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Contents

1 Vector Spaces

1.1 Motivation (Vectors in 3-space)

> **Problem 1**
>
> Given the point $P = (2, -1, 3)$ and the vector $u = [-3, 4, 5]$, find the point Q such that $\vec{PQ} = u$.

Proof. We require $\vec{u} = [-3, 4, 5] = (q_1 - 2, q_2 - (-1), q_3 - 3)$. Solving componentwise, we see $(q_1, q_2, q_3) = (-1, 3, 8)$. Thus, $Q = (-1, 3, 8)$. ∎

> **Problem 2**
>
> Given the points $P(2, -1, 3)$, $Q(3, 4, 1)$, $R(4, -3, 4)$, $S(5, 2, 2)$. True or false (explain:) *PQSR* is a parallelogram.

Proof. For *PQSR* to be a parallelogram, we require $\vec{PQ} = \vec{SR}$.

$$\vec{PQ} = [3 - 2,\ 4 - (-1),\ 1 - 3] = [1, 5, -2]$$

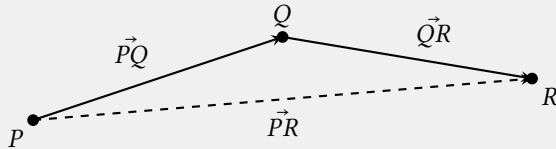$$\vec{SR} = [4 - 5,\ -3 - 2,\ 4 - 2] = [-1, -5, 2]$$

Since
$$[1, 5, -2] \neq [-1, -5, 2],$$
it follows that $PQSR$ is not a parallelogram. ∎

> **Problem 4**
>
> Show that for every triple points P, Q, R, $\overrightarrow{PQ} + \overrightarrow{QR} = \overrightarrow{PR}$. [Method 1: Calculate components. Method 2: Draw a picture.]

1.2 $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbb{C}^n$

> **Problem 2**
>
> Consider the vectors $u = (2, 1)$, $v = (-5, 3)$, $w = (3, 4)$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Do there exists real numbers a, b such that $au + bv = w$? What if $v = (6, 3)$.

Proof. We require $au + bv = w \iff a(2, 1) + b(-5, 3) = (3, 4) \iff (2a, a) + (-5b, 3b) = (3, 4) \iff (2a - 5b, a + 3b) = (3, 4)$. Thus
$$\begin{cases} 2a - 5b = 3 \\ a + 3b = 4 \end{cases}$$
which has the solution $a = \frac{29}{11}$, $b = \frac{5}{11}$. If $v = (6, 3)$, we require
$$a(2, 1) + b(6, 3) = (3, 4) \iff (2a + 6b, a + 3b) = (3, 4).$$
Thus
$$\begin{cases} 2a + 6b = 3 \\ a + 3b = 4 \end{cases}$$
which has no solution. To see this has no solution, note
$$a + 3b = 4 \implies 6b = 8 - 2a.$$
Plugging into the first equation gives
$$2a + (8 - 2a) = 3 \implies 8 = 3,$$
which is a contradiction. ∎

> **Problem 3**
>
> Give a detailed proof of (8) of Theorem 1.2.3 (just checking!). [Write out all steps of the proof and give a reason for each step.]

Proof. Let $x = [x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n] \in F^n$ be a vector and let $c, d \in F$ where F is a field. Then

$$(cd)x = [(cd)x_1, (cd)x_2, \ldots, (cd)x_n].$$

Since F is a field, scalar multiplication in F is associative thus

$$(cd)x_i = c(dx_i) \quad \text{for each } i = 1, 2, \ldots, n.$$

Therefore,

$$(cd)x = [c(dx_1), c(dx_2), \ldots, c(dx_n)] = c(dx),$$

∎

Problem 4

In Definition 1.2.1, $n = 1$ is not ruled out. What do the elements of $\mathbb{R}^1$ look like? Describe sums and scalar multiples in $\mathbb{R}^1$.

Proof. The elements of $\mathbb{R}^1$ look like $[x_1]$ where $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$. Sums and scalar multiples behave identically to the operations in the field $\mathbb{R}$. ∎

1.3 Vectors Spaces: The Axioms some Examples

Problem 1

Let V be a vector space over a field F. Let T be a nonempty set and let $W = \mathscr{F}(T, V)$ be the set of all functions $x : T \longrightarrow V$. Show that W can be made into a vector space over F in a natural way. [Hint: Use the definitions in Example 1.3.4 as a guide.]

Proof. For $x, y \in W$, $x = y$ means that $x(t) = y(t)$ for all $t \in T$. If $x, y \in W$ and $c \in F$, define functions $x + y$ and cx by the formulas $(x + y)(t) = x(t) + y(t)$ and $(cx)(t) = cx(t)$ for all $t \in T$. Let θ be the function defined by $\theta(t) = 0$ for all $t \in T$, and for $x \in W$, let $-x$ be the function defined by $(-x)(t) = -x(t)$ for all $t \in T$. ∎

Problem 2

The definition of a vector space (1.3.1) can be formulated as follows. A vector space over F is a nonempty set V together with a pair of mappings $\sigma : V \longrightarrow V$ and $\mu : F \times V \longrightarrow V$. ($\sigma$ suggests 'sum' and μ suggests 'multiple') having the following properties $\sigma(x, y) = \sigma(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in V$; $\sigma(\sigma(x, y), z) = \sigma(x, \sigma(y, z))$ for all $x, y, z \in V$ etc. The exercise: Write out the 'etc.' in detail.

Proof. We list the 9 axioms below:

1. $x, y \in V \implies \sigma(x, y) \in V$

2. $x \in V, c \in F \implies \mu(c, x) \in V$

3. $x, y \in V \implies \sigma(x, y) = \sigma(y, x)$

4. $x, y, z \in V \implies \sigma(x, \sigma(y, z)) = \sigma(\sigma(x, y), z)$

5. $\exists 0 \in V$ such that $\sigma(0, v) = v = \sigma(v, 0)$

6. $x \in V \implies -x \in V$ such that $\sigma(x, -x) = 0 = \sigma(-x, x)$

7. $x, y \in V$ and $c \in F \implies \mu(c, \sigma(x, y)) = \sigma(\mu(c, x), \mu(c, y))$

8. $\exists 1 \in F$ such that $x \in V \implies \mu(1, x) = x$

9. $a, b \in F$ and $x \in V \implies \mu(a, \mu(b, x)) = \mu(ab, x)$

∎

Problem 3

Let V be a complex vector space (1.3.2). Show that V is also a real vector space (sums as usual, scalar multiplication restricted to real scalars). These two ways of looking at V may be indicated by writing V_c and V_r.

