Chapter 1

Vector Spaces

1.1 Fields

Definition 1.1. A field is a set F with two operations, called **addition** (denoted by +) and **multiplication** (denoted by \cdot), which satisfy the following axioms.

- (A 1) If $a \in F$ and $b \in F$, then $a + b \in F$.
- (A 2) a+b=b+a for all $a,b \in F$.
- (A 3) (a+b) + c = a + (b+c) for all $a, b, c \in F$.
- (A 4) There is an element 0_F in F such that $0_F + a = a$ for all $a \in F$.
- (A 5) For each $a \in F$ there is an element -a in F such that $a + (-a) = 0_F$.
- (M 1) If $a \in F$ and $b \in F$, then $a \cdot b \in F$.
- (M 2) $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all $a, b \in F$.
- (M 3) $(a \cdot b) + c = a + (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in F$.
- (M 4) There is an element 1_F in $F \setminus \{0_F\}$ such that $1_F \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in F$.
- (M 5) For each $a \in F \setminus \{0_F\}$ there is an element a^{-1} in F such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1_F$.
 - (D) $a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ for all $a, b, c \in F$.

Remark.

- For simplification, we usually write ab instead of $a \cdot b$.
- The axioms labeled with "A" and "M" are usually called the **axioms of addition** and the **axioms of multiplication**, respectively. The axiom labeld with "D" is the **distributive law**.
- The elements 0_F and 1_F are usually called the **additive identity** and the **multiplicative identity** of F, respectively. Also, -a and a^{-1} are called the **additive inverse** and the **multiplicative inverse** of a, respectively.
- Subtraction and division can be defined using additive and multiplicative inverses.

Example. \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are fields.

Example. Let $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ and the operations \oplus and \odot are defined as follows.

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} \oplus & 0 & 1 & & \odot & 0 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & & \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ \end{array}$$

Then \mathbb{B} is a field with \oplus and \odot as addition and multiplication, respectively.

Proposition 1.2. Let F be a field with $a, b, c \in F$.

- (a) If a + b = a + c, then b = c.
- (b) If a + b = a, then $b = 0_F$.
- (c) If $a + b = 0_F$, then b = -a.
- (d) -(-a) = a.

Proof.

(a) It can be proved by

$$b = 0_F + b$$

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

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

$$= -a + (a + c)$$

$$= (-a + a) + c$$

$$= 0_F + c$$

$$= c.$$

- (b) By applying (a), it follows from $a + b = a + 0_F$ that $b = 0_F$.
- (c) By applying (a), it follows from a + b = a + (-a) that b = -a.
- (d) Since $-a + a = 0_F$, we have a = -(-a) by (c).

Proposition 1.3. Let F be a field with $a, b, c \in F$ and $a \neq 0_F$.

- (a) If $a \cdot b = a \cdot c$, then b = c.
- (b) If $a \cdot b = a$, then $b = 1_F$.
- (c) If $a \cdot b = 1_F$, then $b = a^{-1}$.
- (d) $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.

Proof. The proof is omitted since it is similar to that of Proposition 1.2. \Box

Proposition 1.4. Let F be a field with $a, b \in F$.

(a) $0_F \cdot a = 0_F$.

(b) $(-a) \cdot b = -(a \cdot b) = a \cdot (-b)$.

(c)
$$(-a) \cdot (-b) = a \cdot b$$
.

Proof.

(a) Since

$$0_F \cdot a + 0_F \cdot a = (0_F + 0_F) \cdot a = 0_F \cdot a,$$

we have $0_F \cdot a = 0_F$ by Proposition 1.2 (b).

(b) Since

$$(-a) \cdot b + a \cdot b = (-a + a) \cdot b = 0_F \cdot b = 0_F$$

we have $(-a) \cdot b = -(a \cdot b)$ by Proposition 1.2 (c). The other half can be proved similarly.

(c) By applying (b) twice, we have

$$(-a) \cdot (-b) = -(a \cdot (-b)) = -(-(a \cdot b)) = a \cdot b.$$

1.2 Vector Spaces

Definition 1.5. A vector space over a field F is a set V with two operations, called addition (denoted by +) and scalar multiplication (denoted by ·), which satisfy the following axioms.

- (V 1) If $x \in V$ and $y \in V$, then $x + y \in V$.
- (V 2) x + y = y + x for all $x, y \in V$.
- (V 3) (x+y) + z = x + (y+z) for all $x, y, z \in V$.
- (V 4) There is an element 0_V in V such that $0_V + x = x$ for all $x \in V$.
- (V 5) For each $x \in V$ there is an element -x such that $x + (-x) = 0_V$.
- (V 6) If $a \in F$ and $x \in V$, then $a \cdot x \in V$.
- (V 7) $(a \cdot b) \cdot x = a \cdot (b \cdot x)$ for all $a, b \in F$ and $x \in V$.
- (V 8) $1_F \cdot x = x$ for all $x \in V$.
- (V 9) $a \cdot (x + y) = a \cdot x + a \cdot y$ for all $a \in F$ and $x, y \in V$.
- (V 10) $(a+b) \cdot x = a \cdot x + b \cdot x$ for all $a, b \in F$ and $x \in V$.

Remark.

- For simplification, we usually write ax instead of $a \cdot x$.
- The elements 0_V is usually called the **additive identity** of V, and -x is called the **additive inverse** of x in V.
- Subtraction can be defined using additive inverses.

Examples.

- A field is a vector space over itself, e.g., \mathbb{R} is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .
- \mathbb{C} is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .
- \mathbb{R} is a vector space over \mathbb{Q} .

Examples.

• The set of **n-tuples** with elements from a field F is denoted by F^n . For $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in F^n$, $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in F^n$, and $c \in F$, we define the operations of addition and scalar multiplication by

$$x + y = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$
 and $c \cdot x = (c \cdot x_1, \dots, c \cdot x_n)$.

