

Honours

Linear Algebra II

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1. SOME ALGEBRAIC BACKGROUND

In MAT2042, one has studied vector spaces over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . One main goal of this course is to generalize the theories to other algebraic structures other than \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . We will roughly go through the very basics of abstract algebras, and give a definition of a field.

1.1. Groups. When one talks about algebraic structure, we would think of addition $a + b$ and multiplication $a \cdot b$. In general, we make the following definition:

Definition 1.1.1. Let S be a set. A **binary operation** S is a map

$$* : S \times S \rightarrow S.$$

A subset $T \subseteq S$ is **closed under** $*$ if for all $a, b \in T$, $a * b \in T$.

Definition 1.1.2. A **group** G is a set along with a binary operation $* : G \times G \rightarrow G$ satisfying:

- $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$;
- There exists $e \in G$ such that $e * g = g * e = g$ for all $g \in G$.
- For all $g \in G$, there exists $g^{-1} \in G$ such that $g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = e$.

Example 1.1.3. (1) $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, $(\mathbb{C}, +)$ are groups.

(2) $(\mathbb{R}[x], +)$ is a group.

(3) (Modular arithmetic) $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ is a group.

(4) $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a group.

(5) $(GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is a group.

Definition 1.1.4. A group $(G, *)$ is called **abelian/commutative** if

$$a * b = b * a$$

for all $a, b \in G$.

Example 1.1.5. $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, $(\mathbb{C}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}[x], +)$, $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ are commutative, but $(GL_n(\mathbb{R}), \cdot)$ is not commutative.

1.2. Rings. Now we study algebraic structure with both addition and multiplication structures:

Definition 1.2.1. A **ring** $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a set with two binary operations $+, \cdot : R \times R \rightarrow R$ such that:

- $(R, +)$ is an abelian group;
- $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$;
- $(a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$ and $c \cdot (a + b) = c \cdot a + c \cdot b$ for all $a, b, c \in R$;

Example 1.2.2. (1) $(R, +, \cdot)$ with $R = \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}_n, \mathbb{R}[x]$ are rings.

- (2) $(2\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.
- (3) For all rings R , $(M_{n \times n}(R), +, \cdot)$ (here \cdot is matrix multiplication) is a ring.

Note that (R, \cdot) is not necessarily a group. For instance, $2\mathbb{Z}$ does not have a multiplicative identity $1 \notin 2\mathbb{Z}$.

In this course, we will focus on the following kind of rings:

Definition 1.2.3. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring. We say R is

- **unital** if there exists $1_R \in R$ such that $1;$
- **commutative** if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all $a, b \in R;$

Example 1.2.4. (1) $(R, +, \cdot)$ with $R = \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}_n, \mathbb{R}[x]$ are unital and commutative.

- (2) $2\mathbb{Z}$ is not unital but commutative.
- (3) $M_{n \times n}(R)$ is unital if R is unital. However, it is always not commutative for $n > 1$.

Note that if $R \neq \{0\}$, then (R, \cdot) is never a group: To begin with, since $(R, +)$ is a(n abelian) group, it must have the additive identity element $0 \in R$. On the other hand, suppose on contrary that (R, \cdot) is a group, then it must be unital and contain the multiplicative identity $1 \in R$. However, there exists no $a \in R$ such that

$$0 = 0 \cdot a = a \cdot 0 = 1$$

otherwise one has $0 = r \cdot 0 = r \cdot 1 = r$ for all $r \in R$.

1.3. Fields. Now we can make precise which algebraic objects we can generalize from \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} for vector spaces:

Definition 1.3.1. Let $(\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$ be a unital commutative ring. We say \mathbb{F} is a **field** if for all $a \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$, there exists $a^{-1} \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$ such that

$$a \cdot a^{-1} = 1.$$

The **characteristic** of \mathbb{F} is the smallest positive number $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) = p$ such that

$$\overbrace{1 + 1 + \cdots + 1}^{p \text{ terms}} = 0$$

(if no such number exists, then we let $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) = 0$).

Example 1.3.2. (1) \mathbb{Z} is not a field since $\frac{1}{5} = 5^{-1}$ does not exist in \mathbb{Z} .

- (2) \mathbb{Z}_6 is not a field for a slightly different reason - $[5] \cdot [5] = [25] = [1]$ in \mathbb{Z}_6 , so $[5]^{-1} = [5]$ has an inverse. However, $[2]^{-1}$ does not exist.

- (3) $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are fields.

- (4) *In general, \mathbb{Z}_p is a field if and only if p is a prime number. Indeed, for any $[a] \neq [0]$, one has $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ and by Bezout's theorem, there exists integers $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$1 = ar + ps$$

and hence

$$[1] = [a] \cdot [r] + [p] \cdot [s] = [a] \cdot [r] + [0] \cdot [s] = [a] \cdot [r],$$

that is, $[a]^{-1} = [r]$. In such a case, $\text{char}(\mathbb{Z}_p) = p$.

In the Homework set, you will construct a field \mathbb{F} with 9 elements. In general, all \mathbb{F} with finitely many elements must have

$$|\mathbb{F}| = p^r$$

for some prime number p , with $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) = p$.

