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Ι **Vector Spaces**

AXIOMS

In previous calculus courses, we've considered the set of tuples $\langle a_1, ..., a_n \rangle$, where, in particular, $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$. These are examples of *vector spaces*, the construction which we will primarily study in this course.

Define a *vector space* V over the field \mathbb{F} to be an abelian group under the operation + and an identity element \mathbb{O}_V , which one calls the zero vector. Members of V are called *vectors*. Finally, V is equipped with scalar multiplication by members of \mathbb{F} , and satisfy the following axioms:

1.
$$\mathbb{1}_{\mathbb{F}}v = v \ \forall v \in V$$

3.
$$(\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v$$

2.
$$\alpha(\beta v) = (\alpha \beta)v \ \forall v \in V \ \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$$

2.
$$\alpha(\beta v) = (\alpha \beta)v \ \forall v \in V \ \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F} \ 4. \ \alpha(u+v) = \alpha u + \alpha v \ \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F} \ u, v \in V$$

Recall also the properties of abelian groups from MATH 235, which apply to V:

$$u(vw) = (uv)w$$

$$v + \mathbb{O}_V = i$$

$$v + \mathbb{O}_V = v$$
 $\exists (-v) \text{ s.t. } v + (-v) = \mathbb{O}_V$

$$uv = vi$$

for all $u, v, w \in V$.

Some formal consequences of the vector space axioms:

 $(1): \quad \mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}}v = (\mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}} + \mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}})v = \mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}}v + \mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}}v \implies \mathbb{O}_{V} = \mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}}v$

Proposition 1.1

$$\mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}}v = \mathbb{O}_{V} \text{ for all } v \in V \qquad -\mathbb{1}_{\mathbb{F}}v = -v \qquad \alpha \mathbb{O}_{V} = \mathbb{O}_{V}$$

PROOFS.

(2):
$$-1_{\mathbb{F}}v + v = (-1_{\mathbb{F}} + 1_{\mathbb{F}})v = 0_{\mathbb{F}}v = 0_{V}$$

(3):
$$\alpha \mathbb{O}_V = \alpha(\mathbb{O}_V + \mathbb{O}_V) \implies \alpha \mathbb{O}_V = \mathbb{O}_V$$

Examples: Most of the pedagogical examples of vector spaces we'll see do not bear much resemblance to the \mathbb{R}^n , $\langle x, y, z \rangle$ -like form we are familiar with:

- 1. The set of real, continuous functions, denoted $C[\mathbb{R}] := \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}\}$, is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .
- 2. $\mathbb{F}[t]$, the set of polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{F} , where addition and scalar multiplication are defined as usual, is a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

FURTHER CONSTRUCTIONS

Define a *product*, sometimes called the *direct sum*, of two vector spaces U, V over the same field \mathbb{F} to be the Cartesian product $U \times V$ equipped with the following:

$$(u_1, v_1) + (u_2, v_2) = (u_1 + u_2, v_1 + v_2)$$
 and $\lambda(u, v) = (\lambda u, \lambda v)$

A good exercise to prove.

 $\forall u_1, u_2 \in U, v_1, v_2 \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{F}$. One notates this as $U \oplus V$. This is itself a vector space. Note that the coordinate-vise addition and scalar multiplication are defined as in the original vector spaces.

For example, consider \mathbb{F}^2 over the field \mathbb{F} . One can conceptualize \mathbb{F} as a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and thus the direct product of \mathbb{F} with itself is a vector space.

Subspaces

We have constructed from a vector space one larger than it. Here is one smaller: define a *subspace* to be a set $W \subseteq V$ satisfying the following conditions

$$\mathbb{O}_V \in W$$
 $u + v \in W \ \forall u, v \in W$ $\alpha u \in W \ \forall u \in W, \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$

If W were non-empty, then choose $u \in W$. Then $\mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}} u \in W$, so $\mathbb{O}_V \in W$ as required.

There a few equivalent characterizations of subspaces: $W \subseteq V$ is a vector space; or, $W \subseteq V$ is non-empty and satisfies the latter two conditions from above.

Examples: Consider \mathbb{F}^n over the field \mathbb{F} . This is a vector space. The following are subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n :

- 1. $\{(0, x_2, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : x_i \in \mathbb{F}\}.$
- 2. $W = \{(x_1, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : x_1 + 2x_2 = 0\}$. One can choose $x_3, ..., x_n$ all 0, and since $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ satisfy $x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$, one sees that $0_V \in W$. If $x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$, then $\lambda x_1 + 2\lambda x_2 = 0$ as well, so W is closed under scalar multiplication. Lastly, if $x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$ and $x_1' + 2x_2' = 0$, then $(x_1 + x_1') + 2(x_2 + x_2') = 0$, so W is closed under addition.
- 3. *Generally*, though it is not a fact we can prove now, $W \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n :=$

$$\left\{ (x_1, ..., x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n \text{ s.t. } \begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + ... + a_{1n}x_n = 0 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + ... + a_{2n}x_n = 0 \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + ... + a_{mn}x_n = 0 \end{cases} \right\}$$

i.e. a subset of \mathbb{F}^n where a system of at least one linear equation is homogeneous. As a counter-example to this construction, see that $\{(x_1,...,x_n)\in\mathbb{F}^n: x_1+x_2=1\}$ is not a subspace of \mathbb{F}^n (it violates all 3 conditions).

4. Let $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$ denote the space of polynomials whose degree is at most $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\mathbb{F}[t]_n \subseteq \mathbb{F}[t]$ is a subspace. However, the set of polynomials whose degree is *exactly n*, for some positive $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is *not* a subspace. The following are further subspaces of $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$, where p''(t) is defined as usual (notice the similarity to 3.).

- (a) $\{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p(1) = 0\}$ or even $\{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p(\alpha) = 0 \text{ with } \alpha \in \mathbb{F}\}$
- (b) $\{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p''(t) + 2p'(t) p(t) = 0\}$
- 5. For $C[\mathbb{R}]$, which, as noted above, is a vector space, the following are subspaces:
 - (a) $\{f \in C[\mathbb{R}] : f(\pi) + 7f(\sqrt{2}) = 0\}$
 - (b) $\{f \in C[\mathbb{R}] \text{ differentiable everywhere}\}$
 - (c) $\left\{ f \in C[\mathbb{R}] : \int_0^1 f \, dx = 0 \right\}$. The proof of this follows from linearity of the integral (MATH 255). In truth, the bounds for the integral can be arbitrary, though see this integral cannot be set arbitrarily.

If W_1 , W_2 are subspaces of some common VS over the field \mathbb{F} , then

PROPOSITION 1.2

$$W_1 + W_2 := \{w_1 + w_2 : w_1 \in W_1, w_2 \in W_2\}$$
 and $W_1 \cap W_2$

are both subspaces. The proofs for these are left to the reader.

