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Introduction

"It is my experience that proofs involving matrices can be shortened by 50% if one throws the matrices out"

-Emil Artin

1.1 Basic Properties of Vector Spaces

Definition 1.1.1. Let F be any field. Let V be a nonempty set with binary operations:

$$V \times V \to B$$
$$(v, w) \mapsto v + w$$

called *vector addition* and

$$F \times V \to V$$
$$(c, v) \mapsto cv$$

called *scalar multiplication*. Then V is an *F-vector space* if the following properties are satisfied:

(1) V is an abelian group, that is:

    (i) there exists a $0_v \in V$ such that $0_v + v = v = v + 0v$,

    (ii) for every $v \in V$ there exists a $-v \in V$ such that $v + (-v) = 0_v = (-v) + v$,

    (iii) for every $u, v, w \in V$, $(u + v) + w = u + (w + v)$, and

    (iv) $v + w = w + v$ for all $v, w \in V$.

(2) $c(v + w) = cv + cw$ for all $c \in F$, $v, w \in V$,

(3) $(c + d)v = cv + dv$ for all $c, d \in F$, $v \in V$,

(4) $(cd)v = c(dv)$ for all $c, d \in F$, $v \in V$,

(5) there exists a $1_F \in F$ such that $1_F v = v$.

Example 1.1.1.

(1) Let F be any field. Define $F^n = \{(a_1, ..., a_n) \mid a_i \in F\}$ as *affine n-space*. Then F^n is an F-vector space.

(2) Let $n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geqslant 0}$. Define $P_n(F) = \{a_0 + a_1 x + ... + a_n x^n \mid a_i \in F\}$. This is an F-vector space with polynomial addition and scalar multiplication. Define $F[x] = \bigcup_{n \geqslant 0} P_n(F)$. This is also an F-vector space, but either via polynomial addition *or* polynomial multiplication.

(3) Let $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geqslant 0}$. Set $V = \mathrm{Mat}_{n,m}(F) = \{$all $m \times n$ matrices with entries in $F\}$. This is an F-vector space with matrix addition and scalar mutliplication. If $m = n$ then write $\mathrm{Mat}_n(F)$ for $\mathrm{Mat}_{n,n}(F)$.

**Lemma 1.1.1.** *Let V be an F-vector space.*

   1. The element $0_v \in V$ is unique,

   2. $0v = 0_v$ for all $v \in V$,

   3. $(-1_F)v = -v$ for all $v \in V$.

Proof. (1) Let $0, 0'$ satisfy the following properties: $0 + v = v$ and $0' + v = v$ for all $v \in V$. Observe that $0 = 0' + 0 = 0 + 0' = 0'$. (2) Note that $0_F v = (0_F + 0_F)v = 0_F v + 0_F v$. Subtracting both sides by $0_F v$ yields $0 = 0_F v$. (3) Observe that $(-1_F)v + v = (-1_F)v + 1_F v = (-1_F + 1_F)v = 0_F v = 0$. Hence $(-1_F)v = -v$. $\qquad\square$

Definition 1.1.2. Let V be an F-vector space. We say $W \subseteq V$ is an $\underline{F\text{-}subspace}$ (or just $\underline{subspace}$ if F is obvious by context) if W is an F-vector space under the same addition and scalar multiplication.

Example 1.1.2.

(1) Consider the plane $V = \mathbf{R}^2$. Let w_1, w_2 be subsets of $\mathbf{R}^2$ as follows:
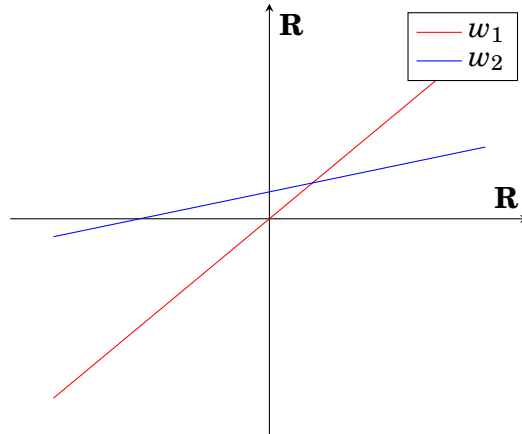
Note that w_2 is not a subspace, as it does not contain $0_{\mathbf{R}^2}$. On the other hand w_1 is a subspace; note that every element of w_1 is of the form (x, ax), hence $(x_1, ax_1) + (x_2, ax_2) = (x_1 + x_2, a(x_1 + x_2))$. The other axioms follow similarly.

(2) Let $V = \mathbf{C}$ and $W = \{a + 0i \mid a \in \mathbf{R}\}$. If $F = \mathbf{R}$, then clearly W is an $\mathbf{R}$-subspace. If $F = \mathbf{C}$, then W is not a $\mathbf{C}$-subspace; given $2 \in W$ and $i \in \mathbf{C}$, $2i \notin W$.

(3) $\mathrm{Mat}_2(\mathbf{R})$ is not a subspace of $\mathrm{Mat}_4(\mathbf{R})$, as $\mathrm{Mat}_2(\mathbf{R}) \not\subseteq \mathrm{Mat}_4(\mathbf{R})$.

(4) Let $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geqslant 0}$. If $m \leqslant n$, then $P_m(F)$ is a subspace of $P_n(F)$.

Lemma 1.1.2. *Let V be an F-vector space and $W \subseteq V$. Then W is an F-subspace of V if:*

(1) W is nonempty,

(2) W is closed under addition, and

(3) W is closed under scalar multiplication.

Proof. Let $x, y \in W$ and $\alpha \in F$, then by assumption $x + \alpha y \in W$. Take $\alpha = -1$, then $x - y \in W$ which implies W is an abelian subgroup of V. Then by (3) it must be the case that W is an F-subspace of V. $\hspace{2cm}$ □

Definition 1.1.3. Let V, W be F-vector spaces. Let $T : V \to W$. We say T is a *linear transformation* (or *linear map*) if for every $v_1, v_2 \in V$ and $c \in F$ we have

$$T(v_1 + cv_2) = T(v_1) + cT(v_2).$$

The collection of all linear maps from V to W is denoted $\mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$ (some textbooks write this as $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$).

Example 1.1.3.

(1) Let V be an F-vector space. Define $\mathrm{id}_v : V \to V$ by $\mathrm{id}_v(v) = v$. This is a linear map; i.e., $\mathrm{id}_v \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$ because $\mathrm{id}_v(v_1 + cv_2) = v_1 + cv_2 = \mathrm{id}_v(v_1) + c\,\mathrm{id}_v(v_2)$.

(2) Let $V = \mathbf{C}$. Define $T : V \to V$ by $z \mapsto \bar{z}$. Observe that:

$$T(z_1 + cz_2) = \overline{z_1 + cz_2} = \overline{z_1} + \bar{c}\,\overline{z_2}$$
$$T(z_1) + cT(z_2) = \overline{z_1} + c\,\overline{z_2}.$$

Note that these two are only equal if $c = \bar{c}$. Hence $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{C})$ if $F = \mathbf{R}$ but not if $F = \mathbf{C}$.

(3) Let $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$. Define $T_A : F^n \to F^m$ by $x \mapsto Ax$. Then $T_A \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(F^n, F^m)$.

(4) Recall that $C^\infty(\mathbf{R})$ is the set of all smooth functions $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ (another way of saying "smooth" is "infinitely differentiable"). Let $V = C^\infty(\mathbf{R})$. This is an $\mathbf{R}$-vector space under pointwise addition and scalar multiplication. If $a \in \mathbf{R}$ then:

- $E_a : V \to \mathbf{R}$ defined by $f \mapsto f(a)$ is an element of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(V, \mathbf{R})$,
- $D : V \to V$ defined by $f \mapsto f'$ is an element of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(V, V)$,
- $I_a : V \to V$ defined by $f \mapsto \int_a^x f(t)dt$ is an element of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(V, V)$, and
- $\tilde{E}_a : V \to V$ defined by $f \mapsto f(a)$ (where $f(a)$ is the constant function) is an element of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(V, V)$.

From this, we can express the fundamental theorem of calculus as follows:

$$D \circ I_a = \mathrm{id}_v$$
$$I_a \circ D = \mathrm{id}_v - \tilde{E}_a.$$

Proposition 1.1.3. $\mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$ *is an F-vector space.*

Proof. do this □

Lemma 1.1.4. *Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$. Then $T(0_v) = 0_w$.*

Proof. do this □

Definition 1.1.4. Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$ be invertible; i.e., there exists a linear transformation $T^{-1} : W \to V$ such that $T \circ T^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_w$ and $T^{-1} \circ T = \mathrm{id}_v$. If this is the case we say T is an *isomorphism* and say V and W are *isomorphic*, written as $V \cong W$.

Proposition 1.1.5. *Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$ be an isomorphism. Then $T^{-1} \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(W, V)$.*

Proof. do this □

Example 1.1.4.

(1) Let $V = \mathbf{R}^2$ and $W = \mathbf{C}$. Define $T : \mathbf{R}^2 \to \mathbf{C}$ by $(x, y) \mapsto x + iy$. This is an isomorphism: note that $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{R}^2, \mathbf{C})$ because

$$T((x_1, y_1) + r(x_2, y_2)) = \dots\text{fill this out}$$
$$= T((x_1, y_1)) + rT((x_2, y_2)).$$

Defining $T^{-1} : \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{R}^2$ by $x + iy \mapsto (x, y)$ (and showing it's linear) clearly satisfies $(T \circ T^{-1})(x + iy) = x + iy$ and $(T^{-1} \circ T)((x, y)) = (x, y)$, hence $\mathbf{R}^2 \cong \mathbf{C}$ as $\mathbf{R}$-vector spaces.

(2) Set $V = P_n(F)$ and $W = F^{n+1}$. Define $T : P_n(F) \to F^{n+1}$ by

$$a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \mapsto (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n).$$

This is an isomorphism; $P_n(F) \cong F^{n+1}$.

Definition 1.1.5. Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$. Define the *kernel* of T as:

(1) The *kernel of T* is defined as $\ker(T) = \{v \in V \mid T(v) = 0_w\}$.

(2) The *image of T* is defined as $\mathrm{im}(T) = \{w \in W \mid T(v) = w \text{ for some } v \in V\}$.

Lemma 1.1.6. *Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$. Then:*

(1) $\ker(T)$ is a subspace of V,

(2) $\mathrm{im}(T)$ is a subspace of W.

Proof. Let $v_1, v_2 \in \ker(T)$ and $\alpha \in F$. Observe that $T(v_1 + \alpha v_2) = T(v_1) + \alpha T(v_2) = 0_w + \alpha 0_w = 0_w$, hence $v_1 + \alpha v_2 \in \ker(T)$ establishing $\ker(T)$ as a subspace of V.

Let $w_1, w_2 \in \mathrm{im}(T)$ and $\alpha \in F$. Then there exists $v_1, v_2 \in V$ such that $T(v_1) = w_1$ and $T(v_2) = w_2$. Observe that $w_1 + \alpha w_2 = T(v_1) + \alpha T(v_2) = T(v_1 + \alpha v_2)$, hence $w_1 + \alpha w_2 \in \mathrm{im}(T)$ establishing $\mathrm{im}(T)$ as a subspace of W. □

Lemma 1.1.7. *Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$. T is injective if and only if $\ker(T) = \{0_v\}$*

Proof. Let T be injective. Let $v \in \ker(T)$. Then $T(v) = 0_w = T(0_v)$, and since T is injective $v = 0_v$.

    Conversely, assume $\ker(T) = 0_v$. Let $v_1, v_2 \in V$ with $T(v_1) = T(v_2)$. Subtracting both sides by $T(v_2)$ gives $T(v_1) - T(v_2) = 0_w$, and since T is a linear transformation yields $T(v_1 - v_2) = 0_w$. Since the kernel is trivial, it must be the case that $v_1 = v_2$. $\square$

Example 1.1.5. Let $m > n$. Define $T : F^m \to F^n$ by

$$(a_0, a_1, ..., a_{n-1}, a_n, a_{n+1}, ..., a_m) \mapsto (a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)$$

Then $\mathrm{im}(T) = F^n$ and $\ker(T) = \{(0, ..., 0, a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, ..., a_m) \in F^m\} \cong F^{m-n}$.

2

Bases and Dimension

2.1 Basic Definitions

Unless otherwise stated assume V to be an F-vector space.

Definition 2.1.1. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a subset of V where I is an indexing set (possibly infinite). We say $v \in V$ is an *F-linear combination of $\mathcal{B}$* (or just *linear combination*) if there is a set $\{a_i\}_{i \in I}$ with $a_i = 0$ for all but finitely many i such that $v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i$. The collection of F-linear combinations is denoted $\mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B})$.

Example 2.1.1. Let $V = P_2(F)$.

(1) Set $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2\}$. We have $\mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = P_2(F)$.

(2) Set $C = \{1, (x-1), (x-1)^2\}$. We have $\mathrm{span}_F (C) = P_2(F)$.

Definition 2.1.2. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a subset of V. We say $\mathcal{B}$ is *F-linearly independent* (or just *linearly independent*) if whenever $\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i = 0$ then $a_i = 0$ for all $i \in I$.

Definition 2.1.3. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a subset of V. We say $\mathcal{B}$ is an *F-basis* (or just *basis*) of V if:

- $\mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = V$, and

- $\mathcal{B}$ is linearly independent.

Example 2.1.2. Let $V = F^n$. Let $\mathcal{E}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$ with

$$e_1 = (1, 0, 0, ..., 0)$$
$$e_2 = (0, 1, 0, ..., 0)$$
$$\vdots$$
$$e_n = (0, 0, 0, ..., 1).$$

We have that $\mathcal{E}_n$ is a basis of F^n and is referred to as the *standard basis*.

2.2 Every Vector Space Admits a Basis

Definition 2.2.1. A *relation* from A to B is a subset $R \subseteq A \times B$. Typically, when one says "a relation on A" that means a relation from A to A; i.e., $R \subseteq A \times A$.

