into the following form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i T(v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i T(v_i) \tag{2}$$

which manipulating again, we get that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i - b_i) T(v_i) = 0. \tag{3}$$

Since $T(v_i) \in W$ and W is linearly independent, we must have $a_i - b_i = 0$ if and only if $a_i = b_i$. Hence, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i v_i$$

and so T must be injective. ■

(b) Suppose that T is injective and that S is a subset of V. Prove that S is linearly independent if and only if $T(S)$ is linearly independent.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) In order to show that $T(S)$ is linearly independent, we must show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i) = 0 \tag{1}$$

contains the trivial-representation. Since T is linear, we can write (1) into the following form

$$T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i\Big) = 0.$$

This implies that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i \in N(T).$$

Since T is injective, we know that $N(T) = \{0\}$ (by Theorem 2.4), and so we must have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = 0. \tag{2}$$

But $v_i \in S$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ is linearly independent, and so $a_i = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. This tells us that (1) contains the trivial-representation. Hence, $T(S)$ is linearly independent.

($\Rightarrow$) Suppose $T(S)$ is linearly independent. Then observe that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i) = 0$$

for some scalars a_i and $T(v_i) \in T(S)$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ such that $a_i = 0$. Since T is linear and T is injective, we can write

$$T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i\Big) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = 0.$$

Since $a_i = 0$ and $v_i \in S$, we also find that S is a linearly independent set. ■

(c) Suppose $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis for V and T is injective and surjective. Prove that $T(\beta) = \{T(v_1), T(v_2), \ldots, T(v_n)\}$ is a basis for W.

Proof. Since β is a basis for V, we get that $\text{span}(T(\beta)) = R(T)$ by Theorem 2.2. Since T is surjective, we have $R(T) = W$, so $\text{span}(T(\beta)) = W$. Hence, $T(\beta)$ generates W. Since β is a linearly independent subset of V and T is an injective linear map, we must also have $T(\beta)$ as a linearly independent subset of W by part (b). Hence, $T(\beta)$ is a basis for W. ■

Exercise 2.1.15

Recall the definition of $P(\mathbb{R})$ on page 10. Define

$$T : P(\mathbb{R}) \to P(\mathbb{R}) \text{ by } T(f(x)) = \int_0^x f(t)\, dt.$$

Prove that T is linear and injective, but not surjective.

Proof. First, we show that $T : P(\mathbb{R}) \to P(\mathbb{R})$ defined by

$$T(f(x)) = \int_0^x f(t)\, dt.$$

Let $cf(x) + g(x) \in P(\mathbb{R})$ where $c \in F$. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
T(cf(x) + g(x)) &= \int_0^x [cf(t) + g(t)]\ dt \\
&= \int_0^x cf(t)\ dt + \int_0^x g(t)\ dt \\
&= c\int_0^x f(t)\ dt + \int_0^x g(t)\ dt \\
&= cT(f(x)) + T(g(x)).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $T : P(\mathbb{R}) \to P(\mathbb{R})$ is a linear map. Let $f(x), g(x) \in P(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
T(f(x)) &= T(g(x)) \\
\int_0^x f(t)\ dt &= \int_0^x g(t)\ dt \\
\frac{d}{dx}\Big[\int_0^x f(t)\ dt\Big] &= \frac{d}{dx}\Big[\int_0^x g(t)\ dt\Big] \\
f(x) &= g(x).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is an injective map. To see why T fails to be surjective, observe that $1 \in P(\mathbb{R})$ but we cannot find a polynomial $f(x)$ such that $T(f(x)) = 1$; that is, the integration of any polynomial can never yield 1. ■

Exercise 2.1.16

Let $T : P(\mathbb{R}) \to P(\mathbb{R})$ be defined by $T(f(x)) = f'(x)$. Recall that T is linear. Prove that T is surjective, but not injective.

Proof. Let $T : P(\mathbb{R}) \to P(\mathbb{R})$ be defined by $T(f(x)) = f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}[f(x)]$. For $cf(x)+g(x) \in P(\mathbb{R})$ where $c \in F$, observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
T(cf(x) + g(x)) &= \frac{d}{dx}[cf(x) + g(x)] \\
&= \frac{d}{dx}[cf(x)] + \frac{d}{dx}[g(x)] \\
&= c\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)] + \frac{d}{dx}[g(x)] \\
&= cT(f(x)) + T(g(x)).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is a linear map. Now, we want to show that T is surjective. Define

$$f(x) = \int_0^x g(t)\ dt.$$

Then

$$T(f(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}[f(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}\Big[\int_0^x g(t)\ dt\Big] = g(x)$$

by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Hence, T is surjective.

To show that T is not injective, let $x^n + a, x^n + b \in P(\mathbb{R})$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a \neq b$ and $n > 0$. Clearly, we have $x^n + a \neq x^n + b$. But, we have

$$T(x^n + a) = \frac{d}{dx}[x^n + a] = nx^{n-1}$$

and

$$T(x^n + b) = \frac{d}{dx}[x^n + b] = nx^{n-1}.$$

Note that $x^n + a \neq x^n + b$ yet $T(x^n + a) = T(x^n + b)$. Hence, T is not injective. ■

Exercise 2.1.17

Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces and $T : V \to W$ be linear.

(a) Prove that if $\dim(V) < \dim(W)$, then T cannot be surjective.

Proof. Using the Dimension Theorem, we find that

$$\text{rank}(T) = \dim(V) - \text{nullity}(T).$$

Since $\dim(V) < \dim(W)$, we find that

$$\text{rank}(T) < \dim(W) - \text{nullity}(T) < \dim(W).$$

Hence, T cannot be surjective in this case. ■

(b) Prove that if $\dim(V) > \dim(W)$, then T cannot be injective.

Proof. Using the Dimension Theorem again and $\dim(V) > \dim(W)$, we find that

$$\text{nullity}(T) = \dim(V) - \text{rank}(T) > \dim(W) - \text{rank}(T) > 0.$$

This means that $\text{nullity}(T)$ can never be zero, otherwise T is injective. Hence, T can never be injective if $\dim(V) > \dim(W)$. ■

Exercise 2.1.20

Let V and W be vector spaces with subspaces V_1 and W_1, respectively. If $T : V \to W$ is linear, prove that $T(V_1)$ is a subspace of W and that $\{x \in V : T(x) \in W_1\}$ is a subspace of V.

Proof. First, we prove that $T(V_1)$ is a subspace of W. Let $x, y \in T(V_1)$ and $c \in F$. Since V_1 is a subspace of V, we know that $0_V \in V_1$, $x + y \in V_1$, and $cx \in V_1$. Observe that $T(0_V) = 0_W$ since T is linear. Hence, $0_W \in T(V_1)$. Let $x, y \in T(V_1)$. There exists $z, w \in V_1$ such that $x = T(z)$ and $y = T(w)$. Since $z + w \in V_1$ and T is linear, we must have $T(z + w) = T(z) + T(w) = x + y$. This tells us that $x + y \in T(V_1)$. Now, let $c \in F$. Since $cz \in V_1$ and T is linear, we must have $T(cz) = cT(z) = cx$. Hence, $cx \in T(V_1)$. Thus, $T(V_1)$ is a subspace of W.

Now, we show $S = \{x \in V : T(x) \in W_1\}$ is a subspace of V. Since $0_W \in W_1$ (because W_1 is a subspace of W) and T is linear, we have that $T(0_V) = 0_W$. Hence, $0_V \in S$. Now, let $x, y \in S$. Hence, $T(x), T(y) \in W_1$ implies $T(x) + T(y) \in W_1$ since W_1 is a subspace of W. Since T is linear, we have $T(x) + T(y) = T(x + y)$, and so $x + y \in S$. Now, let $c \in F$ and $x \in S$. Again, W_1 is a subspace so $cT(x) \in W_1$. Thus, T being linear implies that $cT(x) = T(cx)$. Hence, $cx \in S$. Thus, S is a subspace of V. ■

Exercise 2.1.21

Let V be the vector space of sequences described in Example 5 of Section 1.2. Define the functions $T, U : V \to V$ by

$$T(a_1, a_2, \dots) = (a_2, a_3, \dots) \quad \text{and} \quad U(a_1, a_2, \dots) = (0, a_1, a_2, \dots).$$

T and U are called the **left shift** and **right shift** operators on V, respectively.

(a) Prove that T and U are linear.

Proof. Let $(x_n), (y_n) \in V$ with $(x_n) = (a_1, a_2, \dots)$ and $(y_n) = (b_1, b_2, \dots)$. Let $c \in F$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx_n + y_n) &= (ca_2 + b_2, ca_3 + b_3, \dots) \\ &= (ca_2, ca_3, \dots) + (b_2, b_3, \dots) \\ &= c(a_2, a_3, \dots) + (b_2, b_3, \dots) \\ &= cT(x_n) + T(y_n). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $T : V \to V$ is a linear map.

Now with $U : V \to V$ observe that

$$\begin{aligned} U(cx_n + y_n) &= (0, ca_1 + b_1, ca_2 + b_1, \dots) \\ &= (0, ca_1, ca_2, \dots) + (0, b_1, b_2, \dots) \\ &= c(0, a_1, a_2, \dots) + (0, b_1, b_2, \dots) \\ &= cU(x_n) + U(y_n). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $U : V \to V$ is a linear map. ■

(b) Prove that T is surjective, but not injective.

Proof. Let $\{b_n\} \in V$. Define this sequence as

$$\{b_n\} = (b_1, b_2, \dots).$$

We can construct a sequence such that $b_i = a_{i+1}$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence,

$$(b_1, b_2, \dots) = (a_2, a_3, \dots).$$

By definition of T, we get that

$$T(a_1, a_2, \dots) = (a_2, a_3, \dots) = (b_1, b_2, \dots).$$

Since $\{b_n\} \in V$, we get that T is surjective.

To see why T is not injective, suppose we take two sequences distinct $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\} \in V$ defined by

$$\{x_n\} = (a, 0, 0, \dots) \text{ and } \{y_n\} = (b, 0, 0, \dots)$$

respectively. But we have $T(\{x_n\}) = 0_n = T(\{y_n\})$ where 0_n is the sequence with all terms being zero. Hence, T cannot be injective. ■

(c) Prove that U is injective, but not surjective.

Proof. Let $\{a_n\}, \{b_n\} \in V$ defined by

$$\{a_n\} = (a_1, a_2, \dots) \text{ and } \{b_n\} = (b_1, b_2, \dots).$$

Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned} U(a_1, a_2, \dots) &= U(b_1, b_2, \dots) \\ (0, a_1, a_2, \dots) &= (0, b_1, b_2, \dots). \end{aligned}$$

Equating entries, we get that $a_i = b_i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and so, $\{a_n\} = \{b_n\}$. Hence, U is injective.

Observe that $(x_1, 0, 0, \dots) \in V$ but there does not exists a sequence $\{x_n\} \in V$ such that $U(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (x_1, 0, 0)$. Hence, U is not surjective. ■

Exercise 2.1.22

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ be linear. Show that there exist scalars a, b, and c such that $T(x, y, z) = ax + by + cz$ for all $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Can you generalize this result for $T : F^n \to F$? State and prove an analogous result for $T : F^n \to F^m$.

Proof. Let $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ arbitrary. Observe that

$$(x, y, z) = (x, 0, 0) + (0, y, 0) + (0, 0, z) = xe_1 + ye_2 + ze_3.$$

since $\beta = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Since T is linear, we know, by Theorem 2.2, that $\operatorname{span}(T(\beta)) = R(T)$. So, we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(x, y, z) &= T(xe_1 + ye_2 + ze_3) \\ &= T(e_1)x + T(e_2)y + T(e_3)z. \end{aligned}$$

Since $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$, we know that $T(e_1), T(e_2), T(e_3) \in \mathbb{R}$ are just scalars, so denote $T(e_1) = a, T(e_2) = b, T(e_3) = c$. Hence, we have

$$T(x, y, z) = ax + by + cz.$$

Now for the nth case, our basis β for F^n now contains n. So, we have

$$T(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n$$

for some scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in F$ using the same argument above. ■

Exercise 2.1.23

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ be linear. Describe geometrically the possibilities for the null space of T.

Proof. By definition of T described in Exercise 2.1.22, the null space is the described as the set

$$N(T) = \{ax + by + cz = 0 : a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}.$$

This represents two vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ where we fix $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that we find a $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that the two vectors are perpendicular to each other. ■

Definition 2.1.1 (Projections)**.** Let V be a vector space and W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V such that $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$. A function $T : V \to V$ is called the **projection on W_1 along** W_2 if, for $x = x_1 + x_2$ with $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$, we have $T(x) = x_1$.

Exercise 2.1.24

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$. Include figures for each of the following parts.

(a) Find a formula for $T(a, b)$, where T represents the projection on the $y-$axis along the $x-$axis.

> **Solution.** Since $(a, b) = (a, 0) + (0, b)$ and T represents the projection on the $y-$axis along the $x-$axis, we must have $T(a, b) = (0, b)$ by definition of projections. ■

(b) Find a formula for $T(a, b)$, where T represents the projection on the $y-$axis along the line $L = \{(s, s) : s \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

> **Solution.** Observe that $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ can be written in the following form:
>
> $$(a, b) = (a, 0) + (0, b) = (a, a - a) + (0, b) = (0, b - a) + (a, a).$$
>
> So, $T(a, b) = (0, b - a)$ by definition of projection. ■

Exercise 2.1.25

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$.

(a) If $T(a, b, c) = (a, b, 0)$, show that T is the projection on the $xy-$plane along the $z-$axis.

> **Solution.** Observe that $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ can be written in the following form:
>
> $$(a, b, c) = \underbrace{(a, b, 0)}_{\in \mathbb{R}^2} + \underbrace{(0, 0, z)}_{\text{z-axis}}. \tag{1}$$
>
> Since $T(a, b, c) = (a, b, 0)$, we know that T represents the projection on the $xy-$plane along the $z-$axis. ■

(b) Find a formula for $T(a, b, c)$, where T represents the projection on the $z-$axis along the $xy-$plane.

> **Solution.** Let $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Then the projection on the $z-$axis along the $xy-$plane should be $T(a, b, c) = (0, 0, c)$ since $(a, b, c) = (a, b, 0) + (0, 0, c)$ where $(a, b, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $(0, 0, c)$ is a point on the $z-$axis. ■

(c) If $T(a, b, c) = (a - c, b, 0)$, show that T is the projection on the $xy-$plane along the line $L = \{(a, 0, a) : a \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

> **Solution.** Let $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Then we can write this vector in the following way:
>
> $$\begin{aligned}(a, b, c) &= (a, b, 0) + (0, 0, c) \\ &= (a - c + c, b, 0) + (0, 0, c) \\ &= (a - c, b, 0) + (c, 0, c)\end{aligned}$$
>
> where $(a - c, b, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $(c, 0, c) \in L$. Since $T(a, b, c) = (a - c, b, 0)$, T must be the projection on the $xy-$plane along the line L. ■

Exercise 2.1.26

Using the notation in the definition above, assume that $T : V \to V$ is the projection on W_1 along W_2.

(a) Prove that T is linear and $W_1 = \{x \in V : T(x) = x\}$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in V$. We need to show that T is linear. Since T is the projection on W_1 along W_2, we must have $x = x_1 + x_2$ and $y = y_1 + y_2$ with $T(x) = x_1$ and $T(y) = y_1$ respectively. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} cx + y &= c(x_1 + x_2) + (y_1 + y_2) \\ &= (cx_1 + y_1) + (cx_2 + y_2). \end{aligned}$$

Let $c \in F$. Since $T : V \to V$ is the projection on W_1 along W_2, we must have

$$T(cx + y) = cx_1 + y_1 = cT(x) + T(y).$$

Hence, T is linear.