2. VECTOR SPACES

2.1. Definition of vector space.

Definition 2.1.1 (Vector Space). *Let \mathbb{F} be a field. A vector space V over \mathbb{F} is a set equipped with two operations*

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V \text{ (addition)} \quad \text{and} \quad \cdot : \mathbb{F} \times V \rightarrow V \text{ (scalar multiplication)}$$

such that the following holds:

- *Additive axioms - For every $x, y, z \in V$, we have*
 - (1) $x + y = y + x$.
 - (2) $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$.
 - (3) *There exists $\mathbf{0} \in V$ such that $\mathbf{0} + x = x + \mathbf{0} = x$.*
 - (4) *There exists $-x \in V$ such that $(-x) + x = x + (-x) = \mathbf{0}$.*
- *Multiplicative axioms - For every $x \in V$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$, we have*
 - (1) $0 \cdot x = \mathbf{0}$
 - (2) $1 \cdot x = x$
 - (3) $(\alpha\beta) \cdot x = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot x)$
- *Distributive axioms - For every $x, y \in V$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$, we have*
 - (1) $\alpha \cdot (x + y) = \alpha \cdot x + \alpha \cdot y$.
 - (2) $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot x = \alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot x$.

Example 2.1.2. (1) \mathbb{F}^n (all n -vectors) is a vector space over \mathbb{F} ;

(2) $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ (all $m \times n$ -matrices) is a vector space over \mathbb{F} ;

(3) $\mathbb{R}[x]$, $C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ are vector spaces over \mathbb{R} ;

(4) $V_1 := \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) \mid \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

(5) $V_2 := \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) \in V_1 \mid \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_i = 0\}$ is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

(6) $V_3 := \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) \in V_2 \mid \text{only finitely many } \alpha_i \text{ are nonzero}\}$ is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Definition 2.1.3 (Vector Subspace). *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} with addition $+$ and scalar multiplication \cdot . A subset $W \leq V$ is a vector subspace if the operations satisfy:*

$$+|_{W \times W} : W \times W \rightarrow W, \quad \cdot|_{\mathbb{F} \times W} : \mathbb{F} \times W \rightarrow W,$$

i.e. for all $w_1, w_2 \in W$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$, $w_1 + w_2 \in W$ and $\alpha \cdot w_1 \in W$.

The following proposition, proved in MAT2042, gives a necessary and sufficient condition for any subset of a vector space is a vector subspace:

Proposition 2.1.4. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , a subset W of V is a vector subspace if and only if*

$$\text{for all } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F} \text{ and all } w_1, w_2 \in W, \alpha w_1 + \beta w_2 \in W.$$

Example 2.1.5. (1) (MAT2042) In $V = \mathbb{F}^n$, all vector subspaces are of the form $W = \text{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ for some vectors $v_i \in \mathbb{F}^n$.

(2) In $V = \mathbb{F}[x]$, the subset

$$W = \{p(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x] \mid p(x) = p(-x)\}$$

is a vector subspace.

(3) In $V = C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$, the subset

$$W = \{f(x) \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \mid f'(1) = f''(2) = 0\}$$

is a vector subspace.

(4) $V_3 \leq V_2 \leq V_1$ in the Example 2.1.2 above.

(5) If $\{W_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a collection of vector subspaces of V , then

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} W_i \leq V$$

is also a vector subspace.

2.2. Basis and Dimension. We will briefly go through some well-known notions in MAT2042.

Definition 2.2.1. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $S \subseteq V$ is a (not necessarily finite) subset. We say

- $v \in V$ is a **linear combination** of S if v can be expressed as

$$v = \alpha_1 s_1 + \dots + \alpha_k s_k$$

for some $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{F}$, $s_1, \dots, s_k \in S$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, the above sum must be finite even when S is infinite.

- The **span** of S is the collection of linear combinations of S :

$$\text{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S) = \{\alpha_1 s_1 + \dots + \alpha_k s_k \mid \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}, s_i \in S, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

- S **spans** V (or S is a **spanning set** of V) if $V = \text{Span}(S)$.
- S is **linear independent** if for any finite subset $\{s_1, \dots, s_n\} \subseteq S$,

$$\alpha_1 s_1 + \dots + \alpha_n s_n = \mathbf{0} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0.$$

- S is a **basis** of V if S is a spanning set of V and S is linearly independent.

Note that in the definition of linear combination of S , the sum must be finite.

Example 2.2.2. (1) $V = \mathbb{F}[x]$, and $S = \{x^i \mid i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$, then

$$e + \frac{1}{\pi} x^3 + \pi^e x^5 \in \text{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S), \quad 1 + x + x^2 + \dots \notin \text{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S).$$

(2) $V = V_1$ be given in Example 2.1.2, and $\mathcal{B} = \{e_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ where

$$e_i := (0, \dots, 0, \overbrace{1}^{i \text{ entry}}, 0, \dots).$$

Then S is linearly independent in V_1 , and $\text{Span}(S) = V_3 < V_1$.

Here are some examples of basis of some vector spaces V :

- Example 2.2.3.** (1) For $V = \mathbb{F}^n$, the **canonical basis** $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is a basis of V .
 (2) For $V = M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$, $\{E_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ (here E_{ij} is the matrix with 1 on the (i, j) -entry and 0 on the other entries) is a basis of V .
 (3) For $V = \mathbb{F}[x]$, $\{x^i \mid i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$ is a basis of V .
 (4) As in Example 2.1.2(2), \mathcal{B} is a basis of V_3 but not a basis of V_1 .

The importance of basis is given by the following:

Theorem 2.2.4. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $\mathcal{B} \subseteq V$ is a subset. Then

\mathcal{B} is a basis of V iff all $v \in V$ can be **uniquely** expressed by a element in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$.

Proof. We first explain what it means for a vector $v \in V$ to be **uniquely** expressed by a element in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$: Namely, if

$$(1) \quad v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = \beta_1 v'_1 + \dots + \beta_m v'_m$$

for some *nonzero* $\alpha_i, \beta_j \in \mathbb{F}$ and $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \{v'_1, \dots, v'_m\} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ has no repeated elements, then one has

(1) $n = m$, and

(2) after some reordering of the indices, one has $v_i = v'_i$ and $\alpha_i = \beta_i$ for all i .