Proof. Clearly V_r is closed under scalar multiplication and vector addiction and is a vector space. ∎

Problem 4

Every real vector space V can be 'embedded' in a complex vector space W in the following way: let $W = V \times V$ be the real vector space constructed as in example 1.3.10 and define multiplication by complex scalars by the formula $(a + bi)(x, y) = (ax - by, bx + ay)$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $(x, y) \in W$. [In particular, $i(x, y) = (-y, x)$. Think of (x, y) as '$x + iy$'] Show that W satisfies the axioms for a complex vector space (W is called the *complexification* of V.)

Proof. Below are the 9 vector space axioms.

1. Let $x, y \in W$. Then $x = (v_1, v_2), y = (w_1, w_2) \in V \times V$, and $(v_1, v_2) + (w_1, w_2) = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2)$. Now, $v_1 + w_1 \in V$ and $v_2 + w_2 \in V$, thus $(v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2) \in V \times V$.

2. Let $x \in W$ and $c \in \mathbb{C}$. Then $x = (v_1, v_2) \in V \times V$, $c = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$, and $(a + bi)(v_1, v_2) = (av_1 - bv_2, bv_1 + av_2)$. Clearly $av_1 - bv_2 \in V$ and $bv_1 + av_2 \in V$, thus $(av_1 - bv_2, bv_1 + av_2) \in V \times V$.

3. Let $x, y \in W$. Then $x = (v_1, v_2), y = (w_1, w_2) \in V \times V$. Then $x + y = (v_1, v_2) + (w_1, w_2) = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2) = (w_1 + v_1, w_2 + v_2) = (w_1, w_2) + (v_1, v_2) = y + x$.

4. Let $x, y, z \in W$. Then $x = (v_1, v_2), y = (w_1, w_2), z = (s_1, s_2) \in V \times V$. Then $(x + y) + z = [(v_1, v_2) + (w_1, w_2)] + (s_1, s_2) = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2) + (s_1, s_2) = ((v_1 + w_1) + s_1, (v_2 + w_2) + s_2) = (v_1 + (w_1 + s_1), v_2 + (w_2 + s_2)) = (v_1, v_2) + (w_1 + s_1, w_2 + s_2) = (v_1, v_2) + [(w_1, w_2) + (s_1, s_2)] = x + (y + z)$.

5. Let $x \in W$. Then $x = (v_1, v_2) \in V \times V$ and $x + 0 = (v_1, v_2) + (0, 0) = (v_1 + 0, v_2 + 0) = (v_1, v_2)$.

6. Let $x \in W$. Then $x = (v_1, v_2) \in V \times V$ and $x + (-x) = (v_1, v_2) + (-v_1, -v_2) = (v_1 - v_1, v_2 - v_2) = (0, 0) = 0 = (-v_1, -v_2) + (v_1, v_2) = (-x) + x$.

7. Let $a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$ and $x, y \in W$. Then $(a + bi)((v_1, v_2) + (w_1, w_2)) = (a + bi)(v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2) = (a(v_1 + w_1) - b(v_2 + w_2), b(v_1 + w_1) + a(v_2 + w_2)) = (av_1 - bv_2, bv_1 + av_2) + (aw_1 - bw_2, bw_1 + aw_2) = (a + bi)(v_1, v_2) + (a + bi)(w_1, w_2)$.

8. Let $a + bi, c + di \in \mathbb{C}$ and $x = (v_1, v_2) \in W$. Then $(a + bi)((c + di)(v_1, v_2)) = (a + bi)(cv_1 - dv_2, dv_1 + cv_2) = ((ac - bd)v_1 - (ad + bc)v_2, (bc + ad)v_1 + (bd + ac)v_2) = ((a + bi)(c + di))(v_1, v_2)$.

9. Let $x = (v_1, v_2) \in W$. Then $1 \cdot (v_1, v_2) = (1v_1 - 0v_2, 0v_1 + 1v_2) = (v_1, v_2)$.

∎

1.4   Vector Spaces: First Consequences of the Axioms

Problem 1

In a vector space, ① $x - y = \theta$ if and only if ② $x = y$; ③ $x + y = z$ if and only if ④ $x = z - y$.

Proof. ($①\longrightarrow②$) Suppose $x - y = \theta \iff x + (-y) = \theta$. It follows that $-y = -x \iff y = x$.

($②\longrightarrow①$) Suppose $x = y \iff -x = -y$. Then $x + (-x) = x + (-y) = x - y = \theta$.

($③\longrightarrow④$) Suppose $x + y = z \iff x + y + (-y) = z + (-y) \iff x = z - y$.

($④\longrightarrow③$) Suppose $x = z - y \iff x + y = z - y + y \iff x + y = z$. ∎

Problem 2

Let V be a vector space over a field F. If x is a fixed nonzero vector, then the mapping $f : F \longrightarrow V$ defined by $f(c) = cx$ is injective. If c is a fixed nonzero scalar, then the mapping $g : V \longrightarrow V$ defined by $g(x) = cx$ is bijective.

Proof. Suppose x is a fixed nonzero vector. Let $c, c' \in F$ such that $f(c) = f(c') \iff cx = c'x \iff c = c'$. The last step follows from Corollary 1.4.7 (ii). Thus f is injective. ∎

Proof. Suppose c is a fixed nonzero scalar. The inverse function to $g(x) = cx$ is clearly $g^{-1}(x) = \frac{x}{c}$. Thus g is bijective. ∎

Problem 3

If V is a vector space and y is a fixed vector, then the mapping $\tau : V \longrightarrow V$ defined by $\tau(x) = x + y$ is bijective (it is called *translation* by the vector y).

Proof. Suppose V is a vector space and y is a fixed vector. The inverse function to $\tau(x) = x + y$ is clearly $\tau^{-1}(x) = x - y$. Thus τ is bijective. ∎

Problem 4

If a is a nonzero scalar and b is vector in the space V, then the equation $ax + b = \theta$ has a unique solution x in V.

Proof. Suppose a is a nonzero scalar and b is a vector in V. The equation $ax + b = \theta$ is equivalent to $ax = -b$. Multiplying both sides by a^{-1} gives $a^{-1}(ax) = a^{-1}(-b) \iff (a^{-1}a)x = -a^{-1}b \iff x = -a^{-1}b$. ∎

Problem 5

If, in a vector space, θ' is a vector such that $0' + x = x$ for even a single vector xS, then $\theta' = \theta$. [Hint: Add $-x$ to both sides of the equation.]