Definition 2.2.2. Let A be a set. An *ordering* of A is a relation R on A that is

(1) *reflexive*: $(a, a) \in R$ for all $a \in A$,

(2) *transitive*: $(a, b), (b, c) \in R$ implies $(a, c) \in R$, and

(3) *antisymmetric*: $(a, b), (b, a) \in R$ implies $a = b$.

If this is the case, we write $(a, b) \in R$ as $a \leqslant_R b$. If A is an ordered set we write it as the ordered pair $(A, \leqslant_R)$ (or just A if the ordering is obvious by context).

Definition 2.2.3. An ordered set $(X, \leqslant_R)$ is *total* if for all $a, b \in X$ we have that $a \leqslant_R b$ or $b \leqslant_R a$.

Definition 2.2.4. Let $(X, \leqslant)$ be an ordered set and $A \subseteq X$ nonempty.

(1) A is called a *chain* if $(A, \leqslant)$ is a total ordering.

(2) A is called *bounded above* if there exists an element $u \in X$ with $a \leqslant u$ for all $a \in A$. Such a u is called an *upperbound* for A.

(3) A *maximal element of A* is an element $m \in A$ such that if $a \geqslant m$, then $a = m$.

Lemma 2.2.1 (Zorn's Lemma). *Let X be an ordered set with the property that every chain has an upperbound. Then X contains a maximal element.*

Theorem 2.2.2. *Let $\mathcal{A}$ and C be subsets of V with $\mathcal{A} \subseteq C$. Assume $\mathcal{A}$ is linearly independent and $\mathrm{span}_F (C) = V$. Then there exists a basis $\mathcal{B}$ of V with $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \subseteq C$[1].*

Proof. Let $X = \{\mathcal{B}' \subseteq V \mid \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}' \subseteq C, \ \mathcal{B}'$ is linearly independent$\}$. We have $\mathcal{A} \in X$, so $X \neq \emptyset$. X is ordered with respect to inclusion, and has an upperbound of C. By Zorn's Lemma we have a maximal element in X, call it $\mathcal{B}$.

  Claim: $\mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = V$. Suppose towards contradiction it's not, then there exists a $v \in C$ with $v \notin \mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B})$. But then $\mathcal{B} \cup \{v\}$ is still linearly independent, and $\mathcal{B} \cup \{v\} \subseteq C$. This gives $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{B} \cup \{v\}$, which is a contradiction because $\mathcal{B}$ is maximal in X. Thus $\mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = V$.   □

2.3   Cardinality and Dimension

Lemma 2.3.1. *A homogenous system of m linear equations in n unknowns with $m < n$ has a nonzero solution.*

Proof. do this   □

Corollary 2.3.2. *Let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq V$ with $\mathrm{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = V$ and $|\mathcal{B}| = m$. Any set with more than m elements cannot be linearly independent.*

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[1]Given any linearly-independent set $\mathcal{A}$, we can constructing a basis $\mathcal{B}$ by adding elements. Given any spanning set C, we can construct a basis $\mathcal{B}$ by removing elements.

Proof. Let $C = \{w_1, ..., w_n\}$ with $n > m$. We will show C cannot be linearly independent. Write $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_m\}$ with $\operatorname{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = V$. For each i, write

$$w_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{ji} v_j \text{ for some } a_{ji} \in F.$$

Consider the equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ji} x_i = 0.$$

By Lemma 2.3.1 there exists nonzero solutions $(x_1, ..., x_n) = (c_1, ..., c_n) \neq (0, ..., 0)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 &= \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ji} c_i \right) v_j \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{ji} v_j \right) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i w_i.
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $C = \{w_1, ..., w_n\}$ is not linearly independent. $\qquad\square$

Corollary 2.3.3. *If $\mathcal{B}$ and C are both finite bases of V, then $|\mathcal{B}| = |C|$.*

Proof. Let $|\mathcal{B}| = m$ and $|C| = n$. Because $\operatorname{span}_F (\mathcal{B}) = V$ and C is linearly independent, it must be the case that $n \leqslant m$. But since $\operatorname{span}_F (C) = V$ and $\mathcal{B}$ is also linearly independent, it must be the case that $m \leqslant n$. By antisymmetry, $n = m$. $\qquad\square$

Definition 2.3.1. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be a basis of V. The <u>*dimension*</u> of V, written $\dim_F (V)$, is the cardinality of $\mathcal{B}$; i.e., $\dim_F (V) = |\mathcal{B}|$.

Theorem 2.3.4. *Let V be a finite dimensional vector space with $\dim_F (V) = n$. Let $C \subseteq V$ with $|C| = m$.*

(1) If $m > n$, then C is not linearly independent.

(2) If $m < n$, then $\operatorname{span}_F (C) \neq V$.

(3) If $m = n$, then the following are equivalent:

- *C is a basis;*
- *C is linearly independent;*
- *$\operatorname{span}_F (C) = V$.*

Corollary 2.3.5. *Let $W \subseteq V$ be a subspace. We have $\dim_F (W) \leqslant \dim_F (V)$. If $\dim_F (V) < \infty$, then $V = W$ if and only if $\dim_F (V) = \dim_F (W)$.*

Example 2.3.1. Let $V = \mathbf{C}$.

(1) If $F = \mathbf{C}$, then $\mathcal{B} = \{1\}$ is a basis and $\dim_{\mathbf{C}}(\mathbf{C}) = 1$.

(2) If $F = \mathbf{R}$, then $\mathcal{B} = \{1, i\}$ is a basis and $\dim_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{C}) = 2$.

(3) If $F = \mathbf{Q}$, then $|\mathcal{B}| = \mathfrak{c}$ and $\dim_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{C}) = \mathfrak{c}$ (the *continuum*).

Example 2.3.2. Let $V = F[x]$ and let $f(x) \in F[x]$. We can use this polynomial to split $F[x]$ into equivalence classes analogous to how one creates the field $\mathbf{F}_p$. Define $g(x) \, h(x)$ if $f(x) \mid (g(x) - h(x))$. This is an equivalence relation. We let $[g(x)]$ denote the equivalence class containing $g(x) \in F[x]$. Let $F[x]/(f(x)) = \{[g(x)] \mid g(x) \in F[x]\}$ denote the collection of equivalence classes. Define $[g(x)] + [h(x)] = [g(x) + h(x)]$ and $\alpha[g(x)] = [\alpha g(x)]$, this makes $F[x]/(f(x))$ into a vector space.

Set $n = \deg(f(x))$. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{[1], [x], ..., [x^{n-1}]\}$. We will show this is a basis for $F[x]/(f(x))$. Suppose there exists $a_0, ..., a_{n-1} \in F$ with $a_0[1] + a_1[x] + ... + a_{n-1}[x^{n-1}] = [0]$. So $[a_0 + a_1 x + ... + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}] = [0]$, hence $f(x) \mid (a_0 + a_1 x + ... + a_{n-1}x^{n-1})$. But $\deg(f(x)) = n$, so we must have $a_0 = a_1 = ... = 0$ (linear independence).

Let $[g(x)] \in F[x]/(f(x))$. The Euclidean algorithm of polynomials gives $g(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x)$ for some $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]/(f(x))$ with $r(x) = 0$ or $\deg(r(x)) \leqslant \deg(g(x))$. Observe that $[g(x)] = [f(x)q(x) + r(x)] = [f(x)q(x)] + [r(x)] = [r(x)]$. Since $[r(x)]$ can be written as a linear combination of basis elements from $\mathcal{B}$, we have $[g(x)] \in \text{span}_F(\mathcal{B})$. Note that any element of $\text{span}_F(\mathcal{B})$ is clearly contained in $F[x]/(f(x))$, establishing $\text{span}_F(\mathcal{B}) = F[x]/(f(x))$.

Lemma 2.3.6. *Let V be an F-vector space and $C = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a subset of V. Then C is a basis if and only if each $v \in V$ can be written uniquely as a linear combination of elements of C.*

Proof. Suppose C is a basis. Let $v \in V$ and suppose

$$v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i = \sum_{i \in I} b_i v_i,$$

for some $a_i, b_i \in F$. Observe that:

$$0_v = \sum_{i \in I} (a_i - b_i) v_i.$$

Since C is a basis, it is linearly independent, so $a_i - b_i = 0$ for all i. Thus $a_i = b_i$ for all i establishing that the expansion is unique.

Conversely, suppose every vector $v \in V$ is a unique linear combination of C. Certainly we have $\text{span}_F(C) = V$. Suppose $0_v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i$ for some $a_i \in F$. We also have that $0_v = \sum_{i \in I} 0 \cdot v_i$. Uniqueness gives $a_i = 0$ for all $i \in I$; i.e., C is linearly independent. □

Proposition 2.3.7. *Let V, W be F-vector spaces.*

(1) *Let $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, W)$. We have that T is determined by what it does to a basis (where it maps it).*

(2) *Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a basis of V and $C = \{w_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a subset of V. If $|\mathcal{B}| = |C|$, there is a $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, W)$ such that $T(v_i) = w_i$ for all $i \in I$.*

Proof. (1) Let $v \in V$. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a basis of V and write $v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i$. We have $T(v) = T(\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i) = \sum_{i \in I} a_i T(v_i)$.

(2) Define $T : V \to W$ by $v \mapsto \sum_{i \in I} a_i w_i$. If $v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i$ this map is linear (show this). □

Corollary 2.3.8. *Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ a basis of V and $C = \{w_i = T(v_i)\}_{i \in I}$ a subset of W. We have C is a basis of W if and only if T is an isomorphism.*

Proof. Suppose C is a basis of W. Using the result from Proposition 2.3.7, define $S \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(W, V)$ with $S(w_i) = v_i$. Check $T \circ S = \mathrm{id}_W$ and $S \circ T = \mathrm{id}_V$. Thus T is an isomorphism.

Conversely, let T be an isomorphism. Let $w \in W$. As T is surjective, there exists a $v \in V$ such that $T(v) = w$. Using $\mathcal{B}$ as a basis of V, write $v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i$. So observe that:

$$w = T(v) = T\left(\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i\right) = \sum_{i \in I} a_i T(v_i) \in \mathrm{span}_F(C),$$

hence $W = \mathrm{span}_F(C)$ (note the other direction is trivial —you never need to show that). Now suppose there exists a collection of elements $a_i \in F$ with $\sum_{i \in I} a_i T(v_i) = 0_W$. Since T is linear, this is equivalent to $T(\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i) = 0_W$, and since T is injective it must be the case that $\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i = 0_V$. Since $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis we get $a_i = 0$ for all $i \in I$, establishing that C is linearly independent. □

Theorem 2.3.9 (Rank-Nullity Theorem). *Let V be an F-vector space with $\dim_F(V) < \infty$. Then:*

$$\dim_F(V) = \dim_F(\ker(T)) + \dim_F(\mathrm{im}(T)).$$

Proof. Let $\dim_F(\ker(T)) = k$ and $\dim_F(V) = n$. Let $\mathcal{A} = \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$ be a basis of $\ker(T)$. Extend this to a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ of V. We'd like to show that $C = \{T(v_{k+1}), \ldots, T(v_n)\}$ is a basis of $\mathrm{im}(T)$.

Let $w \in \mathrm{im}(T)$. So there exists a $v \in V$ with $T(v) = w$. Write $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i$. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
w &= T(v) \\
&= T\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i\right) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i T(v_i) \\
&= \sum_{i=k+1}^n a_i T(v_i) \in \mathrm{span}_F(C). \qquad \text{\small b/c } v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \ker(T)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\mathrm{span}_F(C) = \mathrm{im}(T)$. Now suppose we have $\sum_{i=k+1}^n a_i T(v_i) = 0_W$. Since T is linear we have $T(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i) = 0_w$, which gives $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i \in \ker(T)$. Thus we can write it in terms of the basis $\mathcal{A}$ of $\ker(T)$: there exists $a_1, \ldots, a_k$ such that

$$\sum_{i=k+1}^n a_i v_i = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i v_i,$$

which is equivalent to $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i v_i + \sum_{i=k+1}^n a_i v_i = 0_V$. However, $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis of V so $a_1 = \ldots = a_n = 0$. □

Corollary 2.3.10. *Let V, W be F-vector spaces with $\dim_F(V) = n$. Let $V_1 \subseteq V$ be a subspace with $\dim_F(V_1) = k$ and $W_1 \subseteq W$ a subspace with $\dim_F(W_1) = n-k$. Then there exists a $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, W)$ such that $\ker(T) = V_1$ and $\operatorname{im}(T) = W_1$.*

Proof. do it $\square$

Corollary 2.3.11. *Let $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, W)$ with $\dim_F(V) = \dim_F(W) < \infty$. The following are equivalent:*

(1) T is an isomorphism.

(2) T is injective.

(3) T is surjective.

Proof. do it $\square$

Corollary 2.3.12. *Let $A = \operatorname{Mat}_n(F)$. The following are equivalent:*

(1) A is invertible.

(2) There exists an element $B \in \operatorname{Mat}_n(F)$ such that $BA = 1_n$.

(3) There exists an element $B \in \operatorname{Mat}_n(F)$ such that $AB = 1_n$.

Proof. do it $\square$

Corollary 2.3.13. *Let $\dim_F(V) = m$ and $\dim_F(W) = n$.*

(1) If $m < n$ and $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, W)$, then T is not surjective.

(2) If $m > n$ and $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, W)$, then T is not injective.

(3) If $m = n$ then $V \cong W$.

Example 2.3.3. This follows shortly after corollary 2.2.30 (write it down later)

2.4   Direct Sums and Quotient Spaces

Definition 2.4.1. Let V be an F-vector space and $V_1, ..., V_k$ be subspaces. The <u>sum</u> of $V_1, ..., V_k$ is

$$V_1 + ... + V_k = \{v_1 + ... + v_k \mid v_i \in V_i\}.$$

Proposition 2.4.1. *Let V be an F-vector space and $V_1, ..., V_k$ be subspaces. Then $V_1 + ... + V_k$ is also a subspace of V.*

Proof. do this $\square$

Definition 2.4.2. Let $V_1, ..., V_k$ be subspaces of V. We say $V_1, ..., V_k$ are *independent* if whenever $v_1 + ... + v_k = 0_V$ then $v_i = 0_V$.