(\Rightarrow) If \mathcal{B} is a basis of V , then by definition all $v \in V$ is in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$. As for uniqueness, suppose (1) holds. Then by reordering the indices, we assume that

$$\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \cap \{v'_1, \dots, v'_m\} = \{v_1 = v'_1, \dots, v_k = v'_k\}.$$

and by subtraction, one has

$$(\alpha_1 - \beta_1)v_1 + \dots + (\alpha_k - \beta_k)v_k + \alpha_{k+1}v_{k+1} + \dots + \alpha_nv_n + (-\beta_{k+1})v'_{k+1} + \dots + (-\beta_m)v'_m = \mathbf{0}$$

Now by applying linear independence of \mathcal{B} on the finite subset

$$\{v_1 = v'_1, \dots, v_k = v'_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n, v'_{k+1}, \dots, v'_m\},$$

the above equation only has zero solutions

$$\alpha_1 - \beta_1 = \dots = \alpha_k - \beta_k = 0$$

and $\alpha_{k+1} = \dots \alpha_n = \beta_{k+1} = \dots = \beta_m = 0$. But the latter is impossible since we assume that all $\alpha_i, \beta_j \neq 0$, so one must have $m = n = k$, and

$$\alpha_i = \beta_i \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq i \leq k.$$

(\Leftarrow) If all $v \in V$ can be expressed by elements in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$, then \mathcal{B} is obviously a spanning set. Now suppose on contrary that \mathcal{B} is **not** linearly independent, then there exists $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ and $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$ not all zeros such that

$$\gamma_1 b_1 + \dots + \gamma_n b_n = \mathbf{0}$$

By reordering the indices in the above expression, we assume $\gamma_1 \neq 0$ without loss of generality. Then

$$v := b_1 = \left(-\frac{\gamma_2}{\gamma_1}\right)b_2 + \dots + \left(-\frac{\gamma_n}{\gamma_1}\right)b_n$$

are two different expressions of v in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$, a contradiction. Hence \mathcal{B} is both a spanning set and linearly independent, and form a basis of V . \square

The following theorem are given in MAT2042 in the finite dimensional case:

Theorem 2.2.5. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . Then the following holds:*

- (1) V has a basis.
- (2) (*Basis Extension Theorem*) Let \mathcal{L} be a linearly independent set in V , then one can extend \mathcal{L} to $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{L} \sqcup \mathcal{L}'$ such that \mathcal{B} is a basis of V .
- (3) Let \mathcal{S} be a linearly independent set in V , then there exists a subset $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ such that \mathcal{B} is a basis of V .
- (4) All bases of V have the same cardinality.

In this course, the **cardinality** of any set is equal to one of the following three possibilities:

- a finite number $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- infinity ∞ (and countable);
- infinity ∞ (and **uncountable**)

Given the last statement of the theorem above, we have:

Definition 2.2.6. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . Then the **dimension** $\dim(V)$ of V is the cardinality of any basis of V .*

Example 2.2.7. (1) $\dim(\mathbb{F}^n) = n$;

(2) $\dim(M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})) = mn$;

(3) $\dim(\mathbb{F}[x]) = \infty$ (and countable).

(4) For V_3 in Example 2.1.2, $\dim(V_3) = \infty$ (and countable).

(5) $\dim(C^\infty(\mathbb{R})) = \infty$ (and uncountable). Note that $\mathcal{L} = \{e^{rx} \mid r \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is a linearly independent set in $\dim(C^\infty(\mathbb{R}))$.

2.3. Internal Direct Sum. In the following sections, we will give some constructions of new vector spaces from old ones.

Definition 2.3.1 (Internal Sum). *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $\{W_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector subspaces of V . The **internal sum** is defined by:*

$$\sum_{i \in I} W_i := \{w_{i_1} + \cdots + w_{i_k} \mid w_{i_l} \in W_{i_l}, \{i_1, \dots, i_k\} \subseteq I, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

Note that $\sum_{i \in I} W_i$ is a vector subspace of V , and if \mathcal{S}_i spans W_i for all $i \in I$, then $\bigcup_{i \in I} \mathcal{S}_i$ spans $\sum_{i \in I} W_i$. However, if \mathcal{L}_i is linearly independent in W_i for all $i \in I$, then $\bigcup_{i \in I} \mathcal{L}_i$ may not be linearly independent.

To see so, let $V = \mathbb{R}^3$, $W_1 = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ and $W_2 = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$.

Then $W_1 + W_2 = V$ but $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is linearly dependent.

Definition 2.3.2. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $\{W_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector subspaces of V . We say $\sum_{i \in I} W_i = \bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i$ is a **direct internal sum** if for any $\{i_1, \dots, i_k\} \subseteq I$ and any $w_{i_l} \in W_{i_l}$,*

$$w_{i_1} + \cdots + w_{i_k} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad w_{i_1} = \cdots = w_{i_k} = \mathbf{0}.$$

In the paragraph above the definition, one has

$$w_1 := \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W_1, \quad w_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = (-1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in W_2$$

with $w_1 + w_2 = \mathbf{0}$ yet $w_1, w_2 \neq \mathbf{0}$. So the sum $W_1 + W_2$ is **not** direct.

More generally, for **two** vector subspaces $W_1, W_2 \leq V$, one can check from that above definition that

$$W_1 + W_2 = W_1 \oplus W_2$$

iff $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{\mathbf{0}\}$.

Theorem 2.3.3. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $\{W_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector subspaces of V such that $\bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i$ is a direct sum. Suppose \mathcal{B}_i is a basis of W_i , then*

$$\mathcal{B} = \bigsqcup_{i \in I} \mathcal{B}_i$$

is a basis of $\bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i$.