Proof. Suppose in a vector space θ' is a vector such that $\theta' + x = \theta$. Adding $-x$ to both sides gives $\theta' + x + (-x) = x + (-x) \iff \theta' + \theta = \theta \iff \theta' = \theta$. ∎

1.5   Linear Combinations of Vectors

Problem 1

Express the function $f(t) = \cos(t - \pi/3)$ as a linear combination of the functions $\sin t$ and $\cos t$.

Proof. We use the standard trig identity to find $f(t) = \cos(t - \pi/3) = \cos(\pi/3)\cos(t) + \sin(\pi/3)\sin(t)$. ∎

Problem 2

Express the function e^t as a linear combination of the hyperbolic functions $\cosh t$ and $\sinh t$.

Proof. We have the standard identity $e^t = \cosh(t) + \sinh(t)$. ∎

Problem 3

Convince yourself of the correctness of the following formulas pertaining to linear combinations in a vector space:

1. $c \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n c x_i$.
2. $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + b_i) x_i$.
3. $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i x_I + \sum_{j=1}^n b_j y_j = \sum_{k=1}^{m+n} c_k z_k$. where $c_k = a_k$ and $z_k = x_k$ for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, while $c_k = b_{k-m}$ and $z_k = y_{k-m}$ for $k = m + 1, m + 2, \ldots, m + n$.
4.

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^m c_i \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j \right) = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=1}^n c_i x_j \right)$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^m c_i x_j \right)$$
$$= \sum_{i,j} c_i x_j$$

The last expression signifying with sum, with mn terms, of the vectors $c_i x_j$ for all possible combinations of i and j.

Proof. I'm convinced. ∎

Problem 5

Show that in a vector space, $x - y$ is a linear combination of x and y.

Proof. Let $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = -1$ and it follows that $x - y = x + (-y) = \alpha x + \beta y$. ∎

Problem 6

True or false (explain): In $\mathbb{R}^3$,
1. the vector $x = (0, 6, 3)$ is a linear combination of $(2, 1, 0)$ and $(-3, 2, 0)$;
2. the vector $x = (2, 1, -2)$ is a linear combination of $(2, 1, 0)$ and $(-3, 2, 0)$.

Proof. We must have

$$(0, 6, 3) = \alpha(2, 1, 0) + \beta(-3, 2, 0) = (2\alpha - 3\beta, \alpha + 2\beta, 0)$$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. We obtain

1. $0 = 2\alpha - 3\beta$
2. $6 = \alpha + 2\beta$
3. $3 = 0$

Since $3 \neq 0$, no solution exists. Now suppose

$$(2, 1, -2) = \alpha(2, 1, 0) + \beta(-3, 2, 0) = (2\alpha - 3\beta, \alpha + 2\beta, 0).$$

We obtain

1. $2 = 2\alpha - 3\beta$
2. $1 = \alpha + 2\beta$
3. $-2 = 0$

Since $-2 \neq 0$, no solution exists. ∎

1.6   Linear Subspaces

Problem 1

Let M and N be the subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$ defined as follows:

$$M = \{(a, 0) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}, N = \{(0, b) \mid b \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Show that M and N are linear subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^2$ and describe the linear subspaces $M \cap N$ and $M + N$.

Proof. First note $\theta = (0, 0) \in M, N$. Let $x, y \in M$ such that $x = (a_1, 0), y = (a_2, 0)$. Then $x + y = (a_1, 0) + (a_2, 0) = (a_1 + a_2, 0) \in M$. Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $cx = c(a_1, 0) = (ca_1, 0) \in M$. The argument for N is the same. The linear subspace $M + N$ is all of $\mathbb{R}^2$, and the linear subspace $M \cap N$ is $\{(0, 0)\}$. ∎

Problem 2

Let $\mathscr{F} = \mathscr{R}$ as in Example 1.6.5, fix a nonempty subset T of $\mathbb{R}$, and let

$$M = \{x \in \mathscr{F} \mid x(t) = 0 \text{ for all } t \in T\}$$

Show that M is a linear subspace of $\mathscr{F}$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in M$. Then for all $t \in T$, $(x + y)(t) = x(t) + y(t) = 0 + 0 = 0$, so $x + y \in M$. Let $x \in M$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then for all $t \in T$, $(cx)(t) = c \cdot x(t) = c \cdot 0 = 0$, so $cx \in M$. Thus M is a linear subspace of $\mathscr{F}$. ∎

Problem 3

With $\mathscr{F} = \mathscr{F}(\mathbb{R})$ as in 1.6.5, let
$$M = \{x \in \mathscr{F} \mid x = 0 \text{ on } (-\infty, 0]\}$$
$$N = \{x \in \mathscr{F} \mid x = 0 \text{ on } (0, +\infty)\}$$
Prove that $M + N = \mathscr{F}$ and $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$.

Proof. Let $f \in \mathscr{F}$. Define

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} f(t), & t > 0 \\ 0, & t \leq 0 \end{cases} \in M, \quad y(t) = \begin{cases} f(t), & t \leq 0 \\ 0, & t > 0 \end{cases} \in N.$$

Then $f = x + y$, so $M + N = \mathscr{F}$. Now, let $z \in M \cap N$. Then $z(t) = 0$ for $t \leq 0$ and $z(t) = 0$ for $t > 0$. Thus $z = \theta$ so $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$. ∎

Problem 4

Let M and N be linear subspaces of a vector space V, and let

$$M \cup N = \{x \in V \mid x \in M \text{ or } x \in N\}$$

be the union of M and N. True or false (explain): $M \cup N$ is a linear subspace of V. [If true, give a proof. If false, give a counterexample (an example of V, M, N for which $M \cup N$ is not a linear subspace of V).]

Proof. Let M and N be the subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$ defined as follows:

$$M = \{(a, 0) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}, \quad N = \{(0, b) \mid b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

We showed in Problem 1 that M and N are linear subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^2$. But notice that $(1, 0) \in M$ and $(0, 1) \in N$, yet $(1, 0) + (0, 1) = (1, 1) \notin M \cup N$. ∎

Problem 6

Let V be a vector space and let A be any subset of V. There exist linear subspaces of V that contain A (for instance, V itself is such a subspace). Let $n = \{N \mid N \text{ is a linear subspace of } V \text{ containing } A\}$. Show that n contains a smallest element. [Try $\cap n$.] Thus, there exists a smallest linear subpsace of V containing A.