Definition 2.4.3. Let $V_1, ..., V_k$ be subspaces of V. We say V is the *direct sum* of $V_1, ..., V_k$ and write $V = V_1 \oplus ... \oplus V_k$ if:

(1) $V = V_1 + ... + V_k$, and

(2) $V_1, ..., V_k$ are independent.

Example 2.4.1.

(1) Let $V = F^2$ with $V_1 = \{(x, 0) \mid x \in F\}$ and $V_2 = \{(0, y) \mid y \in F\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} V_1 + V_2 &= \{(x, 0) + (0, y) \mid x, y \in F\} \\ &= \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in F\} \\ &= V \end{aligned}$$

If $(x, 0) + (y, 0) = (0, 0)$, then $x = y = 0$ which means V_1 and V_2 are independent. Hence $F^2 = V_1 \oplus V_2$.

(2) Let $V = F[x]$ and $V_1 = F$, $V_2 = Fx = \{\alpha x \mid \alpha \in F\}$, and $V_3 = P_1(F)$. Note that $P_1(F) = V_1 \oplus V_2$. But V_1, V_3 are not independent because $1_F \in V_1$ and $-1_F \in V_3$ and $(-1_F) + 1_F = 0$.

(3) Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis of V and $\text{span}_F(v_i) = V_i$. Then $V = V_1 \oplus ... \oplus V_n$.

Lemma 2.4.2. *Let V be an F-vector space with $V_1, ..., V_k$ as subspaces. We have $V = V_1 \oplus ... \oplus V_k$ if and only if every $v \in V$ can be written uniquely in the form $v = v_1 + ... + v_k$ for all $v_i \in V_i$.*

Proof. Suppose $V = V_1 \oplus ... \oplus V_k$. Let $v \in V$. Suppose $v = v_1 + ... + v_k = \tilde{v}_1 + ... + \tilde{v}_k$ for $v_i, \tilde{v}_i \in V_i$. Then $0_V = (v_1 - \tilde{v}_1) + ... + (v_k - \tilde{v}_k)$. Since $V_1, ..., V_k$ are independent and $v_i - \tilde{v}_i \in V$, this gives $v_i - \tilde{v}_i = 0_V$ for all i. Thus the expansion for V is unique.

Conversely, suppose every $v \in V$ can be written uniquely in the form $v = v_1 + ... + v_k$ with $v_i \in V_i$. Then $V = V_1 + ... + V_k$ by definition of sums of subspaces. If $0_V = v_1 + ... + v_k$ for some $v_i \in V_i$, and $0_v = 0_v + ... + 0_v$, then (by uniqueness) it must be the case that $v_i = 0_V$ for all i. $\square$

Exercise 2.4.1. *Let $V_1, ..., V_k$ be subspaces of V. For each $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k$, let $\mathcal{B}_i$ be a basis of V_i. Let $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \mathcal{B}_i$. Show that:*

(1) *$\mathcal{B}$ spans V if and only if $V = V_1 + ... + V_k$.*

(2) *$\mathcal{B}$ is linearly independent if and only if $V_1, ..., V_k$ are independent.*

(3) *$\mathcal{B}$ is a basis if and only if $V = V_1 \oplus ... \oplus V_k$.*

Proof. do this shit $\square$

Lemma 2.4.3. *Let $U \subseteq V$ be a subspace. Then U has a complement.*

Proof. do this shit   □

Definition 2.4.4. Let $W \subseteq V$ be a subsapce. Define $v_1 \, v_2$ if $v_1 - v_2 \in W$ for some $v_1, v_2 \in V$. This forms an equivalence relation. Denote the equivalence class containing v as $[v]_W = v + W = \{\tilde{v} \in V \mid v \, \tilde{v}\} = \{v + w \mid w \in W\}$. The set containing all equivalence classes over W is denoted $V/W = \{v + W \mid v \in V\}$.

Proposition 2.4.4. *Let $v_1 + W, v_2 + W \in V/W$ and $\alpha \in F$. With addition and scalar multiplication defined as follows:*

$$(v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) = (v_1 + v_2) + W$$
$$\alpha(v_1 + W) = \alpha v_1 + W,$$

it's operations are well-defined and V/W forms an F-vector space.

Proof. Let $v_1 + W = \tilde{v}_1 + W$ and $v_2 + W = \tilde{v}_2 + W$. Then $v_1 = \tilde{v}_1 + w_1$ and $v_2 = \tilde{v}_2 + w_2$ for some $w_1, w_2 \in W$. Observe that:

$$\begin{aligned}
(v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) &= (v_1 + v_2 + W) \\
&= (\tilde{v}_1 + w_2 + \tilde{v}_2 + w_2) + W \\
&= (\tilde{v}_1 + \tilde{v}_2) + W \\
&= (\tilde{v}_1 + W) + (\tilde{v}_2 + W).
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
c(v_1 + W) &= cv_1 + W \\
&= c(\tilde{v}_1 + w) + W \\
&= c\tilde{v}_1 + W \\
&= c(\tilde{v}_1 + W).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence addition and scalar multiplication are well-defined. show the vector space axioms here.   □

Example 2.4.2. Let $V = \mathbf{R}^2$ and $W = \{(x, 0) \mid x \in \mathbf{R}\}$. Let $(x_0, y_0) \in V$. We have that $(x_0, y_0) \sim (x, y)$ if $(x_0, y_0) - (x, y) = (x_0 - x, y_0 - y) \in W$. So $(x_0, y_0) + W = \{(x, y_0) \mid x \in \mathbf{R}\}$. Then V/W is a vector space only when $y = 0$.

Define $\tau : \mathbf{R} \to V/W$ by $y \mapsto (0, y) + W$. This is an isomorphism. Let $y_1, y_2, c \in \mathbf{R}$. Observe that:

$$\begin{aligned}
\tau(y_1 + cy_2) &= (0, y_1 + cy_2) + W \\
&= ((0, y_1) + (0, cy_2)) + W \\
&= ((0, y_1) + c(0, y_2)) + W \\
&= ((0, y_1) + W) + c((0, y_2) + W) \\
&= \tau(y_1) + c\tau(y_2).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence $\tau \in \mathrm{Hom}_F (\mathbf{R}, V/W)$. Let $(x, y) + W \in V/W$. Then $(x, y) + W = (0, y) + W$. So τ is surjective because $\tau(y) = (0, y) + W$. Now let $y \in \ker(\tau)$. Then $\tau(y) = (0, y) + W = (0, 0) + W$. This implies $y = 0$, meaning the kernel is trivial and so τ is injective.

Alternatively, it is routine to show that $\tau^{-1} \in \mathrm{Hom}_F (V/W, \mathbf{R})$ with $\tau^{-1} \circ \tau = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbf{R}}$ and $\tau \circ \tau^{-1} = \mathrm{id}_{V/W}$.

Definition 2.4.5. Let $W \subseteq V$ be a subspace. The _canonical projection map_ $\pi_W : V \to V/W$ is defined by $v \mapsto v + W$. Note that $\pi_W \in \mathrm{Hom}_F (V, V/W)$.

Note 1. To define a map $T : V/W \to V'$, you always have to check it is well-defined.

Theorem 2.4.5 (First Isomorphism Theorem). _Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F (V, W)$. Define $\overline{T} : V/\ker(T) \to W$ by $v + \ker(T) \mapsto T(v)$. Then $\overline{T}$ is a linear map. Moreover, $V/\ker(T) \cong \mathrm{im}(T)$._

Proof. finish this   □

2.5 Dual Spaces

Note that when one refers to something as _"canonical"_, it means the object in question does not depend on a basis.

Definition 2.5.1. Let V be an F-vector space. The _dual space_, denoted $V^\vee$, is defined to be $V^\vee = \mathrm{Hom}_F (V, F)$.

Theorem 2.5.1. _We have V is isomorphic to a subspace of $V^\vee$. If $\dim_F (V) < \infty$, then $V \cong V^\vee$._

Proof. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a basis (hence this theorem is not canonical). For each $i \in I$, define:

$$v_i^\vee(v_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We get $\{v_i^\vee\}_{i \in}$ are elements of $V^\vee$. We obtain $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F (V, V^\vee)$ by $T(v_i) = v_i^\vee$. To show that V is isomorphic to a subspace of $V^\vee$, it is enough to show T is injective, then by the first isomorphism theorem $V \cong \mathrm{im}(T)$ (a subspace of $V^\vee$).

Let $v \in \ker(T)$, then $T(v) = 0_{V^\vee}$. Write $v = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i$. So:

$$0_{V^\vee} = T(v)$$
$$= T\left(\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i \in I} a_i T(v_i)$$
$$= \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i^\vee.$$

Towards contradiction, pick some j with $a_j \neq 0$. Note that $0_{V^\vee} = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i^\vee(v_j) = a_j$ (every term except for $a_j v_j^\vee(v_j)$ equals 0). This is a contradiction, hence T is injective.

Now assume $\dim_F(V) = n$ and write $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$. Let $v^\vee \in V^\vee$. Define $a_i = v^\vee(v_i)$. Set $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i$ and define $S : V^\vee \to V$ by $S(v^\vee) = v = \sum_{i=1}^n v^\vee(v_i)v_i$. We'd like to show that $S \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V^\vee, V)$ and is the inverse of T. Let $v^\vee, w^\vee \in V^\vee$ and $c \in F$. Set $a_i = v^\vee(v_i)$ and $b_i = w^\vee(v_i)$. Then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(v^\vee + cw^\vee) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[(v^\vee + cw^\vee)(v_i) \right] v_i \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[v^\vee(v_i) + cw^\vee(v_i) \right] v_i \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n v^\vee(v_i)v_i + c \sum_{i=1}^n w^\vee(v_i)v_i \\
&= S(v^\vee) + cS(w^\vee).
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence S is linear. Now observe that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(S \circ T)(v_j) &= S(T(v_j)) \\
&= S(v_j^\vee) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n v_j^\vee(v_i)v_i \\
&= v_j
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $v^\vee \in V^\vee$. Note that $(T \circ S)(v^\vee)$ is a function, so it will require an input. Observe that

$$
\begin{aligned}
(T \circ S)(v^\vee)(v_j) &= T(S(v^\vee))(v_j) \\
&= T\left(\sum_{i=1}^n v^\vee(v_i)v_i \right)(v_j) \\
&= \left[\sum_{i=1}^n v^\vee(v_i)T(v_i) \right](v_j) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n v^\vee(v_i)(v_i^\vee(v_j)) \\
&= v^\vee(v_j).
\end{aligned}
$$

$\square$

Definition 2.5.2. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis of V. The _dual basis_ for $V^\vee$ is $\mathcal{B}^\vee = \{v_1^\vee, ..., v_n^\vee\}$.

Proposition 2.5.2. _There is a canonical injective linear map from V to $(V^\vee)^\vee$. If $\dim_F(V) < \infty$, this is an isomorphism._

Proof. Let $v \in V$. Define $\hat{v} : V^\vee \to F$ by $\varphi \mapsto \varphi(v)$[2]. We can easily verify that $\hat{v}$ is linear. Therefore, we have $\hat{v} \in \mathrm{Hom}_F\left(V^\vee, F\right) = \left(V^\vee\right)^\vee$. We have a map:

$$\Phi : V \to \left(V^\vee\right)^\vee \text{ defined by } v \mapsto \hat{v}.$$

We want to verify that Φ is an injective linear map. Let $v_1, v_2 \in V$ and $c \in F$. Let $\varphi \in V^\vee$, then:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi(v_1 + cv_2)(\varphi) &= \widehat{v_1 + cv_2}(\varphi) \\
&= \varphi(v_1 + cv_2) \\
&= \varphi(v_1) + c\varphi(v_2) \\
&= \hat{v_1}(\varphi) + c\hat{v_2}(\varphi) \\
&= \Phi(v_1)(\varphi) + c\Phi(v_2)(\varphi).
\end{aligned}$$

We will now show that Φ is injective. Let $v \in V$ and assume $v \neq 0_V$. We will form a basis $\mathcal{B}$ of V that contains v (why is this still canonical?). Let $v^\vee \in V^\vee$, then $v^\vee(v) = 1$ and $v^\vee(w) = 0$ for all $w \in \mathcal{B}$, $w \neq v$. Now assume $v \in \ker\left(\Phi\right)$. Then $\Phi(v)(\varphi) = \varphi(v) = 0$ for all $\varphi \in V^\vee$. But picking $\varphi = v^\vee$ gives:

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \Phi(v)(v^\vee) \\
&= v^\vee(v) \\
&= 1.
\end{aligned}$$

This is a contradiction, hence Φ is injective. $\qquad\square$

Definition 2.5.3. Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F\left(V, W\right)$. We get an induced map $T^\vee : W^\vee \to V^\vee$ with $T^\vee(\varphi) = \varphi \circ T$. The following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
V & \xrightarrow{\ \ T\ \ } & W \\
 & {\scriptstyle T^\vee(\varphi)}\searrow & \downarrow{\scriptstyle \varphi} \\
 & & F.
\end{array}
$$

---

[2]This can be notated as eval_v, but $\hat{v}$ appears more often in literature

3

Linear Transformations and Matrices

3.1 Choosing Coordinates

Example 3.1.1 (Choosing Coordinates). Let V be an F-vector space with $\dim_F(V) < \infty$. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis for V. This basis fixes an isomorphism $V \cong F^n$. Let $v \in V$, write $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i$.

$$\text{Define } T_{\mathcal{B}}(v) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \in F^n.$$

This is an isomorphism. Given $v \in V$, we write $[v]_{\mathcal{B}} = T_{\mathcal{B}}(v) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$. We refer to this as *choosing coordinates* on V. asdf

Example 3.1.2.

(1) Let $V = \mathbf{Q}^2$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right), \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)\}$. This forms a basis of V. Let $v \in V$ with $v = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} a \\ b \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. We have:

$$v = \frac{a+b}{2}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{a-b}{2}\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ hence } [v]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a+b}{2} \\ \frac{a-b}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Had we considered the standard basis $\mathcal{E}_2 = \{\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix}\right), \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)\}$, then $[v]_{\mathcal{E}_2} = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} a \\ b \end{smallmatrix}\right)$.