Proof. To begin with, we show that all $v \in V$ can be uniquely written as elements of the form $w_{i_1} + \cdots + w_{i_k}$ for some $w_{i_l} \in W_{i_l}$. Indeed, suppose

$$v = w_{i_1} + \cdots + w_{i_n} = w'_{j_1} + \cdots + w'_{j_m},$$

for some nonzero vectors $w_{\bullet} \in W_{\bullet}$. Then by reordering the indices and subtraction as in the proof of Theorem 2.2.4, one assumes that

$$\{i_1, \dots, i_n\} \cap \{j_1, \dots, j_m\} = \{i_1 = j_1, \dots, i_k = j_k\}$$

and

$$\mathbf{0} = (w_{i_1} - w'_{j_1}) + \cdots + (w_{i_k} - w'_{j_k}) + w_{i_{k+1}} + \cdots + w_{i_n} - w'_{j_{k+1}} - \cdots - w_{j_m},$$

where each term in the summand is in the same vector subspace $W_{\bullet} \leq V$. By the definition of direct internal sum, all the summand in the above equation must be $\mathbf{0}$, and one must have $m = n = k$ and $w_{i_1} = w'_{j_1}, \dots, w_{i_k} = w'_{j_k}$.

Now we proceed to proving that \mathcal{B} is a basis. In view of Theorem 2.2.4, it suffices to show that all $v \in V$ can be uniquely written as an element in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$. By definition of direct internal sum, it is obvious that $v \in \text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$. Moreover, in such a case, one has

$$v = b_{i_1} + \cdots + b_{i_k}, \quad b_{i_l} \in \text{Span}(\mathcal{B}_{i_l}).$$

But $b_{i_l} \in \text{Span}(\mathcal{B}_{i_l}) = W_{i_l}$, so the arguments in the beginning of the proof implies that the W_{i_l} 's appearing in the summand of v is unique, and each $b_{i_l} \in W_{i_l}$ is uniquely determined. Furthermore, the expression of each b_{i_l} by the linear combination of \mathcal{B}_{i_l} is also unique since it is a basis of W_{i_l} . So the expression of v in terms of $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$ is unique, and the result follows. \square

As an immediate consequence of the above theorem, one has:

Corollary 2.3.4. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $\{W_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector subspaces of V such that $\bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i$ is a direct sum. Then*

$$\dim \left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i \right) = \sum_{i \in I} \dim(W_i)$$

(here we do not distinguish countable and uncountable ∞).

2.4. External Direct Sum.

Definition 2.4.1. *Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . The external direct sum is defined by*

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i := \{f : I \rightarrow \cup_{i \in I} V_i \mid f(i) \in V_i \text{ such that only finitely many } f(i) \text{ is nonzero}\}.$$

The addition and scalar multiplication on $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ is given by:

- If $f, g \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$, then $f + g \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ is defined by $(f + g)(i) := f(i) + g(i)$ for all $i \in I$.
- If $f \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$, then $\alpha f \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ is defined by $(\alpha f)(i) := \alpha(f(i))$ for all $i \in I$.

and the zero vector $\mathbf{0}$ is given by $\mathbf{0}(i) := \mathbf{0}_{V_i}$ for all $i \in I$.

Remark 2.4.2. • Any $f \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ is uniquely determined by the image $f(i) \in V_i$ of f . For example, if $I = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is a finite set, we can write:

$$f \longleftrightarrow (\overbrace{f(1)}^{\in V_1}, \overbrace{f(2)}^{\in V_2}, \dots, \overbrace{f(n)}^{\in V_n})$$

or if $I = \mathbb{N}$, we can write:

$$f \longleftrightarrow (f(1), f(2), \dots)$$

Informally, we will interpret $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ as:

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \longleftrightarrow \{(\dots, \overbrace{v_i}^{\text{position } i}, \dots) \mid v_i \in V_i, \text{ only finitely many } v_i \text{ not equal to } \mathbf{0}_{V_i}\}$$

- If I is a finite set, then there only finitely many $f(i)$'s, and hence the condition that only finitely many $f(i) \neq \mathbf{0}_{V_i}$ is vacuous.
- Under the above interpretation of $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$, if

$$u \longleftrightarrow (\dots, u_i, \dots, u_j, \dots), \quad v \longleftrightarrow (\dots, v_i, \dots, v_j, \dots)$$

Then the addition and scalar multiplication given by the definition above can be understood as:

$$u + v \longleftrightarrow (\dots, u_i + v_i, \dots, u_j + v_j, \dots), \quad \alpha u \longleftrightarrow (\dots, \alpha u_i, \dots, \alpha u_j, \dots).$$

Example 2.4.3. Let $I = \mathbb{N}$ and $V_i = \mathbb{R}$ for all i . Then

$$\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R} \longleftrightarrow \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) \mid \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ only finitely many } \alpha_i \neq 0\}$$

is isomorphic to V_3 given in Example 2.1.2 (we have not defined what isomorphism means in this course, but you should know what it is about in MAT2042).

The condition that $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ allows only finitely many nonzero element seems artificial, but it is natural in the sense that one only allows a finite sum for linear combination and the definition of internal sum. In particular, it is essential for the following:

Theorem 2.4.4. Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Suppose $\mathcal{B}_i := \{b_i^j \mid j \in J_i\}$ is a basis of V_i for each i , consider $f_i^j \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ given by

$$f_i^j(k) := \begin{cases} b_i^j & \text{if } k = i \\ \mathbf{0}_{V_k} & \text{if } k \neq i \end{cases}$$

(Informally, one can interpret $f_i^j \longleftrightarrow (\dots, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \overbrace{b_i^j}^{\text{position } i}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}, \dots)$). Then

$$\mathcal{B} := \{f_i^j \mid i \in I, j \in J_i\}$$

is a basis of $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$.