LINEAR COMBINATIONS

Define a *linear combination* of vectors $v_1, ..., v_n \in V$, where V is a vector space over \mathbb{F} , to be $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i$, where $a_i \in \mathbb{F}$. So long as one a_i is non-zero, one calls this a *non-trivial* LC. Otherwise (i.e. all $a_i = 0$), we have a *trivial* LC.

When we deal with a possibly infinite set of vectors, $S \subseteq V$, we will only take *finite* linear combinations, for a subset $\{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq S$. Never will we compute infinite sums in this course.

Define the *span* of $S \subseteq V$ to be the set of all possible linear combinations of S, $\{a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n : a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in S\}$. By convention, we say that $\operatorname{Span}(\emptyset) = \mathbb{O}_V$.

Example: Let $S := \{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(1,1,-2)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$. Then $\mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{R}^3} = (0,0,0) = 0(1,0,-1) + 0(0,1,-1) + 0(1,1,-2)$ is a trivial linear combination. However, we can get to 0 non-trivially: (1,0,-1) + (0,1,-1) - (1,1,-2) = 0.

What about Span(*S*)? This is the set $\{a(1,0,-1) + b(0,1,-1) + c(1,1,-2)\} = \{(a+c,b+c,-a-b-2c)\}$. Clearly this is a subset of $\{(a,b,c) : a+b+c=0\}$, since, indeed,

a + c + b + c - a - b - 2c = 0. The converse is also true: suppose (x, y, z) is such that x + y + z = 0. Then z = -x - y, and one writes (x, y, -x - y) = x(1, 0, -1) + y(0, 1, -1). It follows that Span $(S) = \{(x, y, z) : x + y + z = 0\}$.

PROPOSITION 1.3

Let V be a VS over a field \mathbb{F} , and S be some subspace of it. Then Span(S) is a subspace of V containing S, and furthermore is the smallest such subspace containing S.

PROOF.

Adding and scalar multiplying a linear combination of vectors produces a further linear combination, so $\operatorname{Span}(S)$ is closed under these operations. Furthermore, $\mathbb{O}_V \in \operatorname{Span}(S)$ by taking a trivial combination of vectors $\Longrightarrow \operatorname{Span}(S)$ is a subspace.

If $U \supseteq S$ is a subspace, then U is closed under addition and scalar multiplication, so it contains all linear combinations of S, i.e. $U \subseteq \text{Span}(S)$

PROPOSITION 1.4

For $S \subseteq V$, $v \in V$, we have that $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S) \iff \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) = \operatorname{Span}(S)$.

PROOF.

(⇒) If $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S)$, then v is some linear combination of vectors in S, so $v = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$. Let $u \in \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\})$. Then $u = a'_1v'_1 + ... + a'_mv'_m + av$, where a may be 0, and $v'_i \in S$. One rewrites $u = a'_1v'_1 + ... + a'_mv'_m + a(a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n)$ from above. Thus, $\operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S)$. Trivially, $\operatorname{Span}(S) \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\})$, so $\operatorname{Span}(S) = \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\})$.

(\Leftarrow) Assume Span(S) = Span(S ∪ {v}). Clearly, $v \in$ Span(S ∪ {v}), so $v \in$ Span(S) as well.

For a VS over a field \mathbb{F} , call $S \subseteq V$ a spanning set of V if $\mathrm{Span}(S) = V$. One calls a spanning set *minimal* if no proper subset of S is spanning, i.e. $\mathrm{Span}(S \setminus v) \neq V$ for all $v \in V$.

Example: For $S := \{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1), (1, 1, -2)\}$, we have from Proposition 1.4 that Span(S) = Span($\{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1)\}$), as $\{(1, 1, -2)\}$ ∈ Span($\{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1)\}$).

Thus, it follows that *S* is not a minimal spanning set over itself.

For the VS \mathbb{F}^n over \mathbb{F} , define the *standard spanning set*:

$$\mathsf{St}_{n} := \{(1, \underbrace{0, 0, ..., 0}_{\mathit{n-1} \ times}), (0, 1, 0, ..., 0), ..., (0, ..., 0, 0, 1)\}$$

This is indeed spanning for \mathbb{F}^n , and is minimal.

LINEAR (IN)DEPENDENCE

Let V be a VS and $S \subseteq V$ a subspace. S is called *linearly dependent* if there exists a non-trivial linear combination equal to \mathbb{O}_V . Otherwise S is called *linearly independent*.

Examples:

- 1. The empty set, by vacuous implication, is linearly independent.
- 2. For $v \in V$, v is linearly dependent $\iff v = \mathbb{O}_V$
- 3. $S := \{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1), (1, 1, -2)\}$ is linearly dependent
- 4. $S \subseteq \mathbb{F}^3 = \{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(0,0,,1)\}$ is linearly dependent. We argue by contradiction: let (0,0,0) = a(1,0,-1) + b(0,1,-1) + c(0,0,1) = (a,b,c-a-b). Then a = b = 0 by necessity, and it follows that c a b = c = 0. Thus, only a trivial linear combination equals the zero vector.
- 5. $\operatorname{St}_n \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$ is linearly independent

Let *V* be a VS over \mathbb{F} , $S \subseteq V$ (possibly infinite). Then:

PROPOSITION 1.5

- (a) S is linearly dependent \iff there exists a finite $S_0 \subseteq S$ which is linearly dependent
- (b) S is linearly independent \iff all finite $S_0 \subseteq S$ are linearly independent

Note that (b) is simply the negation of (a), so only (a) requires a proof.

PROOF.

 (\Longrightarrow) Suppose S is linearly dependent. Then $a_1v_1+...+a_nv_n=\mathbb{O}_V$, where, WLOG, we assume that $a_i\neq \mathbb{O}_{\mathbb{F}}$. The set $\{v_1,...,v_n\}\subseteq S$ is clearly linearly dependent.

 (\Leftarrow) If $S_0 \subseteq S$ is linearly dependent, then clearly S is too

For $S \subseteq V$ over \mathbb{F} , we have

PROPOSITION 1.6

- (a) S is linearly dependent \iff there exists $v \in S$ with $v \in \operatorname{Span}\{S \setminus v\}$
- (b) S is linearly independent \iff for all $v \in S$, $v \notin \text{Span}\{S \setminus v\}$

Once again, only (a) requires proof.

PROOF.