Proof. Let P be an arbitrary linear subspace in n. Clearly, all elements in $\cap n$ are in P, thus $\cap n \subseteq P$. Now, since all linear subspaces in n contain 0, we have $0 \in \cap n$. Let $x, y \in \cap n$ and $c \in F$, where F is the field of scalars of V. Let V be an arbitrary element in n. Since $x, y \in \cap n$, it follows that $x, y \in V$, thus $x + y \in V$. Therefore, $\cap n$ is a linear subspace of V. ∎

Problem 7

Let V be a vector space and let n be any set of linear subspaces of V. Let A be the *union* of the subspaces in n, that is,

$$A = \cup n = \{x \in V \mid x \in M \text{ for some } M \in n\}$$

Apply Exercise 6 to conclude that there exists a linear subspace of V that contains every $M \in n$.

Proof. Clearly $\cup n \subseteq V$. Let $A = \cup n$. By Problem 6, there exists a smallest linear subspace of V containing A. Since for every $M \in n$, $M \subseteq A$, this linear subspace contains every $M \in n$. ∎

Problem 8

A linear subspace M of a vector of a vector space V is closed under subtraction: if $x, y \in M$ then $x - y \in M$.

Proof. Suppose $x, y \in M$, where M is a linear subspace of a vector space V. Let $c = -1$. Then $cy = -1 \cdot y = -y \in M$. Thus $x + (-y) = x - y \in M$. ∎

Problem 9

Let V be a vector space and let n be a set of linear subspaces of V, having the following property: if $M, N \in n$ then there exists $P \in n$ such that $M \subset P$. (That is, any two elements of n are contained in a

third.) Prove that $\cup n$ is a linear subspace of V.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \cup n$ and let c be a scalar of the vector space V. Then $x \in M$ for some $M \in n$. Since M is a linear subspace, $cx \in M$, thus $cx \in \cup n$. Now $y \in N$ for some $N \in n$. There exists $P \in n$ such that $M \subseteq P$ and $N \subseteq P$. Thus $x, y \in P$. Since P is a linear subspace, $x + y \in P$, thus $x + y \in \cup n$. It follows that $\cup n$ is a linear subspace of V. ∎

Problem 11

Let M and N be linear subspaces of V. Prove that the following conditions are equivalent:
1. $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$;
2. if $y \in M$, $z \in N$ and $y + z = \theta$, then $y = z = \theta$;
3. if $y + z = y' + z'$, where $y, y' \in M$ and $z, z' \in N$, then $y = y'$ and $z = z'$.

Proof. $(1 \longrightarrow 2)$ Suppose $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$. Furthermore, suppose $y \in M$, $z \in N$ and $y + z = \theta$. Then $y = -z \in M$, so $z \in M \cap N$. Since $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$, it follows that $z = \theta$. Then $y = -z = -\theta = \theta$.

$(2 \longrightarrow 3)$ Suppose that if $y \in M$, $z \in N$ and $y + z = \theta$, then $y = z = \theta$. Suppose $y + z = y' + z'$, where $y, y' \in M$ and $z, z' \in N$. Then $(y - y') + (z - z') = \theta$. By 2 it follows that $y - y' = \theta$ and $z - z' = \theta$, so $y = y'$ and $z = z'$.

$(3 \longrightarrow 1)$ Suppose that if $y + z = y' + z'$, where $y, y' \in M$ and $z, z' \in N$, then $y = y'$ and $z = z'$. Let $x \in M \cap N$. Then $x \in M$ and $x \in N$. Consider $x + \theta = \theta + x$. By 3 it follows that $x = \theta$ and $\theta = x$. Therefore $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$. ∎

Problem 12

Let M and N be linear subspaces of V. If $M + N = V$ and $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$ (cf. Exercise 11), V is said to be the *direct sum* of M and N, written $V = M \oplus N$. Prove that the following conditions are equivalent:
1. $V = M \oplus N$;
2. for each $x \in V$, there exist unique elements $y \in M$ and $z \in N$ such that $x = y + z$.

Proof. $(\longrightarrow)$ Suppose $V = M \oplus N$. Let x be an arbitrary element in V. Then there exists $m \in M$ and $n \in N$ such that $x = m + n$. Suppose there also exists $m' \in M$ and $n' \in N$ such that $x = m' + n'$. Then $m + n = m' + n'$. By Problem 11, $m = m'$ and $n = n'$, thus m and n are unique.

$(\longleftarrow)$ Suppose for each $x \in V$, there exist unique elements $y \in M$ and $z \in N$ such that $x = y + z$. Let x be an arbitrary element in V. Clearly $x = y + z$ where $y \in M$ and $z \in N$, thus $x \in M + N$. Let x be an arbitrary element in $M + N$. Thus $x = m + n$ for some $m \in M$ and $n \in N$. Therefore $V = M + N$.

Let $x \in M \cap N$. Then

$$x = x + \theta \quad \text{with } x \in M, \ \theta \in N,$$

and

$$x = \theta + x \quad \text{with } \theta \in M, \ x \in N.$$

Thus $x = \theta$. Therefore $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$. ∎

Let V be the real vector space of all functions $x : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (1.3.4). Call $y \in V$ *even* if $y(-t) = y(t)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and call $z \in V$ *odd* if $z(-t) = -z(t)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Let

$$M = \{y \in V \mid y \text{ is even}\}, \quad N = \{z \in V \mid z \text{ is odd}\}.$$

1. Prove that M and N are linear subspaces of V and that $V = M \oplus N$ in the sense of Exercise 12. [Hint: If $x \in V$ consider the functions of y and z defined by $y(t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) + x(-t)]$, $z(t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) - x(-t)]$].
2. What does (i) say for $x(t) = e^t$?
3. What does (i) say for a polynomial function x?