(2) Let $V = P_2(\mathbf{R})$. Let $C = \{1, (x-1), (x-1)^2\}$. This forms a basis of V. Let $f(x) = a + bx + cx^2 \in P_2(\mathbf{R})$. Written in terms of C, we have $f(x) = (a + b + c) + (b + 2c)(x - 1) + c(x - 1)^2$.

$$\text{Thus } [f(x)]_C = \begin{pmatrix} a + b + c \\ b + 2c \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 3.1.3 (Linear Transformations as Matrices). Recall that given a matrix $A \in \text{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$, we obtain a linear map $T_A \in \text{Hom}_F(F^n, F^m)$ by $T_A(v) = Av$. This process "works in reverse" —given a linear transformation $T \in \text{Hom}_F(F^n, F^m)$, there is a matrix A so that $T = T_A$.

Let $\mathcal{E}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$ be the standard basis of F^n and $\mathcal{F}_m = \{f_1, ..., f_m\}$ be the standard basis of F^m. We have that $T(e_j) \in F^m$ for each j, meaning we have elements $a_{ij} \in F$ with $T(e_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} f_i$. Define $A = (a_{ij}) \in Mat_{m,n}(F)$. Observe that:

$$T_A(e_j) = Ae_j = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} f_i = a_{1j} f_1 + ... + a_{mj} f_m.$$

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & \dots & a_{1n} \\
\vdots & \ddots & & & \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \\
\vdots & & & \ddots & \\
a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & \dots & a_{mn}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
0 \\ \vdots \\ 1_j \\ \vdots \\ 0
\end{pmatrix}
=
\begin{pmatrix}
a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ a_{3j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj}
\end{pmatrix}
$$

Working "in reverse", let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ a basis for V and $C = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ a basis for W. Define:

$$P = T_{\mathcal{B}} : V \to F^n \text{ by } v \mapsto [v]_{\mathcal{B}}$$
$$Q = T_C : W \to F^m \text{ by } w \mapsto [w]_C$$

From the following diagram:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
V & \xrightarrow{\ \ T\ \ } & W \\
{\scriptstyle P}\downarrow & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle Q} \\
F^n & \underset{Q \circ T \circ P^{-1}}{\dashrightarrow} & F^m
\end{array}
$$

we have that $Q \circ T \circ P^{-1}$ corresponds to a matrix $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$. Write $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{C} = A$, this is the unique matrix that satisfies $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{C}[v]_{\mathcal{B}} = [T(v)]_C$. Given $T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} w_i$, observe that:

$$
[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{C} v_j = [T(v_j)]_C = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} w_i\right]_C = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{pmatrix}.
$$

So $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{C} v_j$ corresponds to the jth column of the matrix $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{C}$ Thus we have:

$$
[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{C} = \Big([T(v_1)]_C \ \mid \ \dots \ \mid \ [T(v_n)]_C \Big)
$$

Example 3.1.4.

(1) Let $V = P_3(\mathbf{R})$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$. Define $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(V, V)$ by $T(f(x)) = f'(x)$. Following Example 3.1.3 gives:

$$T(1) = 0 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdots x + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3$$
$$T(x) = 1 = 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3$$
$$T(x^2) = 2x = 0 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3$$
$$T(x^3) = 3x^2 = 0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot x + 3 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3$$

$$[T(1)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[T(x)]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left[T(x^2)\right]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left[T(x^3)\right]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[T]^{\mathcal{B}}_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(2) Let $V = P_3(\mathbf{R})$ with $\mathcal{B} = \left\{1, x, x^2, x^3\right\}$ with $C = \left\{1, (1-x), (1-x)^2, (1-x^3)\right\}$. Then

$$T(1) = 0$$
$$T(x) = 1$$
$$T(x^2) = 2 + 2(x-1)$$
$$T(x^3) = -9 - 6(x-1) + 3(x-1)^2$$

$$[T(1)]_C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[T(x)]_C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left[T(x^2)\right]_C = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left[T(x^3)\right]_C = \begin{pmatrix} -9 \\ -6 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[T]^{C}_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & -9 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Exercise 3.1.1.

(1) Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a basis of U, $\mathcal{B}$ a basis of V and C a basis of W. Let $S \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(U, V)$ and $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, W)$. Show

$$[T \circ S]_{\mathcal{A}}^C = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}^C [S]_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathcal{B}}.$$

(2) Given $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,k}(F)$ and $B \in \mathrm{Mat}_{n,m}(F)$, we have corresponding linear maps T_A and T_B. Show that you can recover the definition of matrix multiplication by using part (1).

Note 2. Instead of $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{B}}$ we will write $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

Example 3.1.5 (Change of Basis)**.** Let V be an F-vector space and $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}'$ bases of V. Given V expressed in terms of $\mathcal{B}$, we'd like to express it in terms of $\mathcal{B}'$ (or vice versa).

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ and $\mathcal{B}' = \{v'_1, ..., v'_n\}$. Define:

$$T : V \to F^n \text{ by } v \mapsto [v]_{\mathcal{B}}$$
$$S : V \to F^n \text{ by } v \mapsto [v]_{\mathcal{B}'}.$$

We obtain a diagram similar to Example 3.1.3:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
V & \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id}_V} & V \\
{\scriptstyle T}\downarrow & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle S} \\
F^n & \xrightarrow[S \circ \mathrm{id}_V \circ T^{-1}]{} & F^n
\end{array}
$$

Hence the change of basis matrix is $[\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{B}'}$

Exercise 3.1.2. *Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$. Show that $[\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{B}'} = \left([v_1]_{\mathcal{B}'} \mid ... \mid [v_n]_{\mathcal{B}'}\right)$.*

Example 3.1.6.

(1) Let $V = \mathbf{Q}^2$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix}1\\0\end{smallmatrix}\right), e_2 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix}0\\1\end{smallmatrix}\right)\}$ and $\mathcal{B}' = \{v_1 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix}1\\-1\end{smallmatrix}\right), v_2 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix}1\\1\end{smallmatrix}\right)\}$. Observe that:

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{2}v_1 + \frac{1}{2}v_2$$
$$e_2 = -\frac{1}{2}v_1 + \frac{1}{2}v_2$$

$$[e_1]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[e_2]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{E}_2}^{\mathcal{B}'} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Consider $v = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{smallmatrix}\right) \in \mathbf{Q}^2$. We can express v in terms of $\mathcal{B}'$ by doing the following calculation:

$$[\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{E}_2}^{\mathcal{B}'} [v_2]_{\mathcal{E}_2} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{5}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= [v]_{\mathcal{B}'}.$$

(2) Let $V = P_2(\mathbf{R})$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2\}$ and $\mathcal{B}' = \{1, (x-2), (x-2)^2\}$. Then:

$$1 = 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot (x-2) + 0 \cdot (x-2)^2$$
$$x = 2 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot (x-2) + 0 \cdot (x-2)^2$$
$$x^2 = 4 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot (x-2) + 1 \cdot (x-2)^2$$

$$[1]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$[x]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$[x^2]_{\mathcal{B}'} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{B}'} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example 3.1.7 (Similar Matrices). Let $A, B \in \mathrm{Mat}_n(F)$. Let $\mathcal{E}_n$ be the standard basis for F^n and $T_A \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(F^n, F^n)$ such that $A = [T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}$. We can relate A in terms of an arbitrary basis $\mathcal{B}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
F^n & \xrightarrow{\;T_A\;} & F^n \\
{\scriptstyle T_{\mathcal{B}}}\downarrow & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle T_{\mathcal{B}}} \\
F^n & \xrightarrow[{[T_A]_{\mathcal{B}}}]{} & F^n.
\end{array}
$$

But by extending our diagram using our change of basis algorithm, we obtain the following:

$$
\begin{array}{ccccccc}
F^n & \xrightarrow{\;\mathrm{id}_{F^n}\;} & F^n & \xrightarrow{\;T_A\;} & F^n & \xrightarrow{\;\mathrm{id}_{F^n}\;} & F^n \\
{\scriptstyle T_{\mathcal{B}}}\downarrow & & {\scriptstyle T_{\mathcal{E}_n}}\downarrow & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle T_{\mathcal{E}_n}} & & \downarrow{\scriptstyle T_{\mathcal{B}}} \\
F^n & \xrightarrow[{[\mathrm{id}_{F^n}]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{E}_n}}]{} & F^n & \xrightarrow[{[T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}}]{} & F^n & \xrightarrow[{[\mathrm{id}_{F^n}]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{B}}}]{} & F^n
\end{array}
$$

So $[T_A]_\mathcal{B} = [\mathrm{id}_{F^n}]_\mathcal{B}^{\mathcal{E}_n} [T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n} [\mathrm{id}_{F^n}]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^\mathcal{B}$. Assigning $P^{-1} = [\mathrm{id}_{F^n}]_\mathcal{B}^{\mathcal{E}_n}$ and $P = [\mathrm{id}_{F^n}]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^\mathcal{B}$ yields the familiar equation $[T_A]_\mathcal{B} = P^{-1}AP$; i.e., $A = P[T_A]_\mathcal{B}P^{-1}$. In particular, the matrix $A = [T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}$ is similar to $[T_A]_\mathcal{B}$ for any basis $\mathcal{B}$.

Example 3.1.8. Let $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 3 & -5 \\ -2 & -1 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. Let $\mathcal{E}_3 = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ be the standard basis of F^3. We have:

$$T_A(e_1) = e_1 - 2e_2 + 3e_3$$
$$T_A(e_2) = 3e_1 - e_2 + 2e_3$$
$$T_A(e_3) = 3e_1 + 2e_2 + e_3.$$

Now consider $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right), v_2 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{smallmatrix} \right), v_3 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right)\}$. One can check this is indeed a basis. Observe that:

$$e_1 = -2v_1 + -3v_2 + v_3$$
$$e_2 = 3v_1 + 3v_2 - v_3$$
$$e_3 = -2v_1 - 2v_2 + v_3.$$

So the change of basis matrix from $\mathcal{E}_3$ to $\mathcal{B}$ is given by $P = [\mathrm{id}_{F^3}]_{\mathcal{E}_3}^\mathcal{B} = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} -2 & 3 & -2 \\ -3 & 3 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. We have $P^{-1} = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. Thus A is similar to the matrix $B = P^{-1}AP = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} -29 & 32 & -25 \\ -38 & 45 & -31 \\ -20 & 27 & -15 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$.

3.2   Row Operations

Definition 3.2.1. Let $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$. We say a_{kl} is a _pivot_ of A if $a_{kl} \neq 0$ and $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i > k$ or $j < l$.

Example 3.2.1. Let $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. Then 2, 1, and 5 are pivots.

Definition 3.2.2. Let $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$. We say A is in _row echelon form_ if all its nonzero rows have a pivot and all its zero rows are located below nonzero rows. We say it is _reduced row echelon form_ if it is in row echelon form and all of its pivots are 1 and the only nonzero elements in the columns containing pivots.

Example 3.2.2. From the previous example, expressing $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 2 & 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$ in reduced row echelon form yields $A' = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$.

Example 3.2.3. Let $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. Then $T_A : F^4 \to F^4$. Let $\mathcal{B}_4 = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$ and $\mathcal{F}_3 =$

$\{f_1, f_2, f_3\}$. So $A = [T_A]_{\mathcal{B}_3}^{\mathcal{F}_3}$. We have the following set of equations:

$$T_A(e_1) = 3f_1 + f_2 + f_3$$
$$T_A(e_2) = 4f_1 + 2f_2 + f_3$$
$$T_A(e_3) = 5f_1 + 3f_2 + 2f_3$$
$$T_A(e_4) = 6f_1 + 4f_2 + 3f_3.$$

We are going to perform row operations of A by making substitutions to its basis elements. Consider the operation $R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3$.

$$\mathcal{F}_3^{(2)} = \{f_1^{(2)} = f_3, f_2^{(2)} = f_2, f_3^{(2)} = f_1\}.$$

$$T_A(e_1) = f_1^{(2)} + f_2^{(2)} + 3f_3^{(2)}$$
$$T_A(e_2) = f_1^{(2)} + 2f_2^{(2)} + 4f_3^{(2)}$$
$$T_A(e_3) = 2f_1^{(2)} + 3f_2^{(2)} + 5f_3^{(2)}$$
$$T_A(e_4) = 3f_1^{(2)} + 4f_2^{(2)} + 6f_3^{(2)}.$$

So $[T_A]_{\mathcal{B}_3}^{\mathcal{F}_3^{(2)}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$. Now consider the row operation $-R_1 + R_2 \leftrightarrow R_2$.

$$\mathcal{F}_3^{(3)} = \{f_1^{(3)} = f_1^{(2)} + f_2^{(2)}, f_2^{(3)} = f_2^{(2)}, f_3^{(3)} = f_3^{(2)}\}.$$

$$T_A(e_1) = f_1^{(2)} + f_2^{(2)} + 3f_3^{(2)}$$
$$= f_1^{(3)} + 3f_3^{(3)}.$$

$$T_A(e_2) = f_1^{(2)} + 2f_2^{(2)} + 4f_3^{(2)}$$
$$= f_1^{(2)} + f_2^{(2)} + f_2^{(2)} + 4f_3^{(2)}$$
$$= f_1^{(3)} + f_2^{(3)} + 4f_3^{(3)}.$$

$$T_A(e_3) = \dots$$
$$T_A(e_4) = \dots$$

So $[T_A]_{\mathcal{B}_3}^{\mathcal{F}_3^{(3)}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$. Now consider the row operation $-3R_1 + R_3 \leftrightarrow R_3$.

$$\mathcal{F}_3^{(4)} = \{f_1^{(4)} = f_1^{(3)} + 3f_3^{(3)}, f_2^{(4)} = f_2^{(3)}, f_3^{(4)} = f_3^{(3)}\}.$$

$$T_A(e_1) = f_1^{(3)} + 3f_3^{(3)}$$
$$= f_1^{(4)}$$

$$T_A(e_2) = \dots$$
$$T_A(e_3) = \dots$$
$$T_A(e_4) = \dots$$

The rest of the steps to convert A to reduced row echelon form follow similarly.