(\Longrightarrow) Let S be linearly dependent. Then $a_1v_1+...+a_nv_n=\mathbb{O}_V$, and WLOG we assume all a_i are non-zero. Since \mathbb{F} is a field, we may write $v_1=-a_1^{-1}a_2v_2-...-a_1^{-1}a_nv_n$. Thus, $v_1\in \operatorname{Span}\{S\setminus v_1\}$, and we are done.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $v \in S$ is such that $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S \setminus v)$. Then $v = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$, where $v_i \in S \setminus v$. It follows that $\emptyset_V = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n - v$. As $-1 \neq 0$, this is non-trivial, and we are done. □

COROLLARY

Clearly, $\operatorname{Span}(S) = \operatorname{Span}(S)$. However, $v \in S \Longrightarrow v \notin \operatorname{Span}(S \setminus v)$. We know $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S)$, so $\operatorname{Span}(S) \neq \operatorname{Span}(S \setminus v)$. $S \subseteq V$ is linearly independent $\iff S$ is a minimal spanning set for Span(S)

For a vector space V over \mathbb{F} , $S \subseteq V$ is called *maximally independent* if S is linearly independent AND there does not exist $v \in V \setminus S$ s.t. $S \cup \{v\}$ is linearly independent. In other words, S is independent, and adding *any* new vectors will break this independence.

PROPOSITION 1.7

If *S* is maximally independent, then *S* is spanning for *V*.

PROOF.

Let S be maximally independent. Then for any $v \in V \setminus S$, the set $S \cup \{v\}$ is linearly dependent, i.e. $av + a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n = \mathbb{O}_V$ for all non-zero a_i . In particular, $a \neq 0$, or else we would yield a non-trivial linear combination for only vectors in S, which violates our independence condition.

Thus, write $v = -a^{-1}a_1v_1 - ... - a^{-1}a_nv_n$, and conclude that $v \in \text{Span}(S)$. Then $V \subseteq \text{Span}(S)$. Clearly, $\text{Span}(S) \subseteq V$, so we conclude that Span(S) = V.

BASES

1.1 Characterization of a Basis

Let *V* be a VS over \mathbb{F} and $S \subseteq V$. The following are then equivalent:

- 1. *S* is a minimal spanning set for *V*
- 2. *S* is linearly independent and spanning for *V*
- 3. *S* is maximally independent
- 4. Every $v \in V$ is equal to a *unique* combination of vectors in S

PROOFS.

- (1) \implies (2) Let $S \subseteq V$ be a minimal spanning set for V. Then, especially, S is a minimal spanning set for Span(S), and by the corollary above, S is linearly independent.
- (3) \Longrightarrow (1) Let $S \subseteq V$ be maximally independent. By proposition 1.7, S is spanning for V. By the corollary, S is also minimally spanning for Span(S). Combining, we see that S is minimally spanning for V.
- (2) \Longrightarrow (4) Let $S \subseteq V$ be linearly independent and spanning for V. Then, clearly, $l \in V \in \operatorname{Span}(S)$ means that it can be written as a linear combination

of vectors in S. We need this combination to be unique: let $a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n = l$ and $b_1v_1 + ... + b_nv_n = l$, where $S = \{v_i\}_{1 \le i \le n}$ One uses the same vectors, noting that some coefficients may be 0, as needed.

 $a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n = b_1v_1 + ... + b_nv_n \implies a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n - b_1v_1 - ... - b_mv_m = 0.$ We can thus combine $a_i - b_i = c_i$, and write $c_1v_1 + ... + c_nv_n = 0$. Since S is linearly independent, we require that all $c_i = 0$, i.e. $a_i = b_i \forall i$.

(4) \Longrightarrow (2) This result is immediate, as $V \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S)$, $\operatorname{Span}(S) \subseteq V \Longrightarrow \operatorname{Span}(S) = V$. Since all vectors in v have a *unique* representation, consider $v = \mathbb{O}_V$. A trivial combination produces the zero vector, and by uniqueness this must be the *only* such combination, and we conclude that S is linearly independent.

If any of the above statements hold, we call *S* a *basis* for *V*.

With respect to (4), the unique combination is called a *unique representation of* v *in* S. The associated coefficients are called the *Fourier coefficients of* v *in* S

Examples:

- 1. Consider St_n , the standard basis for \mathbb{F}^n (notice the terminology). This is, of course, a basis
- 2. $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$, the space of polynomials with degree at most n, has a basis $\{1, t, t^2, ..., t^n\}$.
- 3. In \mathbb{F}^3 , $\{1, 0, -1\}$, (0, 1, -2), (0, 0, 1) is a basis.
- 4. The standard basis of $\mathbb{F}[t]$, the space of *all* polynomials, is $\{1, t, t^2, ...\} = \{t^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. One checks linear independence of this space by considering all Note: in this couse, $0 \in \mathbb{N}$ finite subsets (remember, we do not take infinite sums).
- 5. Define $\mathbb{F}[[t]]$ to be the set of all power series, i.e. $\left\{\sum_{n\in\mathbb{F}}a_nt^n:a_n\in\mathbb{F}\right\}$. In the bullet above, we consider the space of polynomials, i.e. formal power series with *finitely* many non-zero terms. Not so for $\mathbb{F}[[t]]$, in generality. We ask: does this have a basis?

1.2 Every vector space has a basis

Since V may be infinite, we will have to rely on some non-rigorous notions to prove this in any short form. Suppose V is a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and let $S_0 = \emptyset$ be a trivial, independent subspace. If S_0 is maximally independent, then we are done. Otherwise, there exists $v_1 \in V$ such that $S_1 := S_0 \cup \{v_1\}$ is also independent. If S_1 is maximal, then we are done. Otherwise, choose

PROOF ATTEMPT.

 $v_2 \in V$, define $S_2 := S_1 \cup \{v_2\}$, and so on and so on. This last notion ("and so on and so on") is problematic when V is not finite. To resolve this, we'll need to learn and understand *Zorn's Lemma*

Zorn's Lemma

The definition of ambient sets is not necessary to understand Zorn's lemma, but you can read about it here Let X be some ambient set and \mathcal{I} be a collection of subsets of X. In other words, $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$, the powerset of X. Call a set $S \in \mathcal{I}$ an *inclusion-maximal* element if \nexists any strict superset $S' \supsetneq S$ such that $S' \in \mathcal{I}$. Call a collection of sets $C \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ a *chain* if, for any two sets $A, B \in C$, one has $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$.

To demonstrate these definitions, let $X := \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{I} := \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$.

Both $\{0\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ are inclusion-maximal in \mathcal{I} : adding any element to either of these sets will land you outside of \mathcal{I} . $C_1 = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ is a chain, but $C_2 = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{0\}\}$ is *not* a chain.



Lastly, define an *upper bound* of $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ to be a set $U \subseteq X$ such that $U \supseteq J$ for all sets $J \in \mathcal{J}$.

1.3 Zorn's Lemma

Let X be a set, $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ non-empty. If every chain $C \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ has an upper bound in \mathcal{I} , then \mathcal{I} has a maximal element.

The proof for this is statement beyond this course (see MATH 488).