Proof. Clearly the zero function is in both M and N. Let $x, y \in M$ and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $x(-t) = x(t)$ and it follows that $cx(-t) = cx(t)$, thus $cx \in M$. Also,

$$(x + y)(-t) = x(-t) + y(-t) = x(t) + y(t) = (x + y)(t),$$

thus $x + y \in M$. Let $a, b \in N$ and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $a(-t) = -a(t)$ and it follows that $ca(-t) = -ca(t)$, thus $ca \in N$. Also,

$$(a + b)(-t) = a(-t) + b(-t) = -a(t) - b(t) = -(a + b)(t),$$

thus $a + b \in N$. It follows that M and N are linear subspaces of V. ∎

Proof. Let $x \in V$ be arbitrary. Define functions y and z by

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) + x(-t)], \qquad z(t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) - x(-t)].$$

Notice

$$y(-t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(-t) + x(t)] = y(t),$$

so y is even and thus $y \in M$. Also

$$z(-t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(-t) - x(t)] = -\frac{1}{2}[x(t) - x(-t)] = -z(t),$$

so z is odd and thus $z \in N$. Now, for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$y(t) + z(t) = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) + x(-t)] + \frac{1}{2}[x(t) - x(-t)] = x(t).$$

Thus $x = y + z$ and therefore $V = M + N$. Suppose $x \in M \cap N$. Then x is both even and odd and

$$x(t) = x(-t) \quad \text{and} \quad x(t) = -x(-t).$$

Thus $x(t) = -x(t)$ for all t, $x(t) = 0$ for all t. Thus $M \cap N = \{\theta\}$. Therefore $V = M \oplus N$. ∎

Solution (2): It says that e^t can be written uniquely as the sum of an even function and an odd function.

Solution (3): It says that any polynomial function can be written uniquely as the sum of an even polynomial and an odd polynomial.

Let V and W be vector spaces over the same field F and let $V \times W$ be the product vector space (1.3.11). If M is a linear subspace of V, and N is a linear subspace of W, show that $M \times N$ is a linear subspace

of $V \times W$.

Proof. Suppose M is a linear subspace of V and N is a linear subspace of W. Let $x, y \in M \times N$ and let c be a scalar from the field F. Then $x = (m_1, n_1)$ and $y = (m_2, n_2)$ are elements of $M \times N$, and $cx = c(m_1, n_1) = (cm_1, cn_1)$. Now, $cm_1 \in M$ and $cn_1 \in N$, thus $cx \in M \times N$. Also $x + y = (m_1, n_1) + (m_2, n_2) = (m_1 + m_2, n_1 + n_2)$. Since $m_1 + m_2 \in M$ and $n_1 + n_2 \in N$, it follows that $x + y \in M \times N$. Since $(\theta_V, \theta_W) \in M \times N$, it follows that $M \times N$ is a linear subspace of $V \times W$. ∎

> ### Problem 17
>
> If $V = V_1 \times V_2$ (1.3.11), $M_1 = \{(x_1, \theta) \mid x_1 \in V_1\}$ and $M_2 = \{(\theta, x_2) \mid x_2 \in V_2\}$, then $V = M_1 + M_2$ and $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{\theta\}$ (where θ stands for the zero vector of all vector spaces in sight). In the terminology of Exercise 12, V is the direct sum of its subspaces in M_1 and M_2, that is, $V = M_1 \oplus M_2$. (Generalization?)

Definition 1. *If $V = V_1 \times V_2 \times \cdots \times V_n$, and*

1. $M_1 = \{(x_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_n) \mid x_1 \in V_1\}$

2. $M_2 = \{(\theta_1, x_2, \ldots, \theta_n) \mid x_2 \in V_2\}$

3. ...

4. $M_n = \{(\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, x_n) \mid x_n \in V_n\}$

then V is the direct sum of its subspaces $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_n$, or

$$V = M_1 \oplus M_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n.$$

> ### Problem 18
>
> Let M and N be linear subspaces of V whose union $M \cup N$ is also a linear subspace. Prove that either $M \subset N$ or $N \subset M$. [Hint: Assume to the contrary that neither of M, N is contained in the other; choose vectors $y \in M, z \in N$ with $y \notin N, z \notin M$ and try to find a home for $y + z$.]

Proof. Let $y \in M$ and $z \in N$ such that $y \notin N$ and $z \notin M$. Then $y \in M \cup N$ and $z \in M \cup N$. Since $M \cup N$ is a linear subspace, $y + z \in M \cup N$. Without loss of generality, suppose $y + z \in M$. Then $-y \in M$ by Problem 8. Since M is closed under addition $y + z + (-y) = z \in M$ which is a contradiction. ∎

2 Linear Mappings

2.1 Linear Mappings

> ### Problem 2
>
> Let T be a set, $V = \mathscr{F}(T, \mathbb{R})$ the vector space of all functions $x : T \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (Example 1.3.4). Fix a point $t \in T$ and define $f : V \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by the formula $f(x) = x(t)$. Then f is a linear form on V.

Proof. Let $x, y \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f(x + y) = (x + y)(t) = x(t) + y(t) = f(x) + f(y)$. and $f(cx) = (cx)(t) = c\,x(t) = cf(x)$. Thus f is a linear mapping. Since it maps functions in V to scalars in $\mathbb{R}$ it is a linear form. ∎

> ### Problem 3
>
> If $T : V \longrightarrow W$ is a linear mapping, then $T(x - y) = Tx - Ty$ for all $x, y \in V$.

Proof. Suppose $T : V \longrightarrow W$ is a linear mapping. Let x, y be arbitrary elements in V. Then $T(x - y) = T(x + (-y)) = Tx + T(-y) = Tx + (-T(y)) = Tx - Ty.$ ∎

Problem 4

If V is a vector space, prove that the mapping $T : V \times V \longrightarrow V$ defined by $T(x, y) = x - y$ is linear. (It is understood that $V \times V$ has the product vector space structure described in Example 1.3.10.)

Proof. Suppse V is a vector space. Let $(x, y), (a, b)$ be arbitrary elements in $V \times V$. Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$ be a scalar. Then $T((x, y) + (a, b)) = T(x + a, y + b) = (x + a) - (y + b) = (x - y) + (a - b) = T(x, y) + T(a, b)$. Also $T(c(x, y)) = T(cx, cy) = cx - cy = c(x - y) = c\,T(x, y)$. Thus T is linear. ∎

Problem 5

With notations as in Theorem 2.1.3, an element $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ of F^n such that $T(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \theta$ is called a (linear) *relation* among the vectors $x_1, \dots, x_n$. For example, suppose that $V = F^2, n = 3$ and $x_1 = (2, -3), x_2 = (4, 1), x_3 = (8, 9)$.
  1. Find a formula for the linear mapping $F^3 \longrightarrow F^2$ defined in Theorem 2.1.3.
  2. Show that $(-2, 3, 1)$ is a relation among x_1, x_2, x_3.

