**Problem** (Problem 1): Let  $T: V \to W$  be a linear transformation between  $\mathbb{F}$ -vector spaces. Show that T is injective if and only if T maps  $\mathbb{F}$ -linearly independent subsets of V to  $\mathbb{F}$ -linearly independent subsets of W.

**Solution:** Let T be injective. We claim that if  $\{v_1, ..., v_n\}$  is linearly independent in V, then  $\{Tv_1, ..., Tv_n\}$  is linearly independent in W. We see that if

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \mathsf{T} v_j = 0_W,$$

then

$$T\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} v_{j}\right) = 0_{W},$$

meaning that

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \nu_j \in \ker(T).$$

Now, since T is injective,  $\ker(T) = \{0_V\}$ , meaning that  $\sum_{j=1}^n a_j v_j = 0_V$ . Yet, since  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  is linearly independent, this means  $a_j = 0$  for each j, so  $\{Tv_1, \dots, Tv_n\}$  is linearly independent in W.

Now, let T map linearly independent subsets of V to linearly independent subsets of W. If  $\mathcal{B}_V = \{v_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a basis for V, then since  $\mathcal{B}_V$  is linearly independent,  $C = \{Tv_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a linearly independent subset of W, which can be extended to a basis  $\mathcal{B}_W$ . Since  $C \subseteq \mathcal{B}_W$ , we see that any linear combination in  $\mathcal{B}_W$  yields 0 if and only if every coefficient is zero, meaning that  $\ker(T) = \{0_V\}$ , so T is injective.

**Problem** (Problem 2): Let  $P_{n+1}(\mathbb{R})$  be the space of polynomials with real coefficients of degree  $\leq n+1$ . Prove that for any n points  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists a nonzero polynomial  $f \in P_{n+1}(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $f(a_j) = 0$  for each j, and  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} f'(a_j) = 0$ .

**Solution:** Based on the first condition, we see that the product  $\prod_{j=1}^{n} (x - a_j)$  must divide the polynomial f, and since f has degree at most n + 1, we must have  $f(x) = (x - L) \prod_{j=1}^{n} (x - a_j)$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Writing f'(x), we see that

$$f'(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} (x - a_j) + (x - L) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j \neq i} (x - a_j),$$

implying that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f'(\alpha_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - L) \prod_{j \neq i} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j).$$

By setting

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha_i - L) \prod_{j \neq i} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j),$$

we get

$$L = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j \neq i} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \prod_{j \neq i} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j),$$

which is well-defined whenever the  $a_i$  are distinct.

**Problem** (Problem 3): Let T: V  $\rightarrow$  W be a linear map of finite-dimensional vector spaces, and let  $W_0 \subseteq W$  be a subspace.

- (a) Show that  $T^{-1}(W_0) = \{ v \in V \mid Tv \in W_0 \}$  is a subspace of V.
- (b) Assuming T is surjective, express  $\dim(T^{-1}(W_0))$  in terms of  $\dim(W_0)$  and  $\dim(\ker(T))$ .

### **Solution:**

- (a) We see that if  $v_1, v_2 \in T^{-1}(W_0)$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , then since  $Tv_1, \alpha Tv_2 \in W_0$ , we have  $Tv_1 + \alpha Tv_2 \in W_0$ , so by linearity,  $T(v_1 + \alpha v_2) \in W_0$ , meaning  $v_1 + \alpha v_2 \in T^{-1}(W_0)$ , so  $T^{-1}(W_0)$  is a subspace of V.
- (b) First, since T is surjective,  $T(T^{-1}(W_0)) = W_0$ . Therefore, by restricting the map T, we get the surjective map T':  $T^{-1}(W_0) \to W_0$ , and since  $\ker(T) \subseteq T^{-1}(W_0)$ , the First Isomorphism Theorem gives  $T^{-1}(W_0)/\ker(T) \cong W_0$ , so by rank-nullity (as each of  $W_0$  and  $T^{-1}(W_0)$  are finite-dimensional),  $\dim(T^{-1}(W_0)) = \dim(\ker(T)) + \dim(W_0)$ .