Let's revisit the statement that every vector space has a basis, now equipped with Zorn's lemma:

Let $\mathcal I$ be the collection of linearly independent subspaces in V. This is non-empty, since at least the empty set is linearly independent. If one can show that $\mathcal I$ has a maximal element, in the sense of Zorn's lemma, then this element is also maximally independent.

Consider a chain $C \subseteq \mathcal{I}$, and let $S := \cup C$ be the union of all sets in C. This is clearly an upper bound of C, so we want to show that it is linearly independent. However, S may be infinite, so consider an arbitrary subset $\{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq S$.

Proof.

Let $S_i \in C$ be some set that contains v_i , from the set described above. Since C is a chain, for any i, j, we have $S_i \subseteq S_j$ or $S_j \subseteq S_i$, so WLOG we can order these sets as follows:

$$S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq ... \subseteq S_n$$

Thus, $v_1, ..., v_n \in S_n$, and since $S_n \in C \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ (recall the definition of \mathcal{I}), S_n is linearly independent. Thus, $\{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq S_n$ is linearly independent $\implies S$ is linearly independent $\implies S \in \mathcal{I}$ is an upper-bound of \mathcal{I} .

Zorn's lemma is satisfied, so \mathcal{I} has a maximal element, and we are done. \Box

Steinitz Substitution Lemma

1.4 Cardinality of Bases

For a vector space V over \mathbb{F} , any two bases have the same cardinality.

We'll require another lemma to prove this statement:

1.5 Steinitz Substitution Lemma

Let *V* be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . Let $Y \subseteq V$ be a finite, linearly independent set and $Z \subseteq V$ be a finite spanning set. Then the following hold:

- (a) $|Y| \leq |Z|$
- (b) $\exists Z' \subseteq Z$ such that $Y \cup Z'$ still spans V, where |Z'| = |Z| |Y|

Proof TBD

Now we'll show theorem 1.4:

Let *Y* and *Z* be two finite bases for *V*. Then *Y* is linearly independent and *Z* is spanning. Thus, $|Y| \le |Z|$ be Steinitz. However, *Y* is also spanning, and *Z* is linearly independent, so $|Z| \le |Y| \implies |Y| = |Z|$.

PROOF.

For a vector space V over \mathbb{F} , define the *dimension* of V, denoted by $\dim(V)$, to be the cardinality of its (i.e. any) basis. We call V a *finite dimensional vector space* if $\dim(V)$ is a natural number, otherwise its *infinite dimensional*.

Let *V* have $\dim(V) = n$. Then the following hold by Steinitz:

PROPOSITION 1.8

- (a) For every linearly independent set $I \subseteq V$, $|I| \le n$. If |I| = n, then I is a basis.
- (b) For every spanning set $S \subseteq V$, $|S| \ge n$. If |S| = n, then S is a basis.
- (c) Every linearly independent set I can be completed to a basis for V, i.e. \exists a basis B for V which contains I

PROOFS.

- (a) Since a basis *B* is spanning, one has $|I| \le |B| = n$
- (b) Since a basis *B* is independent, $|B| \le |S|$, i.e. $|S| \ge n$
- (c) Let I be independent and B be a basis. Then $\exists B' \subseteq B$ with $I \cup B'$ spanning. $I \cup B'$ is also independent: we know that $|I \cup B'| \ge n$. However, $|I \cup B'| \le |I| + |B'| = |B| = n$. Thus, $|I \cup B'| = n$. It follows that this set is minimally spanning, since $|I \cup B'| = n 1$ is a contradiction of (b). $\implies |I + B'|$ is a basis.

1.6 Monotonicity of Dimension

Let *V* be a finite dimensional vector space. Then for any subspace $W \subseteq V$, $\dim(W) \le \dim(V)$ and $\dim(W) = \dim(V) \iff W = V$.

PROOF.

Let *B* be a basis for *W*. Since *B* is independent and $W \subseteq V$, $|B| \le \dim(V)$ by proposition 1.8, so $\dim(W) \le \dim(V)$.

(\Longrightarrow) If $|B| = \dim(V)$, then B is a basis for V by 1.8, so Span(B) = V, or W = V. The (\Longleftrightarrow) direction is trivial.

II Linear Transformations

AXIOMS AND INITIAL PROPERTIES

Let V, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . One calls a mapping $T: V \to W$ a linear transformation if it preserves vector space structure, i.e.

- 1. $T(v_1 + v_2) = T(v_1) + T(v_2) \forall v_1, v_2 \in V$
- 2. $T(\alpha v) = \alpha T(v) \ \forall v \in V, \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$

Immediately, we have that $T(\mathbb{O}_V) = \mathbb{O}_W$ and T(-v) = -T(v).

Examples:

- 1. Consider $T: \mathbb{F}^2 \to \mathbb{F}^2: T(a_1, a_2) = (a_1 + 2a_2, a_1)$. This is a linear transformation. Checking the axioms: $T(a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2) = (a_1 + b_1 + 2(a_2 + b_2), a_1 + b_1) = (a_1 + 2a_2 + b_1 + 2b_2, a_1 + b_1) = T(a_1, a_2) + T(b_1, b_2)$. Also, $T(\alpha a_1, \alpha a_2) = (\alpha a_1 + 2\alpha a_2, \alpha a_1) = \alpha (a_1 + 2a_2, a_1) = \alpha T(a_1, a_2)$.
- 2. Let θ be an angle, and $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be the rotation of a vector by θ . This is a linear transformation.
- 3. $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$, the reflection transformation defined by $T(a_1, a_2) = T(a_1, -a_2)$
- 4. The transpose $M_n(\mathbb{F}) \to M_n(\mathbb{F}) : A \to A^T$
- 5. \mathcal{D} , the derivative of finite polynomials.

2.1 Linear transformations are completely determined by values on a basis

Let $B := v_1, ..., v_n$ be a basis for a vector space V. Let W be a vector space over a common field \mathbb{F} , and $w_1, ..., w_n \in W$. Then there exists a unique linear transformation $T: W \to V$ which sends $T(v_i) = w_i \ \forall i \in [1, n]$.

Existence: Let $v \in V$, $B \subseteq V$ a basis for V, and consider some transformation T(v). We write $v = a_1v_1 + ... a_nv_n$, $v_i \in B$, the unique representation of v in B. Now, define $T(v) = a_1w_1 + ... + a_nw_n$ for fixed $w_i \in W$. This will indeed send $T(v_i) = w_i$ as desired. To show that T is linear, one checks the axioms:

For $u, v \in V$, let $v = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$ and $u = b_1v_1 + ... + b_nv_n$ be the unique representations of u, v in B. Then $u + v = (a_1 + b_1)v_1 + ... + (a_n + b_n)v_n$, so $T(u + v) = (a_1 + b_1)w_1 + ... + (a_n + b_n)w_n = a_1w_1 + ... + a_nw_n + b_1w_1 + ... + b_nw_n = T(u) + T(v)$.

PROOF.