Solution (a):

$$f(a_1, a_2, a_3) = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + a_3 x_3$$

Solution (b):

$$f(-2, 3, -1) = -2x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 = -2(2, -3) + 3(4, 1) - (8, 9) = (-4, 6) + (12, 3) - (8, 9) = (8, 9) - (8, 9) = (0, 0) = \theta$$

Problem 6

The proof of Theorem 2.1.2 uses only the additivity of the mapping T. Give a proof using only its homogeneity. [Hint: Corollaries 1.4.3, 1.4.5]

Theorem 1. *If $T : V \longrightarrow W$ is a linear mapping, then $T\theta = \theta$ and $T(-x) = -(Tx)$ for all $x \in V$.*

Proof. Suppose $T : V \longrightarrow W$ is a linear mapping. Then $T(\theta) = T(0 \cdot x) = 0 \cdot T(x)$. Then by Corollary 1.4.3, $0 \cdot T(x) = \theta$, hence $T(\theta) = \theta$. Also $T(-x) = T((-1) \cdot x) = (-1)T(x)$. Then by Corollary 1.4.5, $(-1)T(x) = -T(x)$. Thus $T(-x) = -Tx$. ∎

Problem 7

If $\mathscr{D}$ is the vector space of real polynomial functions (Example 1.3.5) and $f : \mathscr{D} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the mapping defined by $f(p) = p'(1)$ (the value of the derivative of p at 1), then f is a linear form on $\mathscr{D}$. What is the geometric meaning of $f(p) = 0$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathscr{D}$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f(x + y) = (x + y)'(1) = x'(1) + y'(1) = f(x) + f(y)$. and $f(cx) = (cx)'(1) = c\,x'(1) = c f(x)$. It follows that f is a linear form on $\mathscr{D}$. ∎

Solution: $f(p) = 0$ is a critical point at the value $x = 1$ of the function p.

Problem 8

Let $S : \mathscr{D} \longrightarrow \mathscr{D}$ be the linear mapping of Example 2.1.5. Define $R : \mathscr{D} \longrightarrow \mathscr{D}$ by $Rp = Sp + p(5)1$, where $p(5)1$ is the constant function defined by the real number $p(5)$. Then R is linear and $(Rp)' = p$. [So to speak, the constant of integration can be tailor-made for p in a linear fashion.] More generally, look at the mapping $Rp = Sp + f(p)1$, where f is any linear form on $\mathscr{D}$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathscr{D}$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $R(x + y) = S(x + y) + (x + y)(5)1 = S(x) + S(y) + x(5)1 + y(5)1 = R(x) + R(y)$. Also $R(cx) = S(cx) + (cx)(5)1 = cS(x) + cx(5)1 = cR(x)$. Thus R is linear.

For the general form notice $R(x + y) = S(x + y) + f(x + y)1 = S(x) + S(y) + f(x)1 + f(y)1 = R(x) + R(y)$. Also $R(cx) = S(cx) + f(cx)1 = cS(x) + cf(x)1 = cR(x)$. ∎

2.2 Linear Mappings and Linear Subspaces: Kernel and Range

Problem 2

Let V be a vector space over F, $f : V \longrightarrow F$ a linear form on V (Definition 2.1.11). Assume that f is not identically zero and choose a vector y such that $f(y) \neq 0$. Let N be the kernel of f. Prove that every vector x in V may be written $x = z + cy$ with $z \in N$ and $c \in F$, and that z and c are uniquely determined by x. [Hint: If $x \in V$, compute the value of f at the vector $x - [f(x)/f(y)]y$.]

Proof. Suppose $x, y \in V$. Notice $f\left(x - \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}y\right) = f(x) - f\left(\frac{f(x)}{f(y)}y\right) = f(x) - \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}f(y) = f(x) - f(x) = 0$. We've just shown $x - \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}y \in \ker(f)$. Thus $x = \left(x - \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}y\right) + \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}y$. Let $z = x - \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}y$ and $c = \frac{f(x)}{f(y)}$, and we see $x = z + cy$ as required.

Suppose $x = z' + c'y$ with $z' \in \ker(f)$ and $c' \in F$. Then $z + cy = z' + c'y \implies z - z' = (c' - c)y$. Applying f gives $0 = f(z - z') = (c' - c)f(y)$, so $c' - c = 0$ since $f(y) \neq 0$. Thus $c' = c$ and $z' = z$. ∎

Problem 3

Let $S : V \longrightarrow W$ and $T : V \longrightarrow W$ be a linear mappings and let $M = \{x \in V \mid Sx \in T(V)\}$. Prove that M is a linear subspace of V.

Proof. Let $x, y \in M$ and let c be a scalar of the vector space V. Since $x, y \in M$, we have $Sx \in T(V)$ and $Sy \in T(V)$. Since $T(V)$ is a linear subspace of W it follows that $S(x + y) = Sx + Sy \in T(V)$. Thus $x + y \in M$. Similarly $S(cx) = cS(x) \in T(V)$ thus $cx \in M$. Therefore M is a linear subspace of V. ∎

Problem 4

If $T : V \times V \longrightarrow V$ is the linear mapping $T(x, y) = x - y$ (2.1, Exercise 4), determine the kernel and range of T.

Solution: The kernel is $(x, x) \in V \times V$ and the range is V.

Proof.

$$x(x_1) = x(x_2) \iff (x_1, 0) = (x_2, 0) \iff x_1 = x_2$$

∎

Proof. Suppose $x, y \in \mathscr{D}$ such that $T(x) = T(y)$. Then $T(x) = T(y) \iff x - x' = y - y' \iff (x - y) - (x' - y') = 0$. Let $q = x - y$ then $q - q' = 0 \iff q = q'$. Thus $q = 0$ and it follows that $x = y$ and $x' = y'$. ∎

2.3 Spaces of Linear Mappings: $\mathscr{L}(V, W)$ and $\mathscr{L}(V)$

Theorem 2. *If V and W are vector spaces over F, then $\mathscr{L}(V, W)$ is also a vector space over F for the operations defined in 2.3.9.*

Proof. Let $S, T \in \mathscr{L}(V, W)$ and let $a, b \in F$. For all $x \in V$, $(a(S + T))(x) = a((S + T)(x)) = a(S(x) + T(x)) = aS(x) + aT(x) = (aS + aT)(x)$. For all $x \in V$, $((a + b)T)(x) = (a + b)T(x) = aT(x) + bT(x) = (aT + bT)(x)$. For all $x \in V$, $((ab)T)(x) = ab\,T(x) = a(bT(x)) = (a(bT))(x)$. For all $x \in V$, $(1T)(x) = 1 \cdot T(x) = T(x)$. ∎

Problem 2

Let V be a vector space. If $R, S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and c is a scalar, the following equalities are true.
1. $(RS)T = R(ST)$;
2. $(R + S)T = RT + ST$;
3. $R(S + T) = RS + RT$;
4. $(cS)T = c(ST) = S(cT)$;
5. $TI = T = IT$; (T is the identity mapping)

Proof. For all $x \in V$.