Then F^n is a vector space over F.

• The set of all $m \times n$ matrices with elements from a field F is denoted by $F^{m \times n}$. For $A, B \in F^{m \times n}$ and $c \in F$, we define the operations of addition and scalar multiplication by

$$(A+B)_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}$$
 and $(c \cdot A)_{ij} = c \cdot A_{ij}$

for $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ and $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$. Then $F^{m \times n}$ is a vector space over F.

• The set of **functions** from a nonempty set S to a field F is denoted by $\mathcal{F}(S, F)$. For $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(S, F)$ and $c \in F$, we define the operations of addition and scalar multiplication by

$$(f+g)(s) = f(s) + g(s)$$
 and $(c \cdot f)(s) = c \cdot f(s)$

for all $s \in S$. Then $\mathcal{F}(S, F)$ is a vector space over F.

• The set of **polynomials** with coefficients from a field F is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(F)$. For $f, g \in \mathcal{P}(F)$ and $c \in F$ with

$$f(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i t^i$$
 and $g(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i t^i$,

we define the operations of addition and scalar multiplication by

$$(f+g)(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (a_i + b_i)t^i$$
 and $(c \cdot f)(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (c \cdot a_i)t^i$.

Then $\mathcal{P}(F)$ is a vector space over F.

Proposition 1.6. Let V be a vector space with $x, y, z \in F$.

- (a) If x + y = x + z, then y = z.
- (b) If x + y = x, then $y = 0_V$.
- (c) If $x + y = 0_V$, then y = -x.
- (d) -(-x) = x.

Proof. The proof is omitted since it is similar to that of Proposition 1.2. \Box

Proposition 1.7. Let V be a vector space over a field F with $x \in V$ and $a \in F$.

- (a) $0_F \cdot x = 0_V$.
- (b) $a \cdot 0_V = 0_V$.
- (c) $(-a) \cdot x = -(a \cdot x) = a \cdot (-x)$.

Proof. The proof is omitted since it is similar to that of Proposition 1.4. \Box

1.3 Subspaces

Definition 1.8. Let V be a vector space over a field F. Then a subset W of V is called a **subspace** of V if W is a vector space over F with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication defined on V.

Theorem 1.9. Let V be a vector space over a field F and $W \subseteq V$. Then W is a subspace of V if the following conditions hold.

- (a) $0_V \in W$.
- (b) $x + y \in W$ for all $x, y \in W$.
- (c) $ax \in W$ for all $x \in W$ and $a \in F$.

Proof. Since a vector in W is also in V, $(V\ 2)$, $(V\ 3)$, $(V\ 7)$, $(V\ 8)$, $(V\ 9)$ and $(V\ 10)$ in Definition 1.5 hold trivially. Furthermore, (a) implies $(V\ 4)$, (b) implies $(V\ 1)$, (c) implies $(V\ 6)$, and $(V\ 5)$ is also true since

$$-x = -(1_F x) = (-1_F)x \in W$$

holds for all $x \in W$. Thus, W is a vector space over F.

Corollary 1.10. Let V be a vector space over a field F and $W \subseteq V$. Then W is a subspace of V if and only if the following conditions hold.

- (a) $0_V \in W$.
- (b) $ax + y \in W$ for all $x, y \in W$ and $a \in F$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Straightforward. (\Leftarrow) For all $x, y \in W$ and $a \in F$, we have

$$x + y = 1_F x + y \in W$$
 and $ax = ax + 0_V \in W$.

Thus, W is a subspace of V by Theorem 1.9.

Example. The set of polynomials in $\mathcal{P}(F)$ with degree not greater than n is denoted by $\mathcal{P}_n(F)$, where the **degree** of a nonzero polynomial

$$f(t) = a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2 + \dots + a_m t^m$$

is defined to be the largest integer n such that $a_n \neq 0_F$, and the degree of zero polynomial is defined to be -1. Then one can verify that $\mathcal{P}_n(F)$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{P}(F)$.

Examples.

- An $n \times n$ matrix A is called **diagonal** if $A_{ij} = 0_F$ for all $i, j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ with $i \neq j$. Then one can verify that the set of $n \times n$ diagonal matrices is a subspace of $F^{n \times n}$.
- The **trace** of an $n \times n$ matrix A, denoted by tr(A), is defined by

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii}.$$

Then one can verify that the set of $n \times n$ matrices that have trace equal to 0_F is a subspace of $F^{n \times n}$.

Proposition 1.11. Let V be a vector space and let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V. Then $W_1 \cap W_2$ is a subspace of V.

Proof. Since W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of V, we have $0_V \in W_1 \cap W_2$. Furthermore, for each $x, y \in W_1 \cap W_2$ and for each $a \in F$, we have $ax + y \in W_1 \cap W_2$ by Corollary 1.10. Thus, $W_1 \cap W_2$ is a subspace of V.

Example. Let W_1 be the set of $n \times n$ diagonal matrices. Let W_2 be the set of $n \times n$ matrices that have trace equal to 0_F . Then since both W_1 and W_2 are subspaces of $F^{n \times n}$, we can conclude that $W_1 \cap W_2$ is also a subspace of $F^{n \times n}$.

Definition 1.12. Let V be a vector space and let $S_1, S_2 \subseteq V$. Then the **sum** of S_1 and S_2 , denoted by $S_1 + S_2$, is the set

$$\{x + y : x \in S_1 \text{ and } y \in S_2\}.$$

Proposition 1.13. Let V be a vector space and let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V. Then the following statements are true.

- (a) $W_1 + W_2$ is a subspace of V.
- (b) If U is a subspace of V with $W_1 \cup W_2 \subseteq U$, then $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq U$.