 $T(\alpha v) = \alpha T(v)$ follows immediately from its definition.

Uniqueness: Suppose T_1 , T_2 are both such that $T_1(v_i) = w_i = T_2(v_i)$ for all i. One shows that $T_1(v) = T_2(v) \ \forall v \in V$. Let $v = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$ be the unique representation of v in B. By linearity, $T(v) = a_1T(v_1) + ... + a_nT(v_n) = a_1w_1 + ... + a_nw_n$ for both T_1 and T_2 . Since a_i and w_i are all fixed, we see that $T_1(v) = T_2(v)$.

2.2 Extension of Functions on Basis

Let V, W be vector spaces, possibly infinite, over \mathbb{F} , and let β be a basis for V. Every function $T: \beta \to W$ can be extended to a linear transformation $\hat{T}: V \to W$.

PROOF.

 \hat{T} is indeed an extension of T. See that $\hat{T}(v_i) = T(v_i)$, since v_i is its own representation in β . This is essentially the infinite case of theorem 1.2:

Existence: Let $T: \beta \to \gamma$ be (any) function between the bases of V and W. For $v \in V$, let $v = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$ be its unique representation in β , where $v_i \in \beta$. Define the function

$$\hat{T}(v) = a_1 T(v_1) + ... + a_n T(v_n)$$

We'll show that this is linear. Let $x, y \in V$. Without loss of generality, we can write $x = a_1v_1 + ... + a_mv_m$ and $y = b_1v_1 + ... + b_mv_m$ as their unique representations, where a_i, b_i may be zero. We thus have

$$\begin{split} \hat{T}(x+y) &= (a_1 + b_1)T(v_1) + \dots + (a_m + b_m)T(v_m) \\ &= a_1T(v_1) + b_1T(v_1) + \dots + a_mT(v_m) + b_mT(v_m) \\ &= \hat{T}(x) + \hat{T}(y) \\ \hat{T}(\alpha x) &= \alpha a_1T(v_1) + \dots + \alpha a_mT(v_m) \\ &= \alpha [a_1T(v_1) + \dots + a_mT(v_m)] = \alpha \hat{T}(x) \end{split}$$

Uniqueness: Let \hat{T} be as defined, and let $\tilde{T}: V \to W$ be another transformation which *also* sends $\beta \to \gamma$ according to $T: \beta \to \gamma$. Fix $v \in V$, and let $a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$ be its unique representation in β .

$$\hat{T}(v) = a_1 T(v_1) + \ldots + a_n T(v_n) = a_1 \tilde{T}(v_1) + \ldots + a_n \tilde{T}(v_n) = \tilde{T}(a_1 v_1 + \ldots + a_n v_n) = \tilde{T}(v)$$

ISOMORPHISMS

Define an *isomorphism* $T: V \to W$, for two vector space V, W over \mathbb{F} , to be a linear transformation which admits a linear inverse.

If there exists an isomorphism between V and W, one says that V and W are *isomorphic* (to eachother). Write $V \cong W$.

 $T: V \to W$ is an isomorphism $\iff T$ is linear and bijective.

Proposition 2.1

This may seem trivial, and the (\Longrightarrow) direction is. However, we need to show that, for T linear and bijective, its inverse is linear:

PROOF.

We know T^{-1} exists, since T is bijective. Let $w_1, w_2 \in W$ and $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{F}$:

$$\begin{split} T^{-1}(a_1w_1 + a_2w_2) &= T^{-1}[a_1T(T^{-1}(w_1)) + a_2T(T^{-1}(w_2))] \\ &= T^{-1}[T(a_1T^{-1}(w_1)) + T(a_2T^{-1}(w_2))] \\ &= T^{-1}[T(a_1T^{-1}(w_1) + a_2T^{-1}(w_2))] \\ &= a_1T^{-1}(w_1) + a_2T^{-1}(w_2) \quad \Box \end{split}$$

2.3 Freeness of Vector Spaces

All bijections from $\beta \to \gamma$ can be extended to a unique isomorphism between V and W. This follows from Theorem 2.2.

2.4 Isomorphism with Same Dimension

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, a vector space V over \mathbb{F} with $\dim(V) = n$ is isomorphic to \mathbb{F}^n . In particular, all n-dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{F} are isomorphic to eachother.

Fix a basis $B := \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ for V. Let $V \to \mathbb{F}^n$ be the unique transformation which sends $T(v_i) = e_i$, where $e_i = \{0, ..., 0, 1, 0, ..., 0\}$, with 1 in the i^{th} position.

PROOF.

T is injective: let T(x) = T(y) for $x, y \in V$, and write $x = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$, $y = b_1v_1 + ... + b_nv_n$, the unique representations of x, y in B.

Then $T(x) = T(y) \implies a_1e_1 + ... + a_ne_n = b_1e_1 + ... + b_ne_n$, since T sends $v_i \rightarrow e_i$. By uniqueness of representation in a basis, one has $a_i = b_i$.

T is surjective: let $w \in \mathbb{F}^n$. Then let $w = a_1 e_1 + ... + a_n e_n$ be its unique representation in St_n . Then $T(a_1 v_1 + ... + a_n v_n) = w$.

Recall that $\{e_i\}_{i \le n}$ is the standard basis, St_n , of \mathbb{F}^n .

Thus, $V \cong \mathbb{F}^n$, and so all *n*-dim vector spaces are isomorphic to each other. \square

For a linear transformation $T: V \to W$, define its *image*, notated Im(T) or T(V), to be the set $\{T(v): v \in V\}$. Similarly, define its *kernel*, notated ker(T) or $T^{-1}(\mathbb{O}_W)$, to be $\{v \in V: T(v) = \mathbb{O}_W\}$.

PROPOSITION 2.2

ker(T) and Im(T) are subspaces of V and W, respectively.

PROOF.

For
$$\ker(T)$$
: Let $v_1, v_2 \in \ker(T)$ and $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{F}$. Then $T(a_1v_1 + a_2v_2) = a_1T(v_1) + a_2T(v_2) = a_1\mathbb{O}_W + a_2\mathbb{O}_W = \mathbb{O}_W$, so $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 \in \ker(T)$.

For Im(T): Let $w_1, w_2 \in \text{Im}(T)$. Then $w_i = T(v_i)$ for some $v_i \in V$, so $a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 = a_1T(v_1) + a_2T(v_2) = T(a_1v_1 + a_2v_2)$, so $a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 \in \text{Im}(T)$.

PROPOSITION 2.3

Let $T: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. Let $B \subseteq V$ be a basis for V. Then T(B) spans Im(T). In particular, T is surjective $\iff T(B)$ spans W.

PROOF.