Theorem 3.2.1. *Let $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$. The matrix A can be put in row echelon form through a series of row operations of the form:*

(1) $R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$

(2) $R_i \leftrightarrow cR_i$

(3) $cR_i + R_J \leftrightarrow R_j$.

Example 3.2.4. Instead of directly changing the basis of a matrix, we can use linear maps to perform row operations. Let $C = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ be a basis of W.

(1) Define $T_{i,j} : W \to W$ by

$$T_{i,j}(w_k) = w_k \text{ if } k \neq i, j,$$
$$T_{i,j}(w_i) = w_j,$$
$$T_{i,j}(w_j) = w_i.$$

Then $E_{i,j} = \left[T_{i,j}\right]_C^C$ corresponds to the identity matrix except the ith and j^{th} rows are switched.

(2) Let $c \in F$, $c \neq 0$. Define $T_i^{(c)} : W \to W$ by:

$$T_i^{(c)}(w_j) = w_j \text{ if } j \neq i,$$
$$T_i^{(c)}(w_i) = cw_i$$

Then $E_i^{(c)} = \left[T_i^{(c)}\right]_C^C$ corresponds to the identity matrix with the ith row multiplied by c.

(3) Define $T_{i,j}^{(c)} : W \to W$ by:

$$T_{i,j}^{(c)}(w_k) = w_k \text{ if } k \neq j,$$
$$T_{i,j}^{(c)}(w_j) = w_j + cw_i$$

Then $E_{i,j}^{(c)} = \left[T_{i,j}^{(c)}\right]_C^C$ corresponds to the identity matrix with the what does this mean?

Now let $T_A : F^4 \to F^3$ with $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathcal{E}_4$ and $\mathcal{F}_3$ their respective standard bases. Performing the row operation $R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3$ using the above method yields:

$$(T_{1,3} \circ T_A)(e_1) = T_{1,3}(3f_1 + f_2 + f_3)$$
$$= 3T_{1,3}(f_1) + T_{1,3}(f_2) + T_{1,3}(f_3)$$
$$= 3f_3 + f_2 + f1$$

$$\left[T_{1,3} \circ T_A \,{}^{\mathcal{F}_3}_{\mathcal{E}_4} \right] = \left[T_{1,3} \right]^{\mathcal{F}_3}_{\mathcal{F}_3} \left[T_A \right]^{\mathcal{F}_3}_{\mathcal{E}_4}$$

$$= E_{1,3}A$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The rest of the row operations follow similarly. The reduced-row echelon form of A can then be expressed as:

$$\left[T_{1,3}^{(-1)} \circ T_{2,3}^{(-1)} \circ T_{(3)}^{(\frac{1}{2})} \circ T_{3,2}^{(-1)} \circ T_{3,1}^{(-3)} \circ T_{1,2}^{(-1)} \circ T_{1,3} \circ T_A \right]^{\mathcal{F}_3}_{\mathcal{E}_4}.$$

3.3   Column-space and Null-space

Definition 3.3.1. Let $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$.

(1) The _column-space_ of A is the F-span of the column vectors, denoted as $CS(A)$.

(2) The _null-space_ of A is the F-span of vectors $v \in F^n$ such that $Av = 0_V$, denoted as $NS(A)$.

(3) The _rank_ of A is rank $A = \dim_F CS(A)$.

Example 3.3.1. Let $T_A \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(F^n, F^m)$ where $\mathcal{E}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$ is the standard basis of F^n and $\mathcal{F}_n = \{f_1, ..., f_m\}$ is the standard basis of F^m. Since

$$[T_A]^{\mathcal{F}_m}_{\mathcal{E}_n} = A = \Big(T_A(e_1) \mid \ \ ... \ \ \mid T_A(e_n) \Big),$$

we have that $CS(A) = \mathrm{im}\,(T_A)$, so rank $A = \dim_F \mathrm{im}\,(T_A)$. Recall from an introductory linear algebra course that the column space is calculated by:

(a) Put A into row echelon form,

(b) Look at which columns have pivots,

(c) The same columns in A are then a basis of $CS(A)$.

Why does this work? There exists an isomorphism $E : F^n \to F^m$ so that $[E \circ T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{F}_m} = [E]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{F}_m} A$ is in row echelon form. The column space of $[E \circ T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{F}_m}$ has as its basis the columns containing pivots (denoted $e_{i1}, ..., e_{ik}$):

$$\underbrace{[E \circ T_A(e_{i1})]_{\mathcal{F}_m} , \; ... \; , [E \circ T_A(e_{ik})]_{\mathcal{F}_m}}_{\text{this is a basis of } CS([E \circ T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{F}_m})}$$

Since E is an isomorphism, there is an inverse $E^{-1} : F^m \to F^m$ with:

$$E^{-1}(w_1) = [E \circ T_A(e_{i1})]_{\mathcal{F}_m}$$
$$\vdots$$
$$E^{-1}(w_k) = [E \circ T_A(e_{ik})]_{\mathcal{F}_m} .$$

These are linearly independent since E^{-1} is an isomorphism. If there is a vector $v \in CS(A)$ with $v \notin \text{span}_F \left([E \circ T_A(e_{i1})]_{\mathcal{F}_m} , ..., [E \circ T_A(e_{ik})]_{\mathcal{F}_m}\right)$, then $E(v)$ cannot be in $\text{span}_F (w_1, ..., w_k)$. So the columns $[E \circ T_A(e_{i1})]_{\mathcal{F}_m} , ..., [E \circ T_A(e_{ik})]_{\mathcal{F}_m}$ give a basis for the column space of A.

Example 3.3.2. Let $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. Rewritten in row echelon form is $A' = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -4 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. Thus:

$$CS(B) = \text{span}_F \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$
$$CS(A) = \text{span}_F \left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right).e$$

Example 3.3.3. We have $v \in NS(A)$ if and only if $Av = 0_{F^m} = T_A(v)$. Note that $T_A(v) = 0_{F^m}$ if and only if $v \in \ker(T_A)$, hence $NS(A) = \ker(T_A)$. In an introductory algebra class, the null space of a matrix A is calculated by:

(1) Putting A into reduced row echelon form,

(2) Solving the equation $A'x = 0_{F^n}$.

This works because given a map $T_A : F^n \to F^m$, row operations change the basis of the codomain, not the domain. So $NS(A) = NS(A')$.

Example 3.3.4. Let $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 4 & -4 & 2 \\ -4 & 4 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. The reduce row echelon form of A is $A' = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. Solving the equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

gives $x_2 = 0$ and $x_1 = -\frac{1}{2}x_3$. Hence $NS(A) = \text{span}_F \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

3.4 The Transpose of a Matrix

Definition 3.4.1. Let $A \in \text{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$ with $\mathcal{E}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$ and $\mathcal{F}_m = \{f_1, ..., f_m\}$ as standard bases. Then $A = [T_A]_{\mathcal{E}^n}^{\mathcal{F}_m}$, and furthermore $T_A \in \text{Hom}_F(F^n, F^m)$ induces a dual map $T_A^\vee \in \text{Hom}_F(F^{m\vee}, F^{n\vee})$. The *transpose* of A is defined as:

$$A^t = \left[T_A^\vee\right]_{\mathcal{F}_m^\vee}^{\mathcal{E}_n^\vee}.$$

Lemma 3.4.1. *Let* $A = (a_{ij}) \in \text{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$. *Then* $A^t = (b_{ij}) \in \text{Mat}_n, m(F)$ *with* $b_{ij} = a_{ji}$.

Proof. We use the same setup as Definition 3.4.1. We have:

$$T_A(e_i) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ki} f_k$$

$$T_A^\vee(f_j^\vee) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{kj} e_k^\vee.$$

Applying $f_j^\vee$ to $T_A(e_i)$ yields[1]:

$$(f_j^\vee \circ T_A)(e_i) = f_j^\vee \left(\sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ki} f_k\right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{ki} f_j^\vee(f_k)$$

$$= a_{ji}.$$

Evaluating the $T_A^\vee(f_j^\vee)$ at e_i gives:

$$T_A^\vee(f_j^\vee)(e_i) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{kj} e_k^\vee(e_i)$$

$$= b_{ij}.$$

By Definition 2.5.3, we have $(f_j^\vee \circ T_A)(e_i) = T_A^\vee(f_j^\vee)(e_i)$. Hence $a_{ji} = b_{ij}$. $\square$

Exercise 3.4.1. *Let* $A_1, A_2 \in \text{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$ *and* $c \in F$. *Show that:*

$$(A_1 + A_2)^t = A_1^t + A_2^t$$
$$(cA_1)^t = cA_1^t.$$

Lemma 3.4.2. *Let* $A \in \text{Mat}_{m,n}(F)$ *and* $B \in \text{Mat}_{p,m}(F)$. *Then* $(BA)^t = A^t B^t$.

---

[1]I was really confused about this. In short, given a $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$ and basis $\mathcal{B}$ we have a matrix representation $[T]_\mathcal{B}$. It is natural to wonder what, $[T^\vee]_{\mathcal{B}^\vee}$ looks like, and it turns out to be the "transpose" we were familiar with from 214. Basically, applying $f_j^\vee$ to $T_A(e_i)$ gives us coefficients (by definition of dual basis elements) which correspond to a particular column vector of $[T_A]_\mathcal{B}$. Likewise, since we have that fancy property from Definition 2.5.3, naturally we should evaluate $T_A^\vee(f_j^\vee)$ at e_i, which gives us coefficients which correspond to column vectors of $[T_A^\vee]_{\mathcal{B}^\vee}$. The rest is self-explanatory.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{E}_m$, $\mathcal{E}_n$, and $\mathcal{E}_p$ be standard bases with $[T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{E}_m} = A$ and $[T_B]_{\mathcal{E}_m}^{\mathcal{E}_p} = B$. Then $BA = [T_B \circ T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{E}_p}$. Thus:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(BA)^t &= \left[(T_B \circ T_A)^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_p^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \\
&= \left[T_A^{\vee} \circ T_B^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_p^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \\
&= \left[T_A^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_m^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \left[T_B^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_p^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_m^{\vee}} \\
&= A^t B^t.
\end{aligned}
$$

$\square$

Lemma 3.4.3. *Let $A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(F)$. Then $(A^{-1})^t = (A^t)^{-1}$.*

Proof. Let $A = [T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{E}_n}$. Then $A^{-1} = \left[T_A^{-1}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_n}^{\mathcal{E}_n}$. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
1_n &= \left[\mathrm{id}_{F^n}^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \\
&= \left[(T_A^{-1} \circ T_A)^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \\
&= \left[T_A^{\vee} \circ (T_A^{-1})^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \\
&= \left[T_A^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \left[(T_A^{-1})^{\vee}\right]_{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}}^{\mathcal{E}_n^{\vee}} \\
&= A^t (A^{-1})^t.
\end{aligned}
$$

By the uniqueness of inverses, we must have that $(A^{-1})^t = (A^t)^{-1}$ Showing left invertibility follows identically. $\square$

4

Generalized Eigenvectors and Jordan Canonical Form

4.1 Diagonalization

Recall. We say $A \sim B$ if and only if $A = PBP^{-1}$ for some $P \in \mathrm{GL}_n(F)$. In particular, this means $A = [T]_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $B = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for some bases $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ (Example 3.1.7).

Definition 4.1.1. We say A is _diagonalizable_ if $A \sim D$ for some diagonal matrix D. In terms of linear transformations, $A = [T]_{\mathcal{A}}$ is diagonalizable if there is a basis $\mathcal{B}$ such that $[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = D$.

Example 4.1.1. If $A \sim B$ then A is diagonalizable if and only if B is diagonalizable. If A and B are diagonalizable, they must be similar to the same diagonal matrix up to reordering the diagonals.

Example 4.1.2. Let $V = F^2$ and $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. Let $T(e_1) = 3e_1$ and $T(e_2) = -2e_2$. We have that:

$$[T]_{\mathcal{E}_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It follows that $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$, where $V_1 = \mathrm{span}_F(e_1)$ and $V_2 = \mathrm{span}_F(e_2)$. In this case, we have that $T(V_1) \subseteq V_1$ and $T(V_2) \subseteq V_2$, allowing us to write T as a diagonal matrix.

Example 4.1.3. Let $V = F^2$ and $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. Consider $T(e_1) = 3e_1$ and $T(e_2) = e_1 + 3e_2$. Then:

$$[T]_{\mathcal{E}_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ with $V_1 = \mathrm{span}_F(e_1)$ and $V_2 = \mathrm{span}_F(e_2)$. But while we have $T(V_1) \subseteq V_1$, we do not have $T(V_2) \subseteq V_2$.

Suppose towards contradiction we have $W_1, W_2 \neq \{0\}$ with $T(W_1) \subseteq W_1$ and $T(W_2) \subseteq W_2$. Write $W_i = \mathrm{span}_F(w_i)$. In particular, this means we can write $T(w_1) = \alpha w_1$ and $T(w_2) = \beta w_2$. For $\mathcal{B} = \{w_1, w_2\}$, we have:

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{pmatrix}.$$

Write $w_1 = ae_1 + be_2$ and $w_2 = ce_1 + de_2$. Then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha w_1 &= T(w_1) \\
&= aT(e_1) + bT(e_2) \\
&= a(3e_1) + b(e_1 + 3e_2) \\
&= (3a + b)e_1 + (3b)e_2.
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $\alpha(ae_1 + be_2) = (3a + b)e_1 + (3b)e_2$, meaning $\alpha a = 3b + b$ and $\alpha b = 3b$. Either $b = 0$ or $\alpha = 3$. It must be the case that $\alpha = 3$, hence $T(w_1) = 3w_1$. A similar argument for w_1 gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta w_2 &= T(w_2) \\
&= \dots \\
&= (3c + d)e_1 + (3d)e_2.
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies $\beta c = ec + d$ and $\beta d = 3d$. If $\beta = 3$, then this contradicts the first equation. If $w_2 = ce_1$, this contradicts w_1, w_2 being a basis.