Proof.

(a) We have $0_V = 0_V + 0_V \in W_1 + W_2$. For each $x, y \in W_1 + W_2$ and for each $a \in F$, by Definition 1.12 there exist $x_1, y_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2, y_2 \in W_2$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$ and $y = y_1 + y_2$. Thus,

$$ax + y = a(x_1 + x_2) + (y_1 + y_2)$$

$$= (ax_1 + ax_2) + (y_1 + y_2)$$

$$= (ax_1 + y_1) + (ax_2 + y_2)$$

$$\in W_1 + W_2.$$

(b) Let x be a vector in $W_1 + W_2$. Then by Definition 1.12 there exists $x_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2 \in W_2$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. We have $x_1 \in U$ since $W_1 \subseteq U$. Also, we have $x_2 \in U$ since $W_2 \subseteq U$. It follows that $x = x_1 + x_2 \in U$, and thus $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq U$.

1.4 Spanning Sets

Definition 1.14. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $S \subseteq V$. Then a vector $x \in V$ is called a **linear combination** of S if there exist scalars $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and vectors $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in S$ for some nonnegative integer n such that

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

Remark.

- If n = 0, then the sum in the right hand side is 0_V since nothing are added up. Thus, 0_V is a linear combination of any subset of V.
- Note that n should be finite. Thus, in the vector space \mathbb{R} over the field \mathbb{Q} , e is not a linear combination of \mathbb{Q} even if we have

$$e = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!}.$$

Definition 1.15. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $S \subseteq V$. Then the **span** of S, denoted span(S), is defined as the set of all linear combinations of S.

Theorem 1.16. Let V be a vector space over F and let $S \subseteq V$. Then the following statements are true.

- (a) $\operatorname{span}(S)$ is a subspace of V.
- (b) If U is a subspace of V such that $S \subseteq U$, then $\mathrm{span}(S) \subseteq U$.

Proof.

(a) Let $c \in F$ and $x, y \in \text{span}(S)$. Then there exist scalars $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and vectors $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in S$ such that

$$x = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n.$$

Also, there exist scalars $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in F$ and vectors $y_1, \ldots, y_m \in S$ such that

$$y = b_1 y_1 + \dots + b_n y_m.$$

Thus, we have

$$cx + y = c(x_1 + \dots + x_n) + (y_1 + \dots + y_m)$$

= $cx_1 + \dots + cx_n + y_1 + \dots + y_m$
 $\in \operatorname{span}(S).$

Furthermore, $0_V \in \text{span}(S)$. Hence, span(S) is a subspace of V by Corollary 1.10.

(b) Let $x \in \text{span}(S)$. Then there exist scalars $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and vectors $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in S$ such that

$$x = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n.$$

Since $S \subseteq U$, we have $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in U$, and it follows that $x = a_1 x_1 + \cdots + a_n x_n \in U$ due to the closeness of U. Thus, span $(S) \subseteq U$.

Definition 1.17. Let V be a vector space and let $S \subseteq V$. If $\operatorname{span}(S) = V$, then S is called a **spanning set** of V, and we also say S **spans** V.

Example. $\{(0,1,1),(1,0,1),(1,1,0)\}$ is a spanning set of \mathbb{R}^3 since for any $x,y,z\in\mathbb{R}$,

$$(x,y,z) = \frac{-x+y+z}{2} \cdot (0,1,1) + \frac{x-y+z}{2} \cdot (1,0,1) + \frac{x+y-z}{2} \cdot (1,1,0).$$

Proposition 1.18. Let V be a vector space and let $R, S \subseteq V$.

- (a) $S \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S)$.
- (b) If $R \subseteq S$, then $\operatorname{span}(R) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S)$.
- (c) S = span(S) if and only if S is a subspace of V.
- (d) $\operatorname{span}(R \cup S) = \operatorname{span}(R) + \operatorname{span}(S)$.

Proof.

- (a) Straightforward.
- (b) It is true since a linear combination of a subset of S is also a linear combination of S.
- (c) (\Rightarrow) Straightforward from Theorem 1.16 (a).
 - (\Leftarrow) Note that any linear combination of S is in S due to closeness of addition and scalar multiplication in S. Thus, $\operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq S$, and it follows that $S = \operatorname{span}(S)$.
- (d) Since $R \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R)$ and $S \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S)$, we have $R \cup S \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R) + \operatorname{span}(S)$. Thus, by Theorem 1.16, we have $\operatorname{span}(R \cup S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R) + \operatorname{span}(S)$. On the other side, since

$$\operatorname{span}(R) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R \cup S)$$
 and $\operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R \cup S)$,

we can conclude that $\operatorname{span}(R) \cup \operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R \cup S)$. Thus, $\operatorname{span}(R) + \operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(R \cup S)$ by Proposition 1.13.

1.5 Linearly Independent Sets

Definition 1.19. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $S \subseteq V$.

• S is linearly dependent if there exist scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F \setminus \{0_F\}$ and distinct vectors $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S$ for some positive integer n such that

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = 0_V.$$

• S is **linearly independent** if it is not linearly dependent.

Remark.

• Note that \varnothing is linearly independent.

Theorem 1.20. Let V be a vector space over a field F and let $S \subseteq V$. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (a) S is linearly dependent.
- (b) There exists $x \in S$ with $x \in \text{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$.
- (c) There exists $x \in S$ with $\operatorname{span}(S) = \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$.

Proof.