Proof. For linear independence, suppose $(i_1, j_1), \dots, (i_k, j_k)$ be such that $j_l \in J_{i_l}$ for all l , consider

$$\alpha_i f_{i_1}^{j_1} + \dots + \alpha_i f_{i_k}^{j_k} = \mathbf{0}.$$

For each $1 \leq l \leq k$, write $i_l := \iota$. Suppose

$$\{l' \mid i_{l'} = \iota\} = \{l, x_1, \dots, x_m\}$$

Then one has

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha_i f_{i_1}^{j_1} + \dots + \alpha_i f_{i_k}^{j_k})(\iota) &= \mathbf{0}(\iota) \\ \alpha_l f_\iota^{j_l}(\iota) + \alpha_{x_1} f_\iota^{j_{x_1}}(\iota) + \dots + \alpha_{x_m} f_\iota^{j_{x_m}}(\iota) &= \mathbf{0}_{V_\iota} \\ \alpha_l b_\iota^{j_l} + \alpha_{x_1} b_\iota^{j_{x_1}} + \dots + \alpha_{x_m} b_\iota^{j_{x_m}} &= \mathbf{0}_{V_\iota} \end{aligned}$$

But $\{b_\iota^j \mid j \in J_\iota\}$ is a basis of V_ι , hence it is linearly independent, and hence $(\alpha_{x_1} = \dots = \alpha_{x_m} =) \alpha_l = 0$. Note that we can apply the same argument for all $1 \leq l \leq k$, so one has $\alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_k = 0$.

As for spanning set, consider $f \in \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$. By definition of direct external sum, the set

$$\{i \in I \mid f(i) \neq \mathbf{0}_{V_i}\} = \{i_1, \dots, i_k\}$$

is finite, with

$$f(i_l) = \alpha_{l,1} b_{i_l}^{j_{l,1}} + \dots + \alpha_{l,n_l} b_{i_l}^{j_{l,n_l}} \in V_{i_l} = \text{Span}(\mathcal{B}_{i_l})$$

Then one can check that

$$f = (\alpha_{1,1} f_{i_1}^{j_{1,1}} + \dots + \alpha_{1,n_1} f_{i_1}^{j_{1,n_1}}) + \dots + (\alpha_{k,1} f_{i_k}^{j_{k,1}} + \dots + \alpha_{k,n_k} f_{i_k}^{j_{k,n_k}})$$

is in $\text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$ (note that it is a finite sum). \square

Corollary 2.4.5. Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Then

$$\dim\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i\right) = \sum_{i \in I} \dim(V_i).$$

2.5. External Direct Product. As we discussed before, one may remove the finitely many nonzero condition. In such a case, we have

Definition 2.5.1. Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . The **external direct product** is defined by

$$\prod_{i \in I} V_i := \{f : I \rightarrow \cup_{i \in I} V_i \mid f(i) \in V_i\}.$$

The addition, scalar multiplication and $\mathbf{0}$ on $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ is given exactly as in that of external direct sum.

Example 2.5.2. The vector

$$v := (1, 1, \dots) \in \prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R}$$

but is not in $\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R}$. More generally, one has $V_1 \cong \prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R}$ for the V_1 defined in Example 2.1.2.

Also, by the discussions in Section 2.4, the set $\mathcal{B} := \{f_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ given by

$$f_i(k) := \delta_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = k \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq k \end{cases}$$

is a basis of $\bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R}$ (informally, $f_i = (0, \dots, 0, \overset{i\text{-position}}{\widehat{1}}, 0, \dots)$). However, \mathcal{B} is only linearly independent but not a spanning set in $\prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R}$ - namely

v “=” $f_1 + f_2 + \dots$ is an infinite sum, so $v \notin \text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$.

2.6. Quotient Spaces. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $W \leq V$. Define an equivalence relationship \sim by

$$v \sim v' \iff v - v' \in W.$$

The equivalence class with representative $v \in V$ is defined by

$$v + W := \{v' \in V \mid v' \sim v\}$$

We call $v + W$ a **coset with representative v** .

Proposition 2.6.1. Let $v + W, u + W$ be cosets.

- $v + W = \{v + w \mid w \in W\}$.
- As subsets of V , either $(v + W) = (u + W)$ are equal or $(v + W) \cap (u + W) = \phi$ are disjoint.
- $(v + W) = (u + W)$ iff $u = v + w$ for some $w \in W$.

Example 2.6.2. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^3$, $W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$ be the xy -plane. Then

the coset $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} + W$ is the horizontal plane in \mathbb{R}^3 elevated/lowered to level c . In particular, one has

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + W = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 10 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + W = \begin{pmatrix} \pi \\ e \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + W.$$

Definition 2.6.3. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $W \leq V$. The **quotient space** V/W is defined by the set of cosets:

$$V/W := \{v + W \mid v \in V\}$$

(i.e. a ‘vector’ in $v + W \in V/W$ is a coset), with addition and scalar multiplication given by

- $(v + W) + (u + W) := (v + u) + W$;
- $\alpha \cdot (v + W) := (\alpha v) + W$

Remark 2.6.4. Although the arithmetic is simple in V/W , one needs to be careful that one may have **different** expressions for the **same** element in V/W . In such a case, one needs to show that we get the same addition and scalar multiplication even if we use different representatives.

For instance, suppose $v + W = v' + W$ and $u + W = u' + W$ (for possibly $v \neq v'$ and $u \neq u'$, one needs to show that

$$(u + W) + (v + W) = (u' + W) + (v' + W).$$

One can apply Proposition 2.6.1 to verify this: [add the details here](#)

Example 2.6.5. (1) Let $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ and W is the xy -plane as in Example 2.6.2. We have seen that there are a lot of repetitions $v + W = v' + W$. But they are all be reduced to

$$V/W := \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ z \end{pmatrix} + W \mid z \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

and the operations are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ z_1 \end{pmatrix} + W \right) + \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} + W \right) &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ z_1 + z_2 \end{pmatrix} + W, \\ \alpha \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ z \end{pmatrix} + W \right) &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \alpha z \end{pmatrix} + W. \end{aligned}$$

So the space is ‘isomorphic’ (once again we have not defined it in this course yet) to \mathbb{R} .