Now, let's show that $W_1 = \{x \in V : T(x) = x\}$. Denote $S = \{x \in V : T(x) = x\}$. Let $x \in W_1$. Since T is the projection on W_1 along W_2 and $x = x + 0_V$, we have $T(x) = x$. Hence, $W_1 \subseteq S$. Conversely, let $x \in S$. Then $T(x) = x$. Since T is the projection on W_1 along W_2, this would mean that $x \in W_1$. Hence,

$$W_1 = \{x \in V : T(x) = x\}.$$

■

(b) Prove that $W_1 = R(T)$ and $W_2 = N(T)$.

Proof. Let's show that $W_1 = R(T)$. Let $x \in W_1$. Since $W_1 \subseteq V$, we know that $x \in V$ where $x = x + 0_V$. Since T is the projection on W_1 along W_2, we have that $T(x) = x$. Hence, $x \in R(T)$. Conversely, $x \in R(T)$. Then for some $z \in V$, we have $T(x) = z$. Since T is the projection on W_1 along W_2, we have that $x = z + 0_V$ implies that $z \in W_1$. Thus, $x \in W_1$ and so,

$$W_1 = R(T).$$

Now, let's show that $W_2 = N(T)$. Let $x \in W_2$. Since T is a projection on W_1 along W_2, we have $x = 0_V + x$ implies $T(x) = 0_V$. This tell us that $x \in N(T)$. On the other hand, assume $x \in N(T)$. Then $T(x) = 0_V$. Since $x \in V$ and $W_1 + W_2 = V$, we have $x = x_1 + x_2$ with $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$. Since $T(x) = 0_V$, either $x_1 = 0$ or $x_2 = 0$. Assume $x_2 = 0$, then $x = x_1$ and $x \in W_1$ which is a contradiction. If $x_1 = 0$, then $x_2 = x$, so $T(x_2) = 0_V$. Hence, $x \in W_2$. Thus,

$$W_2 = N(T).$$

■

(c) Describe T if $W_1 = V$.

Solution. If $W_1 = V$, then we simply have $T(x) = x$ as described in part (a). Moreover, $N(T) = \{0\}$ since $V = W_1 + W_2$ implies $N(T) = W_2 = \{0\}$. Thus, T must be injective. ■

(d) Describe T if W_1 is the zero subspace.

Solution. If W_1 is the zero subspace, then $\dim(W_1) = 0$. This implies that $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1+W_2) = \dim(W_1)+\dim(W_2)+\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_2)$ (note that $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = 0$). So, $\dim(V) = \dim(W_2)$ implies that $V = W_2$. Since T is a projection on W_1 along W_2, then $T(x) = 0_V$ for all $x \in V$. ■

Exercise 2.1.27

Suppose that W is a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V.

(a) Prove that there exists a subspace W' and a function $T : V \to V$ such that T is a projection on W along W'.

Proof. Since V is finite-dimensional and W is a subspace of V, we know by Exercise 1.6.34 that there exists a subspace W' such that $W_1 \oplus W_2 = V$. Note that any $x \in V$ can defined by $x = x_1 + x_2$ where $x_1 \in W$ and $x_2 \in W'$. Define the function

$$T : V \to V \text{ by } T(x) = x_1.$$

Since $W + W' = V$ and $W \cap W' = \{0\}$, we get a unique representation of any $x \in V$. Thus, we have that T is well-defined and that T is a projection on W along W'. ■

Remark. I am not quite sure how to show that T is a projection here. I am not sure if showing that T is well-defined is enough to do it.

(b) Give an example of a subspace W of a vector space V such that there are two projections on W along two (distinct) subspaces.

Solution. ■

Definition 2.1.2 (Invariance). Let V be a vector space, and let $T : V \to V$ be linear. A subspace W of V is said to be T**-invariant** if $T(x) \in W$ for every $x \in W$, that is, $T(W) \subseteq W$. If W is $T-$invariant, we define the **restriction of** T **on** W to be the function $T_W : W \to W$ defined by $T_W(x) = T(x)$ for all $x \in W$.

Exercises 28-32 assume that W is a subspace of a vector space V and that $T : V \to V$ is linear. *Warning:* Do not assume that W is $T-$invariant or that T is a projection unless explicitly stated.

Exercise 2.1.28

Prove that the subspaces $\{0\}, V, R(T)$, and $N(T)$ are all $T-$invariant.

Proof. (a) Let $x \in \{0\}$. Since T is linear, we must have $x = 0_V$ such that $T(0_V) = 0_V$. Hence, $\{0\}$ is $T-$invariant.

(b) Since V is a subspace of itself, and $T(x) \in V$ for all $x \in V$, we have that V is $T-$invariant.

(c) Let $x \in R(T)$. Then there exists $w \in V$ such that $T(x) = w \in R(T)$. Hence, $R(T)$ is $T-$invariant.

(d) Let $x \in N(T)$. Then by definition of $N(T)$, we have $T(x) = 0_V \in N(T)$. Hence, $N(T)$ is $T-$invariant.

■

Exercise 2.1.29

If W is $T-$invariant, prove that T_W is linear.

Proof. Since W is $T-$invariant, we have a restriction of T on W such that $T_W : W \to W$ is defined by $T_W(x) = T(x)$ for all $x \in W$. Let $cx + y \in W$. Since T is linear, we know that

$$\begin{aligned} T_W(cx+y) &= T(cx+y) \\ &= cT(x) + T(y) \\ &= cT_W(x) + T_W(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T_W is linear. ■

Exercise 2.1.30

Suppose that T is the projection on W along some subspace W'. Prove that W is $T-$invariant and that $T_W = I_W$.

Proof. Let $x \in W$. Since T is the projection on W along some subspace W', we must have $T(x) = x$. Since $x \in W$, this must imply that $T(x) \in W$ as well and so, we have that $T-$invariant. In fact, the linearity of T and W being $T-$invariant implies that T is linear (by exercise 29) and that

$$T_W(x) = T(x) = x = I_W(x)$$

for any arbitrary $x \in W$. Hence, we also have that $T_W = I_W$. ■

Exercise 2.1.31

Suppose that $V = R(T) \oplus W$ and W is $T-$invariant.

(a) Prove that $W \subseteq N(T)$.

Proof. Let $v \in V$. Since V is $T-$invariant, we must have $T(v) \in V$. Using the fact that $V = R(T) \oplus W$, and that W is $T-$invariant, $T(v)$ can be expressed in the following way:

$$T(v) = T(y) + T(w) \tag{1}$$

with $T(y) \in R(T)$ and $T(w) \in W$. Subtracting $T(y)$ on both sides and using the linearity of T, we get that

$$T(v) - T(y) = T(w) \Leftrightarrow T(v-y) = T(w).$$

Note that $T(v-y) \in R(t)$ and $T(w) \in W$. Since $R(T) \cap W = \{0\}$ and $T(w) \in R(T) \cap W$, this means that $T(w) = 0$. Hence, $W \subseteq N(T)$. ■

(b) Show that if V is finite-dimensional, then $W = N(T)$.

Proof. Since V is finite-dimensional, we can use the dimension theorem to write

$$\text{nullity}(T) + \text{rank}(T) = \dim(V).$$

Furthermore, we can use Exercise 1.6.29 and that $\dim(R(T) \cap W) = 0$ to write that

$$\begin{aligned}\dim(V) &= \dim(R(T) + W)\\ &= \operatorname{rank}(T) + \dim(W) - \dim(R(T) \cap W)\\ &= \operatorname{rank}(T) + \dim(W).\end{aligned}$$

Equating both equations we find that

$$\operatorname{nullity}(T) + \operatorname{rank}(T) = \operatorname{rank}(T) + \dim(W)$$

which implies that

$$\operatorname{nullity}(T) = \dim(W).$$

By theorem 1.11, we get that $N(T) = W$. ■

(c) Show by example that the conclusion of (b) is not necessarily true if V is not finite-dimensional.

Proof. ■

Exercise 2.1.32

Suppose that W is $T-$invariant. Prove that $N(T_W) = N(T) \cap W$ and $R(T_W) = T(W)$.

Proof. First, we show that $N(T_W) = N(T) \cap W$. Let $x \in N(T_W)$. Then $x \in W$ implies that $T_W(x) = 0_W$ by definition of $N(T_W)$. Since W is $T-$invariant, we get that $T_W(x) = T(x)$. Since $T(W) \subseteq W$, this tells us that $x \in W$. But note that $T(x) = 0_W$. Hence, we must also have $x \in N(T)$. So, $x \in N(T)$ and $x \in W$ implies that $x \in N(T) \cap W$ and thus $N(T_W) \subseteq N(T) \cap W$. Now, let $x \in N(T) \cap W$. Then $x \in N(T)$ and $x \in W$. Since $x \in N(T)$, we must have $T(x) = 0_W$. Since $x \in W$ and W is $T-$invariant, we must also have $T(x) = T_W(x) = 0_W$. Thus, $x \in N(T_W)$ and we get that $N(T) \cap W \subseteq N(T_W)$. We conclude that

$$N(T_W) = N(T) \cap W.$$

Now, let us show that $R(T_W) = T(W)$. Let $w \in R(T_W)$. Then there exists $x \in W$ such that $T_W(x) = w$. Since W is $T-$invariant, we have $T_W(x) = T(x)$ and thus $w \in T(W)$. Thus, $R(T_W) \subseteq T(W)$. Conversely, let $w \in T(W)$. It follows immediately that $w \in R(T)$. Then there exists $x \in W$ such that $T(x) = w$. Since W is $T-$invariant, we must have $T(x) = T_W(x)$. Hence, $w \in R(T_W)$ and thus $T(W) \subseteq R(T_W)$. Thus, we have

$$R(T_W) = T(W).$$

■

Exercise 2.1.33

Prove Theorem 2.2 for the case that β is infinite, that is, $R(T) = \operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\})$.

Proof. We will show that

$$R(T) = \operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\});$$

that is, we will show that both $R(T) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\})$ and $\operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\}) \subseteq R(T)$. Since $T(v) \in R(T)$ for every $v \in \beta$, we have that $R(T)$ must also contain the span of $\{T(v) : v \in \beta\}$ by Theorem 1.5. Hence, we have $\operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\}) \subseteq R(T)$.

On the other hand, let $x \in R(T)$. Then there exists some $v \in R(T)$ such that $T(v) = x$.

Since β is a basis for V, we can write $x \in V$ as a linear combination of vectors in β; that is, we can choose scalars $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$ such that

$$v = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i v_i$$

where $v_i \in \beta$ for $i \geq 1$. Since T is linear, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} T(v) &= T\Big(\sum_{i \geq 1} a_i v_i\Big) \\ &= \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i T(v_i). \end{aligned}$$

But this tells us that $w \in \operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\})$ and thus we have $R(T) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(\{T(v) : v \in \beta\})$. ∎

Exercise 2.1.34

Prove the following generalization of Theorem 2.6: Let V and W be vector spaces over a common field, and let β be a basis for V. Then for any function $f : \beta \to W$ there exists exactly one linear transformation $T : V \to W$ such that $T(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in \beta$.

Proof. Let $x \in V$. Since β is a basis for V, we can find $a_1, a_2, a_3, \cdots \in F$ such that

$$x = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i v_i$$

for $v_1, v_2, v_3, \ldots$ in β. Let $f : \beta \to W$. Define the map $T : V \to W$ such that

$$T(x) = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i f(v_i)$$

with $f(v_i) \in W$ for $i \geq 1$. We claim that T is linear. Let $cx + y \in V$ with $c \in F$. Then using β as a basis for V, we get that

$$x = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i v_i$$

and

$$y = \sum_{i \geq 1} b_i v_i$$

for $a_i, b_i \in F$ for $i \geq 1$. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx + y) &= \sum_{i \geq 1} (ca_i + b_i) f(x_i) \\ &= \sum_{i \geq 1} (ca_i) f(v_i) + \sum_{i \geq 1} b_i f(v_i) \\ &= c \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i f(v_i) + \sum_{i \geq 1} b_i f(v_i) \\ &= cT(x) + T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is linear. Now, we claim that T is a unique linear transformation. Suppose there exists $U : V \to W$ defined by

$$U(x) = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i w_i$$

with $w_i \in W$. Note $w_i \in W$ implies that $f(v_i) = w_i$ for $i \geq 1$. Thus,

$$U(x) = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i w_i = \sum_{i \geq 1} a_i f(v_i) = T(x).$$

Since $x \in V$ is arbitrary, we must have $U = T$. Hence, T is unique. ∎

Exercises 35 and 36 assume the definition of *direct sum* given in the exercises of Section 1.3.

Exercise 2.1.35

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space $T : V \to V$ be linear.

(a) Suppose that $V = R(T) + N(T)$. Prove that $V = R(T) \oplus N(T)$.

Proof. Since V is finite-dimensional, the subspaces $R(T)$ and $N(T)$ are finite-dimensional by Theorem 1.11. Using the Dimension Theorem and the fact that T is linear, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(V) &= \operatorname{rank}(T) + \operatorname{nullity}(T) \\ &= \dim(R(T)) + \dim(N(T)). \end{aligned}$$

Since $V = R(T) + N(T)$, we can use Exercise 1.6.29 to conclude that

$$V = R(T) \oplus N(T).$$

∎

(b) Suppose that $R(T) \cap N(T) = \{0\}$. Prove that $V = R(T) \oplus N(T)$.

Proof. Since V is finite-dimensional and $R(T)$ and $N(T)$ are subspaces of V, we know by Theorem 1.11 that $R(T)$ and $N(T)$ are also finite-dimensional. Thus, $R(T)+N(T)$ is subspace and is also finite-dimensional by part (a) of Exercise 1.6.29. Since $R(T) \cap N(T) = \{0\}$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(R(T) + N(T)) &= \dim(R(T)) + \dim(N(T)) - \dim(R(T) \cap N(T)) \\ &= \operatorname{rank}(T) + \operatorname{nullity}(T). \end{aligned}$$

Since V is finite-dimensional and T is linear, the Dimension Theorem states that

$$\dim(V) = \operatorname{rank}(T) + \operatorname{nullity}(T).$$

But this tells us that

$$\dim(R(T) + N(T)) = \dim(V).$$

This implies that $R(T)+N(T) = V$ by Theorem 1.11. Together with $R(T) \cap N(T) = \{0\}$, we have that

$$V = R(T) \oplus N(T).$$

∎

Be careful to say in each part where finite-dimensional is used.

Exercise 2.1.36

Let V and T be as defined in Exercise 21.

(a) Prove that $V = R(T)+N(T)$, but V is not a direct sum of these two spaces. Thus the result of Exercise 35(a) above cannot be proved without assuming that V is finite-dimensional.

(b) Find a linear operator T_1 on V such that $R(T_1) \cap N(T_1) = \{0\}$ but V is not a direct sum of $R(T_1)$ and $N(T_1)$. Conclude that V being finite-dimensional is also essential in Exercise 35(b).

Definition 2.1.3 (Additive). A function $T : V \to W$ between vector spaces V and W is called **additive** if $T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$ for all $x, y \in V$.

Exercise 2.1.37

Prove that if V and W are vector spaces over the field of rational numbers, then any additive function from V into W is a linear transformation.