(i) First we assume (a) and prove (b). Suppose that

$$a_0x_0 + a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n = 0_V$$

where a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n are nonzero scalars and x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n are distinct vectors. Then

$$x_0 = (-a_0)^{-1}(a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n)$$

= $((-a_0)^{-1}a_1)x_1 + \dots + ((-a_0)^{-1}a_n)x_n$
 $\in \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x_0\}).$

(ii) Then we assume (b) and prove (c). Since

$$x \in \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$$
 and $S \setminus \{x\} \subset \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$,

we have $S \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$. Thus, $\operatorname{span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$ by Theorem 1.16, and we can conclude that $\operatorname{span}(S) = \operatorname{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$.

- (iii) Then we assume (c) and prove (b). It is straightforward since $x \in S \subseteq \text{span}(S) = \text{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$.
- (iv) Finally we assume (b) and prove (a). Without loss of generality, let $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ be nonzero scalars and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in S \setminus \{x\}$ be distinct vectors such that $x = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$. Then we have

$$(-1_F)x + a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n = 0_V$$

which completes the proof.

Example. Let $S = \{(0,1,1), (1,0,1), (1,1,0)\}$ be a subset of \mathbb{R}^3 . Suppose that $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{R}$ are scalars such that

$$a_1(0,1,1) + a_2(1,0,1) + a_3(1,1,0) = (0,0,0).$$

Then we have the following system of equations.

$$a_2 + a_3 = 0$$

$$a_1 + a_3 = 0$$

$$a_1 + a_2 = 0$$

Since the only solution to this system of equations is $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$, we can conclude that S is linearly independent by Definition 1.19.

Example. Let $S = \{(1,1,1), (0,1,1), (1,0,1), (1,1,0)\}$ be a subset of \mathbb{R}^3 . We can conclude that S is linearly dependent since

$$(1,1,1) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (0,1,1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1,0,1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1,1,0).$$

Proposition 1.21. Let V be a vector space and let R, S be subsets of V with $R \subseteq S$.

- (a) If R is linearly dependent, then so is S.
- (b) If S is linearly independent, then so is R.

Proof.

(a) Suppose that R is linearly dependent. Then by Definition 1.19 there exists $x \in R$ such that $x \in \text{span}(R \setminus \{x\})$. Also, we have $R \setminus \{x\} \subseteq S \setminus \{x\}$ since $R \subseteq S$. Thus, $x \in \text{span}(S \setminus \{x\})$, and it follows that S is linearly dependent.

(b) Straightforward from (a).

1.6 Bases and Dimension

Definition 1.22. A basis for a vector space V is a linearly independent subset of V that spans V.

Examples.

- \varnothing is a basis for $\{0_V\}$.
- $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ is a basis for F^n , where e_i is the *n*-tuple whose *i*-th component is 1_F and the other components are all 0_F .
- $\{E_{ij}: 1 \leq i \leq m \text{ and } 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ is a basis for $F^{m \times n}$, where E_{ij} is the matrix whose (i, j)-entry is 1_F and the other entries are all 0_F .
- $\{t^0, t^1, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{P}_n(F)$.
- $\{t^0, t^1, t^2, \dots\}$ is a basis for $\mathcal{P}(F)$.

Proposition 1.23. Let V be a vector space. If there exists a finite set S that spans V, then there is a subset Q of S that is a finite basis of V.

Proof. The proof is by induction on |S|. For the induction basis, suppose that |S| = 0, i.e., $S = \emptyset$. Then the proposition holds since one can choose $Q = \emptyset$ as a basis for V.

Now assume the induction hypothesis that the proposition holds for |S| = n with $n \geq 0$. If S is linearly independent, then we can choose Q = S as a basis for V. Otherwise, there exists $x \in S$ with $\mathrm{span}(S \setminus \{x\}) = \mathrm{span}(S)$, i.e., $S \setminus \{x\}$ spans V. Thus, by induction hypothesis there is a subset Q of $S \setminus \{x\}$ that is a basis for V, which completes the proof.

Theorem 1.24 (Replacement Theorem). Let V be a vector space over a field F. Let S be a finite set that spans V, and let $Q \subseteq V$ be a finite linearly independent set. Then $|Q| \leq |S|$, and there exists $R \subseteq S \setminus Q$ such that both $|Q \cup R| = |S|$ and $\operatorname{span}(Q \cup R) = V$ hold.

Proof. The proof is based on induction on |Q|. The theorem holds for |Q| = 0, i.e., $Q = \emptyset$, since we have $|\emptyset| \le |S|$, $|\emptyset \cup S| = |S|$ and $\operatorname{span}(\emptyset \cup S) = V$.

Now suppose that the theorem is true for |Q| = m with $m \ge 0$, and we prove that the theorem holds for |Q| = m + 1. Let $Q = \{x_1, \ldots, x_{m+1}\}$ and let $Q' = \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$. By induction hypothesis, there exists $R' = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\} \subseteq S \setminus Q'$ such that |Q'| + |R'| = |S| and span $(Q' \cup R') = V$. Since $Q' \cup R'$ spans V, there exists $a_1, \ldots, a_m, b_1, \ldots, b_k \in F$ such that

$$x_{m+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i x_i + \sum_{j=1}^{k} b_j y_j.$$

If $b_j = 0_F$ for all $j \in \{1, ..., k\}$, then $x_{m+1} \in \text{span}(Q') = \text{span}(Q \setminus \{x_{m+1}\})$, implying that Q is linearly dependent, contradiction. Thus, there must exist some $j \in \{1, ..., k\}$ such that $b_j \neq 0_F$.s Without loss of generality, suppose that $b_k \neq 0_F$ with $k \geq 1$. Also, let $R = \{y_1, ..., y_{k-1}\}$. Then $|Q \cup R| = (m+1) + (k-1) = |S|$, and we have $|Q| \leq |S|$. It follows that

$$Q' \cup R' \subseteq Q \cup R \cup \{y_k\} \subseteq \operatorname{span}(Q \cup R),$$

where the second inclusion holds because

$$y_k = (-b_k)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^m a_i x_i + (-1_F) x_{m+1} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} b_j y_j \right) \in \operatorname{span}(Q \cup R).$$

Then, we have

$$V = \operatorname{span}(Q' \cup R') \subseteq \operatorname{span}(Q \cup R) \subseteq V.$$

by Theorem 1.16. Thus, $\operatorname{span}(Q \cup R) = V$, which completes the proof.