- (2) Let $V = \mathbb{F}[x]$, and $W = \{p(x) \mid p(x) \text{ is divisible by } (x^2 + 1)\} = \{(x^2 + 1)q(x) \mid q(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]\}$ (check the latter is a vector subspace). Then the elements in V/W are of the form $p(x) + W$. To remove all repetitions, note that division algorithm of polynomials give

$$p(x) = (x^2 + 1)q(x) + r(x)$$

for $r(x) = ax + b$ of degree less than $2 = \deg(x^2 + 1)$. Then one has

$$p(x) + W = r(x) + \overbrace{(x^2 + 1)q(x)}^{\in W} + W = (ax + b) + W,$$

where the last equality comes from the last statement of Proposition 2.6.1. In other words,

$$V/W = \{(ax + b) + W \mid a, b \in \mathbb{F}\}$$

Note that $\{1 + W, x + W\}$ is a basis of V/W .

- (3) Let $V = \prod_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{R}$ and $W = \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) \in V \mid \alpha_1 = 0\}$. Then all $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) \in V$ can be written as

$$(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots) = (\alpha_1, 0, 0, \dots) + \overbrace{(0, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots)}^{\in W}$$

and hence one has

$$V/W = \{(\alpha, 0, 0, \dots) + W \mid \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

3. LINEAR TRANSFORMATION

3.1. Basic Definitions. The notion of linear transformation is the same as in MAT2042. We will quickly go through them in this section.

Definition 3.1.1 (Linear Transformation). *Let V and W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . A linear transformation from V to W is a map $T : V \rightarrow W$ satisfying:*

$$T(\alpha v_1 + \beta v_2) = \alpha T(v_1) + \beta T(v_2)$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ and $v_1, v_2 \in V$.

Example 3.1.2. (1) (matrix transformation) Let $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$, $T : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^m$ given by

$$T(x) := Ax$$

is a linear transformation.

(2) $T : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ given by

$$T(M) := M_{ij}$$

is a linear transformation.

(3) (trace) $tr : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ given by

$$tr(M) := M_{11} + \cdots + M_{nn}$$

is a linear transformation.

(4) (determinant is **not** linear) Let $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) = 0$ and $\det : M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ given by

$$\det(M) := \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n M_{i, \sigma(i)}$$

is **not** a linear transformation for $n \geq 2$, since $\det(2M) = 2^n \det(M) \neq 2 \det(M)$ in general.

(5) (differentiation) $D : C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ given by

$$D(f) := f'$$

is a linear transformation.

(6) (integration) $I : C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ given by

$$I(f) := \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

is a linear transformation.

Definition 3.1.3. Let V, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} .

- (1) The set of all linear transformations

$$\mathcal{L}(V, W) := \{T : V \rightarrow W \mid T \text{ is linear transformation}\}$$

has a vector space structure given by: for $T, S \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$,

- $(T + S) \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is defined by $(T + S)(v) := T(v) + S(v)$;
 - $\alpha T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is defined by $(\alpha T)(v) := \alpha(T(v))$.
- (2) If $W = V$, we write $\mathcal{L}(V) := \mathcal{L}(V, V)$, and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is called a **linear operator** of V .
- (3) If $W = \mathbb{F}$ (treated as a 1-dimensional vector space), we write $V^* := \mathcal{L}(V, \mathbb{F})$ the **dual vector space** of V . And $f \in V^*$ is called a **linear functional** of V .

The following theorem is well-known and has the same proof as in MAT2042:

Theorem 3.1.4. Let V, W, U be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} , and $T : V \rightarrow W$, $S : W \rightarrow U$ are linear transformations. Then the following holds:

- (1) $T(\mathbf{0}_V) = \mathbf{0}_W$.
- (2) The composition $S \circ T : V \rightarrow U$ is also a linear transformation.
- (3) Suppose T is bijective, then its inverse $T^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ is also a linear transformation. In such a case we call $V \cong W$ are **isomorphic**, and T is an **isomorphism** between V and W .
- (4) Let \mathcal{B} be a basis of V , then T is uniquely determined by the values

$$\{T(b) \mid b \in \mathcal{B}\}.$$

Remark 3.1.5. As a converse to the last statement of the above theorem, suppose $\mathcal{B} = \{b_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a basis of V , and $\{w_i \mid i \in I\}$ is any subset of W . Then one can define a linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow W$ given by

$$T(\alpha_1 b_{i_1} + \cdots + \alpha_k b_{i_k}) := \alpha_1 w_{i_1} + \cdots + \alpha_k w_{i_k}$$

for all $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{F}$ and all finite subset $\{i_1, \dots, i_k\} \subseteq I$. In particular, this is the unique linear transformation satisfying

$$T(b_i) = w_i$$

for all $i \in I$.

Definition 3.1.6 (Kernel and Image). [add details](#)

The following result should be well-known in MAT2042:

Theorem 3.1.7. Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation.

- (1) $\ker(T) \leq V$, $\text{im}(T) \leq W$.
- (2) T is injective iff $\ker(T) = \{\mathbf{0}_V\}$.
- (3) T is surjective iff $\text{im}(T) = W$.

Example 3.1.8. Suppose $\dim(V) = \dim(W) = n$ with $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ be bases of V and W respectively. Then $T : V \rightarrow W$ defined by

$$T(v_i) := w_i$$

(c.f. Remark 3.1.5) is an isomorphism of vector space by checking its kernel and image. The same result holds if $\dim(V)$ and $\dim(W)$ are of countable infinite dimension.