Proof. Let $T : V \to W$ be an additive function from V into W where V and W are vector spaces over $\mathbb{Q}$. Let $c \in \mathbb{Q}$ and let $x, y \in V$. Then we can find $u = T(cx)$ and $v = T(x)$ such that

$$c = \frac{u}{v} = \frac{T(cx)}{T(x)} \Leftrightarrow cT(x) = T(cx)$$

with $v \neq 0$. Using the additivity of T, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx + y) &= T(cx) + T(y) \\ &= cT(x) + T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is linear. ■

Exercise 2.1.38

Let $T : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ be the function defined by $T(z) = \overline{z}$. Prove that T is additive but not linear.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $x = \delta_1 + \delta_2 i$ and $y = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 i$ for $\delta_1, \delta_2, \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. By definition of T, we know that

$$T(x) = \overline{x} = \delta_1 - \delta_2 i$$

and

$$T(y) = \overline{y} = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 i.$$

Note that

$$x + y = (\delta_1 + \varepsilon_1) + (\delta_2 + \varepsilon_2)i.$$

By definition of T, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} T(x + y) &= (\delta_1 + \varepsilon_1) - (\delta_2 + \varepsilon_2)i \\ &= (\delta_1 - \delta_2 i) + (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 i) \\ &= T(x) + T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is an additive function.

Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$ where $z = a + bi$. Observe that $\overline{z} = a - bi$. Then

$$f(z\overline{z}) = f(a^2 + b^2) = a^2 + b^2$$

but

$$zf(\overline{z}) = (a + bi)^2 = a^2 + 2abi - b^2.$$

Hence, $f(z\overline{z}) \neq zf(\overline{z})$ implies that f is not linear. ■

Exercise 2.1.40

Let V be a vector space and W be a subspace of V. Define the mapping $\eta : V \to V/W$ by $\eta(v) = v + W$ for $v \in V$.

(a) Prove that η is a linear transformation from V onto V/W and that $N(\eta) = W$.

Proof. Let us first show that $\eta : V \to V/W$ is a linear transformation. Let $cx + y \in V$. By the operations defined on η, we must have

$$\begin{aligned}\eta(cx + y) &= (cx + y) + W \\ &= (cx + W) + (y + W) \\ &= c(x + W) + (y + W) \\ &= c\eta(x) + \eta(y).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, η is a linear transformation.

Now, let us show that η is onto. Observe that $R(\eta) \subseteq V/W$. Let $x \in V/W$. Then $x = v + W$ for $v \in V$. By definition of $\eta : V \to V/W$, we have $\eta(v) = v + W$. This means that $\eta(v) = x$ which tells us that $x \in R(\eta)$. Hence, we conclude that $R(\eta) = V/W$ and hence η is onto.

Lastly, we will prove that $N(\eta) = W$. Let $x \in N(\eta)$. Then $\eta(x) = W$. By definition of η, we must have that $\eta(x) = x + W$. Hence, $x + W = W$. By Exercise 1.3.31, we get that $x \in W$. Thus, $N(\eta) \subseteq W$. On the other hand, $x \in W$ implies that $W = x + W$. By definition of η, we get that $\eta(x) = W$. Since W is the zero vector defined on V/W, we must have $x \in N(\eta)$ and hence $W \subseteq N(\eta)$. Thus, $N(\eta) = W$. ■

(b) Suppose that V is finite-dimensional. Use (a) and the dimension theorem to derive a formula relating $\dim(V)$, $\dim(W)$, and $\dim(V/W)$.

Proof. Since V is finite-dimensional, we can write

$$\dim(V) = \operatorname{rank}(\eta) + \operatorname{nullity}(\eta). \tag{1}$$

Since η is an onto function by part (a), we have $R(\eta) = V/W$ implies $\operatorname{rank}(\eta) = \dim(V/W)$ by Theorem 1.11. Furthermore, $N(\eta) = W$ implies that $\operatorname{nullity}(\eta) = \dim(W)$. Hence, (1) can be re-written in the following way:

$$\dim(V) = \dim(V/W) + \dim(W).$$

Thus, we have our desired result

$$\dim(V/W) = \dim(V) - \dim(W).$$

■

2.2 The Matrix Representation of a Linear Transformation

Exercise 2.2.1

Label the following statements as true or false. Assume that V and W are finite-dimensional vector spaces with ordered bases β and γ, respectively, and $T, U : V \to W$ are linear transformations.

(a) For any scalar a, $aT + U$ is a linear transformation from V to W.

> **Solution.** True by Theorem 2.7. ■

(b) $[T]_\beta^\gamma = [U]_\beta^\gamma$ implies $T = U$.

> **Solution.** True by corollary to Theorem 2.6. ■

(c) If $m = \dim(V)$ and $n = \dim(W)$, then $[T]_\beta^\gamma$ is an $m \times n$ matrix.

> **Solution.** True. ■

(d) $[T + U]_\beta^\gamma = [T]_\beta^\gamma + [U]_\beta^\gamma$.

> **Solution.** True by Theorem 2.8. ■

(e) $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is a vector space.

> **Solution.** True. ■

(f) $\mathcal{L}(V, W) = \mathcal{L}(W, V)$.

> **Solution.** Unless $V = W$, this statement is false. ■

Exercise 2.2.6

Complete the proof of part (b) of Theorem 2.7.

> **Proof.** See proof in notes. ■

Exercise 2.2.7

Prove part (b) of Theorem 2.8.

> **Proof.** See proof in notes. ■

Exercise 2.2.8

Let V be an n-dimensional vector space with an ordered basis β. Define $T : V \to F^n$ by $T(x) = [x]_\beta$. Prove that T is linear.

> **Proof.** Let $x, y \in V$. Since β is an ordered basis for V, we have distinct vectors $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in$

β where

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i$$

and

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i v_i$$

for scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ and $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$, respectively. Let $c \in F$. Then we have $cx+y \in V$ implies

$$cx + y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ca_i + b_i)v_i.$$

By definition T, we must have

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx+y) &= [cx+y]_\beta \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} ca_1 + b_1 \\ ca_2 + b_2 \\ \vdots \\ ca_n + b_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= c\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} \\ &= c[x]_\beta + [y]_\beta \\ &= cT(x) + T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is a linear map.

■

Exercise 2.2.9

Let V be the vector space of complex numbers over the field $\mathbb{R}$. Define $T : V \to V$ by $T(z) = \overline{z}$, where $\overline{z}$ is the complex conjugate of z. Prove that T is linear, and compute $[T]_\beta$, where $\{1, i\}$. (Compare this to Exercise 2.1.38)

Proof. Let $cx + y \in \mathbb{C}$ where $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{C}$. Observe that

$$x = a + bi \text{ and } y = v + wi$$

for $a, b, v, w \in \mathbb{R}$. So,

$$cx + y = (ca + v) + (cb + w)i$$

Furthermore, By definition of T and definition of conjugate, we write

$$\begin{aligned} T(cx+y) &= \overline{cx+y} \\ &= (ca+v) - (cb+w)i \\ &= c(a-bi) + (v-wi) \\ &= c\overline{x} + \overline{y} \\ &= cT(x) + T(y). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, T is linear. Now, let's compute $[T]_\beta$ with $\beta = \{1, i\}$ as our ordered basis for $\mathbb{C}$. So,

$$T(1) = 1 = 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot i \text{ and } T(i) = -i = 0 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot i.$$

Hence,

$$[T]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

■

Exercise 2.2.10

Let V be a vector space with the ordered basis $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$. Define $v_0 = 0$. By Theorem 2.6, there exists a linear transformation $T : V \to V$ such that $T(v_j) = v_j - v_{j-1}$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Compute $[T]_\beta$.

Solution. For $1 \leq j \leq n$, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} T(v_1) &= v_1 + v_0 = v_1 \\ T(v_2) &= v_2 + v_1 \\ T(v_3) &= v_3 + v_2 \\ &\vdots \\ T(v_n) &= v_n + v_{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then we have

$$[T]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

■

Exercise 2.2.11

Let V be an $n-$dimensional vector space, and let $T : V \to V$ be a linear transformation. Suppose that W is a $T-$invariant subspace of V having dimension k. Show that there is a basis β for V such that $[T]_\beta$ has the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ O & C \end{pmatrix},$$

where A is a $k \times k$ matrix and O is the $(n - k) \times k$ zero matrix.

Proof. Let $\dim(V) = n$. Since W is a subspace of V, let $\alpha = \{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_k\}$ be an ordered basis for W. By corollary to Theorem 1.11, we extend α to a basis for V by adding distinct and linear independent vectors $w_{k+1}, w_{k+2}, \ldots, w_n$. Denote this basis for V as β with

$$\beta = \{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n\}.$$

Hence, for $1 \leq i \leq n$ we have

$$T(w_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

Since W is $T-$invariant, we know that $T(w_j)$ for every $w_j \in W$ with $1 \leq j \leq k$. Hence, $T(w_j)$ for $1 \leq j \leq k$ can be written as a linear combination of vectors in α; that is,

$$T(w_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ij} w_i \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq k.$$

Since β is a basis for V, we know that for $k+1 \leq i \leq n$, we know that

$$T(w_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ij} w_i + \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ij} w_i + 0.$$

where $a_{ij} = 0$ for $k+1 \leq i \leq n$. Notice that the second term above, represents the O matrix that $(n-k) \times k$. On the other hand, for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $1 \leq j \leq k$ we can see that $T : W \to W$ (since W is $T-$invariant) can be represented as the matrix A that is $k \times k$. Then for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq k$, we get that

$$[T(w_j)]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} A \\ O \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now, if we let $k+1 \leq j \leq n$, then we would see that $T(w_j)$ can be written as

$$T(w_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i.$$

Together with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $k+1 \leq j \leq n$ where

$$[T(w_j)]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} T(w_{k+1}) & T(w_{k+2}) & \cdots & T(w_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

which can be denoted with B as a $k \times (n-k)$ matrix and C as a $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ matrix where

$$[T(w_j)]_\beta = \begin{pmatrix} B \\ C \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence, $[T]_\beta$ has the following matrix form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ O & C \end{pmatrix}.$$

■

Exercise 2.2.12

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space and T be the projection on W along W', where W and W' are subspaces of V. Find an ordered basis β for V such that $[T]_\beta$ is a diagonal matrix.

Solution. Let $\dim(V) = n$ since V is a finite-dimensional vector space. Since $W \subseteq V$ is a subspace, we know that W must be finite-dimensional as well. Let $\dim(W) = k$ and let

$\lambda = \{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_k\}$ be a basis for W. By corollary to Theorem 1.11, we can extend λ to be a basis for V by adding $w_{k+1}, w_{k+2}, \ldots, w_n \in W$ into λ. Denote this ordered basis for V as β where

$$\beta = \{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n\}.$$

Since W is a $T : V \to V$ is a projection on W along W' (W' is also a subspace), then

$$w_j = T(w_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i \quad \text{for } 1 \leq j \leq n$$

for every $w_j \in W$. This tells us that each w_j can be expressed a linear combination if and only if $a_{ij} = 1$ whenever $i = j$ and $a_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. Hence, $[T]_\beta$ is a diagonal matrix. ■

Exercise 2.2.13

Let V and W be vector spaces, and let T and U be nonzero linear transformations from V to W. If $R(T) \cap R(U) = \{0\}$, prove that $\{T, U\}$ is a linearly independent subset of $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Proof. Let T and U be nonzero linear transformations from V to W. For $a, b \in F$, we need to show that

$$aT + bU = T_0$$

with a and b both zero. Note that T_0 is the zero linear transformation. Let $x \in V$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}(aT + bU)(x) &= T_0(x)\\ (aT)(x) + (bU)(x) &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$(aT)(x) = -(bU)(x).$$

Since $(aT)(x) \in R(T) \cap R(U)$ where $R(T) \cap R(U) = \{0\}$ by assumption, we get that

$$(aT)(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow aT(x) = 0.$$

Since $T(x) \neq 0$, we must have that $a = 0$ when dividing $T(x)$ on both sides on the equation above. This also implies that $b = 0$ since $U(x) \neq 0$ and so $\{T, U\}$ must be linearly independent. ■

Exercise 2.2.14

Let $V = P(\mathbb{R})$, and for $j \geq 1$ define $T_j(f(x)) = f^{(j)}(x)$, where $f^{(j)}(x)$ is the jth derivative of $f(x)$. Prove that the set $\{T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n\}$ is a linearly independent subset of $\mathcal{L}(V)$ for any positive integer n.

Proof. Let $j \geq 1$. We want to show that for scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$a_1 T_1 + a_2 T_2 + \cdots + a_n T_n = T_0.$$

Let $f(x) \in P(\mathbb{R})$ be arbitrary. Since each T_j is linear, we have that

$$a_1 T_1(f(x)) + a_2 T_2(f(x)) + \cdots + a_n T_n(f(x)) = 0$$

which can re-written to be

$$a_1 f^{(1)}(x) + a_2 f^{(2)}(x) + \cdots + a_n f^{(n)}(x) = 0 \tag{1}$$

with each $f^{(j)}(x)$ being the jth derivative of $f(x)$. Since no two polynomials in the set $\{f^{(1)}(x), f^{(2)}(x), \ldots, f^{(n)}(x)\}$ have the same degree, we know that the representation in (1) contains the trivial solution; that is, $a_n = 0$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, the set

$$\{T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n\}$$

must be linearly independent by Exercise 1.5.18. ■

Exercise 2.2.15

Let V and W be vector spaces, and let S be a subset of V. Define $S^0 = \{T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W) : T(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x \in S\}$. Prove the following statements.

(a) S^0 is a subspace of $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Proof. (i) Note that $T_0 \in S^0$ since $T_0(x) = 0$ for all $x \in S$.

(ii) Let $T, U \in S^0$. Then $T(x) = 0$ and $U(x) = 0$ for all $x \in S$. Then

$$(T + U)(x) = T(x) + U(x) = 0 + 0 = 0.$$

So $T + U \in S^0$.

(iii) Let $c \in F$ and $T \in S^0$. Then $T(x) = 0$ for all $x \in S$. Thus,

$$(cT)(x) = cT(x) = c \cdot 0 = 0.$$

So, $cT \in S^0$.

Hence, S^0 is a subspace of $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$. ■

(b) If S_1 and S_2 are subsets of V and $S_1 \subseteq S_2$, then $S_2^0 \subseteq S_1^0$.

Proof. Let $x_1 \in S_1$. Since $S_1 \subseteq S_2$, we have that $x_1 \in S_2$. If $T \in S_2^0$, then $T(x_1) = 0$ for $x_1 \in S_2$. Since $x_1 \in S_1$, we must also have $T \in S_1^0$. Hence, $S_2^0 \subseteq S_1^0$. ■

(c) If V_1 and V_2 are subspaces of V, then $(V_1 + V_2)^0 = V_1^0 \cap V_2^0$.

Proof. Since $V_1 + V_2$ and $V_1 \cap V_2$ are subsets of V and that $V_1 \cap V_2 \subseteq V_1 + V_2$, we know that $(V_1 + V_2)^0 \subseteq V_1^0 \cap V_2^0$.