### **Problem** (Problem 4):

(a) Do there exist invertible matrices  $A, B \in Mat_2(\mathbb{R})$  such that

$$ABA^{-1}B^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}?$$

(b) Do there exist matrices  $A, B \in Mat_2(\mathbb{R})$  such that

$$AB - BA = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}?$$

### **Solution:**

(a) There do not. This follows from the fact that  $det(ABA^{-1}B^{-1}) = 1$ , while the determinant of the latter matrix is 2.

## **Problem** (Problem 5):

(a) Find the inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$  for the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + 1 & \alpha & \alpha \\ \alpha & \alpha + 1 & \alpha \\ \alpha & \alpha & \alpha + 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(b) Prove that

$$\begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & a \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & a \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & a + x_n \end{vmatrix} = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n \left( 1 + \frac{a}{x_1} + \cdots + \frac{a}{x_n} \right).$$

# **Solution:**

(a) We may find  $A^{-1}$  by trying to find the sequence of elementary matrices  $E_1, \ldots, E_n$  such that

$$E_n E_{n-1} \cdots E_2 E_1 A = I$$
.

First, we do row reduction on A, yielding

$$\begin{pmatrix} a+1 & a & a \\ a & a+1 & a \\ a & a & a+1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftarrow R_1 - R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ a & a+1 & a \\ a & a & a+1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{R_{2} \leftarrow R_{3} - R_{2}}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ \alpha & \alpha & \alpha + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{R_{3} \leftarrow R_{3} - \alpha R_{1}}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2\alpha & \alpha + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{R_{3} \leftarrow R_{3} - 2\alpha R_{2}}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3\alpha + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{R_{3} \leftarrow R_{3}/(3\alpha+1)}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{R_{2} \leftarrow R_{3} + R_{2}}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{R_{1} \leftarrow R_{1} + R_{2}}{\longrightarrow} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, the product  $E_n E_{n-1} \cdots E_2 E_1$  is our desired inverse, which we find by applying the elementary row operations to the identity matrix I, yielding

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftarrow R_1 - R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 \leftarrow R_3 - R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \leftarrow R_3 - \alpha R_1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -\alpha & \alpha & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \leftarrow R_3 - 2\alpha R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -\alpha & -\alpha & 2\alpha + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \leftarrow R_3/(3\alpha+1)} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & (2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 \leftarrow R_3 + R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & 1 - (\alpha/(3\alpha+1)) & -1 + ((2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1)) \\ -(\alpha/(3\alpha+1)) & -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & (2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 \leftarrow R_1 + R_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \alpha/(3\alpha+1) & -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & -1 + (2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1) \\ -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & 1 - (\alpha/(3\alpha+1)) & -1 + ((2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1)) \\ -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & -1 + ((2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1)) \\ -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & -\alpha/(3\alpha+1) & (2\alpha+1)/(3\alpha+1) \end{pmatrix},$$

which is our desired inverse.

(b) We show the case for n = 2, then use induction from then on. By raw calculation, we see that

$$\begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a \\ a & a + x_2 \end{vmatrix} = (a + x_1)(a + x_2) - a^2$$
$$= x_1x_2 + ax_1 + ax_2$$

$$=x_1x_2\bigg(1+\frac{a}{x_1}+\frac{a}{x_2}\bigg).$$

Now, for the general n case, we see that since determinants are multilinear,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & a \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & a \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & a + x_n \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & a \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & a \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & a \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & 0 \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & x_n \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= a \begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & 1 \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & x_n \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & 0 \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & x_n \end{vmatrix}$$

and since determinants are alternating,

$$= a \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ 0 & x_2 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & 0 \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & x_n \end{vmatrix}$$

and by the cofactor expansion,

$$= a(x_1x_2\cdots x_{n-1}) + x_n \begin{vmatrix} a + x_1 & a & \cdots & a \\ a & a + x_2 & \cdots & a \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a & a & \cdots & x_{n-1} \end{vmatrix}$$

and by the induction hypothesis,

$$\begin{split} &= \alpha(x_1x_2\cdots x_{n-1}) + x_n(x_1x_2\cdots x_{n-1}) \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{x_1} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha}{x_{n-1}}\right) \\ &= x_1x_2\cdots x_n \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{x_1} + \cdots + \frac{\alpha}{x_{n-1}} + \frac{\alpha}{x_n}\right), \end{split}$$

we obtain our desired result.