Conversely, if $T : V \rightarrow W$ is an isomorphism, then $\dim(V) = \dim(W)$. More precisely, if $\{b_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a basis of V , then one can check (in Homework) that $\{T(b_i) \mid i \in I\}$ is a basis of W .

Finally, we have an important theorem in MAT2042. We will give an alternative proof of it using quotient spaces.

Theorem 3.1.9 (Rank-Nullity Theorem). *Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation. Then*

$$\dim(\ker(T)) + \dim(\operatorname{im}(T)) = \dim(V).$$

There is an $\dim(V) = \infty$ version of the above theorem. But for practical applications one usually take $\dim(V) < \infty$.

3.2. Linear Transformation on Quotient Spaces. In the previous Chapter, we have constructions of new vector spaces from old ones. In this section and the next section, we will construct new linear transformations from old ones.

Proposition 3.2.1. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $V' \leq V$. The map $\pi_{V'} : V \rightarrow V/V'$ given by*

$$\pi_{V'}(v) := v + V'$$

is a linear transformation with $\ker(\pi_{V'}) = V'$ and $\operatorname{im}(\pi_{V'}) = V/V'$.

Proposition 3.2.2. *Let $T : V \rightarrow U$ be a linear transformation. Suppose $S \leq \ker(T)$, then one can define a linear transformation*

$$\bar{T} : V/S \rightarrow U$$

given by

$$\bar{T}(v + S) := T(v).$$

In other words, $T = \bar{T} \circ \pi$, i.e. the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V & \xrightarrow{\pi} & V/S \\ & \searrow T & \downarrow \bar{T} \\ & & U \end{array}$$

Proof.

□

Theorem 3.2.3. *Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation. Then there is an isomorphism*

$$V / \ker(T) \cong \operatorname{im}(T).$$

Proof. [fill in the proof](#). □

Corollary 3.2.4. *The rank-nullity theorem (Theorem 3.1.9) holds.*

Proof. By Homework, one has $\dim(V / \ker(T)) = \dim(V) - \dim(\ker(T))$. Also, one has $\dim(V / \ker(T)) = \dim(\operatorname{im}(T))$ by Example 3.1.8. So the result follows. □

3.3. Dual Spaces. In this section, we will study some properties and linear transformations related to dual vector spaces $V^* = \mathcal{L}(V, \mathbb{F})$.

Definition 3.3.1. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $\mathcal{B} = \{b_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a basis of V . For each $i \in I$, let $f_i \in V^*$ be given by*

$$f_i(b_j) := \delta_{ij}$$

(c.f. Remark 3.1.5). Define

$$\mathcal{B}^* := \{f_i \mid i \in I\}$$

Note that \mathcal{B}^* and \mathcal{B} have the same cardinality.

Example 3.3.2. (1) *Let $V = \mathbb{F}^n$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ be the canonical basis of V . Then $f_i \in V^*$ is defined by*

$$f_i \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x_i.$$

Check that f_i satisfies the condition given by the above definition.

(2) *Let $V = M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{E_{ij} \mid 1 \leq i, j \leq n\}$. Then*

$$f_{ij}(M) := M_{ij}$$

and hence the trace transformation in Example 3.1.2 satisfies $\operatorname{tr} = f_{11} + \dots + f_{nn}$.

We hope that \mathcal{B}^* is a basis of V^* . To check if it is the case, we begin by proving the following:

Proposition 3.3.3. *\mathcal{B}^* is linearly independent in V^* .*

Proof. [fill in the proof](#) □

Corollary 3.3.4. *Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F} with basis \mathcal{B} . Then \mathcal{B}^* is a basis of V^* , and $V^* \cong V$ are isomorphic.*

Proof. By Homework, one check that

$$\dim(V^*) = \dim(\mathcal{L}(V, \mathbb{F})) = \dim(V) \cdot \dim(\mathbb{F}) = \dim(V) \cdot 1 = \dim(V) = n.$$

Now \mathcal{B}^* is a linearly independent set with $\dim(V^*) = n$ elements. By basis extension (Theorem 2.2.5(2)), one can extend \mathcal{B}^* to a basis $\mathcal{B}^* \sqcup \mathcal{E}$ of V^* . But $|\mathcal{B}^*| = |\mathcal{B}| = n$, so $\mathcal{E} = \emptyset$ is empty, otherwise we will have a basis having more than n elements, violating Theorem 2.2.5(4).

The last statement of the corollary is given in Example 3.1.8. \square

How about the case when $\dim(V) = \infty$? We still have \mathcal{B}^* linear independent, but it is no longer a spanning set in general:

Example 3.3.5. Let $V = \mathbb{F}[x]$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{x^i \mid i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$. Then $\mathcal{B}^* = \{f_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$ with

$$f_i(\alpha_n x^n + \cdots + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_0) := \alpha_i.$$

Now consider $\phi \in V^*$ given by $\phi(p(x)) := p(1)$. Then we claim that $\phi \notin \text{Span}(\mathcal{B}^*)$ - suppose on contrary

$$\phi = \gamma_0 f_0 + \cdots + \gamma_k f_k,$$

then applying x^{k+1} on both sides yield:

$$\phi(x^{k+1}) = \gamma_0 f_0(x^{k+1}) + \cdots + \gamma_k f_k(x^{k+1})$$

$$1^{k+1} = \gamma_0 \cdot 0 + \cdots + \gamma_k \cdot 0$$

$$1 = 0$$

which gives a contradiction.

Indeed, one can check that if $\dim(V) = \infty$ is countable, then $\dim(V^*) = \infty$ is uncountable. We omit the details here.