Let
$$w \in \text{Im}(T)$$
, so $w = T(v)$ for some $v \in V$. Write $v = a_1 v_1 + ... + a_n v_n$ to be the unique representation of v in B . Then $w = T(v) = a_1 T(v_1) + ... + a_n T(v_n) \in \text{Span}(\{T(v_1), ..., T(v_n)\})$, so $T(B)$ spans $\text{Im}(T)$

If *T* is surjective, then Im(T) = W, and vice-versa.

PROPOSITION 2.4

Let $T: V \to W$ be a linear transformation. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. *T* is injective
- 2. $ker(T) = \{0_V\}$
- 3. T(B) is independent for all bases $B \subseteq V$
- 4. T(B) is independent for some basis $B \subseteq V$

PROOF.

- (1) \iff (2). \implies direction trivial. (\iff) Let $\ker(T) = \{0_V\}$, and T(x) = T(y) for some $x, y \in V$. Then $T(x) T(y) = 0_W = T(x y)$, so $x y \in \ker(T)$. But then $0_V = x y$, so x = y.
- (2) \Longrightarrow (3) Fix a basis $B := \{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq V$. To show that T(B) is linearly independent, take a combination $a_1w_1 + ... + a_nw_n$, where $T(v_i) = w_i$. These w_i are distinct, since T is injective by (2) \Longrightarrow (1).

Suppose $a_1w_1 + ... + a_nw_n = 0$. Then $T(a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n) = 0$, so $a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n \in \ker(T)$. Thus, by (2), $a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n = 0$, but $v_i \in B$ are linearly independent, so $a_i = 0$.

 $(3) \Longrightarrow (4)$ trivial.

(4) \Longrightarrow (2) Fix $B \subseteq V$ and let T(B) be linearly independent. Suppose T(v) = 0, and write $v = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$ for $v_i \in B$. Then $a_1T(v_1) + ... + a_nT(v_n) = 0$, but T(B) is linearly independent, so $a_i = 0$

If *V* and *W* are isomorphic, they have the same dimension.

PROPOSITION 2.5

This follows directly from propositions 2.3 and 2.4: if V and W are isomorphic, then $\exists T: V \to W$ which is bijective. Let B be a basis for V. Then T surjective $\Longrightarrow T(B)$ is spanning for W by 2.3. T injective $\Longrightarrow T(B)$ independent by 2.4. Thus, T(B) is a basis for W. But T is a bijection, so |T(B)| = |B|, and we conclude that $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$.

PROOF.

If $T: V \to W$ is an injective linear transformation, then $\dim(W) \ge \dim(V)$. This Proposition 2.6 is something along the lines of a pigeonhole principle for vector spaces.

Since $\operatorname{Im}(T) \subseteq W$, we know $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) \leq \dim(W)$. Thus, we show that $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = \dim(V)$. But since T is injective, it is an extension of $\hat{T}: V \to \operatorname{Im}(T)$ which *is* surjective, and thus bijective. We conclude that V and $\operatorname{Im}(T)$ are isomorphic to eachother, so they have the same dimension. \square

PROOF.

For vector spaces V, W over \mathbb{F} , define the rank of T, denoted rank(T), to be dim(Im(T)). Similarly, define the nullity of T, denoted null(T), to be dim(ker(T)).

2.6 Rank-Nullity (or Dimension) Theorem

Let *V* be finite dimensional, and *W* any v.s. over a common field \mathbb{F} . If $T:V\to W$ is a linear transformation, then $\operatorname{null}(T)+\operatorname{rank}(T)=\dim(V)$

This follows directly from the 1st isomorphism theorem for vector space (to be seen), along with the fact that $\dim(V/\ker(T)) = \dim(V) - \dim(\ker(T))$. A more manual proof is as follows:

PROOF.

Let $\{v_1, ..., v_k\}$ be a basis for $\ker(T)$. By Steinitz' Lemma, this can be completed to a basis for V, say $\{v_1, ..., v_k, u_1, ..., u_{n-k}\}$, where $n = \dim(V)$. If we show $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = n - k$, then the theorem follows.

Recall that T(B) spans Im(T) for any basis $B \subseteq V$. Thus,

$$Span(\{T(v_1), ..., T(v_k), T(u_1), ..., T(u_{n-k})\}) = Im(T)$$

However, $v_i \in \ker(T)$, so $T(v_i) = 0$, and we conclude that $\{T(u_1), ..., T(u_{n-k})\}$ is spanning for $\operatorname{Im}(T)$.

This set (of n - k elements) is linearly independent as well:

$$a_1 T(u_1) + \dots + a_{n-k} T(u_{n-k}) = \mathbb{O}_W$$

$$\implies a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_{n-k} u_{n-k} \in \ker(T)$$

$$\implies a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_{n-k} u_{n-k} = b_1 v_1 + \dots + b_n v_n \quad \text{(uniquely)}$$

$$\implies a_1 u_1 + \dots + a_{n-k} u_{n-k} - b_1 v_1 - \dots - b_n v_n = \mathbb{O}_V$$

$$\implies a_i = 0 \ \forall i \quad \text{by linear independence of basis of } V \quad \square$$

PROPOSITION 2.7

Let V, W be n-dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . For a linear transformation $T:V\to W$, the following are equivalent:

- 1. *T* is injective
- 2. *T* is surjective
- 3. $\operatorname{rank}(T) = n$

PROOF.

$$T ext{ surjective} \iff ext{rank}(T) = ext{dim}(ext{Im}(T)) = ext{dim}(W) = n$$
 $T ext{ injective} \implies ext{null}(T) = 0, ext{ so } ext{rank}(T) = n$
 $ext{rank}(T) = n \implies ext{null}(T) = 0, ext{ so } ext{ker}(T) = \{0_V\}, ext{ so } T ext{ injective}$

2.7 First Isomorphism Theorem

Let V, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Let $T:V\to W$ be a linear transformation. Then $V/\ker(T)$ is isomorphic to $\mathrm{Im}(T)$ through the isomorphism $\overline{v}\to T(v)$, where $\overline{v}:=v+\ker(T)$ (as in quotient groups).

PROOF.

We know that $\hat{T}: V/\ker(T) \to \operatorname{Im}(T)$ given by $\hat{T}(\overline{v}) = T(v)$ is a well-defined group isomorphism. Thus, we need to check that \hat{T} is linear. In particular, we need to check scalar multiplication, since group homomorphisms obey T(x+y) = T(x) + T(y).

$$\hat{T}(\alpha \overline{v}) = \hat{T}(\overline{av}) = T(av) = aT(v) = a\hat{T}(\overline{v})$$

For vector spaces V, W over \mathbb{F} , define Hom(V,W) to be the set of all linear transformations from $V \to W$.

PROPOSITION 2.8

 $\operatorname{Hom}(V, W)$ is a vector space over \mathbb{F} , equipped with the following:

Addition $T_0 + T_1$ defines the function $T_0 + T_1 : V \to W$, where $(T_0 + T_1)(v) = T_0(v) + T_1(v)$, where $T_0, T_1 \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$.