1. $(RS)T(x) = R(S(T(x))) = R(ST(x)) = (R(ST))(x)$.

2. $(R + S)T(x) = (R + S)(T(x)) = R(T(x)) + S(T(x)) = RT(x) + ST(x) = (RT + ST)(x)$.

3. $R(S + T)(x) = R(S(x) + T(x)) = R(S(x)) + R(T(x)) = RS(x) + RT(x) = (RS + RT)(x)$.

4. $(cS)T(x) = cS(T(x)) = c(ST(x)) = (c(ST))(x) = S(cT)(x)$.

5. $TI(x) = T(I(x)) = T(x)$ and $IT(x) = I(T(x)) = T(x)$.

∎

Problem 4

If $T : V \longrightarrow W$ is a linear mapping and g is a linear form on W, show that the formula $f(x) = g(Tx)$ defines a linear form f on V. [Shortcut: $f = gT = g \circ T$.] The formula $T'g = f$ defines a mapping $T' : \mathcal{L}(W, F) \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(V, F)$, where F is the field of scalars. Show that T' is linear. [T' is called the *transpose* (or 'adjoint' of T.)]

Proof. By Theorem 2.3.13 it directly follows that f is linear.

Let $x, y \in \mathcal{L}(W, F)$ and c be a scalar in F. Then for all $v \in V$, $T'(x + y)(v) = (x + y)(T(v)) = x(T(v)) + y(T(v)) = T'(x)(v) + T'(y)(v)$. Similarly, $T'(cx)(v) = (cx)(T(v)) = c\, x(T(v)) = c\, T'(x)(v)$. Therefore, T' is linear. ∎

Problem 5

If V is a vector space over F, the vector space $\mathcal{L}(V, F)$ of linear forms on V is called the *dual space* of V and is denoted V'. Thus, the correspondence $T \mapsto T'$ described in Exercise 4 defines a mapping $\mathcal{L}(V, W) \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(W', V')$. Show that this mapping is linear, that is, $(S + T)' = S' + T'$ and $(cT)' = cT'$ for all S, T in $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ and all scalars c.

Proof. Let $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ and let c be a scalar. Let v be a vector in V. Then $(S + T)'g(v) = g(S + T)(v) = g(S(v) + T(v)) = gS(v) + gT(v) = S'g(v) + T'g(v)$. Similarly $(cT)'g(v) = g(cT(v)) = cgT(v) = c(T'g)(v)$. Thus the correspondence $T \mapsto T'$ is linear. ∎

Problem 6

With notations as in Exercise 4, prove that if T is surjective then T' is injective; in other words, show that if $T(V) = W$ then $T'g = 0 \implies g = 0$.

Proof. Suppose $T(V) = W$ and $T'g = 0$. Let $v \in V$ then $(T'g)(v) = g(T(v)) = 0$ for all $v \in V$. Thus $g = 0$ and T' is injective. ∎

Problem 7

As in Example 2.1.4, let $V = \mathscr{D}$ be the real vector space of all polynomial functions $p : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $D : V \longrightarrow V$ the linear mapping defined by $Dp = p'$ (the derivative of p); let $D' : V' \longrightarrow V'$ be the transpose of D as defined in Exericise 4. (Caution: The prime is being used with three different meanings.)

For each $t \in \mathbb{R}$ let ρ_i be the linear form on V defined by $\rho_t(p) = p(t)$. Let $[a,b]$ be a closed interval on $\mathbb{R}$ and let ρ be the linear form on V defined by

$$\rho(p) = \int_a^b p(t)dt$$

Prove : $D'\rho = \rho_b - \rho_a$. [Hint: Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.]

Proof. Let $p \in V$. Notice $(D'\rho)(p) = \rho(Dp) = \int_a^b p'(t)dt = p(b) - p(a) = \rho_b(p) - \rho_a(p)$. ∎

Problem 9

Let U, V, W be vector spaces over F. Prove:
1. For fixed $T \in \mathscr{L}(U,V)$, $\psi = S \mapsto ST$ is a linear mapping $\mathscr{L}(V,W) \longrightarrow \mathscr{L}(U,W)$ (see Figure 8 2.3.12).
2. For fixed $S \in \mathscr{L}(V,W)$, $\phi = T \mapsto ST$ is a mapping $\mathscr{L}(U,V) \longrightarrow \mathscr{L}(U,W)$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathscr{L}(V,W)$ and $v \in U$. Let c be a scalar. Then $(\psi(x+y))(v) = ((x+y)T)(v) = (x+y)(T(v)) = xT(v) + yT(v) = \psi(x)(v) + \psi(y)(v)$. Also $(\psi(cx))(v) = ((cx)T)(v) = (cx)(T(v)) = c(xT(v)) = c\psi(x)(v)$. Thus ψ is a linear mapping. ∎

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathscr{L}(U,V)$ and $v \in U$. Let c be a scalar. Then $(\phi(x+y))(v) = S(x+y)(v) = S(x(v)+y(v)) = S(x(v)) + S(y(v)) = \phi(x)(v) + \phi(y)(v)$. Also $(\phi(cx))(v) = S(cx(v)) = c\,S(x(v)) = c\,\phi(x)(v)$. Thus ϕ is a linear mapping. ∎

Problem 10

If $T : U \longrightarrow V$ and $S : V \longrightarrow W$ are linear mappings, prove that $Im(ST) \subset ImS$ and $Ker(ST) \supset KerT$.

Proof. Clearly T can only restrict the domain of S thus $Im(ST) \subset ImS$. Clearly any x in $KerT$ will be in $Ker(ST)$ since $S(0) = 0$. ∎

Problem 11

Let $T : V \longrightarrow V$ be a linear mapping such that $ImT \subset Ker(T - I)$, where I is the identity mapping (2.3.3). Prove that $T^2 = T$. [Recall $T^2 = TT$.]