Example 4.1.4. Let $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. Let $F = \mathbf{Q}$. Let $P \in GL_2(\mathbf{Q})$, where $P = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{smallmatrix} \right)$. We have:

$$
P^{-1}AP = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} ad - 2ab + 2cd - 4bc & -3bd - 3b^2 + 2d^2 \\ 3ac + 3a^2 - 2c^2 & -bc + 3ab - 2cd + 4ad \end{pmatrix}.
$$

We must have that $3a^2 + 4ac - 2c^2 = 0$. If $c = 0$, then $a = 0$, which contradicts P being invertible. So $c \neq 0$, meaning we can divide by c^2 and set $x = \frac{a}{c}$. Then the roots of $3x^2 + 3x - 2 = 0$ are:

$$
x = \frac{-3 \pm \sqrt{33}}{6},
$$

which gives:

$$
a = \frac{-3 \pm \sqrt{33}}{6}c.
$$

Since $c \neq 0$, $a \notin \mathbf{Q}$. Thus we cannot diagonalize A over $\mathbf{Q}$. But if we were to take $F = \mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{33})$, then we have that:

$$
\mathcal{B} = \{v_1 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{3 + \sqrt{33}}{4} \end{smallmatrix} \right), v_2 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{3 - \sqrt{33}}{4} \end{smallmatrix} \right)\},
$$

$$
[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{5 + \sqrt{33}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{5 - \sqrt{33}}{2} \end{pmatrix}.
$$

Definition 4.1.2. Let V be an F-vector space and $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. A subspace $W \subseteq V$ is said to be _T-invariant_ or _T-stable_ if $T(W) \subseteq W$.

Theorem 4.1.1. *Let* $\dim_F(V) = n$ *and* $W \subseteq V$ *a k-dimensional subspace. Let* $\mathcal{B}_W = \{v_1, ..., v_k\}$ *be a basis of W and extend to a basis* $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ *of V. Let* $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. *We have W is T-stable if and only if* $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ *is block upper-triangular of the form*

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix}$$

where $A = [T|_W]_{\mathcal{B}_W}$.

Example 4.1.5. Let $V = \mathbf{Q}^4$ with basis $\mathcal{E}_4 = \{e_1, e_2, ..., e_4\}$ and define T by:

$$T(e_1) = 2e_1 + 3e_3$$
$$T(e_2) = e_1 + e_4$$
$$T(e_3) = e_1 - e_3$$
$$T(e_4) = 2e_1 - 2e_2 + 5e_3 - 4e_4.$$

Set $W = \mathrm{span}_{\mathbf{Q}}(e_1, e_3)$, then W is T-stable. Since $\mathcal{B}_W = \{e_1, e_3\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$, we have:

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 4.1.6. A special case is when $\dim_F W = 1$. If $W = \mathrm{span}_F(w_1)$ and W is T-stable, then $T(w_1) \in W_1$; i.e., $T(w_1) = \lambda w_1$ for some $\lambda \in F$ Equivalently, this can be written as $(T - \lambda \, \mathrm{id}_V)(w_1) = 0_V$, meaning $w_1 \in \ker(T - \lambda \, \mathrm{id}_V)$.

4.2 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Definition 4.2.1. Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$ and $\lambda \in F$. If $\ker(T - \lambda \, \mathrm{id}_V) \neq \{0_V\}$, we say λ is an *eigenvalue* of T. Any nonzero vector in $\ker(T - \lambda \, \mathrm{id}_V)$ is called a *λ-eigenvector*. The set $E_{\lambda}^1 = \ker(T - \lambda \, \mathrm{id}_V)$ is called the *eigenspace* associated with λ.

Exercise 4.2.1. *Show that E_{λ}^1 is a subspace.*

Exercise 4.2.2. *Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in F$ with $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, then $E_{\lambda_1}^1 \cap E_{\lambda_2}^1 = \{0_V\}$.*

Example 4.2.1. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 12 & 35 \\ -6 & 17 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Mat}_2 (\mathbf{Q})$ and $T_A \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Q}} (\mathbf{Q}^2, \mathbf{Q}^2)$. We have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -12 & 35 \\ -6 & 17 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{2}{5} \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{2}{5} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -12 & 35 \\ -6 & 17 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{3}{7} \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{3}{7} \end{pmatrix}$$

So T_A has eigenvalues of 2 and 3. Then

$$E_2^1 = \text{span}_{\mathbf{Q}} \left(v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2/5 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$
$$E_3^1 = \text{span}_{\mathbf{Q}} \left(v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3/7 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

gives:

$$[T_A]_{\{v_1, v_2\}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Example 4.2.2 ($F[x]$-Modules)**.** Let $T \in \text{Hom}_F (V, V)$. Note that V is by definition an F-module, but we are able to view V as an $F[x]$-module given some linear transformation T. The action $F[x] \times V \to V$ is defined by $(f(x), v) \mapsto f(T)(v)$.

Write $T^m = \underbrace{T \circ T \circ ... \circ T}_{m-\text{times}}$. Write $f(x) \in F[x]$ as $f(x) = a_m x^m + ... + a_1 x + a_0$. Then

$$f(T) = a_m T^m + ... + a_1 T + a_0 \, \text{id}_V \in \text{Hom}_F (V, V).$$

For example, let $g(x) = 2x^2 + 3 \in \mathbf{R}[x]$. Then $g(T) = 2T^2 + 3 \, \text{id}_V$ and $g(T)(v) = 2T(T(v)) + 3v$. If $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$ for some $g(x), h(x) \in F[x]$, then $f(T) = g(T) \circ h(T)$. Instead of writing $f(T)(v) = g(T)(h(T)(v))$, we will abuse notation and write $g(T)h(T)(v)$. Normally function composition does not commute, but these do for some reason.

Theorem 4.2.1. *Let* $\dim_F (V) = n$ *and* $T \in \text{Hom}_F (V, V)$. *There is a unique monic polynomial* $m_T(x) \in F[x]$ *of lowest degree so that* $m_T(T)(v) = 0_V$ *for all* $v \in V$. *Moreover,* $\deg_{m_T} (T) \leqslant n^2$.

Proof. Recall that $\text{Hom}_F (V, V)$ is an F-vector space. We have $\text{Hom}_F (V, V) \cong \text{Mat}_n (F)$, hence $\dim_F (\text{Hom}_F (V, V)) = n^2$.

Given $T \in \text{Hom}_F (V, V)$, consider the set $\{\text{id}_V, T, T^2, ..., T^{n^2}\} \subseteq \text{Hom}_F (V, V)$. This has $n^2 + 1$ elements, so it must be linearly dependent (meaning a linear combination of some subset can equal 0). Let m be the smallest integer so that

$$a_m T^m + ... + a_1 T + a_0 \, \text{id}_V \, [1] = 0_{\text{Hom}_F (V,V)}.$$

We obtain a set $\{\text{id}_V, T, T^2, ..., T^m\}$. Since m is minimal, $a_m \neq 0$. Define:

$$m_T(x) = x^m + b_{m-1}x^{m-1} + ... + b_1 x + b_0 \in F[x], \text{ where } b_i = \frac{a_i}{a_m}.$$

This gives $m_T(T) = 0_{\text{Hom}_F(V,V)}$; i.e., $m_T(T)(v) = 0_V$ for all $v \in V$. It remains to that $m_T(x)$ is unique. Suppose there exists an $f(x) \in F[x]$ which satisfies $f(T)(v) = 0_V$ for all $v \in V$. Write:

$$f(x) = m_T(x)q(x) + r(x)$$

for some $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ with $r(x) = 0$ or $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(m_T(x))$. We have for all $v \in V$:

$$\begin{aligned}
0_V &= f(T)(v) \\
&= q(T)m_T(T)(v) + r(T)(v) \\
&= q(T)(0_V) + r(T)(v) \\
&= r(T)(v)
\end{aligned}$$

It must be the case that $r(x) = 0$, otherwise we have a polynomial of lower degree than $m_T(x)$ which kills all vectors. So $f(x) = m_T(x)q(x)$; i.e., $m_T(x) \mid f(x)$. But if $m_T(x)$ and $f(x)$ are both monic and of minimal degree, it must be the case that they are the same degree. This gives $m_T(x) = f(x)$. $\qquad\square$

Definition 4.2.2. The unique monic polynomial $m_T(x)$ is called the _minimal polynomial_ of T.

Corollary 4.2.2. _If $f(x) \in F[x]$ satisfies $f(T)(v) = 0_V$ for all $v \in V$, then $m_T(x) \mid f(x)$._

Proof. wat $\qquad\square$

Example 4.2.3. Let $F = \mathbf{Q}$ and $A = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$. We can see that:

$$A - a_0 1_2 \neq 0_2 \text{ for any } a_0 \in F.$$

But $A^2 = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 15 & 22 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$ gives $A^2 - 5A - 2 \cdot 1_2 = 0_2$. Hence $m_A(x) = x^2 - 5x - 2$. Note the relationship between this example and Example 4.1.4.

Example 4.2.4. Let $V = \mathbf{Q}^3$, $\mathcal{E}_3 = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$, and

$$[T_A]_{\mathcal{E}_3} = A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let $W = \text{span}_{\mathbf{Q}}(e_1)$ Then $T(W) = T(\alpha e_1) = \alpha e_1 \in W$. Hence $T(W) \subseteq W$, meaning W is T-stable. This gives 1 as an eigenvalue. On a completely unrelated note, $m_{T_A}(x) = (x-1)^2(x+1)$.

---

[1]This seems kind of out of nowhere, so think of it like this: Let $I_T = \{p \in F[x] \mid p(T)(v) = 0_V \text{ for all } v \in V\}$. $F[x]$ is a P.I.D., so every ideal is generated by a single element. The minimal polynomial $m_T(x)$ is the generator of this ideal.

Theorem 4.2.3. *Let V be an F-vector space and $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. We have λ is an eigenvalue if and only if λ is the root of $m_T(x)$. In particular, if $(x - \lambda) \mid m_T(x)$, then $E_\lambda^1 \neq \{0_V\}$ (i.e., there is a nonzero $v \in V$ such that $T(v) = \lambda v$).*

Proof. Let λ be an eigenvalue with eigenvector v and write $m_T(x) = x^m + \ldots + a_1 x + a_0$. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0_V = m_T(T)(v) \\
= (T^m + a_{m-1}T^{m-1} + \ldots + a_1 T + a_0 \,\mathrm{id}_V)(v) \\
= T^m(v) + a_{m-1}T^{m-1}(v) + \ldots + a_1 T(v) + a_0 v \\
= \lambda^m v + a_{m-1}\lambda^{m-1}v + \ldots + a_1 \lambda v + a_0 v \\
= (\lambda^m + a_{m-1}\lambda^{m-1} + \ldots + a_1 \lambda + a_0)v \\
= m_T(\lambda) \cdot v.
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $v \neq 0$ and $m_T(\lambda) \in F$, it must be the case that $m_T(\lambda) = 0$. Hence λ is a root.

Now suppose $m_T(\lambda) = 0$. This gives $m_T(x) = (x - \lambda)f(x)$ for some $f(x) \in F[x]$. Since $\deg f(x) < \deg m_T(x)$, this gives a nonzero vector $v \in V$ so that $f(T)(v) \neq 0$ (since $m_T(x)$ is the smallest polynomial that satisfies $m_T(T)(v) = 0_V$, it must be the case that there is a nonzero $v \in V$ that satisfies $f(T)(v) \neq 0$). Set $w = f(T)(v)$, then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0_V = (T - \lambda \,\mathrm{id}_V)f(T) \\
= (T - \lambda \,\mathrm{id}_V)w,
\end{aligned}
$$

which simplifies to $T(w) = \lambda w$. Thus λ is an eigenvalue. $\qquad\square$

Corollary 4.2.4. *Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in F$ be distinct eigenvalues of T. For each i, let v_i be an eigenvector with eigenvalue λ_i. The set $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$ is linearly independent.*

Proof. We have $m_T(x) = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)\ldots(x - \lambda_m)f(x)$ for some $f(x) \in F[x]$. Suppose $a_1 v_1 + \ldots + a_m v_m = 0_V$ for $a_i \in F$. Define $g_1(x) = (x - \lambda_2)\ldots(x - \lambda_m)f(x)$. Note that $g_1(T)(v_i) = 0_V$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. Then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0_V = g_1(T)(0_V) \\
= \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_j g_1(T)(v_j) \\
= a_1 g_1(T)(v_1) \\
= a_1 g_1(\lambda_1)v_1
\end{aligned}
$$

But $g_1(\lambda_1) \neq 0$ and $v \neq 0$, so it must be that case that $a_1 = 0$. Inductively, it follows for $2, \ldots, m$. $\quad\square$

Corollary 4.2.5. *If $\deg(m_T(x)) = \dim_F(V)$ and $m_T(x)$ has distinct roots, all of which are in F, then we can find a basis $\mathcal{B}$ so that $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is diagonal.*

Example 4.2.5. Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. These matrices are not similar, however $m_A(x) = m_B(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)$. The minimal polynomial is not enough information on the similarity of matrices.

Example 4.2.6. Let:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have that $m_A(x) = (x - 1)^2(x + 1)$. Note that $Ae_1 = e_1$, so $E_1^1 \supseteq \text{span}_F(e_1)$ (or, more simply, $e_1 \in E_1^1$). Note that $Ae_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. So $e_2 \notin E_1^1$ (another way of saying this is $(A - 1_3)e_2 \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$). But now consider:

$$(A - 1_3)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -8 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have $(A - 1_3)^2 e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Thus $e_1, e_2 \in \ker(A - \text{id}_{F^3})^2$.

Definition 4.2.3. Let $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$. For $k \geq 1$, the kth _generalized eigenspace_ of T associated to λ is $E_\lambda^k = \ker(T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^k = \{v \in V \mid (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^k v = 0_V\}$. Elements of E_λ^k are called _generalized eigenvectors_. Set $E_\lambda^\infty = \bigcup_{k \geq 1} E_\lambda^k$.