Scalar Multiplication For $T \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$ and $a \in \mathbb{F}$, $a \times T$ defines the function $(aT) : V \to W$, where (aT)(v) = aT(v).

Zero Vector $\mathbb{O}_{\operatorname{Hom}(V,W)}$ is the function which takes $v \to \mathbb{O}_W$

2.8 Basis for Hom

Let V, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} , which have bases β, γ , respectively. The set $\{T_{v,w}: v \in \beta, w \in \gamma\}$ is a basis for $\operatorname{Hom}(V, W)$, where $T_{v,w}$ is the unique transformation such that $T_{v,w}(v') = w$ for all $v' \in \beta \setminus \{v\}$.

If V, W are finite dimensional, then $\dim(\operatorname{Hom}(V,W)) = \dim(V) \cdot \dim(W)$.

PROPOSITION 2.9

Let $\beta = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$, $\gamma = \{w_1, ..., w_m\}$. Then $\{T_{v_i, w_j} : i \in [1, n], j \in [1, m]\}$ is a basis for Hom(V, W) by the theorem above. This has $n \cdot m$ elements. \square

PROOF.

MATRICES

We wish to characterize a transformation $T: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$ in matrix form. Given T, we know it's uniquely determined by its values on the standard basis for \mathbb{F}^n , $\operatorname{St}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$. Thus, T is uniquely determined by the ordered set

$$\{T(e_1), ..., T(e_n)\} \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m$$

Each $T(e_i)$ is a vector in \mathbb{F}^m , so we can represent it as $\langle a_{i1}, ..., a_{im} \rangle$, where $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{F}$. Thus, form the following matrix of column vectors:

$$[T] := \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & \\ T(e_1) & T(e_2) & \cdots & T(e_n) \\ & & & & \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

We call this the *matrix representation* of *T* in the standard basis.

 $T(v) = [T] \cdot v$, where v is represented as a column vector, $\langle b_1, ..., b_n \rangle$, for $b_i \in \mathbb{F}$.

PROPOSITION 2.10

PROOF.

We have $v = b_1 e_1 + ... + b_n e_n$ in the standard basis. Then, $T(v) = b_1 T(e_1) + ... + b_n e_n$

 $b_n T(e_n)$, where $T(e_i) = \langle a_{i1}, ..., a_{im} \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m$. In column-vector form, this is:

$$T(v) = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 a_{11} + \dots + b_n a_{n1} \\ b_1 a_{12} + \dots + b_n a_{n2} \\ \vdots \\ b_1 a_{1m} + \dots + b_n a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{n1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1m} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = [T]v$$

In this way, matrices can act as linear transformations, but we would like to formalize this idea.

For a given $m \times n$ matrix A, define the function $L_A : \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m$ by $v \to A \cdot v$, where $v \in \mathbb{F}^n$. This is a linear transformation by the proposition above.

The function from $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n,\mathbb{F}^m)\to M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{F})$ defined by $T\to [T]$ is an isomorphism. Furthermore, its inverse $M_{m\times n}(\mathbb{F})\to \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n,\mathbb{F}^m)$ is $A\to L_A$.

Linearity: We need to first show $[T_1 + T_2] = [T_1] + [T_2]$ and [aT] = a[T] for $a \in \mathbb{F}$, $T \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$. Consider the standard basis for \mathbb{F}^n , $\text{St}_n = \{e_1, ..., e_n\}$. We have that

$$[T_{1} + T_{2}] = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & (T_{1} + T_{2})(e_{1}) & (T_{1} + T_{2})(e_{2}) & \cdots & (T_{1} + T_{2})(e_{n}) \\ & & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & & & & \\ & T_{1}(e_{1}) + T_{2}(e_{1}) & T_{1}(e_{2}) + T_{2}(e_{2}) & \cdots & T_{1}(e_{n}) + T_{2}(e_{n}) \\ & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & & & & \\ & T_{1}(e_{1}) & T_{1}(e_{2}) & \cdots & T_{1}(e_{n}) \\ & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & \\ & T_{2}(e_{1}) & T_{2}(e_{2}) & \cdots & T_{2}(e_{n}) \\ & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [T_{1}] + [T_{2}]$$

a[T] = [aT] is shown similarly.

Inverse: If an inverse exists for $T \rightarrow [T]$, then it is bijective; as linearity has

Proposition 2.10 established that every transformation T can be represented in matrix form. One can work backwards, too: given a matrix A, one forms the unique tranformation that sends $e_i \rightarrow A^{(j)}$, the $j^{\rm th}$ column of A.

PROPOSITION 2.11

PROOF.

been shown, this is sufficient to show isomorphism by Prop. 2.1.

Consider the composition $T \to [T] \to L_{[T]}$. One sees $L_{[T]}(v) = [T] \cdot v = T(v)$ by definition, so this is precisely the identity on $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$.

Now we need to show $A \to L_A \to [L_A]$ is the identity on $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$. Consider the j^{th} column of $[L_A]$. This is the result of $L_A(e_j)$, which is $A \cdot e_j$. Thus:

As a corollary, we get that $\dim(\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n,\mathbb{F}^m)) = \dim(M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F}))$

PROPOSITION 2.12

Matrix Representations in Generality

Thus far we've considered matrix representations in \mathbb{F}^n , \mathbb{F}^m , but we can do so for general vector spaces V, W.

Let V be finite dimensional over \mathbb{F} , and $\beta = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis for V. Recall the set $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ for which $a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n = v$ is the unique representation of V in β . We call this set the *coordinates* of v in β . Represented as a column vector, define

$$[v]_{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^n$$

to be the *coordinate vector* of v in β .

Recall that, in the proof that all n-dimensional vector spaces V are isomorphic to \mathbb{F}^n , we used the transformation $T(v_i) = e_i$. We denote this function by $I_\beta : V \to \mathbb{F}^n$. For any $v \in V$, we have

$$I_{\beta}(v) = I_{\beta}(a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n) = a_1I(v_1) + \dots + a_nI(v_n) = a_1e_1 + \dots + a_ne_n = [v]_{\beta}$$

Thus, $I_{\beta}: V \to \mathbb{F}^n$ which sends $v \to [v]_{\beta}$ is an isomorphism.

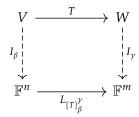
Suppose we are given $T: V \to W$, where V and W are both finite dimensional. Let $\beta = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ and $\gamma = \{w_1, ..., w_m\}$ be bases of V and W, respectively. We know that T is determined by its values on β . Thus, we can encode T in matrix-form,

where the i^{th} column corresponds to $[T(v_i)]_{\gamma} \in \mathbb{F}^m$, as follows:

We call this the *matrix representation* of *T* from $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$.