Corollary 1.25. Let V be a vector space and Q be a linearly independent subset of V that is infinite. Then each spanning set of V is infinite.

Proof. Suppose that there is a finite set S that spans V. Let Q' be a subset of Q with |Q'| = |S| + 1. By Proposition 1.21, we can conclude that Q' is also linearly independent. Thus, we have $|Q'| \leq |S|$ by replacement theorem (Theorem 1.24), contradiction. \square

Corollary 1.26. Let V be a vector space. If V has a finite basis, then each basis for V has the same size.

Proof. Let S be a finite basis for V and Q an arbitrary basis for V. Since $V = \operatorname{span}(S)$ and Q is linearly independent, it follows that Q is finite by Corollary 1.25, and thus we have $|Q| \leq |S|$. Also, since $V = \operatorname{span}(Q)$ and S is linearly independent, we have $|S| \leq |Q|$. Thus, |Q| = |S|.

Definition 1.27. Let V be a vector space.

- V is **finite-dimensional** if it has a finite basis. In this case, the number of vectors in each basis for V is called the **dimension** of V, denoted by $\dim(V)$.
- V is **infinite-dimensional** if it is not finite-dimensional.

Remark.

• If a vector space has a linearly independent subset that is infinite, we can conclude that it is infinite-dimensional by Corollary 1.25.

Examples. One can find the dimension of a vector space by any basis it admits.

- $\dim(\{0_V\}) = 0.$
- $\dim(F^n) = n$.
- $\dim(F^{m \times n}) = mn$.
- $\dim(\mathcal{P}_n(F)) = n + 1$.
- $\mathcal{P}(F)$ is infinite-dimensional.

Examples. Note that the dimension of a vector space depends on its field of scalars.

- Let $V = \mathbb{C}$ be a vector space over \mathbb{R} . Then we have $\dim(V) = 2$ since $\{1, i\}$ is a basis for V.
- Let $W = \mathbb{C}$ be a vector space over \mathbb{C} . Then we have $\dim(W) = 1$ since $\{1\}$ is a basis for V.

Proposition 1.28. Let V be a vector space. Then a subset of V of $n = \dim(V)$ vectors is linearly independent if and only if it is a spanning set of V.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that Q is linearly independent with |Q| = n. By replacement theorem (Theorem 1.24), there exists $R \subseteq S \setminus Q$ such that $|Q \cup R| = |S|$ and $\operatorname{span}(Q \cup R) = V$. Since |Q| = |S|, we have |R| = 0, i.e., $R = \emptyset$. Thus, $\operatorname{span}(Q) = V$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that S spans V with |S| = n. By Proposition 1.23, there is a subset Q of S that is a basis of V. Then we have |Q| = n, implying Q = S. Thus, S is a basis for V.

Proposition 1.29. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space. Let $S = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a basis for V. Then for each $x \in V$, there exist a unique n-tuple $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in F^n$ with

$$x = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n.$$

Proof. Since $x \in \text{span}(S)$, there exist scalars $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$x = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n.$$

Now we prove the uniqueness. Let $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in F$ be scalars with

$$x = b_1 x_1 + \dots + b_n x_n.$$

Then we have

$$0_V = (a_1 - b_1)x_1 + \dots + (a_n - b_n)x_n,$$

and it follows that $(a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2, \dots, a_n - b_n) = 0_{F^n}$ since S is linearly independent. Thus, $(a_1, \dots, a_n) = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$.

Proposition 1.30. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space. Let V' be a subspace of V. Then the following statements are true.

- (a) $\dim(V') < \dim(V)$.
- (b) If $\dim(V') = \dim(V)$, then V' = V.

Proof. Let S and S' be bases for V and V', respectively.

- (a) Since S' is linearly independent and V = span(S), we have $|S'| \leq |S|$ by replacement theorem (Theorem 1.24). Thus, $\dim(V') \leq \dim(V)$.
- (b) Since S' is linearly independent and $|S'| = \dim(V)$, we have $\operatorname{span}(S') = V$ by Proposition 1.28. Thus, $V' = \operatorname{span}(S') = V$.

Example. Let W be the set of $n \times n$ diagonal matrices, which is a subspace of $F^{n \times n}$. Then one can verify that $\{E_{ii} : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ is a basis for W, where E_{ij} is the matrix whose (i, j)-entry is 1_F and the other entries are 0_F . Thus, $\dim(W) = n$.

Chapter 2

Linear Transformations

2.1 Linear Transformations

Definition 2.1. Let X and Y be sets. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a function.

- f is **injective** if T(x) = T(x') implies x = x' for all $x, x' \in X$.
- f is surjective if there exists $x \in X$ with T(x) = y for each $y \in Y$.
- f is **bijective** if f is injective and surjective.

Definition 2.2. Let V and W be vector spaces over a field F. A transformation $T:V\to W$ is said to be **linear** if

$$T(ax + y) = aT(x) + T(y)$$

holds for any scalar $a \in F$ and any vectors $x, y \in V$. The set of all linear transformations from V to W is denoted by $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$, and in the case that V = W we write $\mathcal{L}(V)$ for short.

Theorem 2.3. If V and W are vector spaces over a field F, then $\mathcal{L}(V,W)$ is also a vector space over F.