Now, let $T \in V_1^0 \cap V_2^0$. Then $T \in V_1^0$ and $T \in V_2^0$ implies $T(x_1) = 0$ and $T(x_2) = 0$ for all $x_1 \in V_1$ and $x_2 \in V_2$. Since T is linear, we must have

$$0 = 0 + 0 = T(x_1) + T(x_2) = T(x_1 + x_2).$$

Hence, $T \in (V_1 + V_2)^0$ and so $V_1^0 \cap V_2^0 \subseteq (V_1 + V_2)^0$. Thus,

$$(V_1 + V_2)^0 = V_1^0 \cap V_2^0.$$

■

Exercise 2.2.16

Let V and W be vector spaces such that $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$, and let $T : V \to W$ be linear. Show that there exists ordered bases β and γ for V and W, respectively, such that $[T]_\beta^\gamma$ is a diagonal matrix.

Proof. Using the same process found in the dimension theorem, let $\lambda = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ be a basis for $N(T)$. We can extend λ into a basis for V by adding distinct linearly independent vectors $v_{k+1}, v_{k+2}, \dots, v_n$ into λ. Denote this new basis as β where

$$\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}.$$

Since $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$, we get that

$$\dim(W) = \dim(N(T)) + \dim(R(T)). \tag{1}$$

Note that $\{T(v_{k+1}), T(v_{k+2}), \dots, T(v_n)\}$ is a basis for $R(T)$ which can be extended to be a basis for W. Hence, we have γ defined by

$$\gamma = \{T(v_1), T(v_2), \dots, T(v_n)\}$$

with $T(v_i) = w_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ to a basis for W. Now, note that for $1 \leq j \leq n$, we have

$$T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ij} w_i + \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i.$$

By definition of $N(T)$, we know that for $1 \leq j \leq k$ and $1 \leq i \leq k$ that

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ij} w_i.$$

For $k+1 \leq i \leq n$ and $k+1 \leq j \leq n$,

$$w_j = T(v_j) = \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} a_{ij} w_i$$

so we have $a_{ij} = 1$ whenever $i = j$ and $a_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. So, the matrix representation of T can be written as

$$[T]_\beta^\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} O & O \\ O & I \end{pmatrix}$$

where I is the $(n-k) \times (n-k)$ matrix. Thus, we can see that $[T]_\beta^\gamma$ is a diagonal matrix. ■

2.3 Composition of Linear Transformations and Matrix Multiplication

Exercise 2.3.5

Complete the proof of Theorem 2.12 and its corollary.

Proof. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, B and C be $n \times p$ matrices, and D and E be $q \times m$ matrices. Then

(a) Let $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq p$. By definition of the product of two matrices, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(A(B+C))_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}(B+C)_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}(B_{kj}+C_{kj}) \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}B_{kj} + \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}C_{kj} \\
&= (AB)_{ij} + (AC)_{ij}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $A(B+C) = AB + AC$.

Now, let $1 \leq i \leq q$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. For the second formula, we can use the same definition to write

$$\begin{aligned}
((D+E)A)_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^{m} (D+E)_{ik}A_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{m} (D_{ik}+E_{ik})A_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{m} D_{ik}A_{kj} + \sum_{i=1}^{m} E_{ik}A_{kj} \\
&= (DA)_{ij} + (EA)_{ij}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $(D+E)A = DA + EA$.

(b) Let $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq p$. Let $a \in F$. Then using the definition of the product once again, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
a(AB)_{ij} &= a\sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}B_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n} a(A_{ik}B_{kj}) \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (aA_{ik})B_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (aA)_{ik}B_{kj} \\
&= ((aA)B)_{ij}.
\end{aligned}$$

Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned}((aA)B)_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^{n}(aA_{ik})B_{kj} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n}(A_{ik}a)B_{kj} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n}A_{ik}(aB_{kj}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n}A_{ik}(aB)_{kj} \\ &= (A(aB))_{ij}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $(aA)B = A(aB)$. Thus, we conclude that

$$a(AB) = (aA)B = A(aB).$$

(c) Let $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. Since $\delta_{ik} = 1$ only when $i = k$ and 0 otherwise, we must have

$$(I_m A)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \delta_{ik} A_{kj} = A_{ij}.$$

Likewise,

$$(AI_n)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}\delta_{kj} = A_{ij}$$

by the same reasoning. Hence, we have

$$I_m A = A = AI_n.$$

(d) Let V be an $n-$dimensional vector space with $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ as an ordered basis. Since $I_V(v_j) = v_j$ for all $1 \leq j \leq n$, we must have

$$v_j = I_V(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} v_i$$

which holds only if $a_{ij} = 1$ for all $i = j$ and 0 otherwise. But this means that $a_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$, so $[I_V]_\beta = I_n$.

■

Proof. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_k$ be $n \times p$ matrices. Let $1 \leq \ell \leq m$

and $1 \leq s \leq p$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\Big[A\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i B_i\Big)\Big]_{\ell s} &= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{\ell\lambda}\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i B_i\Big)_{\lambda s} \\
&= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{\ell\lambda}\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i B_i)_{\lambda s}\Big) \\
&= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{\ell\lambda}\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i (B_i)_{\lambda s}\Big) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i\Big(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{\ell\lambda}(B_i)_{\lambda s}\Big) && \text{(part (a) of Theorem 2.12)} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i (AB_i)_{\ell s}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$A\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i B_i\Big) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i A B_i.$$

To show the second formula, let $1 \leq \ell \leq q$ and $1 \leq s \leq n$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\Big[\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i C_i\Big)A\Big]_{\ell s} &= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i C_i\Big)_{\ell\lambda} A_{\lambda s} \\
&= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i C_i)_{\ell\lambda}\Big) A_{\lambda s} \\
&= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i (C_i)_{\ell\lambda}\Big) A_{\lambda s} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} (C_i)_{\ell\lambda} A_{\lambda s}\Big) && \text{(part (a) of Theorem 2.12)} \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i (C_i A)_{\ell s}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i C_i\Big)A = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i C_i A.$$

■

Exercise 2.3.6

Prove (b) of Theorem 2.13.

Proof. To show the other equation, we apply part (c) of Theorem 2.12, to write

$$v_j = \begin{pmatrix} B_{1j} \\ B_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ B_{nj} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (BI_p)_{1j} \\ (BI_p)_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ (BI_p)_{nj} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^n B_{1k}\delta_{kj} \\ \sum_{k=1}^n B_{2k}\delta_{kj} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{k=1}^n B_{nk}\delta_{kj} \end{pmatrix} = B \begin{pmatrix} \delta_{1j} \\ \delta_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ \delta_{pj} \end{pmatrix} = Be_j$$

where δ_{1j} are the Kronecker delta constants. ∎

Exercise 2.3.7

Prove (c) and (f) of Theorem 2.15.

Proof. (c) Using the sum rule for matrices, we must have

$$L_{A+B}(x) = (A+B)(x) = A(x) + B(x) = L_A(x) + L_B(x).$$

Hence, $L_{A+B} = L_A + L_B$. Now, let $a \in F$. Using the same reasoning, we have

$$L_{aA}(x) = (aA)(x) = a(A(x)) = aL_A(x).$$

Hence, $L_{aA} = aL_A$.

(f) Let $1 \leq j \leq n$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} L_{I_n}(e_j) = I_n(e_j) &= e_j \\ &= I_{F^n}(e_j). && \text{(Part (d) of Theorem 2.3.4)} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $L_{I_n} = I_{F^n}$.

∎

Exercise 2.3.8

Prove Theorem 2.10. Now state and prove a more general result involving linear transformations with domains unequal to their codomains.

Proposition 2.3.1. Let V, W, Y, and Z be vector spaces. Then we have the following properties:

(a) Let $U, U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ and $T, T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{L}(W, Z)$. Then we have

$$T(U_1 + U_2) = TU_1 + TU_2 \text{ and } (T_1 + T_2)U = T_1U + T_2U.$$

(b) Let $U \in \mathcal{L}(Y, Z), T_1 \in \mathcal{L}(W, Y), T_2 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then we have

$$U(T_1T_2) = (UT_1)T_2.$$

(c) Let $I \in \mathcal{L}(V, V)$ and $I \in \mathcal{L}(W, W)$. Then $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ implies that

$$TI = IT = T.$$

(d) Let $a \in F$ and let $U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then

$$a(U_1U_2) = (aU_1)U_2 = U_1(aU_2).$$

Proof. The proof is similar in the notes. ∎

Exercise 2.3.10

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Prove that A is a diagonal matrix if and only if $A_{ij} = \delta_{ij} A_{ij}$ for all i and j.

Proof. For the forwards direction, suppose A is a diagonal matrix. Let $1 \leq j \leq n$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$. Since A is a diagonal matrix, we know that $A_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$. Furthermore, we have that $\delta_{ij} = 1$ whenever $i = j$ and 0 otherwise. Hence, we have $A = IA$ by Theorem 2.12 which implies

$$A_{ij} = (I_n A)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_{ik} A_{kj} = \delta_{ij} A_{ij}$$

for $1 \leq j \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$.

For the backwards direction, assume $A_{ij} = \delta_{ij} A_{ij}$. Since $\delta_{ij} = 1$ whenever $i = j$ and 0 whenever $i \neq j$, we get that $A_{ij} = A_{ij}$ and $A_{ij} = 0$ respectively. Hence, A is a diagonal matrix.

∎

Exercise 2.3.11

Let V be a vector space, and let $T : V \to V$ be linear. Prove that $T^2 = T_0$ if and only if $R(T) \subseteq N(T)$.

Proof. For the forwards direction, let $T^2 = T_0$. Let $y \in R(T)$. Then for some $x \in V$, we have $y = T(x)$. Then we have

$$T(y) = T(T(x)) = T^2(x) = T_0(x) = 0.$$

Hence, $y \in N(T)$.

For the backwards direction, let $x \in V$. Then we have

$$T^2(x) = T(T(x)).$$

Note that $T(x) \in R(T)$ and $R(T) \subseteq N(T)$ implies that $T^2(x) = 0$. But this also means that $T_0(x) = 0$. Hence, we have $T^2(x) = T_0(x)$.

∎

Exercise 2.3.12

Let V, W, and Z be vector spaces, and let $T : V \to W$ and $U : W \to Z$ be linear.

(a) Prove that if UT is injective, then T is injective. Must U also be injective?

Proof. Suppose for sake of contradiction that T is not injective. Then there exists $x, y \in V$ such that $x \neq y$ implies $T(x) = T(y)$. But UT being injective must imply that for any $x, y \in V$, we have $UT(x) = UT(y)$ implies $x = y$ which is a contradiction. Hence, T must be injective. Note that U need not be injective in this case. ∎

(b) Prove that if UT is surjective, then U is surjective. Must T also be surjective?

Proof. Suppose that UT is surjective. Let $y \in R(UT)$. By default, we know that $R(U) \subseteq Z$). Then for some $x \in V$, we have

$$y = UT(x) = U(T(x)).$$

Hence, $y \in R(U)$ as well which implies that $Z \subseteq R(U)$. Thus, U must be surjective. Notice that T need not be surjective for the equation above to be true. ■

(c) Prove that if U and T are injective and surjective, then UT is also.

Proof. First, we show that UT is injective. Let $x, y \in V$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} UT(x) &= UT(y) \\ U(T(x)) &= U(T(y)). \end{aligned}$$

But U being injective, implies that $T(x) = T(y)$. Since T is also injective, we must have $x = y$. Hence, UT is injective.

Now, we show that UT is surjective. Let $z \in R(U)$. Since U is surjective, we have that for some $y \in W$,

$$z = U(y).$$

Since T is also surjective, we have that $y \in W$ implies that $T(x) = y$ for some $x \in V$. Hence, we have

$$z = U(y) = U(T(x)) = UT(x)$$

and so we have UT surjective.

■

Exercise 2.3.13

Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices. Recall that the trace of A is defined by

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii}.$$

Prove that $\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(BA)$ and $\operatorname{tr}(A) = \operatorname{tr}(A^t)$.

Proof. Let $1 \leq i \leq n$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{tr}(AB) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (AB)_{ii} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Big(\sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} B_{ki} \Big) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n} \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ki} A_{ik} \Big) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (BA)_{kk} \\ &= \operatorname{tr}(BA). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(BA)$.

For the second formula, observe that

$$\operatorname{tr}(A^t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (A^t)_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii} = \operatorname{tr}(A).$$

■

Exercise 2.3.14

Assume the notation in Theorem 2.13.

(a) Suppose that z is a (column) vector in F^p. Use Theorem 2.13(b) to prove that Bz is a linear combination of the columns of B. In particular, if $z = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p)^t$, then show that

$$Bz = \sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j v_j.$$

Proof. Note that B is an $n \times p$ matrix and that

$$z = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p)^t = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_p \end{pmatrix}.$$

Observe that z can be re-written in the following way:

$$z = a_1 e_1 + a_2 e_2 + \cdots + a_p e_p = \sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j e_j.$$

Using theorem 2.13, we find that

$$Bz = B\Big(\sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j e_j\Big) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j (Be_j) = \sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j v_j.$$

Hence, we have

$$Bz = \sum_{j=1}^{p} a_j v_j.$$

■

(b) Extend (a) to prove that column j of AB is a linear combination of the columns of A with coefficients in the linear combination being entries of column j of B.

Proof. Denote the column vectors of A as x_i with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and note that A is an $m \times n$ matrix. Observe that the jth column of B can be written as

$$v_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ij} e_i$$

for $1 \le j \le p$. Using Theorem 2.13 again, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} u_j = Av_j = A\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ij}e_i\Big) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ij}(Ae_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ij}x_i \end{aligned}$$

where x_i is a column vector in F^m with entries in A. Hence, we have

$$u_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ij}x_i \quad \text{for } 1 \le j \le p.$$

■

(c) For any row vector $w \in F^m$, prove that wA is a linear combination of the rows of A with the coefficients in the linear combination being the coordinates of w.

Proof. Let $w \in F^m$ be a row vector with entries b_j for $1 \le i \le m$. Denote x_i as the ith row of A which is an $m \times n$ matrix. Using the properties of transpose, we write

$$\begin{aligned} wA = (A^t w^t)^t &= \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i x_i^t\Big)^t \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i x_i^t)^t \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i x_i. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$wA = \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i x_i.$$

■

(d) Prove the analogous result to (b) about rows: Row i of AB is a linear combination of the rows of B with the coefficients in the linear combination being the entries of row i of A.

Proof. Let u_i denote the ith row of the matrix AB. Note that AB is an $m \times p$ matrix. By taking a similar approach to proving part (a) of Theorem 2.13, we have

$$u_i = \begin{pmatrix} (AB)_{i1} \\ (AB)_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ (AB)_{ip} \end{pmatrix}^t = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}B_{k1} \\ \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}B_{k2} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}b_{kp} \end{pmatrix}^t = \begin{pmatrix} A_{i1} \\ A_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ A_{in} \end{pmatrix}^t B = x_i B$$

where x_i is the ith row of A. Apply part (c), we have

$$u_i = x_i B = \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} v_j \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \le i \le m$$

where v_j is the jth row of B that has dimensions $1 \times p$. ■

Exercise 2.3.15

Let M and A be matrices for which the product matrix MA is defined. If the jth column of A is a linear combination of a set of columns of A, prove that the jth column of MA is a linear combination of the corresponding columns of MA with the same corresponding coefficients.