Proof. First note that $Ker(T - I) = \{v \in V \mid (T - I)(v) = 0\}$. For any $v \in V$, $(T - I)(v) = 0 \iff T(v) - I(v) = 0 \iff T(v) - v = 0 \iff T(v) = v$. Let $v \in V$ be arbitrary. Then $T(v) \in ImT$. Since $ImT \subset Ker(T - I)$, it follows that $T(v) \in Ker(T - I)$, and thus $T(T(v)) = T(v)$. Thus $T^2 = T$. ∎

> ### Problem 12
>
> Supose $V = M \oplus N$ in the sense of 1.6, Exercise 12. For each $x \in V$, let $x = y + z$ be its unique decomposition with $y \in M, z \in N$ and define $Px = y, Qx = z$. Prove that $P, Q \in \mathscr{L}(V)$, $P^2 = P, Q^2 = Q$, $P + Q = I$ and $PQ = QP = 0$.

Proof. Let $a_1, a_2 \in M$ and $b_1, b_2 \in N$. Let $x = a_1 + b_1, y = a_2 + b_2 \in V$. Then $P(x + y) = P((a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2)) = a_1 + a_2 = Px + Py$. Also $P(cx) = P(c(a_1 + b_1)) = P(ca_1 + cb_1) = ca_1 = c(Px)$. Thus $P \in \mathscr{L}(V)$. The argument that $Q \in \mathscr{L}(V)$ is similar. ∎

Proof. Simply note that $ImP \subset Ker(P - I)$ thus $P^2 = P$. The argument that $Q^2 = Q$ is similar. ∎

Proof. Let $a \in M$ and $b \in N$. Let $x = a + b$. Then $(P + Q)(x) = P(x) + Q(x) = a + b = x$. Thus $P + Q = I$. ∎

Proof. Let $a \in M$ and $b \in N$. Let $x = a + b$. Then $(PQ)(x) = P(Q(x)) = P(Q(a + b)) = P(0 + Q(b)) = 0$. The argument for QP is similar. ∎

> ### Problem 13
>
> Let $T : V \longrightarrow V$ be a linear mapping such that $T^2 = T$, and let $M = ImT$ and $N = KerT$. Prove that $M = \{x \in V \mid Tx = x\} = Ker(T - I)$ and that $V = M \oplus N$ in the sense of 1.6, Exercise 12.

Proof. Notice $x \in M \iff Tx = x \iff Tx - x = 0 \iff Tx - Ix = 0 \iff (T - I)(x) = 0 \iff x \in \ker(T - I)$.

Let $x \in V$. Let $y = Tx \in M$ and $z = x - Tx \in N$. Notice

$$T(z) = T(x - Tx) = Tx - T^2x = Tx - Tx = 0$$

Thus $z \in \ker T = N$. Therefore $x = y + z \in M + N$. Suppose $x = y_1 + z_1 = y_2 + z_2$ with $y_i \in M, z_i \in N$. Then

$$y_1 - y_2 = z_2 - z_1 \in M \cap N.$$

But then $M \cap N = \{0\}$ because suppose $v \in M \cap N$, then $Tv = v$ and $Tv = 0$, so $v = 0$. Thus $V = M \oplus N$. ∎

> ### Problem 14
>
> Find $S, T \in \mathscr{L}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ such that $ST \neq TS$.

Proof. Consider the linear maps $S, T \in \mathscr{L}(\mathbb{R}^2)$

$$S(x, y) = (y, 0), \quad T(x, y) = (0, x).$$

Then for any $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$ST(x, y) = S(T(x, y)) = S(0, x) = (x, 0),$$
$$TS(x, y) = T(S(x, y)) = T(y, 0) = (0, y).$$

Thus $ST \neq TS$. ∎

Problem 15

Let $T : U \longrightarrow V$ and $S : V \longrightarrow W$ be linear mappings. Prove
1. If S is injective, then $Ker(ST) = Ker(T)$.
2. If T is surjective, then $Im(ST) = ImS$.

Proof. Suppose S is injective. Let x be an arbitrary element in U. Suppose $x \in Ker(T)$ thus $T(x) = 0$. Then $(ST)(x) = S(T(x)) = S(0) = 0$. Thus $x \in Ker(ST)$. Suppose $x \in Ker(ST)$ thus $(ST)(x) = 0$. Now $S(0) = 0$ and since $S(T(x)) = 0$ and S is injective, $T(x) = 0$ thus $x \in KerT$. It follows that $Ker(ST) = Ker(T)$. ∎

Proof. Suppose T is surjective. It follows that T maps onto all elements in the domain of S. Therefore $Im(ST) = S$. ∎

Problem 16

Let V be a real or complex vector space and let $t \in \mathcal{V}$ be such that $T^2 = I$. Define

$$M = \{x \in V \mid Tx = x\}, \quad N = \{x \in V \mid Tx = -x\}$$

Prove that M and N are linear subspaces of V such that $V = M \oplus N$. [Hint: For every vector x, $x = \frac{1}{2}(x + Tx) + \frac{1}{2}(x - Tx)$.]

Proof. Let $x \in V$ and consider $x = \frac{1}{2}(x + Tx) + \frac{1}{2}(x - Tx)$.

Suppose $v \in M \cap N$. Then $v = x$ and $v = -x$ which implies $v = 0$. Thus $M \cap N = \{0\}$. ∎

Problem 17

Problem 18

Problem 19

Problem 20

Problem 21

Problem 22

A lightning proof of Theorem 2.3.11 can be based on an eaerlier exercise: Since $0 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, Lemma 2.3.10 shows that $\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}$ is a linear subspace of the vector space $\mathcal{F}(V, W)$ defined as in 1.3, Exercise 1, therefore $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is also a vector space (1.6.2).

Solution: OK.

Problem 23

Problem 24

Problem 25

Problem 26

2.4   Isomorphic Vector Spaces

2.5   Equivalence Relations and Quotient Sets

Problem 6

Let X be a nonempty set. Let R be a subset of the cartesian product $X \times X$, such that (i) R contains the 'diagnol' $X \times X$, that is, $(x, x) \in R$ for all $x \in X$; (ii) R is 'symmetric in the diagnol', that is, if $(x, y) \in R$ then $(y, x) \in R$; and (iii) if $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$ then $(x, z) \in R$. Does this suggest a way of defining an equivalence relation $x \sim y$ in X.

Solution: Yes.

Problem 7

Let $\mathscr{L}$ be the set of all lines L in the cartesian plane that are not vertical (i.e. not parallel to the y-axis). Define a function $m : \mathscr{L} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $m(L) =$ slope of L. Let $\sim$ be the equivalence relation on $\mathscr{L}$ derived from m (2.5.1), that is, $L \sim L'$ means that L and L' have the same slope.
  1. Describe the equivalence class $[L] = L$.
  2. True or false (explain):