**Problem** (Problem 6): Let  $A \in \operatorname{Mat}_n(\mathbb{R})$ , and  $(a_{ij})_{ij}$  such that  $|a_{ij}| < \frac{1}{n}$  for each i, j. Show that  $\det(I_n - A) \neq 0$ .

**Solution:** Let  $||x|| = \max_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|$ . Let  $x_j$  be the component of x such that  $|x_j| = ||x||$ . Then, we see that

$$|(Ax)_{j}| = \left| \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{i} \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| |x_{i}|$$

$$< \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} |x_{i}|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} ||x||$$

$$= |x_j|,$$

which means that  $Ax \neq x$  at the component  $x_i$ , meaning  $(I_n - A)x \neq 0$ .

**Problem** (Problem 7):

- (a) Let  $A \in Mat_n(\mathbb{C})$  be a matrix such that  $A^2 = I_n$ . Show that A is diagonalizable.
- (b) Give an example of of  $A \in Mat_2(\mathbb{C})$  satisfying  $A^2 = \mathbf{0}_2$  (the zero matrix) which is not diagonalizable.

### Solution:

- (a) Since  $A^2 I_n = \mathbf{0}_n$ , we see that the minimal polynomial of A is  $m_A(t) = t^2 1$ , which splits over  $\mathbb{C}$  to yield  $m_A(t) = (t-1)(t+1)$ . In particular, since the minimal polynomial splits into a product of distinct linear factors, A is diagonalizable.
- (b) The matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

satisfies  $A^2 = \mathbf{0}_2$ , but since  $A \neq \mathbf{0}_2$ , we see that  $m_A(t) = t^2$ . Since  $m_A(t)$  does not split into distinct linear factors over  $\mathbb{C}$ , we see that A is necessarily not diagonalizable.

**Problem** (Problem 8): Let  $A \in \operatorname{Mat}_n(\mathbb{C})$  be a matrix such that  $A^2$  has n distinct eigenvalues. Show that A is diagonalizable.

**Solution:** Let  $m_{A^2}(t)$  be the minimal polynomial for  $A^2$ , which since  $A^2$  has n distinct eigenvalues, splits as

$$m_{A^2}(t) = (t - \lambda_1) \cdots (t - \lambda_n).$$

Observe that, if we set  $p = m_{A^2}(t^2)$ , that p then annihilates A. We may factor p as

$$p(t) = \Big(t - \sqrt{\lambda_1}\Big)\Big(t + \sqrt{\lambda_1}\Big)\cdots\Big(t - \sqrt{\lambda_n}\Big)\Big(t + \sqrt{\lambda_n}\Big).$$

Each of these factors are distinct, meaning that  $m_A(t)$  consists entirely of distinct linear factors, so that A is diagonalizable.

**Problem:** Let  $A \in Mat_n(\mathbb{R})$  satisfy  $AA^T = I_n$ , where  $A^T$  is the transpose of A and  $I_n$  is the identity matrix. Let  $f(x) = det(xI_n - A)$  be the characteristic polynomial of A.

- (a) Show that if  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of A, then  $\lambda^{-1}$  is also an eigenvalue of A.
- (b) Show that if det(A) = 1 and n is odd, then  $\lambda = 1$  is an eigenvalue of A.

### Solution:

(a) Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue for A with corresponding eigenvector  $\nu$ . Then,

$$Av = \lambda v$$
.

Observe now that  $(AA^T)^T = A^TA = I_n$ , meaning that  $A^T = A^{-1}$ . Thus, we see that

$$v = A^{\mathsf{T}}(Av)$$
$$= A^{\mathsf{T}}\lambda v,$$

so

$$A^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v} = \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{v}$$
.

- Since A and  $A^T$  have the same eigenvalues, we thus get that  $\lambda^{-1}$  is an eigenvalue for A.
- (b) We observe that  $\det(A) = \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n$ , where  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  are eigenvalues for A (counted with algebraic multiplicity). Since  $\det(A) = 1$ , and n is odd, it follows that, by pairing up eigenvalues with their inverses, there is at least one such  $\lambda_i$  with  $\lambda_i = 1$ . Thus,  $\lambda = 1$  is an eigenvalue for A.