Example 4.2.7. Continuing Example 4.2.6, let $\alpha e_1 + \beta e_2 \in \text{span}_F(e_1, e_2)$. Then:

$$(A - 1_3)^2(\alpha e_1 + \beta e_2) = \alpha(A - 1_3)^2 e_1 + \beta(A - 1_3)^2 e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So $\text{span}_F(e_1, e_2) \subseteq E_1^2$. We also have -1 as an eigenvalue with eigenvector $v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Check that $v_3 \notin E_1^2$. So $\dim_F(E_1^2) \leq 2$; i.e., $E_1^2 = \text{span}_F(e_1, e_2)$. why does $v_3 \notin E_1^2$ imply the dimension which implies containment in the other direction.

Lemma 4.2.6. _Let V be a finite dimensional F-vector space, $\dim_F(V) = n$, and $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$. There exists m with $1 \leq m \leq n$ such that $\ker(T^\cdot) = \ker(T^{m+1})$. Moreover, for such an m, $\ker(T^m) = \ker(T^{m+j})$ for all $j \geq 0$._

Proof. We have $\ker(T^1) \subseteq \ker(T^2) \subseteq \ldots$ If these containments are always strict, then the dimension increases indefinitely, which contradicts $\dim_F(V) = n$. Hence we have an m with $1 \leq m \leq n$ and $\ker(T^m) = \ker(T^{m+1})$.

Let m be the smallest value where $\ker(T^m) = \ker(T^{m+1})$. We use induction on j. Base case of $j = 1$ is what defines m. Assume $\ker(T^m) = \ker(T^{m+j})$ for all $1 \leq j \leq N$. Let $v \in \ker(T^{m+N+1})$. This gives:

$$0_V = T^{m+N+1}(v)$$
$$= T^{m+1}(T^N(v)).$$

So $T^N(v) \in \ker(T^{m+1})$. However $\ker(T^{m+1}) = \ker(T^m)$, so $T^N(v) \in \ker(T^m)$. Hence:

$$0_V = T^m(T^n(v))$$
$$= T^{m+N}(v),$$

so $v \in \ker(T^{m+N})$. Induction hypothesis gives $\ker(T^{m+N}) = \ker(T^m)$, giving $v \in \ker(T^m)$. Thus $\ker(T^{m+N+1}) \subseteq \ker(T^m)$. The other direction of containment is trivial. □

Example 4.2.8. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis of V and $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$, $\lambda \in F$ such that:

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

In other words, $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ contains λ along the diagonal and 1 along the super-diagonal. Let $A = [T]_{\mathcal{B}}$. Consider:

$$(A - \lambda 1_n) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We get:

$$(A - \lambda 1_n)v_1 = 0_V$$
$$(A - \lambda 1_n)v_2 = v_1$$
$$\vdots$$
$$(A - \lambda 1_n)v_n = v_{n-1}.$$

This gives $E_\lambda^1 = \text{span}_F(v_1)$ (by the first equation). Now observe:

$$(A - \lambda 1_n)^2 v_1 = 0_V$$

$$(A - \lambda 1_n)^2 v_2 = (A - \lambda 1_n)(A - \lambda 1_n)v_2$$
$$= (A - \lambda 1_n)v_1$$
$$= 0_V$$

$$(A - \lambda 1_n)^2 v_3 = v_1$$
$$\vdots$$
$$(A - \lambda 1_n)^2 v_n = v_{n-2}.$$

So $E_\lambda^2 = \text{span}_F(v_1, v_2)$. In general, we have that $E_\lambda^k = \text{span}_F(v_1, ..., v_k)$. Moreover, Lemma 4.2.6 gives $E_\lambda^1 \subseteq E_\lambda^2 \subseteq ... \subseteq E_\lambda^k$.

Corollary 4.2.7. *If* $\dim_F(V) = n$ *and* $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$, *there exists an m with $1 \leqslant m \leqslant n$ so that for any $\lambda \in F$, $E_\lambda^\infty = E_\lambda^m$.*

Theorem 4.2.8. *Let* $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$, *and* $\lambda \in F$ *with* $(x - \lambda)^k \mid m_T(x)$. *We have:*

$$\dim_F(E_\lambda^k) \geqslant k.$$

Proof. Write $m_T(x) = (x - \lambda)^k f(x)$ where $f(x) \in F[x]$, $f(\lambda) \neq 0$. Define $g_k(x) = (x - \lambda)^k$. We have that $(x - \lambda)^{k-1} f(x) = g_{k-1}(x)f(x)$ is *not* the minimal polynomial. So there is a $v \in V$ with $v \neq 0_V$ such that:

$$g_{k-1}(T)f(T)(v) \neq 0_V.$$

Set $v_k = f(T)(v)$. Observe that:

$$(T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^k (v_k) = (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^k f(T)(v)$$
$$= m_T(T)(v)$$
$$= 0_V.$$

So $v_k \in E_\lambda^k$. Moreover, by our construction:

$$(T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^{k-1}(v_k) = g_{k-1}(T)(v_k)$$
$$= g_{k-1}(T)f(T)(v)$$
$$\neq 0_V.$$

Hence $v_k \in E_\lambda^k \setminus E_\lambda^{k-1}$. Now set $v_{k-1} = (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)v_k = (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)f(T)(v)$. Note:

$$(T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^{k-1}(v_{k-1}) = (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^{k-1}(T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)(v_k)$$
$$= (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^k (v_k)$$
$$= (T - \lambda \, \text{id}_V)^k f(T)(v)$$
$$= m_T(T)(v)$$
$$= 0_V.$$

So $v_{k-1} \in E_\lambda^{k-1}$. Again, by our construction:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(T - \lambda \operatorname{id}_V)^{k-2}(v_{k-1}) &= (T - \lambda \operatorname{id}_V)^{k-2}(T - \lambda \operatorname{id}_V)(v_k) \\
&= (T - \lambda \operatorname{id}_V)^{k-1}(v_k) \\
&\neq 0_V.
\end{aligned}
$$

So $v_{k-1} \in E_\lambda^{k-1} \setminus E_\lambda^{k-2}$. Setting $v_{k-2} = (T - \lambda \operatorname{id}_V)^2 v_k$ gives a similar result. By this construction, we obtain a set $\{v_k, v_{k-1}, ..., v_2, v_1\}$. Claim: this set is linearly independent. Suppose towards contradiction it's not, that is, $a_1 v_1 + ... + a_k v_k = 0_V$ does not imply $a_1 = ... = a_k = 0$. This gives $v_k = \frac{-1}{a_k}(a_1 v_1 + ... + a_{k-1} v_{k-1}) \in E_\lambda^{k-1}$, which is a contradiction. It follows that $a_1 = ... = a_k = 0$, hence $\{v_k, v_{k-1}, ..., v_2, v_1\}$ is linearly independent (linear independent set $\subseteq$ a basis, so thats why the theorem is established). $\qquad \square$

Example 4.2.9. Let $T_A \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(F^3, F^3)$ be defined by:

$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

We have that $m_T(x) = (x-2)^3$. Now observe:

$$
(A - 2 \cdot 1_3)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

Note $(A - 2 \cdot 1_3)^2 e_3 = 4e_3 \neq 0_F^3$, but $(A - 2 \cdot 1_3)^3 e_3 = 0_{F^3}$. Set $v_3 = e_3$, we have $v_3 \in E_2^3$. Now observe:

$$
\begin{aligned}
v_2 &= (A - 2 \cdot 1_3)(v_3) \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly:

$$v_1 = (A - 2 \cdot 1_3)(v_2)$$
$$= \ldots$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence:

$$E_2^3 = \operatorname{span}_F \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$
$$E_2^2 = \operatorname{span}_F \left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$
$$E_2^1 = \operatorname{span}_F \left(\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right).$$

Setting $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$, we have:

$$[T_A]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

4.3 Characteristic Polynomials

Definition 4.3.1. Let $A \in \operatorname{Mat}_n(F)$. The _characteristic polynomial_ is $c_A(x) = \det(x 1_n - A)$.

Definition 4.3.2. Let $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_1 x + a_0 \in F[x]$. The _companion matrix_ of $f(x)$ is given by:

$$C(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} -a_0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\ -a_1 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\ -a_2 & 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -a_{n-1} & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The companion matrix shows that any polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ can be realized as the characteristic polynomial of a matrix.

Lemma 4.3.1. _If $A = C(f(x))$, then $c_A(x) = f(x)$._

Lemma 4.3.2. _Let $A, B \in \operatorname{Mat}_n(F)$ be similar matrices. Then $c_A(x) = c_B(x)$._

Proof. Let $A = PBP^{-1}$ for some $P \in GL_n(F)$. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_A(x) &= \det(x1_n - A) \\
&= \det(x1_n - PBP^{-1}) \\
&= \det(P(x1_n)P^{-1} - PBP^{-1}) \\
&= \det(P(x1_n - B)P^{-1}) \\
&= \det(P)\det(x1_n - B)\det(P^{-1}) \\
&= \det(x1_n - B) \\
&= c_B(x).
\end{aligned}
$$

$\square$

Definition 4.3.3. For $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, V)$, let $\mathcal{B}$ be a basis of V and set $c_T(x) = c_{[T]_{\mathcal{B}}}(x)$.

Theorem 4.3.3. *Let $v \in V$, $v \neq 0_V$. Let $\dim_F(V) = n$. Then there is a unique monic polynomial $m_{T,v}(x) \in F[x]$ so that $m_{T,v}(T)(v) = 0_V$. Moreover, if $f(x) \in F[x]$ with $f(T)(v) = 0_V$, then $m_{T,v}(x) \mid f(x)$.*

Proof. Consider the set $\{v, T(v), T^2(v), ..., T^n(v)\}$. Since this set contains $n + 1$ elements and the dimension of V is n, the set must be linearly dependent. Write:

$$
a_m T^m(v) + ... + a_1 T(v) + a_0 = 0_V
$$

for some $m \leqslant n$ of minimal order and $a_i \neq 0$ for all i. Set:

$$
p(x) = x^m + \frac{a_{m-1}}{a_m}x^{m-1} + ... + \frac{a_1}{a_m}x + \frac{a_0}{a_m} \in F[x].
$$

By construction $p(T)(v) = 0_V$. Set $I_v = \{g(x) \in F[x] \mid g(T)(v) = 0_V\}$. We have that $p(x)$ is a monic nonzero polynomial in I_v of minimal degree. Set $m_{T,v}(x) = p(x)$.

Let $f(x) \in I_v$. We'd like to show that $m_{T,v}(x) \mid f(x)$. Write:

$$
f(x) = q(x)m_{T,v}(x) + r(x),
$$

with $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ and $\deg(r(x)) = 0$ or $deg(r) < \deg(m_{T,v}(x))$. Observe that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(T)(v) &= f(T)(v) - q(T)m_{T,v}(T)(v) \\
&= 0_V - q(T)0_V \\
&= 0_V.
\end{aligned}
$$

So $r(x) \in I_v$. But $m_{T,v}(x)$ had minimal degree, so it must be the case that $r(x) = 0$. Thus $f(x) = q(x)m_{T,v}(x)$, implying $m_{T,v}(x) \mid f(x)$[2]. Now suppose $h(x) \in I_v$ with $\deg(h(x)) = \deg(m_{T,v}(x))$. Since both polynomials are monic and of equal degree, if $m_{T,v}(x) \mid h(x)$ then $m_{T,v}(x) = h(x)$. $\square$

Definition 4.3.4. We refer to $m_{T,v}(x)$ as the _T-annihilator_ of v.

---

[2]The proof of $F[x]$ being a P.I.D. follows identically. Instead of considering I_v we would consider an arbitrary polynomial in $F[x]$.

Example 4.3.1. Let $V = F^n$ and $\mathcal{E}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$. Define $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, V)$ by:

$$T(e_1) = 0_v$$
$$T(e_j) = e_{j-1} \text{ for } 2 \leqslant j \leqslant n.$$

Consider $f(x) = x$. Then $f(T)(e_1) = T(e_1) = 0_V$. Hence $m_{T,e_1}(x) \mid x$. So either $m_{T,e_1}(x) = 1$ or $m_{T,e_1}(x) = x$. But $\operatorname{id}_V(e_1) = e_1 \neq 0_V$, hence it must be the case that $m_{T,e_1}(x) = x$.

Now consider $g(x) = x^2$. Then $g(T)(e_2) = T^2(e_2) = T(T(e_2)) = T(e_1) = 0_V$. Hence $m_{T,e_2}(x) \mid x^2$. So $m_{T,e_2}(x) = 1$ or x or x^2. If $m_{T,e_2}(x) = 1$, then $\operatorname{id}_V(e_2) = e_2 \neq 0_V$. If $m_{T,e_2}(x) = x$, then $T(e_2) = e_1 \neq 0$. So $m_{T,e_2}(x) = x^2$. It follows for $i \leqslant j \leqslant n$, $m_{T,e_j}(x) = x^j$.

Example 4.3.2. Let $V = \mathbf{Q}^2$. Define $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{Q}^2, \mathbf{Q}^2)$ by:

$$T(e_1) = e_1 + 3e_2$$
$$T(e_2) = 2e_1 + 4e_2.$$

We are trying to find $m_{T,e_1}(x)$. Since V is two-dimensional, $\deg(m_{T,e_1}(x)) = 1$ or 2. Write $m_{T,e_1}(x) = x + a$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} m_{T,e_1}(T)(e_1) &= T(e_1) + ae_1 \\ &= e_1 + 3e_2 + ae_1 \\ &\neq 0_V. \end{aligned}$$

So it must be that $\deg(m_{T,e_1}(x)) = 2$. Note that:

$$\begin{aligned} T^2(e_1) &= T(e_1 + 3e_2) \\ &= T(e_1) + 3T(e_2) \\ &= 7e_1 + 15e_2. \end{aligned}$$

Now let:

$$T^2(e_1) + bT(e_1) + ce_1 = 0_V,$$

for some $b, c \in \mathbf{Q}$. This will yield a system of equations, and solving for it gives:

$$b = -5$$
$$c = -2.$$

Hence $m_{T,e_1}(x) = x^2 - 5x - 2$.

Exercise 4.3.1.