Proof. For any $c \in F$ and $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, since

$$(cT_1 + T_2)(ax + y) = cT_1(ax + y) + T_2(ax + y)$$
 (linearity of $cT_1 + T_2$)

$$= c(aT_1(x) + T_1(y)) + (aT_2(x) + T_2(y))$$
 (linearity of T_1 and T_2)

$$= acT_1(x) + cT_1(y) + aT_2(x) + T_2(y)$$

$$= a(cT_1(x) + T_2(x)) + (cT_1(y) + T_2(y))$$

$$= a(cT_1 + T_2)(x) + (cT_1 + T_2)(y)$$
 (linearity of $cT_1 + T_2$)

holds for each $a \in F$ and $x, y \in V$, we have $cT_1 + T_2 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Furthermore, $0_{\mathcal{F}(V,W)} \in \mathcal{L}(V,W)$. Thus, $\mathcal{L}(V,W)$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{F}(V,W)$.

Theorem 2.4. Let V and W be vector spaces over F, and let $T:V\to W$ be linear. Let S be a subset of V and let U be a subspace of V. Then the following statements are true.

(a) If n is a nonnegative integer, then for $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$, we have

$$T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i\right) = a_i \sum_{i=1}^{n} T(x_i).$$

(b) If S spans U, then T(S) spans T(U).

Proof.

(a) The proof is by induction on n. For n=0, it holds trivially. If the statement is true for some $n \geq 0$, then we have

$$T(a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n + a_{n+1}x_{n+1}) = T(a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n) + T(a_{n+1}x_{n+1})$$
$$= a_1T(x_1) + \dots + a_nT(x_n) + a_{n+1}T(x_{n+1}).$$

Thus, the statement is true for nonnegative integer n.

(b) We prove that $\operatorname{span}(T(S)) = T(U)$. If $y \in \operatorname{span}(T(S))$, then there exist $a_i \in F$, $x_i \in S$ for $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(x_i) = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i\right) \in T(U),$$

so span $(T(S)) \subseteq T(U)$.

If $y \in T(U)$, then there exist $a_i \in F$, $x_i \in S$ for $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ such that

$$y = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(x_i) \in \operatorname{span}(T(S)),$$

so $T(U) \subseteq \operatorname{span}(T(S))$. Thus, $\operatorname{span}(T(S)) = T(U)$.

2.2 Rank and Nullity

Definition 2.5. Let V and W be vector spaces. The **range** of a transformation $T: V \to W$, denoted by $\mathcal{R}(T)$, is defined by

$$\mathcal{R}(T) = \{ y \in W : y = T(x) \text{ for some } x \in V \}.$$

Proposition 2.6. Let V and W be vector spaces over a field F. If $T:V\to W$ is linear, then $\mathcal{R}(T)$ is a subspace of W.

Proof. For each $a \in F$ and $y, y' \in \mathcal{R}(T)$, there exist $x, x' \in V$ such that y = T(x) and y' = T(x'). Since

$$ay + y' = aT(x) + T(x') = T(ax + x'),$$

we have $ay + y' \in \mathcal{R}(T)$. Furthermore, $0_W = T(0_V) \in \mathcal{R}(T)$. Thus, $\mathcal{R}(T)$ is a subspace of W.

Definition 2.7. Let V and W be vector spaces. The **null space** of a transformation $T: V \to W$, denoted by $\mathcal{N}(T)$, is defined by

$$\mathcal{N}(T) = \{ x \in V : T(x) = 0_W \}.$$

Proposition 2.8. Let V and W be vector spaces over a field F. If $T:V\to W$ is linear, then $\mathcal{N}(T)$ is a subspace of V.

Proof. For each $a \in F$ and $x, x' \in \mathcal{N}(T)$, we have

$$T(ax + x') = aT(x) + T(x') = a0_W + 0_W = 0_W.$$

Thus, $ax + x' \in \mathcal{N}(T)$. Furthermore, $0_V \in \mathcal{N}(T)$ since $T(0_V) = 0_W$. Thus, $\mathcal{N}(T)$ is a subspace of V.

Definition 2.9. Let V and W be vector spaces. Let $T: V \to W$ be linear.

- The rank of T, denoted by rank(T), is the dimension of $\mathcal{R}(T)$.
- The **nullity** of T, denoted by $\operatorname{nullity}(T)$, is the dimension of $\mathcal{N}(T)$.

Theorem 2.10 (Rank-nullity Theorem). Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over F. Let $T: V \to W$ be linear. Then we have

$$\operatorname{nullity}(T) + \operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(V).$$

Proof. Let S be a basis for V and Q a basis for $\mathcal{N}(T)$. By corollary to replacement theorem (Theorem 1.24), there is $R \subseteq S \setminus Q$ such that $Q \cup R$ is a basis for V. Since $|R| = |Q \cup R| - |Q| = \dim(V) - \text{nullity}(T)$, the theorem holds if $|R| = \dim(\mathcal{R}(T))$.

If there exist different $x, x' \in R$ with T(x) = T(x'), then we have $T(x-x') = T(x) - T(x') = 0_W$, and thus $x - x' \in \mathcal{N}(T) = \operatorname{span}(Q)$. It follows that $x \in \operatorname{span}(Q \cup \{x'\})$, contradiction to the fact that S is linearly independent. Thus, |R| = |T(R)|. We claim that T(R) is a basis for $\mathcal{R}(T)$.