Proof. Let M be an $m \times n$ matrix. Let x_j be the jth column of A where A is an $n \times p$ matrix. Let u_j be the jth column of MA where MA is an $m \times p$ matrix. Define this jth column vector as

$$u_j = Mx_j$$

by Theorem 2.13. Note that

$$x_j = \begin{pmatrix} A_{1j} \\ A_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ A_{nj} \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ij} e_i$$

where e_i is the standard basis vector for F^n. We can see by Corollary to Theorem 2.12 that

$$u_j = Mx_j = M\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ij} e_i\Big) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ij}(Me_i).$$

Note that e_i is an $n \times 1$ matrix and M is an $m \times n$ matrix. This means that Me_i is in F^m. Denote this column vector as $v_i = Me_i$ where i is the ith column of M. Hence, we have

$$u_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ij} v_i \text{ for } 1 \le j \le p.$$

■

Exercise 2.3.16

Let V be finite-dimensional vector space, and let $T : V \to V$ be linear.

(a) If $\text{rank}(T) = \text{rank}(T^2)$, prove that $R(T) \cap N(T) = \{0\}$. Deduce that $V = R(T) \oplus N(T)$ (see the exercises of Section 1.3).

Proof. Since V is finite-dimensional, we know that

$$\dim(V) = \text{nullity}(T) + \text{rank}(T) \tag{1}$$

by the dimension theorem. By the same reasoning, we also get that

$$\dim(V) = \text{nullity}(T^2) + \text{rank}(T^2). \tag{2}$$

Equating (1) and (2) together, we get that

$$\text{nullity}(T) + \text{rank}(T) = \text{nullity}(T^2) + \text{rank}(T^2).$$

Since $\text{rank}(T) = \text{rank}(T^2)$, we find that $\text{nullity}(T) = \text{nullity}(T^2)$. Let $x \in N(T)$ be arbitrary. Then we have that $T(x) = 0$ with $x \in N(T)$ implying $x = 0$. But since $x \in N(T^2)$ as well, we have that

$$T^2(x) = 0.$$

Note that

$$T^2(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow T(T(x)) = 0$$

with $T(x) \in N(T)$ implying $T(x) = 0$ since T is injective. Note that

$$T(x) = x = 0$$

where $T(x) \in R(T)$ and $x \in N(T)$. Hence, $R(T) \cap N(T) = \{0\}$.

By the dimension theorem and Exercise 1.6.29, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\dim(R(T) + N(T)) &= \dim(R(T)) + \dim(N(T)) - \dim(R(T) \cap N(T)) \\ &= \dim(R(T)) + \dim(N(T)) \\ &= \dim(V).\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $V = R(T) + N(T)$ by Theorem 1.11. Thus, we have

$$V = R(T) \oplus N(T).$$

■

(b) Prove that $V = R(T^k) \oplus N(T^k)$ for some positive integer k.

Proof. Pick a positive integer k such that $\text{rank}(T^k) = \text{rank}(T^{k+1})$. By dimension theorem, we can write

$$\dim(V) = \text{rank}(T^k) + \text{nullity}(T^k). \tag{1}$$

By the same reasoning, we also have

$$\dim(V) = \text{rank}(T^{k+1}) + \text{nullity}(T^{k+1}). \tag{2}$$

By setting (1) and (2) equal to each other and using the fact that $\text{rank}(T^k) = \text{rank}(T^{k+1})$, we have

$$\text{nullity}(T^k) = \text{nullity}(T^{k+1}).$$

Thus, $N(T^k) = N(T^{k+1})$ by Theorem 1.11. Now, let $x \in N(T^{k+1})$. Then we have $T^{k+1}(x) = 0$. Since $x \in N(T^k)$, we also have $T^k(x) = 0$. But note that

$$T^{k+1}(x) = T^k(T(x)) = 0.$$

So, we have

$$T^k(T(x)) = T^k(x) = 0.$$

Since T_k is injective, we know that

$$T(x) = x = 0.$$

But note that $T(x) \in R(T^k)$ and $x \in N(T^k)$. Hence, $R(T^k) \cap N(T^k) = \{0\}$. To show that $V = R(T^k) + N(T^k)$, we can just follow the same process shown in part (a). Hence, we have

$$V = R(T^k) \oplus N(T^k).$$

■

Exercise 2.3.18

Using only the definition of matrix multiplication, prove that multiplication of matrices is associative.

Proof. Define A, B and C as $m \times n$, $n \times p$, and $p \times \ell$ matrices respectively. This establishes that $(AB)C$ is an $m \times \ell$ matrix. Using the definition of matrix multiplication, we get that

$$\begin{aligned}
\Big((AB)C\Big)_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^{p} (AB)_{ik} C_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^{p} \Big(\sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{i\lambda} B_{\lambda k}\Big) C_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{i\lambda} \Big(\sum_{k=1}^{p} B_{\lambda k} C_{kj}\Big) \\
&= \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n} A_{i\lambda} (BC)_{\lambda j} \\
&= \Big(A(BC)\Big)_{ij}
\end{aligned}$$

where $1 \le i \le m$ and $1 \le j \le \ell$. Hence, we have $(AB)C = A(BC)$. ■

2.4 Invertibility and Isomorphisms

Exercise 2.4.4

Let A and B be $n \times n$ invertible matrices. Prove that AB is invertible and $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

Proof. Let A and B be $n \times n$ invertible matrices. We need to show that $(AB)B^{-1}A^{-1} = I_n$ and $B^{-1}A^{-1}(AB) = I_n$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
BB^{-1} = I_n &\Leftrightarrow A(BB^{-1}) = A \\
&\Leftrightarrow (AB)B^{-1} = A \\
&\Leftrightarrow (AB)B^{-1}A^{-1} = AA^{-1} \\
&\Leftrightarrow (AB)B^{-1}A^{-1} = I_n.
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
A^{-1}A = I_n &\Leftrightarrow B^{-1}(A^{-1}A) = B^{-1} \\
&\Leftrightarrow (B^{-1}A^{-1})A = B^{-1} \\
&\Leftrightarrow (B^{-1}A^{-1})AB = B^{-1}B \\
&\Leftrightarrow (B^{-1}A^{-1})AB = I_n.
\end{aligned}$$

This tells us that AB is invertible and that

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

■

Exercise 2.4.5

Let A be invertible. Prove that A^t is invertible and $(A^t)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^t$.

Proof. Let A be an invertible. Observe that $(A^t)^t = A$. Thus, we have

$$I_n = AA^{-1} = (A^t)^t A^{-1} = \Big((A^{-1})^t A^t\Big)^t.$$

Taking the transpose on both sides gives us the following equation

$$(A^{-1})^t A^t = I_n$$

where $(I_n)^t = I_n$. Similarly, we have

$$I_n = A^{-1}A = A^{-1}(A^t)^t = \Big(A^t(A^{-1})^t\Big)^t$$

which implies

$$\Big(A^t(A^{-1})^t\Big)^t = I_n.$$

Taking the transpose again then gives us

$$A^t(A^{-1})^t = I_n.$$

Therefore, A^t is invertible and that ■

Exercise 2.4.6

Prove that if A is invertible and $AB = O$, then $B = O$.

Proof. Suppose that A is an invertible matrix. Let AB be a defined matrix product where $AB = O$. Since A is invertible, we have $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$. Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} AB = O &\Rightarrow A^{-1}(AB) = A^{-1}O \\ &\Rightarrow (A^{-1}A)B = O \\ &\Rightarrow IB = O \\ &\Rightarrow B = O. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have $B = O$. ■

Exercise 2.4.7

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix.

(a) Suppose that $A^2 = O$. Prove that A is not invertible.

Proof. Let $A^2 = O$ where A is an $n \times n$ matrix. Suppose for sake of contradiction that A is invertible. Thus, we have $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I_n$. Now, observe that multiplying

A^{-1} on the left side of $A^2 = O$ produces the following

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1}(A^2) = A^{-1}O &\Rightarrow A^{-1}(AA) = O \\ &\Rightarrow (A^{-1}A)A = O \\ &\Rightarrow I_n A = O \\ &\Rightarrow A = O. \end{aligned}$$

■

(b) Suppose that $AB = O$ for some nonzero $n \times n$ matrix B. Could A be invertible? Explain.

Solution. The matrix A cannot be invertible in this case since the nonzero matrix B implies that $A = O$ for $AB = O$ to hold and that we know that the zero matrix O cannot be invertible. ■

Exercise 2.4.8

Prove Corollaries 1 and 2 of Theorem 2.18.

Proof. Let $T : V \to V$ be linear and let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ be an ordered basis for V. Suppose T is invertible. Then there exists a unique linear transformation denoted by $T^{-1} : V \to V$ such that

$$TT^{-1} = T^{-1}T = I_V.$$

By using the Corollary to Theorem 2.11 and part (d) of Theorem 2.12, we must have that

$$[T]_\beta[T^{-1}]_\beta = [TT^{-1}]_\beta = [I_V]_\beta = I_n$$

and similarly,

$$[T^{-1}]_\beta[T]_\beta = [T^{-1}T]_\beta = [I_V]_\beta = I_n.$$

This tells us that $[T]_\beta$ is invertible and that

$$[T^{-1}]_\beta = ([T]_\beta)^{-1}.$$

For the backwards direction, the ordered basis β defined earlier implies that there exists a unique linear transformation $U : V \to V$ defined by

$$U(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ij} v_i \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

We need to show that $U = T^{-1}$. Using the fact that $[T]_\beta$ is invertible, we can write

$$[TU]_\beta = [T]_\beta[U]_\beta = I_n = [I_V]_\beta$$

and similarly

$$[UT]_\beta = [U]_\beta[T]_\beta = I_n = [I_V]_\beta.$$

But this tells us that $UT = TU = I_V$. So, $U = T^{-1}$ and that T is invertible. ■

Proof. Let $L_A : F^n \to F^n$. Let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for F^n. By part (a) of Theorem 2.15, we have that $[L_A]_\beta = A$. Since A is invertible, we know that L_A must also be invertible by Corollary to Theorem 2.18. Furthermore, we have that $L_A L_{A^{-1}} = I$ implies that

$$L_{A^{-1}} = (L_A)^{-1}.$$

Conversely, L_A invertible implies that $[L_A]_\beta$ is invertible by Corollary to Theorem 2.18. By Theorem 2.15, we must have that $[L_A]_\beta = A$. But this means that A is invertible. ■

Exercise 2.4.9

Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices such that AB is invertible. Prove that A and B are invertible. Given an example to show that arbitrary matrices A and B need not be invertible if AB is invertible.

Proof. ■

Exercise 2.4.10

Let A and B be $n \times n$ matrices such that $AB = I_n$.

(a) Use Exercise 9 to conclude that A and B are invertible.

Solution. Apply Exercise 9. ■

(b) Prove $A = B^{-1}$ (and hence $B = A^{-1}$).

Proof. Since A is an $n \times n$ invertible matrix, we can write that

$$\begin{aligned} AB = I_n &\Rightarrow A^{-1}(AB) = A^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow (A^{-1}A)B = A^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow I_nB = A^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow B = A^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Likewise, B being an $n \times n$ invertible matrix implies that

$$\begin{aligned} AB = I_n &\Rightarrow (AB)B^{-1} = B^{-1}k \\ &\Rightarrow A(BB^{-1}) = B^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow AI_n = B^{-1} \\ &\Rightarrow A = B^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

■

(c) State and prove analogous results for linear transformations defined on finite-dimensional vector spaces.

Proof. Define $T : V \to V$ and $U : V \to V$ with V being an arbitrary finite-dimensional vector space. Let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ be an ordered basis for V such that $[T]_\beta$ and $[U]_\beta$ are properly defined and that $[T]_\beta[U]_\beta = I_n$. Then we have

$$[T]_\beta = ([U]_\beta)^{-1} \text{ and } [U]_\beta = ([T]_\beta)^{-1}.$$

To prove this, we can let $A = [T]_\beta$ and $B = [U]_\beta$ and use parts (a) and (b) to get our desired result. ■

Exercise 2.4.11

Verify that the transformation in Example 5 is injective.

Proof. Since $\dim(P_3(\mathbb{R})) = \dim(M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R}))$, we must have that $P_3(\mathbb{R})$ is isomorphic to $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ by Theorem 2.19. By definition, this means that T is invertible which further implies that T is injective. ■

Exercise 2.4.12

Prove Theorem 2.21.

Proof. Let $\dim(V) = n$. Let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ be an ordered basis for V. We can show that $\phi_\beta(y)$ is an isomorphism by showing that ϕ_β is a surjective and injective linear map. Suppose $\phi_\beta(x) = \phi_\beta$. Then by definition of ϕ_β, we must have that $[x]_\beta = [y]_\beta$ which further implies that $x = y$. Now, let $y \in V$. Since β is an ordered basis for V, we can find scalars $\delta_1, \delta_2, \ldots, \delta_n$ such that

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i v_i.$$

This implies that we have constructed a coordinate vector such that $[y]_\beta = \phi_\beta(y)$. Hence, ϕ_β is surjective. Thus, we find that ϕ_β is an isomorphism. ■

Exercise 2.4.13

Let $\sim$ mean "is isomorphic to." Prove that $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on the class of vector spaces over F.

Proof. Let S be the class of vector spaces over F. Let $V \in S$. Notice that V is isomorphic to itself since the identity linear transformation $I_V : V \to V$ is invertible. Thus, $V \sim V$.

Let $V, W \in S$. Suppose that $V \sim W$. Then there exists an invertible linear map $T : V \to W$. This means that T contains an inverse $T^{-1} : W \to V$ such that $TT^{-1} = I_W$ and $T^{-1}T = I_V$. Note that T^{-1} is linear and that T^{-1} is also invertible since T is its inverse. Thus, $W \sim V$.

Let $V, W, Z \in S$. Now, suppose that $V \sim W$ and $W \sim V$. This means that there exists invertible linear maps $T : V \to W$ and $U : W \to Z$. Let $L : V \to Z$ be defined by $L = UT$. Let $x, y \in V$. Suppose $L(x) = L(y)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(x) &= L(y) \\ UT(x) &= UT(y) \\ U(T(x)) &= U(T(y)). \end{aligned}$$

Notice that U is an injective map which tells us that $T(x) = T(y)$. But T is also injective, so we must have $x = y$. Hence, L is an injective map.

Now, let $z \in Z$. Since U is surjective, we must have $z = U(y)$ for some $y \in W$. But note that T is surjective implies that $y = T(x)$ for some $x \in V$. But this tells us that

$$z = U(y) = U(T(x)) = UT(x) = L(x).$$

Hence, L is a surjective map and that L is an invertible map. Thus, $V \sim Z$. ■

Exercise 2.4.15

Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces, and let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation. Suppose that β is a basis for V. Prove that T is an isomorphism if and only if $T(\beta)$ is a basis for W.

Proof. For the forwards direction, suppose $T : V \to W$ is an isomorphism where V and W are finite-dimensional vector spaces. Hence, T is invertible by definition. Let $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ be an ordered basis for V. Since T is also injective and that β is a linearly independent subset of V, we know that $T(\beta)$ is a linearly independent subset of W by part (b) of Exercise 2.1.14. Furthermore, β being a basis for V implies that $\operatorname{span}(T(\beta)) = R(T)$ by Theorem 2.2. But notice that T is also surjective since it is an isomorphism. Hence, we must have that $R(T) = W$ and that $T(\beta)$ spans W. Thus, we have that $T(\beta)$ is a basis for W.

For the backwards direction, assume $T(\beta)$ is a basis for W. In order to show that T is an isomorphism, we must show that T is a bijective linear map. Let $x, y \in V$. Since β is a basis for V, we must have

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i \text{ and } y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i v_i$$

for some scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ and $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$. Suppose $T(x) = T(y)$. Then observe that T being linear implies that

$$\begin{aligned} T(x) &= T(y) \\ T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i\Big) &= T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i v_i\Big) \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i T(v_i) \end{aligned}$$

which subsequently leads to

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i - b_i) T(v_i) = 0 \Leftrightarrow a_i = b_i \text{ for all } i$$

since $T(\beta)$ is a linearly independent subset of W. Hence, $x = y$ and that T is injective.