2.9 Relation Between V, W, \mathbb{F}^n , and \mathbb{F}^m

Let V, W be of dimension n and m with bases β and γ , respectively. Let $T:V\to W$ be a linear transformation. Then the following diagram commutes:



Furthermore, the function $\operatorname{Hom}(V,W) \to M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ that maps $T \to [T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}$ is an isomorphism whose inverse is the map $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \to \operatorname{Hom}(V,W)$ which maps $A \to I^{-1}_{\gamma} \circ L_A \circ I_{\beta}$

To show the diagram commutes, we essentially prove $I_{\gamma} \circ T = L_{[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}} \circ I_{\beta}$. We have $I_{\gamma} \circ T(v) = [T(v)]_{\gamma}$, applying definitions. On the other hand,

$$L_{[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}} \circ I_{\beta}(v) = L_{[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}}([v]_{\beta}) = [T]^{\gamma}_{\beta} \cdot [v]_{\beta}$$

Thus, we need to show that $[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta} \cdot [v]_{\beta} = [T(v)]_{\gamma}$. To do so, write $[v]_{\beta} = \langle a_1, ..., a_n \rangle \in \mathbb{F}^n$, and recall that

PROOF.

Then we can write

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \cdot [v]_{\beta} = a_1 [T(v_1)]_{\gamma} + \dots + a_n [T(v_n)]_{\gamma}$$

$$= [a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n)]_{\gamma} \qquad \text{by linearity of } I_{\gamma}$$

$$= [T(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n)]_{\gamma} \qquad \text{by linearity of } T$$

$$= [T(v)]_{\gamma} \qquad \text{and we are done} \quad \Box$$

Compositions and Matrix Multiplication

Recall the composition of functions $T:V\to W$, $S:W\to X$, written as $S\circ T(v)=S(T(v))$. Compositions are associative: for functions $T\to S\to R$, we have $(R\circ S)\circ T=(R\circ S)(T(v))=R(S(T(v)))=R(S\circ T(v))=R\circ (S\circ T(v))$.

By function, we don't just mean linear transformations

Consider the two linear maps $L_A: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m$, $L_B: \mathbb{F}^m \to \mathbb{F}^l$. Then the composition $L_B \circ L_A$ is itself a linear combination, and is equal to $L_C: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^l$ for some matrix $C \in M_{l \times n}(\mathbb{F})$. This unknown C is precisely $[L_B \circ L_A]$, by definition.

For two matrices *A* and *B*, define their product $B \cdot A$ to be $[L_B \circ L_A]$.

 $L_B \circ L_A = L_{B \cdot A}$. The proof for this follows immediately from $[L_B \circ L_A] = B \cdot A$.

Matrix multiplication is associative.

One can work out, explicitly, what $[L_B \circ L_A]$ is, and see that it agrees with our usual notion for $B \cdot A$ PROPOSITION 2.13

PROPOSITION 2.14

PROPOSITION 2.15

i.e. takes $x \rightarrow x$

$$C(BA) = C \cdot [L_B \circ L_A] = [L_C \circ (L_B \circ L_A)] = [(L_C \circ L_B) \circ L_A] = (CB)A \qquad \Box$$

PROOF.

For V, W, U finite-dimensional, with bases α, β, γ , respectively, and transformations $T: V \to W, S: W \to U$, we have the similar statement $[S \circ T]^{\gamma}_{\alpha} = [S]^{\gamma}_{\beta} \cdot [T]^{\beta}_{\alpha}$.

Where $T := L_A$ and $S := L_B$ as above, this is equivalent to saying $[L_B \circ L_A] = B \cdot A$, which has been shown.

INVARIANTS AND NILPOTENT TRANSFORMATIONS

Preliminaries

For a function $f: X \to Y$, we call $g: Y \to X$

- 1. a *left inverse* if $g \circ f = I_X$, the identity on X
- 2. a *right inverse* if $f \circ g = I_Y$, the identity on Y
- 3. an *inverse* if *g* is both a left and right inverse

Sometimes called a two-sided inverse

Also consider the following facts, whose proofs are good exercise:

- 1. f has a left inverse \iff f is injective
- 2. f has a right inverse \iff f is surjective

3. f has an inverse \iff f is bijective

Examples:

- 1. $\delta : \mathbb{F}[t]_{n+1} \to \mathbb{F}[t]_n$, the derivative of polynomials, has a right inverse, namely the anti-derivative.
- 2. Let $f: \mathbb{F}[[t]] \to \mathbb{F}[[t]]$ be the left shift map of coefficients, i.e. $\sum_{0}^{\infty} a_n t^t \to \sum_{0}^{\infty} a_n t^{n-1}$. This has a right inverse, namely the right shift map of coefficients, $\sum_{0}^{\infty} a_n t^n \to \sum_{0}^{\infty} a_n t^{n+1}$. Recall that $\mathbb{F}[[t]]$ is the set of formal power series.

PROPOSITION 2.16

Let $T:V\to W$ be a transformation of vector spaces of the same (finite) dimension. Then TFAE:

T has a right inverse

T has a left inverse

T has an inverse

PROOF.

This follows directly from Prop. 2.7, which states that transformations over n dimensional spaces are surjective IFF injective

Proposition 2.17

Recall that an $n \times n$ dimensional matrix A is called invertible IFF there exists B such that $A \cdot B = B \cdot A = I$, the identity matrix. One notates $B = A^{-1}$.

- 1. L_A is invertible \iff A is invertible, in which case $L_A^{-1} = L_{A^{-1}}$.
- 2. A is invertible \iff it has a left inverse \iff it has a right inverse.

PROOF.

 L_A is invertible \iff there exists $T: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^n$ such that $L_A \circ T = T \circ L_A = I_{\mathbb{F}^n} \iff \exists B \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ with $L_A \circ L_B = L_B \circ L_A = I_{\mathbb{F}^n} \iff \exists B \text{ s.t. } L_{AB} = L_{BA} = I_{\mathbb{F}^n} \iff \exists B \text{ s.t. } AB = BA = [I]$, and [I] is the identity matrix (this last bit has not been previously shown, but the verification is easy).

This shows (1), and (2) follows directly.

T-Invariants

Let $T:V\to V$ be a linear transformation over a vector space V. Transformations of this form are sometimes called *linear operators*. A subspace $W\subseteq V$ is called T invariant if $T(W)\subseteq W$.

i.e., you can apply *T* to *W* an indeterminate amount of times, and it will always remain as a subset of itself.

Examples:

For (1), note that $T(\operatorname{Im}(T)) \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(T)$ by definition, and $T(\ker(T)) = \mathbb{O}_V \in \ker(T)$

1. For $T: V \to V$, both $\ker(T)$ and $\operatorname{Im}(T)$ are T-invariant

2. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $T^n := \underbrace{T \circ T \circ ... \circ T}_{n \text{ times}}$, $\ker(T^n)$ is T-invariant.

Proof to come