1. *Show $m_{T,e_2}(x) = x^2 - 5x - 2$.*

2. *Calculate $m_{T,e_1}(x)$ and $m_{T,e_2}(x)$ of $F = \mathbf{F}_3$.*

Theorem 4.3.4. *Let $\dim_F(V) = n$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis of V. Let $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, V)$. We have:*

$$m_T(x) = \operatorname*{lcm}_{1 \leqslant i \leqslant n} m_{T,v_i}(x).$$

Proof. Let $f(x) = \operatorname*{lcm}_{1 \leqslant i \leqslant n} m_{T,v_i}(x)$. Note that $m_T(T)(v_i) = 0_V$, so $m_{T,v_i}(x) \mid m_T(x)$ for each i. Hence $f(x) \mid m_T(x)$.

Now let $v \in V$. Write $v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i$. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(T)(v) = f(T)(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i) \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i f(T)(v_i) \\
= 0_V,
\end{aligned}
$$

because $m_{T,v_i}(x) \mid f(x)$ for all i. Hence $m_T(x) \mid f(x)$. i dont quite get this number theory stuff $\square$

Lemma 4.3.5. *Let $T \in \operatorname{Hom}_F(V, V)$. Let $v_1, ..., v_k \in V$, and set $p_i(x) = m_{T,v_i}(x)$. Suppose $p_i(x)$ are pairwise relatively prime. Set $v = v_1 + ... + v_k$. Then:*

$$
m_{T,v}(x) = p_1(x)...p_k(x).
$$

Proof. We prove this for $k \geqslant 2$; i.e., $m_{T,v_1+v_2}(x) = m_{T,v_1}(x)m_{T,v_2}(x)$. Since $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ are relatively prime, there exists $q_1(x), q_2(x) \in F[x]$ so that $1 = p_1(x)q_1(x) + p_2(x)q_2(x)$. In particular, $\operatorname{id}_V = p_1(T)q_1(T) + p_2(T)q_2(T)$. Set $v = v_1 + v_2$. We have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
v &= \operatorname{id}_V(v) \\
&= (p_1(T)q_1(T) + p_2(T)q_2(T))(v) \\
&= p_1(T)q_1(T)(v) + p_2(T)q_2(T)(v) \\
&= p_1(T)q_1(T)(v_1 + v_2) + p_2(T)q_2(T)(v_1 + v_2) \\
&= p_1(T)q_1(T)(v_2) + p_2(T)q_2(T)(v_2).
\end{aligned}
$$

Write $w_1 = p_1(T)q_1(T)(v_2)$ and $w_2 = p_2(T)q_2(T)(v_1)$. This means $v = w_1 + w_2$. Note:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_1(T)(w_1) &= p_1(T)p_2(T)q_2(T)(v_1) \\
&= q_2(T)p_2(T) \underbrace{p_1(T)(v_1)} \\
&= 0_V.
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $w_1 \in \ker(p_1(T))$. It follows similarly that $w_1 \in \ker(p_2(T))$. Let $r(x) \in F[x]$ with $r(T)(v) = 0_V$. We have $v = w_1 + w_2$ and $w_2 \in \ker(p_2(T))$, so:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_2(T)(v) &= p_2(T)(w_1 + w_2) \\
&= p_2(T)(w_1).
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0_V &= p_2(T)q_2(T)(0_V) \\
&= p_2(T)q_2(T)r(T)(v) \\
&= r(T)p_2(T)q_2(T)(v) \\
&= r(T)p_2(T)q_2(T)(w_1).
\end{aligned}
$$

We also know $r(T)q_1(T)p_1(T)(w_1) = 0_V$ because $w_1 \in \ker(p_1(T))$. Hence:

$$0_V = r(T)p_2(T)q_2(T)(w_1) + r(T)p_1(T)q_1(T)(w_1)$$
$$= r(T)\underbrace{(p_2(T)q_2(T) + p_1(T)q_1(T))}_{\text{id}_V}(w_1)$$
$$= r(T)(w_1).$$

This gives:

$$0_V = r(T)(w_1)$$
$$= r(T)p_2(T)q_2(T)(v_1).$$

So $r(T)p_2(T)q_2(T)(v_1) = 0_V$. Thus $p_1(x) \mid r(x)p_2(x)q_2(x)$. Now note that:

$$\gcd(p_1(x), p_2(x)q_2(x)) = 1,$$

which means $p_1(x) \mid r(x)$. A similar argument shows $p_2(x) \mid r(x)$. And since $\gcd(p_1(x), p_2(x)) = 1$, this gives $\text{lcm}(p_1(x), p_2(x)) = p_1(x)p_2(x)$. So $p_1(x)p_2(x) \mid r(x)$. Since $r(x)$ was arbitrary, take $r(x) = m_{T,v}(x)$. Then $p_1(x)p_2(x) \mid m_{T,v}(x)$. Finally, since $p_1(x)p_2(x)(v) = 0_V$, $m_{T,v}(x) \mid p_1(x)p_2(x)$, establishing the lemma. $\square$

Exercise 4.3.2. *Show inductively that $m_{T,v} = p_1(x)p_2(x)...p_k(x)$ does k have to be even? what does pairwise coprime mean if k = 3.*

Theorem 4.3.6. *Let $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$. There exists $v \in V$ such that $m_{T,v}(x) = m_T(x)$. In particular, $\deg(m_T(x)) \leqslant n$.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis. We know:

$$m_T(x) = \text{lcm}_{1 \leqslant i \leqslant n} m_{T,v_i}(x).$$

Factor $m_T(x) = p_1(x)^{e_1}...p_k(x)^{e_k}$, with each $p_i(x)$ relatively prime and $e_1 \geqslant 1$. For $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k$, there exists $i_j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ and $q_{i_j}(x) \in F[x]$ with:

$$m_{T,v_{i_j}}(x) = p_j(x)^{e_j} q_{i_j}(x).$$

Set $w_j = q_{i_j}(T)(v_{i_j})$. This gives:

$$m_{T,w_j}(x) = p_j(x)^{e_j}.$$

Now set $w = w_1 + ... + w_k$. The previous result gives $m_{T,w}(x) = p_1(x)^{e_1}...p_k(x)^{e_k} = m_T(x)$????. $\square$

Lemma 4.3.7. *Let $W \subseteq V$ be a T-invariant subspace. Then there is an induced map $\overline{T} \in \text{Hom}_F(V/W, V/W)$ defined by $\overline{T}(v + W) = T(v) + W$.*

Lemma 4.3.8. *Let $v \in V$. Then $m_{\overline{T},[v]}(x) \mid m_{T,v}(x)$. Similarly, $m_{\overline{T}}(x) \mid m_T(x)$.*

Proof. We have:

$$m_{T,v}(\overline{T})([v]) = m_{T,v}(\overline{T})(v + W)$$
$$= m_{T,v}(T)(v) + W$$
$$= 0_V + W$$
$$= 0_{V/W}.$$

Then by definition of (in this case, $m_{\overline{T},[v]}(x)$) annihilator polynomials, $m_{\overline{T},[v]}(x) \mid m_{T,v}(x)$. ☐

Definition 4.3.5. Let $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$ and $\mathcal{A} = \{v_1, ..., v_k\}$ a set of vectors in V. The <u>T-span</u> of $\mathcal{A}$ is the subspace:

$$W = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} p_i(T)(v_i) \mid p_i(x) \in F[x] \right\}.$$

We say the subset W is <u>T-generated</u> by $\mathcal{A}$.

Exercise 4.3.3. *Show W is a T-invariant subspace of V. Moreover, show it is the smallest T-invariant subspace with respect to inclusion of V that contains $\mathcal{A}$.*

Example 4.3.3. Let $V = \mathbf{Q}^4$. Define $T \in \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{Q}^4, \mathbf{Q}^4)$ by:

$$T(e_1) = 2e_1 + 3e_3$$
$$T(e_2) = e_1 + e_2$$
$$T(e_3) = e_1 - e_3$$
$$T(e_4) = 2e_1 - 2e_2 + 5e_3 - 4e_4.$$

Let $\mathcal{A} = \{e_1\}$. Our goal is to find $\text{span}_{T,\mathbf{Q}}(\mathcal{A})$. Set $p(x) = 1$, then $p(T)(e_1) = \text{id}_V(e_1) = e_1$. Hence $e_1 \in \text{span}_{T,F}(\mathcal{A})$. Now set $q(x) = \frac{1}{3}(x - 2)$. Then:

$$q(T)(e_1) = \frac{1}{3}(T - 2\,\text{id}_V)(e_1)$$
$$= \frac{1}{3}(T(e_1) - 2e_1)$$
$$= e_3.$$

Hence $e_3 \in \text{span}_{T,F}(\mathcal{A})$. So $\text{span}_F(e_1, e_3) \subseteq \text{span}_{T,F}(\mathcal{A})$ Why. Note that $\text{span}_F(e_1, e_3)$ is T-invariant. By Exercise 4.3.3, since $\text{span}_{T,F}(\mathcal{A})$ is the smallest T-invariant subspace by inclusion, it must be the case that $\text{span}_{T,F}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \text{span}_F(e_1, e_3)$. Hence $\text{span}_{T,F}(\mathcal{A}) = \text{span}_F(e_1, e_3)$.

Lemma 4.3.9. *Let $T \in \text{Hom}_F(V, V)$, $w \in V$, and W the subspace of V that is T-generated by $\{w\}$. Then $\dim_F(W) = \deg(m_{T,w}(x))$.*

Proof. Let $\deg(m_{T,w}(x)) = k$. Consider the set $\{w, T(w), ..., T^{k-1}(w)\}$. This is a basis of the T-span of $\{w\}$. ☐

Theorem 4.3.10. *Let $\dim_F(V) = n$.*

(1) We have $m_T(x) \mid c_T(x)$.

(2) Every irreducible factor of $c_T(x)$ is a factor of $m_T(x)$.

Proof. (1) Let $\deg(m_T(x)) = k \leqslant n$. Let $v \in V$ with $m_T(x) = m_{T,v}(x)$. Let W_1 be the T-span of $\{v\}$. By Lemma 4.3.9, $\dim_F(W_1) = k$. Set $v_k = v$ and $v_{k-i} = T^i(v)$. We have $\mathcal{B}_1 = \{v_1, ..., v_k\}$ is a basis of W_1 (see proof of previous lemma), and furthermore $\left[T|_{W_1}\right]_{\mathcal{B}} = C(m_T(x))$ (See Theorem 4.1.1) I would like an explanation of this. We proceed with cases.

Case 1: $k = n$. Then $W_1 = V$, and $[T]_{\mathcal{B}_1} = C(m_T(x))$, which has characteristic polynomial $m_T(x)$, meaning $m_T(x) = c_T(x)$.

Case 2: $k < n$. Expand $\mathcal{B}_1$ to a full basis of V as follows: Let $\mathcal{B}_2 = \{v_{k+1}, ..., v_n\}$ and write:

$$\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_1 \cup \mathcal{B}_2.$$

We have:

$$[T]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = C(m_T(x)).$$

Note that, since $\mathcal{B}_1$ is a basis for W_1 and W_1 is T-invariant, by Theorem 4.1.1 $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is block diagonal. We have:

$$c_T(x) = \det(x1_n - [T]_{\mathcal{B}})$$

$$= \det \begin{pmatrix} x1_k - A & -B \\ 0 & x1_{n-k} - D \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \det(x1_k - A)\det(x1_{n-k}) - D$$

$$= c_A(x)\det(x1_{n-k} - D).$$

Thus $m_T(x) \mid c_T(x)$.

For (2), we induct on $\dim_F(V) = n$. If $n = 1$, then both the characteristic polynomial and minimal polynomial are monic and of degree 1, hence they are equal. If $\deg(m_T(x)) = n$, then $m_T(x) \mid c_T(x)$. Since both are degree n and monic, they must be equal. Now suppose $\deg m_T(x) = k < n$ The rest of this proof is hard and I dont get it. I atleast understand why $m_T(x) \mid c_T(x)$. Maybe I'll do the rest later. $\qquad \square$

Example 4.3.4. Consider:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & & & & & & & \\ 3 & 4 & & & & & & & \\ & & 3 & 7 & & & & & \\ & & -1 & 2 & & & & & \\ & & & & -5 & 6 & & & \\ & & & & 2 & -3 & & & \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{Mat}_9(\mathbf{Q}).$$

We can verify that $c_A(x) = (x^2 - 5x - 2)(x^2 - x - 1)(x^2 + 8x + 3)$. Since every irreducible factor of $c_T(x)$ is a factor of $m_T(x)$, we have that $m_T(x) = (x^2 - 5x - 2)(x^2 - x - 1)(x^2 + 8x + 3)$.

Theorem 4.3.11 (Cayley-Hamilton)**.**

   (1) Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$ and $\dim_F(V) < \infty$. Then $c_T(T) = 0_{\mathrm{Hom}_F (V,V)}$.

   (2) Let $A \in \mathrm{Mat}_n(F)$. Then $c_A(A) = 0_n$.

Proof. Write $c_T(x) = f(x)m_T(x)$. Then for any $v \in V$:

$$\begin{aligned} c_T(T)(v) &= f(T)m_T(T)(v) \\ &= f(T)(0_V) \\ &= 0_V. \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

4.4 Jordan Canonical Form

For this section V is always finite-dimensional.

Definition 4.4.1. Let $T \in \mathrm{Hom}_F(V, V)$. A *Jordan basis* for V with respect to T is a basis $\mathcal{B}$ so that:

$$[T]_\mathcal{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 1 & & & & & & & \\ & \lambda_1 & 1 & & & & & & \\ & & \lambda_1 & & & & & & \\ & & & \lambda_2 & 1 & & & & \\ & & & & \lambda_2 & & & & \\ & & & & & \lambda_3 & & & \\ & & & & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & & & & \lambda_n & 1 \\ & & & & & & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

for some $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n \in F$. More generally, if $V = V_1 \oplus ... \oplus V_k$ is a decomposition into T-invariant subspaces, and each V_i has a Jordan basis $\mathcal{B}_i$, we say $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \mathcal{B}_i$ is a Jordan basis for V.

Definition 4.4.2. A matrix of the form:

$$J_i = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & \\ & \lambda_i & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$$

is called a *Jordan block* associated to λ_i. We say a matrix J is in *Jordan canonical form* if it is a block diagonal matrix with each block representing a Jordan block.

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & J_p \end{bmatrix}.$$