Now, let $y \in W$. Since $T(\beta)$ is a basis for W and T linear, we know that there exists scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ such that

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i) = T\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i\Big).$$

But this means that

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i$$

for some $x \in V$. Hence, T is surjective and thus T is an isomorphism. ■

Exercise 2.4.16

Let B be an $n \times n$ invertible matrix. Define $\Phi : M_{n \times n}(F) \to M_{n \times n}(F)$ by $\Phi(A) = B^{-1}AB$. Prove that Φ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Let B be an $n \times n$ matrix. First, we show that $\Phi : M_{n\times n}(F) \to M_{n\times n}(F)$ is linear. Let $a \in F$ and $D, C \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. Then by using the algebraic properties of matrices, we must have

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(aC + D) &= B^{-1}(aC + D)B \\ &= \Big(B^{-1}(aC) + B^{-1}D\Big)B \\ &= B^{-1}(aC)B + B^{-1}DB \\ &= a(B^{-1}CB) + B^{-1}DB \\ &= a\Phi(C) + \Phi(D)\end{aligned}$$

Hence, Φ is a linear map. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. By definition of Φ, we know that

$$\Phi(A) = B^{-1}AB.$$

So, define the linear map $U : M_{n\times n}(F) \to M_{n\times n}(F)$ by $U(A) = BAB^{-1}$. Notice that B is invertible, so we can write

$$B(B^{-1}AB)B^{-1} = B^{-1}(BAB^{-1})B = IA = AI = A$$

where I is the identity linear map for $M_{n\times n}$. Hence, we have $\Phi U = U\Phi = I$. Hence, Φ is an invertible map and thus Φ is an isomorphism. ■

Exercise 2.4.17

Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces and $T : V \to W$ be an isomorphism. Let V_0 be a subspace of V.

(a) Prove that $T(V_0)$ is a subspace of W.

Proof. Let V_0 be a subspace of V. Observe that $T(0_V) = 0_W \in T(V_0)$ since $0_V \in V_0$. Let $z, y \in T(V_0)$. Then $T(x) = y$ and $T(w) = z$ for $x, w \in V_0$ implies that

$$z + y = T(x) + T(w) = T(x + w)$$

since $x + w \in V_0$. Now, let $c \in F$. Hence, $z + y \in T(V_0)$. Then

$$cy = cT(x) = T(cx)$$

with $cx \in V_0$. Hence, $cy \in T(V_0)$. ■

(b) Prove that $\dim(V_0) = \dim(T(V_0))$.

Proof. Since V and W are finite-dimensional vector spaces and that V_0 and $T(V_0)$ are subspaces of V and W respectively, we must have that V_0 and $T(V_0)$ be both finite-dimensional by Theorem 1.11. Let $T(V_0) = W_0$. Since T is an isomorphism, we know that T must be injective and surjective. So, the Dimension Theorem implies that

$$\dim(V_0) = \dim(N(T)) + \dim(R(T)) = \dim(W_0).$$

Hence, $\dim(V_0) = \dim(W_0)$. ■

Exercise 2.4.20

Let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation from an $n-$dimensional vector space V to an $m-$dimensional vector space W. Let β and γ be ordered bases for V and W, respectively. Prove that $\text{rank}(T) = \text{rank}(L_A)$ and that $\text{nullity}(T) = \text{nullity}(L_A)$, where $A = [T]_\beta^\gamma$.

Proof. Observe that $R(T)$ is a subspace of W and $R(L_A)$ is a subspace F^m. Since $\phi_\gamma : W \to F^m$ is an isomorphism by Theorem 2.21 (that is, $\dim(W) = \dim(F^m)$), we can use Exercise 17 to state that $\text{rank}(T) = \text{rank}(L_A)$. Similarly, $N(T)$ and $N(L_A)$ are subspaces of V and F^n, respectively. Hence, $\phi_\beta : V \to F^n$ (that is, $\dim(V) = \dim(F^n)$) being an isomorphism implies that $\text{nullity}(T) = \text{nullity}(L_A)$. ■

Exercise 2.4.21

Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces with ordered bases $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $\gamma = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m\}$, respectively. By Theorem 2.6, there exists linear transformations $T_{ij} : V \to W$ such that

$$T_{ij}(v_k) = \begin{cases} w_i & \text{if } k = j \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq j. \end{cases}$$

First prove that $\{T_{ij} : 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Then let M^{ij} be the $m \times n$ matrix with 1 in the ith row and jth column and 0 elsewhere, and prove that $[T_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma = M^{ij}$. Again by Theorem 2.6, there exists a linear transformation $\Phi : \mathcal{L}(V, W) \to M_{m\times n}(F)$ such that $\Phi(T_{ij}) = M^{ij}$. Prove that Φ is an isomorphism.

Proof. First, we need to show that $S = \{T_{ij} : 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$; that is, we need to show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} T_{ij}(v_k) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq j \leq n. \tag{1}$$

for some scalars a_{ij}. By definition of T_{ij}, observe that for $1 \leq j \leq n$ we have $j = k$ such that $T_{ij}(v_k) = w_i$. So, (1) can be re-written as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} w_i = 0.$$

Now, we can use the linear independence of $\gamma = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m\}$ to conclude that $a_{ij} = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. But this means that S must be linearly independent. Let $T_{ij} \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ but not in S. Then adjoining T_{ij} to S produces a linearly dependent set such that $T_{ij} \in \text{span}(S)$ by Theorem 1.7. Hence, S is a basis for $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Using the fact that S is a basis for $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$, we can now write that

$$w_i = T_{ij}(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} w_i \quad \text{for } 1 \leq j \leq n. \tag{2}$$

We can see that for $1 \leq j \leq n$ that the matrix representation $[T_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma$ contains entries $a_{ij} = 1$ whenever $i = j$ and 0 otherwise. But observe that this is just M^{ij} and hence $[T_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma = M^{ij}$. By Theorem 2.6, we can see that there exists a linear transformation $\Phi : \mathcal{L}(V, W) \to M_{n\times n}(F)$ such that $\Phi(T_{ij}) = M^{ij}$. Our goal now is to show that Φ is an isomorphism. That is, we will show that Φ is both injective and surjective. Let $T_{ij}, U_{ij} \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Assume $\Phi(T_{ij}) = \Phi(U_{ij})$. Then we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(T_{ij}) &= \Phi(U_{ij})\\ M^{ij} &= N^{ij}\\ [T_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma &= [U_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma.\end{aligned}$$

Notice that the last equality implies that $T_{ij} = U_{ij}$ by corollary to Theorem 2.6. Hence, Φ is an injective map.

Let $U_{ij} \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Using ordered bases β and γ and the fact that S is a basis for $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$, we can construct $[U_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma$ such that

$$w_i = U_{ij}(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} B_{ij} w_i \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

Observe that $[U_{ij}]_\beta^\gamma = N^{ij} = \Phi(U_{ij})$ and thus Φ is surjective. We can conclude that Φ is an isomorphism. ■

Exercise 2.4.24

Let $T : V \to Z$ be a linear transformation of a vector space V onto a vector space Z. Define the mapping

$$\overline{T} : V/N(T) \to Z \text{ by } \overline{T}(v + N(T)) = T(v)$$

for any coset $v + N(T)$ in $V/N(T)$.

(a) Prove that $\overline{T}$ is well-defined; that is, prove that if $v+N(T) = v'+N(T)$, then $T(v) = T(v')$.

> **Proof.** Suppose $v + N(T) = v' + N(T)$. Then
>
> $$\begin{aligned}T(v) &= \overline{T}(v + N(T))\\ &= \overline{T}(v' + N(T))\\ &= T(v').\end{aligned}$$
>
> Hence, $\overline{T}$ is well-defined map. ■

(b) Prove that $\overline{T}$ is linear.

> **Proof.** Let $a \in F$ and $v + N(T), u + N(T) \in V/N(T)$. Then using the operations defined in Exercise 1.3.31 and the fact that T is linear, we have
>
> $$\begin{aligned}\overline{T}\Big(a(v + N(T)) + (u + N(T))\Big) &= \overline{T}\Big((av + N(T)) + (u + N(T))\Big)\\ &= \overline{T}((av + u) + N(T))\\ &= T(av + u)\\ &= aT(v) + T(u)\\ &= a\overline{T}(v + N(T)) + \overline{T}(u + N(T)).\end{aligned}$$
>
> Thus, $\overline{T}$ is linear. ■

(c) Prove that $\overline{T}$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. First, we show that $\overline{T}$ is an injective map. Let $x+N(T), y+N(T) \in V/N(T)$. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{T}(x+N(T)) &= \overline{T}(y+N(T))\\ T(x) &= T(y).\end{aligned}$$

Since T is linear, we can write

$$T(x) = T(y) \Leftrightarrow T(x-y) = 0.$$

Hence, $x-y \in N(T)$. Since $N(T)$ is a subspace of V, we have $x+N(T) = y+N(T)$ by Exercise 1.3.31. This implies that $\overline{T}$ is injective.

Now, we will show that $\overline{T}$ is a surjective map. Since T is a linear transformation from V onto Z, we know that any arbitrary $y \in Z$ can be written as $T(x) = y$ for some $x \in V$. By definition of $\overline{T}$, we have

$$y = T(x) = \overline{T}(x+N(T))$$

where $x+N(T) \in V/N(T)$. Hence, $\overline{T}$ is a surjective linear map. Thus, $\overline{T}$ is an isomorphism. ■

(d) Prove that the diagram shown in Figure 2.3 commutes; that is, prove that $T = \overline{T}\eta$.

Proof. Let $v \in V$. Since $\eta : V \to V/N(T)$ is defined by $\eta(v) = v + N(T)$, we can write that

$$\begin{aligned}T(v) &= \overline{T}(v+N(T))\\ &= \overline{T}(\eta(v))\\ &= \overline{T}\eta(v).\end{aligned}$$

Since $v \in V$ is arbitrary, we know that $T = \overline{T}\eta$. ■

2.5 The Change of Coordinate Matrix

Exercise 2.5.8

Prove the following generalization of Theorem 2.23. Let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation from a finite-dimensional vector space V to a finite-dimensional vector space W. Let β and β' be ordered bases for V, and let γ and γ' be ordered bases for W. Then $[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} = P^{-1}[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}Q$ where Q is the matrix that changes $\beta'-$coordinates into $\beta-$coordinates and P is the matrix that changes $\gamma'-$coordinates into $\gamma-$coordinates.

Proof. Our goal is to show that

$$P[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}Q \tag{1}$$

where $P = [I_W]_{\gamma'}^{\gamma}$ and $Q = [I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta}$. Using Theorem 2.11, we can write that

$$\begin{aligned} P[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} = [I_W]_{\gamma'}^{\gamma}[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} &= [I_W T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma} \\ &= [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma} \\ &= [T I_V]_{\beta'}^{\gamma} \\ &= [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}[I_V]_{\beta'}^{\beta} \\ &= [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} Q. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$P[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} Q.$$

Since P is invertible (by Theorem 2.22), we can do a left-multiplication of P^{-1} on both sides of (1) to get our desired result

$$[T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} = P^{-1}[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} Q.$$

■

Exercise 2.5.9

Prove that "is similar to" is an equivalence relation on $M_{n\times n}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. Note that

$$AI = IA = A$$

and that I is invertible. Thus, we have

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

and that $A \sim A$.

Let $A, B \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. Suppose $A \sim B$. Then there exists an invertible matrix Q such that

$$A = Q^{-1}BQ.$$

Using the invertibility of Q, we get our desired result

$$B = QAQ^{-1} = P^{-1}AP$$

where $Q = P^{-1}$ and $Q^{-1} = P$. Hence, $B \sim A$.

Now, let $A, B, C \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. Suppose $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C$. We want to show that $A \sim C$; that is, we want to show that there exists an invertible $Q \in M_{n\times n}(F)$ such that

$$A = Q^{-1}CQ.$$

Since $A \sim B$, there exists an invertible matrix P such that

$$A = P^{-1}BP.$$

Likewise, $B \sim C$ implies that there exists an invertible matrix L such that

$$B = L^{-1}CL.$$

Using Exercise 2.4.4, we can write that

$$\begin{aligned} A &= P^{-1}BP \\ &= P^{-1}(L^{-1}CL)P \\ &= (LP)^{-1}C(LP) \\ &= Q^{-1}CQ \end{aligned}$$

where $(LP)^{-1} = Q^{-1}$ and $LP = Q$. Hence, $A \sim C$. ■

Exercise 2.5.10

Prove that if A and B are similar $n \times n$ matrices, then $\text{tr}(A) = \text{tr}(B)$.

Proof. Suppose A and B are similar $n \times n$ matrices. Then there exists an invertible matrix Q such that

$$A = Q^{-1}BQ.$$

Using the fact that $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$ and that matrix multiplication is associative, we can write that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(A) &= \text{tr}((Q^{-1}B)Q) \\ &= \text{tr}(Q(Q^{-1}B)) \\ &= \text{tr}((QQ^{-1})B) \\ &= \text{tr}(I_nB) \\ &= \text{tr}(B). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have that $\text{tr}(A) = \text{tr}(B)$. ■

Exercise 2.5.11

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space with ordered bases α, β and γ.

(a) Prove that if Q and R are the change of coordinate matrices that change $\alpha-$coordinates into $\beta-$coordinates and $\beta-$coordinates into $\gamma-$coordinates, respectively, then RQ is the change of coordinate matrix that changes $\alpha-$coordinates into $\gamma-$coordinates.

Proof. Since Q is the matrix that changes $\alpha-$ coordinates into $\beta-$coordinates, we have $Q = [I_V]_\alpha^\beta$. Likewise, R is the matrix that changes $\beta-$coordinates into $\gamma-$coordinates. So, $R = [I_V]_\beta^\gamma$. Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} RQ &= [I_V]_\alpha^\beta [I_V]_\beta^\gamma \\ &= [I_V]_\alpha^\gamma \end{aligned}$$

by Theorem 2.11. Thus, RQ is the change of coordinate matrix that changes $\alpha-$coordinates into $\gamma-$coordinates ■

(b) Prove that if Q changes $\alpha-$coordinates into $\beta-$coordinates, then Q^{-1} changes $\beta-$coordinates into $\alpha-$coordinates.

Proof. Suppose Q changes $\alpha-$coordinates into $\beta-$coordinates, we have for any $v \in V$ that

$$[v]_\alpha = Q[v]_\beta. \tag{1}$$

Since Q is invertible, we have

$$Q^{-1}(Q[v]_\alpha) = Q^{-1}[v]_\alpha \Rightarrow (Q^{-1}Q)[v]_\beta = Q^{-1}[v]_\alpha$$
$$\Rightarrow [v]_\beta = Q^{-1}[v]_\alpha$$

Hence, Q^{-1} changes $\beta-$coordinates into $\alpha-$coordinates. ■

Exercise 2.5.12

Prove the corollary to Theorem 2.23.