First we prove that T(R) spans $\mathcal{R}(T)$. By Theorem 2.4 (b) and the fact that $T(Q) = \{0_V\}$, we have

$$\mathcal{R}(T) = T(\operatorname{span}(Q \cup R))$$

$$= \operatorname{span}(T(Q \cup R))$$

$$= \operatorname{span}(T(Q)) + \operatorname{span}(T(R))$$

$$= \operatorname{span}(T(R)).$$

Then we prove that T(R) is linearly independent. Suppose that

$$a_1T(x_1) + \dots + a_nT(x_n) = 0_W$$

holds for some $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ and some different $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in R$ with $n \geq 1$. Then by Theorem 2.4 we have $T(a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n) = 0_W$, and thus $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n \in \mathcal{N}(T)$. Hence, there exist some $b_1, \ldots, b_m \in F$ and some different $y_1, \ldots, y_m \in Q$ such that

$$a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n = b_1y_1 + \dots + b_my_m.$$

That is,

$$a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n + (-b_1)y_1 + \dots + (-b_m)y_m = 0_V.$$

Since $Q \cup R$ is linearly independent, we have $a_1 = \cdots = a_n = b_1 = \cdots = b_m = 0_F$, implying that T(R) is linearly independent.

Thus, T(R) is a basis for $\mathcal{R}(T)$, and we can conclude that $\operatorname{rank}(T) = |T(R)| = |R| = |Q \cup R| - |Q|$, which completes the proof.

2.3 Isomorphisms

Definition 2.11. Let X, Y, Z be sets. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$ be functions. Then the **composition** of f and g is the function $gf: X \to Z$ such that

$$(gf)(x) = g(f(x))$$

for all $x \in X$.

Proposition 2.12. Let W, X, Y, Z be sets. Let

$$f: W \to X$$
, $g: X \to Y$, $h: Y \to Z$

be functions. Then we have

$$(hg)f = h(gf).$$

Proof. Since

$$((hg)f)(w) = (hg)(f(w))$$
 (composition of f and hg)
 $= h(g(f(w)))$ (composition of g and h)
 $= h((gf)(w))$ (composition of f and g)
 $= (h(gf))(w)$ (composition of gf and h)

holds for all $w \in W$, we have (hg)f = h(gf).

Definition 2.13. The **identity function** over a set X is a function $I_X : X \to X$ with $I_X(x) = x$ for all $x \in X$.

Definition 2.14. Let X and Y be sets. A function $f: X \to Y$ is said to be **invertible** if there exists a function $f^{-1}: Y \to X$, called the **inverse** of f, such that

$$f^{-1}f = I_X \quad \text{and} \quad ff^{-1} = I_Y.$$

Proposition 2.15. Let X and Y be sets. Let $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to X$ be functions.

- (a) If f is invertible, then f^{-1} is invertible.
- (b) If f is invertible, then f^{-1} is linear.
- (c) If f is invertible, then either $gf = I_X$ or $fg = I_Y$ implies $g = f^{-1}$.
- (d) f is invertible if and only if f is bijective.

Proof.

- (a) Straightforward from Definition 2.14.
- (b) For $a \in F$ and $y, y' \in Y$, we have

$$f^{-1}(ay + y') = f^{-1}(af(f^{-1}(y)) + f(f^{-1}(y')))$$
 ($ff^{-1} = I_Y$)
= $f^{-1}(f(af^{-1}(y) + f^{-1}(y')))$ (linearity of f)
= $af^{-1}(y) + f^{-1}(y')$. ($f^{-1}f = I_X$)

Thus, f^{-1} is linear.

(c) If $gf = I_X$, then

$$g = gI_Y = g(ff^{-1}) = (gf)f^{-1} = I_X f^{-1} = f^{-1}.$$

If $fg = I_Y$, then

$$g = I_X g = (f^{-1}f)g = f^{-1}(fg) = f^{-1}I_Y = f^{-1}.$$

(d) (\Rightarrow) Suppose that f is invertible. Then f is injective since for each $x, x' \in X$ with f(x) = f(x'), we have

$$x = (f^{-1}f)(x) = f^{-1}(f(x)) = f^{-1}(f(x')) = (f^{-1}f)(x') = x'.$$

Also, f is surjective since for each $y \in Y$, we have

$$y = (ff^{-1})y = f(f^{-1}(y)).$$

 (\Leftarrow) If f is bijective, then for each $y \in Y$ there exists a unique element $x \in X$ with f(x) = y. Thus, there exists a function $g: Y \to X$ such that

$$g(f(x)) = x$$

for each $x \in X$. For any $y \in Y$, if $x \in X$ is the element such that f(x) = y, then we have

$$f(g(y)) = f(g(f(x))) = f(x) = y.$$

Thus, f is invertible since $gf = I_X$ and $fg = I_Y$.

Definition 2.16. Let V and W be vector spaces. An **isomorphism** from V onto W is a invertible linear transformation from V to W. If there is an isomorphism from V onto W, then V and W are said to be **isomorphic**, denoted by $V \cong W$.

Lemma 2.17. Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces with $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$. Let $T: V \to W$ be linear. Then T is injective if and only if T is surjective.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) If T is injective, then $\mathcal{N}(T) = \{0_V\}$, implying nullity(T) = 0. Then we have

$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(T)) = \operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(V) - \operatorname{nullity}(T) = \dim(W) - 0 = \dim(W).$$

Since $\mathcal{R}(T)$ is a subspace of W with $\dim(\mathcal{R}(T)) = \dim(W)$, we can conclude that $\mathcal{R}(T) = W$ by Proposition 1.30.

 (\Leftarrow) If T is surjective, then $\mathcal{R}(T) = W$. Thus,

$$\operatorname{nullity}(T) = \dim(V) - \operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(W) - \dim(W) = 0,$$

implying $\mathcal{N}(T) = \{0_V\}$. It follows that T is injective.

Lemma 2.18. Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over a field F. Let $S = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a basis for V and let y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n be vectors in W. Then there exists a unique $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ with $T(x_i) = y_i$ for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$.