Proof. Observe that part (a) of Theorem 2.15 implies that $[L_A]_\gamma = A$. Note that $Q = [I_{F^n}]_\gamma$ and that $I_{F^n}L_A = L_AI_{F^n}$ so we write

$$\begin{aligned} Q[L_A]_\gamma &= [I_{F^n}]_\gamma[L_A]_\gamma \\ &= [I_{F^n}L_A]_\gamma \\ &= [L_AI_{F^n}]_\gamma \\ &= [L_A]_\gamma[I_{F^n}]_\gamma \\ &= AQ. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have
$$Q[L_A]_\gamma = AQ \tag{1}$$
. Since Q is invertible, we can do left-multiplication of Q^{-1} on both sides of (1) to get our desired result
$$[L_A]_\gamma = Q^{-1}AQ.$$
■

Exercise 2.5.13

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over a field F, and let $\beta = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ be an ordered basis for V. Let Q be an $n \times n$ invertible matrix with entries from F. Define

$$x'_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Q_{ij}x_i \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq j \leq n,$$

and set $\beta' = \{x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n\}$. Prove that β' is a basis for V and hence that Q is the change of coordinate matrix changing $\beta'-$coordinates into $\beta-$coordinates.

Proof. Let $1 \leq j \leq n$. First, we need to show that β' is linearly independent; that is, there exists scalars $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_jx_j = 0 \tag{1}$$

where $a_j = 0$ for all j. Since

$$x'_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Q_{ij}x_i,$$

we can re-write the left side of (1) into

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Q_{ij}x_i\Big) = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\Big(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_jQ_{ij}\Big)x_i.$$

But since $\beta = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ is linearly independent, we have that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_jQ_{ij} = 0 \Leftrightarrow a_jQ = O$$

where O is the zero-matrix. Since Q is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, we can multiply Q^{-1} on both sides of $a_jQ = O$, to write

$$\begin{aligned}(a_jQ)Q^{-1} &= a_j(QQ^{-1}) \\ &= a_jI_n\end{aligned}$$

Thus, $a_jI_n = O$ implies that $a_j = 0$ for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. Hence, β' is linearly independent. Now, let $v \in V$ but not in β'. Then adjoining v into β' will produce a linearly dependent set. Thus, Theorem 2.2 implies that $\text{span}(\beta') = V$. So, β' is a basis for V. ■

Exercise 2.5.14

Prove the converse of Exercise 8: If A and B are each $m \times n$ matrices with entries from a field F, and if there exists invertible $m \times m$ and $n \times n$ matrices P and Q, respectively, such that $B = P^{-1}AQ$, then there exist an $n-$dimensional vector space V and an $m-$dimensional vector space W (both over F), ordered bases β and β' for V and γ and γ' for W, and a linear transformation $T : V \to W$ such that

$$A = [T]_\beta^\gamma \quad\text{and}\quad B = [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'}.$$

Proof. Since A and B are $m \times n$ with entries from a field F, let $V = F^n$ and $W = F^m$. Since V and W are finite-dimensional, they contain ordered bases $\beta = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$ and $\gamma = \{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_m\}$. By Theorem 2.6, there must exists a linear transformation $T : V \to W$ such that

$$T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_{ij}w_i \quad\text{for}\quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

Since $V = F^n$ and $W = F^m$, let $T = L_A$. Hence, we have

$$[T]_\beta^\gamma = [L_A]_\beta^\gamma = A$$

by part (a) of Theorem 2.15.

Now, define ordered bases $\beta' = \{x_1', x_2', \ldots, x_n'\}$ and $\gamma' = \{w_1', w_2', \ldots, w_m'\}$ for V and W, respectively. Since there exists invertible $n \times n$ and $m \times m$ matrices Q and P respectively, we can apply the result from Exercise 2.5.13 to imply that

$$x_j' = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Q_{ij}x_i \quad\text{for}\quad 1 \leq j \leq n$$

and

$$w'_j = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{ij} w_i \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq j \leq n,$$

implying that Q and P are change of coordinate matrices that changes $\beta'-$coordinates to $\beta-$coordinates and $\gamma'-$coordinates to $\gamma-$coordinates, respectively.

Finally, we show that $B = [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'}$. Using Theorem 2.11, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
B = P^{-1}AQ &= [I_V]_{\gamma}^{\gamma'} [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} [I_W]_{\beta'}^{\beta} \\
&= [I_V T]_{\beta}^{\gamma'} [I_W]_{\beta'}^{\beta} \\
&= [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma'} [I_W]_{\beta'}^{\beta} \\
&= [T I_W]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'} \\
&= [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'}.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $B = [T]_{\beta'}^{\gamma'}$ and we are done. ■

Chapter 3

Matrix Operations and Elementary Matrices

3.1 The Rank of a Matrix and Matrix Inverses

Exercise 3.2.3

Prove that for any $m \times n$ matrix A, $\operatorname{rank}(A) = 0$ if and only if A is the zero matrix.

Proof. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Notice that $\operatorname{rank}(A) = \dim(R(L_A))$. By the Dimension Theorem, we can see that $\operatorname{rank}(A) = 0$ implies that

$$\dim(F^n) = \dim(R(L_A)) + \dim(N(L_A)) = \dim(N(L_A)).$$

Let $\beta = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$ is the standard ordered basis of F^n. Since $\dim(F^n) = \dim(N(L_A)) = n$, we know that

$$L_A(e_j) = a_j = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad 1 \le j \le n$$

where a_j is the jth column of A. Thus, A must be the zero matrix.

Conversely, suppose that A is the zero matrix. Then we can see that

$$a_j = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad 1 \le j \le n.$$

Using Theorem 3.5, we can see that

$$R(L_A) = \operatorname{span}(\{a_j : 1 \le j \le n\}) = \operatorname{span}(\{0\}).$$

Hence, we have

$$\operatorname{rank}(A) = \dim(R(L_A)) = \dim(\operatorname{span}(\{0\})) = 0.$$

Thus, $\operatorname{rank}(A) = 0$. ■

Exercise 3.2.7

Express the invertible matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

as a product of elementary matrices.

Proof. ■

Exercise 3.2.8

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Prove that if c is any nonzero scalar, then $\operatorname{rank}(cA) = \operatorname{rank}(A)$.

Proof. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Our goal is to show that

$$R(L_{cA}) = R(L_A).$$

Let $y \in R(L_{cA})$. Then for some $x \in F^n$, we have that

$$y = L_{cA}(x) = cL_A(x) = A(cx) = L_A(cx).$$

via part (c) of Theorem 2.15. Hence, $y \in R(L_A)$. Now, let $y \in R(L_A)$. Then for some $x \in F^n$, we have $y = L_A(x)$. But note that this can be re-written in the following form

$$y = L_A(x) = cL_A\left(\frac{1}{c}x\right) = L_{cA}\left(\frac{1}{c}x\right)$$

via part (c) of Theorem 2.15. Thus, we can see that $y \in R(L_A)$. This tells us that $R(L_{cA}) = R(L_A)$ and that we have

$$\operatorname{rank}(cA) = \dim(R(L_{cA})) = \dim(R(L_A)) = \operatorname{rank}(A)$$

by theorem 1.11. ■

Exercise 3.2.9

Complete the proof of the corollary to Theorem 3.4 by showing that elementary column operations preserve rank.

Proof. If B is obtained from a matrix A via an elementary column operation, then there exists an elementary matrix E such that $B = AE$. Using Theorem 3.2, we can see that E is invertible and that

$$\operatorname{rank}(B) = \operatorname{rank}(AE) = \operatorname{rank}(A)$$

by part (a) of Theorem 3.4. Hence, elementary column operations preserve rank. ■

Exercise 3.2.10

Prove Theorem 3.6 for the case that A is an $m \times 1$ matrix.

Proof. Fix $n = 1$. Using at most one type 1 row operation and at most one type 2 row operation, we can transform A to have a 1 in the $1,1$ position. By means of at most $m - 1$ type 3 column operations, A can be transformed into the following matrix

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where the only linearly independent row is the first row. Hence, $\operatorname{rank}(D) = \operatorname{rank}(A) = 1$. ■

Exercise 3.2.11

Let

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & B' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}$$

where B' is an $m \times n$ submatrix of B. Prove that if $\text{rank}(B) = r$, then $\text{rank}(B') = r - 1$.

Proof. Let $\beta = \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$ be the standard ordered basis of F^n. Observe by Theorem 3.5 that

$$R(L_B) = \text{span}(L_B(\beta)) = \text{span}(\{b_j : 1 \leq j \leq n\}) \tag{1}$$

where b_j is the jth column of B. Note that

$$L_B(\beta) = \{b_j : 1 \leq j \leq n\} = \{b_1\} \cup \{b_j : 1 < j \leq n\}.$$

So, (1) can be re-written as

$$\begin{aligned} R(L_B) &= \text{span}(\{b_1\} \cup \{b_j : 1 < j \leq n\}) \\ &= \text{span}(\{b_1\}) + \text{span}(\{b_j : 1 < j \leq n\}) \end{aligned}$$

by Exercise 14 of Section 1.4. Note that $\{b_1\} \cap \{b_j : 1 < j \leq n\}$ is disjoint. By the formula found in Exercise 29 in Section 1.6, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}(B) &= \dim(R(L_B)) \\ &= \dim(\text{span}(b_1) + \text{span}(\{b_j : 1 < j \leq n\})) \\ &= \dim(\text{span}(\{b_1\})) + \dim(\text{span}(\{b_j : 1 < j \leq n\})) \\ &= 1 + \dim(R(L_{B'})) && \text{(Theorem 3.5)} \\ &= 1 + \text{rank}(B'). \end{aligned}$$

Solving for $\text{rank}(B')$, we get our desired result that

$$\text{rank}(B') = \text{rank}(B) - 1 = r - 1.$$

■

Exercise 3.2.12

Let B' and D' be $m \times n$ matrices, and let B and D be $(m+1) \times (n+1)$ matrices respectively defined by

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & B' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & D' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}.$$

Prove that if B' can be transformed into D' by an elementary row [column] operation, then B can be transformed into D by an elementary row [column] operation.

Proof. If B' can be transformed into D' by an elementary row operation, then there exists an invertible matrix E' such that $D' = E'B'$. Observe that

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & D' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & E'B' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now, let's apply an elementary row operation on D so that D can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & B' & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}.$$

But this tells us that there exists some invertible matrix E such that

$$B = ED. \tag{1}$$

Since E is invertible, we can apply its inverse E^{-1} on the left side of (1) to get that

$$D = E^{-1}B.$$

Thus, D can be obtained from B via an elementary row operation. ■

Exercise 3.2.13

Prove (b) and (c) of Corollary 2 to Theorem 3.6.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{m\times n}(F)$ be arbitrary.

(b) Let $\gamma = \{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_m\}$ be the standard ordered basis for F^m. Since $L_{A^t} : F^m \to F^n$ is linear, we can see by Theorem 2.2 that

$$R(L_{A^t}) = \operatorname{span}(L_{A^t}(\gamma)) = \operatorname{span}(\{L_{A^t}(e_j) : 1 \le j \le m\}).$$

Furthermore, we have that $L_{A^t}(e_j) = A^t e_j = a_j^t$ where a_j^t is the jth column of A^t (or the ith row of A). Since $\operatorname{rank}(A^t) = \operatorname{rank}(A)$ by part (a), we can write that

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{rank}(A) = \operatorname{rank}(A^t) &= \dim(R(L_{A^t}(\gamma))) \\ &= \dim(\operatorname{span}(\{L_{A^t}(e_j) : 1 \le j \le m\})).\end{aligned}$$

Thus, the rank of A is generated by its rows.

(c) Part (b) and Theorem 3.5 tells us that the rows and columns generate subspaces of the same dimension that are numerically equal to the rank of A.

■

Exercise 3.2.14

Let $T, U : V \to W$ be linear transformations.

(a) Prove that $R(T+U) \subseteq R(T) + R(U)$. (See the definition of the sum of subsets of a vector space in Section 1.3).

Proof. Let $y \in R(T+U)$. Then for some $x \in V$, we know that $(T+U)(x) = y$. Since U and T are both linear, we have that

$$y = (T+U)(x) = T(x) + U(x).$$

But note that $T(x) \in R(T)$ and $U(x) \in R(U)$. Thus, $y \in R(T) + R(U)$ and so $R(T+U) \subseteq R(T) + R(U)$. ∎

(b) Prove that if W is finite-dimensional, then $\operatorname{rank}(T+U) \leq \operatorname{rank}(T) + \operatorname{rank}(U)$.

Proof. Let W be a finite-dimensional vector space. Since $R(T+U)$ and $R(T)+R(U)$ are subspaces of W, we know that these subspaces are also finite-dimensional vector spaces by Theorem 1.11. By part (a), we can see that

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{rank}(T+U) &= \dim(R(T+U)) \\
&\leq \dim(R(T) + R(U)) \\
&= \dim(R(T)) + \dim(R(U)) - \dim(R(T) \cap R(U)) \\
&\leq \dim(R(T)) + \dim(R(U)) \\
&= \operatorname{rank}(T) + \operatorname{rank}(U).
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have that

$$\operatorname{rank}(T+U) \leq \operatorname{rank}(T) + \operatorname{rank}(U).$$

∎

(c) Deduce from (b) that $\operatorname{rank}(A+B) \leq \operatorname{rank}(A) + \operatorname{rank}(B)$ for any $m \times n$ matrices A and B.

Proof. Observer that

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{rank}(A+B) &= \operatorname{rank}(L_{A+B}) \\
&= \operatorname{rank}(L_A + L_B) && \text{(part (c) of Theorem 2.15)} \\
&\leq \operatorname{rank}(L_A) + \operatorname{rank}(L_B) && \text{(part (b))} \\
&= \operatorname{rank}(A) + \operatorname{rank}(B).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we can see that $\operatorname{rank}(A+B) \leq \operatorname{rank}(A) + \operatorname{rank}(B)$. ∎

Exercise 3.2.15

Suppose that A and B are matrices having n rows. Prove that $M(A|B) = (MA|MB)$ for any $m \times n$ matrices M.

Proof. Let A and B be $n \times p$ and $n \times \ell$ matrices, respectively. Suppose M be is an arbitrary $m \times n$ matrix. Then define the product $M(A|B)$ as

$$M(A|B) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} M_{ik}(A|B)_{kj} \tag{1}$$

for $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq p + \ell$. For $1 \leq j \leq p$, we can see that product in (1) can be re-written as

$$M(A|B) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} M_{ik} A_{kj} = MA. \tag{2}$$

For $p \leq j \leq \ell$, (1) can be re-written into

$$M(A|B) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} M_{ik}B_{kj} = MB. \tag{3}$$

So, with (2) and (3) we can write that

$$M(A|B) = (MA|MB).$$

■

Exercise 3.2.16

Supply the details to the proof of (b) of Theorem 3.4.

Proof. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} R(L_{PA}) &= R(L_P L_A) \\ &= L_P L_A(F^n) \\ &= L_P\Big(L_A(F^n)\Big) \\ &= L_P\Big(R(L_A)\Big). \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Note that $R(L_A)$ is a subspace of F^m. By exercise 17 of Section 2.4, we can see that the invertibility of L_P also implies that $L_P\Big(R(L_A)\Big)$ is also a subspace of F^m. Thus, we have that $\dim(R(L_A)) = \dim(L_P(R(L_A)))$ implies $R(L_A) = L_P(R(L_A))$ by Theorem 1.11. So (1) implies that $R(L_{PA}) = R(L_A)$ and thus

$$\text{rank}(PA) = \text{rank}(A).$$

■

Exercise 3.2.17

Prove that if B is a 3×1 matrix and C is a 1×3 matrix, then the 3×3 matrix BC has rank at most 1. Conversely, show that if A is any 3×3 matrix having rank 1, then there exists a 3×1 matrix B and a 1×3 matrix C such that $A = BC$.

Proof. Suppose B is a 3×1 matrix and C is a 1×3 matrix where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} \\ B_{21} \\ B_{31} \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & C_{13} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Computing BC gives us

$$BC = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11}C_{11} & B_{11}C_{12} & B_{11}C_{13} \\ B_{21}C_{11} & B_{21}C_{12} & B_{21}C_{13} \\ B_{31}C_{11} & B_{31}C_{12} & B_{31}C_{13} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Observe that each column vector of this matrix is just B scaled by entries in C; that is,

$u_j = BC_{1j}$ for $1 \leq j \leq n$ where u_j has a rank of 1 and u_j is jth column vector of BC. Thus, BC has a rank of at most 1.

Conversely, let $A \in M_{3\times 3}(F)$ with $\text{rank}(A) = 1$ and let u_j for $1 \leq j \leq 3$ denote the jth column vector of A. Since $\text{rank}(A) = 1$, there exists only one linearly independent column, say u_1. This tells us that the other two columns, namely u_2 and u_3, are scalar multiples of u_1. Hence, for some nonzero k and c in F, we have that

$$u_2 = ku_1 \text{ and } u_3 = cu_1.$$

Now we can write A in the following way

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & ku_1 & cu_1 \end{pmatrix} = u_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & k & c \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$u_1 = B \text{ and } C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & k & c \end{pmatrix}$$

both having rank 1. ■

Exercise 3.2.18

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and B be an $n \times p$ matrix. Prove that AB can be written as a sum of n matrices of rank one.

Proof. Let u_j be the jth column vector of AB. By part (b) Exercise 2.3.14, we can see that u_j can be written in terms of a linear combination of column vectors of A and entries from B as coefficients. In other words, we have

$$u_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ij} x_i \text{ for } \ 1 \leq j \leq p$$

where $1 \leq i \leq n$ and x_i is the ith column vector of A and that each x_i has a rank of 1. ■

Exercise 3.2.19

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix with rank m and B be an $n \times p$ matrix with rank n. Determine the rank of AB. Justify your answer.

Proof. We determine that $\text{rank}(AB)$ can be at most n by Theorem 3.7. ■

Exercise 3.2.21

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix with $\text{rank}(A) = m$. Prove that there exists an $n \times m$ matrix B such that $AB = I_m$.

Proof. Observe that $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^t) = m$. This tells us that A^t is an invertible matrix. By Theorem 3.4, we can write that $\text{rank}(AA^t) = \text{rank}(A) = m$. Hence, we have that AA^t is an invertible matrix and thus there must exist a matrix B' such that

$$(AA^t)B' = I_m \Leftrightarrow A(A^tB') = I_m$$

where $A^tB' = B$ is an $n \times m$ matrix. ■

Exercise 3.2.22

Let B be an $n \times m$ matrix with $\text{rank}(B) = m$. Prove that there exists an $m \times n$ matrix A such that $AB = I_m$.

Proof. Observe that $\text{rank}(B) = \text{rank}(B^t) = m$ by Corollary 2 to Theorem 3.6. By Corollary 2 to Theorem 2.18 and fact 3 found in page 103, $\text{rank}(B^t) = m$ implies that B^t is invertible. This implies that

$$\text{rank}(B^t B) = \text{rank}(B) = m$$

by Corollary 2 to Theorem 3.6. Again, $B^t B$ is also invertible and thus there exist a matrix A' such that

$$A'(B^t B) = I_m \Leftrightarrow (A' B^t)B = I_m$$

where $A = A' B^t$ is an $m \times n$ matrix. ■

Chapter 4

Determinants

4.1 Determinants of Order 2

Exercise 4.1.5

Prove that if B is the matrix obtained by interchanging the rows of a 2×2 matrix A, then $\det(B) = -\det(A)$.

Proof. Suppose $B \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ can be obtained by interchanging the rows of $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} A_{21} & A_{22} \\ A_{11} & A_{12} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Applying the definition of determinant for 2×2 matrices, we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \det(B) &= A_{12}A_{21} - A_{11}A_{22} \\ &= -(A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21}) \\ &= -\det(A). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have that $\det(B) = -\det(A)$. ■

Exercise 4.1.6

Prove that if the two columns of $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ are identical, then $\det(A) = 0$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ be defined as

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

with $A_{11} = A_{12}$ and $A_{21} = A_{22}$ by assumption. Applying the definition of the determinant gives us $\det(A) = 0$. ■

Exercise 4.1.7

Prove that $\det(A^t) = \det(A)$ for any $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A^t = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Applying the determinant to A and A^t, we can see that

$$\det(A) = A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21} = \det(A^t).$$

■

Exercise 4.1.8

Prove that if $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ is upper triangular, then $\det(A)$ equals the product of diagonal entries of A.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ be an upper triangular matrix. Then we have

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Using the definition of determinant, we have

$$\det(A) = A_{11}A_{22} - 0A_{12} = A_{11}A_{22}.$$

Hence, $\det(A)$ equals the product of diagonal entries of A. ■

Exercise 4.1.9

Prove that $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$ for any $A, B \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A, B \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ with

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Using the definition of the matrix product, we have that

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} & A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} \\ A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} & A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

By definition of the determinant, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\det(AB) &= (A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21})(A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22}) \\
&- (A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21})(A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22}) \\
&= A_{11}A_{21}B_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}A_{21}B_{12}B_{21} \\
&+ A_{12}A_{22}B_{21}B_{22} + A_{12}A_{21}B_{11}B_{22} \\
&= (A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21})B_{11}B_{22} - (A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21})B_{12}B_{21} \\
&= (A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21})(B_{11}B_{22} - B_{12}B_{21}) \\
&= \det(A)\det(B).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have that $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$. ■

Exercise 4.1.10

The **classical adjoint** of a 2×2 matrix $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ is the matrix

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Prove that

(a) $CA = AC = [\det(A)]I$.

(b) $\det(C) = \det(A)$.

(c) The classical adjoint of A^t is C^t.

(d) If A is invertible, then $A^{-1} = [\det(A)]^{-1}C$.

Proof. Let $A, C \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ where C is the classical adjoint of A.

(a) We show that $CA = [\det(A)]I$. Applying the definition of the matrix product, we get that

$$\begin{aligned} CA &= \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12} & A_{22}A_{12} - A_{12}A_{22} \\ A_{11}A_{21} - A_{11}A_{21} & A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \det(A) & 0 \\ 0 & \det(A) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= [\det(A)]I. \end{aligned}$$

Note that proving $AC = [\det(A)]I$ is a similar process as above. Hence, we have $AC = CA = [\det(A)]I$

(b) Applying the definition of determinant gives us

$$\det(C) = A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21} = \det(A).$$

(c) Note that the transpose of $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ is

$$A^t = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

where the classical adjoint of A^t is

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{21} \\ -A_{12} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

But note that this is just the transpose of C which was defined earlier. So, we have $W = C^t$ is the classical adjoint of A^t.

(d) Since A is an invertible 2×2 matrix, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} A^{-1} &= \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= [\det(A)]^{-1}C \end{aligned}$$

by Theorem 4.2.

■

Exercise 4.1.11

Let $\delta : M_{2\times 2}(F) \to F$ be a function with the following three properties.

(i) δ is a linear function of each row of the matrix when the other row is held fixed.

(ii) If the two rows of $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$ are identical $\delta(A) = 0$.

(iii) If I is the 2×2 identity matrix, then $\delta(I) = 1$.

Prove that $\delta(A) = \det(A)$ for all $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{2\times 2}(F)$. Let the vectors $u, v \in F^2$ for an ordered basis β for F^2. Define the row vectors of A by $u = (A_{11}, A_{12})$ and $v = (A_{21}, A_{22})$. Note that

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

and that

$$\delta \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = O \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \cdot A \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

where O is the **orientation** of β and A is the are of the parallelogram formed by u and v. Since

$$A = \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \right|,$$

and definition of O, we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta(A) = \delta \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} &= O \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \cdot A \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \frac{\det \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}}{\left| \det \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \right|} \cdot \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \right| \\
&= \det \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \det(A).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\delta(A) = \det(A)$. ■

4.2 Determinants of Order n

Exercise 4.2.23

Prove that the determinant of an upper triangular matrix is the product of its diagonal entries.

Proof. We proceed by inducting on n. The result easily follows from cases $n = 1$ and $n = 2$, with the former leading to just the single entry itself and the latter being easily shown by applying the determinant formula found in Section 4.1 for 2×2 upper triangular matrices.

Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$ be upper triangular. Now, assume the result holds for $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ upper triangular matrices and that $n \geq 3$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. We can obtain a new matrix D by performing a finite number of type 3 row operations on A to convert the entries found in the first row and columns $1 < j \leq n$ into zeroes. Using cofactor expansion along the first row, we find that

$$\begin{aligned}\det(D) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}D_{1j}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{1j})\\ &= (-1)^{1+1}D_{11}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{11}) + (-1)^{1+2}D_{12}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{12}) + \cdots\\ &+ (-1)^{1+n}D_{1n}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{1n})\\ &= (-1)^{1+1}D_{11}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{11}) + (-1)^{1+2}(0)\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{12}) + \cdots\\ &+ (-1)^{1+n}(0)\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{1n})\\ &= (-1)^{1+1}D_{11}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{11}).\end{aligned}$$

Since $\tilde{D}_{11}$ is an $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix, we can apply the induction to hypothesis to write that

$$\det(\tilde{D}_{11}) = \prod_{i=2}^{n} D_{ii}.$$

Thus, we must have that

$$\det(D) = (-1)^{1+1}D_{11}\cdot\det(\tilde{D}_{11}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} D_{ii}.$$

Note that $\det(A) = \det(D)$ by Theorem 4.6 and that $D_{ii} = A_{ii}$ since we only changed the entries in the first row (that were not A_{11}). Thus, the result holds for $n\times n$ upper triangular matrices. ■

Exercise 4.2.24

Prove the corollary to Theorem 4.3.

Proof. We proceed by inducting on n. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. If $n = 1$, then we simply have $A_{11} = 0$ and the result follows immediately. If $n = 2$, then the result follows from applying the formula for 2×2 determinants and choosing either the $i = 1$ or $i = 2$ as the rows with all zeros. Now, assume that the corollary holds for $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrices. Let $n \geq 3$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. Let r represent the selected row of all zero entries. Suppose that for some r $(1 \leq r \leq n)$, we have $a_r = u + kv$ for some $u, v \in F^n$ and $k \in F$. Let $u = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$ and $v = (c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n)$, and let B and C be the matrices obtained from A by replacing row r of A by u and v, respectively. Furthermore, let the row $r-1$ be defined as in the proof for Theorem 4.3. If $r = 1$, then by cofactor expansion along the first row, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}A_{1j}\cdot\det(\tilde{A}_{1j})\\ &= (-1)^{1+1}(0)\cdot\det(\tilde{A}_{11}) + (-1)^{1+2}(0)\cdot\det(\tilde{A}_{12}) + \cdots\\ &+ (-1)^{1+n}(0)\cdot\det(\tilde{A}_{1n})\\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Now, suppose $r > 1$. Then by Theorem 4.3, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A) &= \det(B) + k\det(C) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}B_{1j} \cdot \det(\tilde{B}_{1j}) + k\sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}C_{1j} \cdot \det(\tilde{C}_{1j}).\end{aligned}$$

Note that $A_{1j} = B_{1j} = C_{ij}$ and that $\tilde{A}_{1j} = \tilde{B}_{1j} = \tilde{C}_{1j}$ except for row $r-1$. Since $\tilde{B}_{1j}$ and $\tilde{C}_{1j}$ are $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrices, we find that $\det(\tilde{B}_{1j}) = 0$ and $\det(\tilde{C}_{1j}) = 0$ by our induction hypothesis. So, we get that

$$\det(A) = \det(B) + k\det(C) = 0 + 0 = 0$$

and thus $\det(A) = 0$. Hence, we can see that the corollary holds for all $n \times n$ matrices. ■

Exercise 4.2.25

Prove that $\det(kA) = k^n\det(A)$ for any $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$ and $k \in F$ be nonzero. We proceed by inducting on n. If $n = 1$, then the result follows immediately. If $n = 2$, then apply the formula found in section 4.1 for 2×2 matrices to A to get $\det(kA) = k^2\det(A)$.

Suppose $n > 2$ and suppose the result holds for $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrices. Since $\tilde{A}_{1j}$ is an $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix, we must have $\det(k\tilde{A}_{1j}) = k^{n-1}\det(\tilde{A}_{1j})$. Using cofactor expansion along the first row, we get that

$$\begin{aligned}\det(A) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}kA_{1j} \cdot \det(k\tilde{A}_{1j}) \\ &= k\sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}A_{1j} \cdot k^{n-1}\det(\tilde{A}_{1j}) \\ &= k \cdot k^{n-1}\sum_{j=1}^{n}(-1)^{1+j}A_{1j} \cdot \det(\tilde{A}_{1j}) \\ &= k^n\det(A).\end{aligned}$$

■

Exercise 4.2.26

Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. Under what conditions is $\det(-A) = \det(A)$.

Proof. In order for $\det(-A) = \det(A)$, A must be an even matrix. ■

Exercise 4.2.27

Prove that if $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$ has two identical columns, then $\det(A) = 0$.

Proof. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. Suppose that A contains two identical columns at row r and row s where $r \neq s$. Let $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$ be the columns of A. Note that these are the rows of A^t. Observe that $u_r = u_s$ for $r \neq s$, we can apply the Corollary to Theorem 4.4 to write

$$\det(A^t) = 0.$$

Since $\operatorname{rank}(A) = \operatorname{rank}(A^t)$, we get that $\det(A) = \det(A^t) = 0$. Hence, $\det(A) = 0$ for all $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. ■

Proof. Let $A \in M_{n\times n}(F)$. We proceed by inducting on $n \geq 2$. For $n = 2$, let $u_1 = (A_{11}, A_{21})$ and $u_2 = (A_{12}, A_{22})$ denote the two columns that make up A. By Exercise 4.1.6, we get that $\det(A) = 0$.

Now, suppose $n > 2$ and that the result holds for $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrices. Let $1 \leq j \leq n$. Using cofactor expansion along any row i, we get that

$$\det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} A_{ij} \cdot \det(\tilde{A}_{1j}) \tag{1}$$

by Theorem 4.4. Since $\tilde{A}_{ij}$ is an $(n-1)\times(n-1)$ matrix, we know that $\tilde{A}_{1j}$ contains identical columns u_r and u_s where $r \neq s$. Thus, we have that $\det(\tilde{A}_{1j}) = 0$ by our induction hypothesis. Thus, (1) implies that $\det(A) = 0$ which ends our induction argument. ■

Exercise 4.2.28

Compute $\det(E_i)$ if E_i is an elementary matrix of type i.

Proof. Let E_i be an elementary matrix of type i. ■

Exercise 4.2.29

Prove that if E is an elementary matrix, then $\det(E^t) = \det(E)$.

Proof. Suppose that E is an elementary matrix. Using cofactor expansion along the first row, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}
\det(E) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{1+j} E_{1j} \cdot \det(\tilde{E}_{1j}) \\
&= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{1+j} (E^t)_{j1} \cdot \det(\tilde{E}_{j1}) \\
&= \det(E^t).
\end{aligned}$$

Note that the second equality above is just a cofactor expansion along the first column. Hence,

$$\det(E) = \det(E^t).$$

■