Proof. Let T be the transformation that satisfies

$$T(a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n) = a_1y_1 + a_2y_2 + \dots + a_ny_n$$

for any $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$. It is obvious that $T(x_i) = y_i$ for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, and T is linear since

$$T\left(c\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x_i\right) = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (ca_i + b_i) x_i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ca_i + b_i) y_i$$

$$= c\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i y_i$$

$$= cT\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i\right) + T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x_i\right)$$

holds for any scalars $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n, b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n, c \in F$. To see the uniqueness, if $T' \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ satisfies $T'(x_i) = y_i$ for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, then we have

$$T'(a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n) = a_1T'(x_1) + \dots + a_nT'(x_n)$$

= $a_1T(x_1) + \dots + a_nT(x_n)$
= $T(a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n)$.

for any $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$. Thus, T' = T.

Theorem 2.19. Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over a field F. Then $V \cong W$ if and only if $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Let T be an isomorphism from V onto W. Since T is invertible, T is bijective. Then we have $\operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(W)$ since $\mathcal{R}(T) = W$. Furthermore, since T is injective, we have $\operatorname{nullity}(T) = 0$, and it follows that $\operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(V)$ by $\operatorname{rank-nullity}$ theorem (Theorem 2.10). Thus, $\dim(V) = \operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(W)$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is a basis for V and $R = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\}$ is a basis for W. Then by Lemma 2.18 there exists $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ such that $T(x_i) = y_i$ for each $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Since R is a basis for W, for each $y \in W$ there exist scalars $a_1, \dots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(x_i) = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i\right).$$

It follows that T is surjective, and we can conclude that T is bijective by Lemma 2.17. Thus, T is an isomorphism from V onto W, implying $V \cong W$.

2.4 Coordinates and Matrix Representations

Definition 2.20. Let V be an finite-dimensional vector space over a field F with $\dim(V) = n$. An **ordered basis** for V is a finite sequence

$$\beta = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

of vectors in V such that the set $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is a basis for V.

Examples.

- The standard ordered basis for F^n is (e_1, \ldots, e_n) , where e_i is the *n*-tuple whose *i*-th component is 1_F and the other components are all 0_F .
- The standard ordered basis for $\mathcal{P}_n(F)$ is (t^0, t^1, \dots, t^n) .

Definition 2.21. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over a field F. Let $\beta = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ be an ordered basis for V. Then we define $\phi_{\beta}: V \to F^n$ by

$$\phi_{\beta}(a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

for any $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$. For each vector x in V, $\phi_{\beta}(x)$ is called the **coordinate** of x with respect to β , denoted by $[x]_{\beta}$.

Proposition 2.22. Let $\beta = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be an ordered basis for a vector space V over F. Then ϕ_{β} is an isomorphism from V onto F^n .

Proof. ϕ_{β} is linear since

$$\phi_{\beta} \left(c \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x_i \right) = \phi_{\beta} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (ca_i + b_i) x_i \right) = \begin{pmatrix} ca_1 + b_1 \\ \vdots \\ ca_n + b_n \end{pmatrix} = c \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= c \cdot \phi_{\beta} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i \right) + \phi_{\beta} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i x_i \right)$$

holds for any $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_n, c \in F$. Also, ϕ_β is invertible since there exists $\phi_\beta^{-1}: F^n \to V$ with

$$\phi_{\beta}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n$$

for any $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in F$. Thus, ϕ_{β} is an isomorphism.

Definition 2.23. Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over a field F. Let

$$\beta = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$
 and $\gamma = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$

be ordered basis for V and W, respectively. Then we define $\Phi^{\gamma}_{\beta}: \mathcal{L}(V,W) \to F^{m \times n}$ by

$$\Phi_{\beta}^{\gamma}(T) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix},$$

for each $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, where

$$T(x_1) = a_{11}y_1 + a_{21}y_2 + \dots + a_{m1}y_m$$

$$T(x_2) = a_{12}y_1 + a_{22}y_2 + \dots + a_{m2}y_m$$

$$\vdots$$

$$T(x_n) = a_{1n}y_1 + a_{2n}y_2 + \dots + a_{mn}y_m$$

hold. For each linear $T: V \to W$, the matrix $\Phi_{\beta}^{\gamma}(T)$ is called the **matrix representation** of T with respect to β and γ , denoted by $[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}$.

Proposition 2.24. Let $\beta = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and $\gamma = (y_1, \ldots, y_m)$ be ordered bases for a vector spaces V and W over F, respectively. Then for any $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, we have

$$\left([T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \right)_{ij} = \left([T(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i$$

for any $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ and $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$.

Proof. Let

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since $T(x_i) = a_{1i}y_1 + a_{2i}y_2 + \cdots + a_{mi}y_m$, we have

$$[T(x_j)]_{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1j} \\ a_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mj} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus,

$$\left([T(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i = a_{ij}$$

holds, which completes the proof.

Theorem 2.25. Let $\beta = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and $\gamma = (y_1, \ldots, y_m)$ be ordered bases for a vector spaces V and W over F, respectively. Then Φ_{β}^{γ} is an isomorphism from $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ onto $F^{m \times n}$.

Proof. Φ_{β}^{γ} is linear since for any $c \in F$ and $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\left([cT_1 + T_2]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \right)_{ij} &= \left([(cT_1 + T_2)(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i & \text{(Proposition 2.24)} \\
&= \left([cT_1(x_j) + T_2(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i \\
&= \left(c[T_1(x_j)]_{\gamma} + [T_2(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i & \text{(}\phi_{\gamma} \text{ is linear)} \\
&= c \left([T_1(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i + \left([T_2(x_j)]_{\gamma} \right)_i \\
&= c \left([T_1]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \right)_{ij} + \left([T_2]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \right)_{ij} & \text{(Proposition 2.24)} \\
&= \left(c[T_1]_{\beta}^{\gamma} + [T_2]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \right)_{ij} & \text{(Proposition 2.24)} \end{aligned}$$

for any $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ and $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. The following is to be completed. \square