3.4. Annihilator of a Set.

Definition 3.4.1. Let $S \subset V$ be a subset. Then **annihilator** of S is

$$\text{Ann}(S) := \{f \in V^* \mid f(s) = 0 \text{ for all } s \in S\}.$$

Example 3.4.2. *fill in some examples*

Proposition 3.4.3. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} .

(1) If $S \subset S'$ then $\text{Ann}(S) \supset \text{Ann}(S')$.

(2) If $W_1, W_2 \leq V$, then

$$\text{Ann}(W_1 \cap W_2) = \text{Ann}(W_1) + \text{Ann}(W_2) \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Ann}(W_1 + W_2) = \text{Ann}(W_1) \cap \text{Ann}(W_2).$$

(3) If $\dim(V) < \infty$ and $W \leq V$, then $\dim(\text{Ann}(W)) = \dim(V) - \dim(W)$.

By Example 3.1.8, if V is finite dimensional, then $\text{Ann}(W)$ and V/W have the same dimension and hence

$$\text{Ann}(W) \cong V/W.$$

However, the isomorphism given by example 3.1.8 is not **natural** (i.e. the isomorphism involves a choice of basis). Moreover, it cannot be generalized to infinite dimensional cases. We wish to construct a natural isomorphism instead, but it will be on the dual space

$$\text{Ann}(W) \cong (V/W)^*.$$

Lemma 3.4.4 (Complementation). *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $W \leq V$. Then there exists a complementary subspace $U \leq V$ such that*

$$V = W \oplus U.$$

Proof. Consider the set

$$\mathcal{S} := \{U' \mid U' \leq V, \quad U' \cap W = \{\mathbf{0}\}\}.$$

Then

- \mathcal{S} is an ordered set by inclusion as sets; and
- For all $U' \in \mathcal{S}$, the sum $W \oplus U'$ is direct

By Zorn's Lemma, \mathcal{S} has a maximal element U . We claim that

$$V = W \oplus U.$$

Suppose on contrary that there exists $v \in V \setminus (W \oplus U)$. Then by letting $\tilde{U} := \text{Span}(U \cup \{v\})$, one checks that $\tilde{U} > U$, and $\tilde{U} \cap W = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. In other words, $\tilde{U} \in \mathcal{S}$, violating the maximality of U . \square

Proposition 3.4.5. *Suppose $V = W \oplus U$ as in the Lemma above, then*

$$V/W \cong U.$$

Proof. Let $p : V \rightarrow U$ be defined as follows: for all $v \in V$, $v = w + u$ for some unique choices of $w \in W$ and $u \in U$. Then

$$p(v) = p(w + u) := u.$$

One checks that p is a linear transformation, with $\ker(p) = W$ and $\text{im}(p) = U$. Then the result follows from the first isomorphism theorem. \square

Theorem 3.4.6. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $W \leq V$. Then one has a natural isomorphism*

$$(V/W)^* \cong \text{Ann}(W)$$

Proof. Take $V = W \oplus U$ as in the complementation lemma, then one has $V/W \cong U$ by the above proposition, and hence it suffices to check that

$$U^* \cong \text{Ann}(W)$$

(check that if $V \cong V'$, then $V^* \cong (V')^*$).

We now construct $T : U^* \rightarrow \text{Ann}(W)$ - for $f \in U^*$, let $\tilde{f} : V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ by

$$\tilde{f}(v) = \tilde{f}(w + u) := f(u),$$

where $v = w + u$ is the unique expression of v . Then one defines

$$T : U^* \rightarrow \text{Ann}(W)$$

$$T(f) := \tilde{f}.$$

There are a few things to check:

- (1) $\tilde{f} \in V^*$: let $v = w + u, v' = w' + u'$ be the unique expressions of $v, v' \in V$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}(\alpha v + \beta v') &= \tilde{f}((\alpha w + \beta w') + (\alpha u + \beta u')) \\ &= f(\alpha u + \beta u') \\ &= \alpha f(u) + \beta f(u') \\ &= \alpha \tilde{f}(v) + \beta \tilde{f}(v') \end{aligned}$$

- (2) $\tilde{f} \in \text{Ann}(W)$: for all $w \in W$, $w = \mathbf{0} + w$ is its unique expression. So

$$\tilde{f}(w) = \tilde{f}(\mathbf{0} + w) = f(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0}$$

- (3) $T : U^* \rightarrow \text{Ann}(W)$ is a linear transformation: for $f, g \in U^*$,

$$\begin{aligned} T(\alpha f + \beta g)(v) &= \widetilde{(\alpha f + \beta g)}(w + u) \\ &= (\alpha f + \beta g)(u) \\ &= \alpha f(u) + \beta g(u) \\ &= \alpha \tilde{f}(v) + \beta \tilde{g}(v) \\ &= (\alpha \tilde{f} + \beta \tilde{g})(v). \end{aligned}$$

So $T(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \tilde{f} + \beta \tilde{g}$.

- (4) T is injective: Suppose $T(f) = \tilde{f}$ is zero, then $\tilde{f}(w + u) = f(u) = 0$ for all $v = w + u$. Hence $f \in U^*$ is the zero transformation.
- (5) T is surjective: for any $g \in \text{Ann}(W)$, then for all $v = w + u \in V$, one has

$$g(v) = g(w + u) = g(w) + g(u) = g(u).$$

Define $f \in U^*$ by $f(u) := g(u)$. Then f is obviously linear, and

$$T(f)(v) = \tilde{f}(v) = f(u) = g(u) = g(v)$$

for all $v \in V$. So $g = T(f) \in \text{im}(T)$.

□

3.5. Universal Properties. In this section, we will put our constructions of new vector spaces (quotient space, direct sum, direct product) and new linear transformations from the old ones **under a panoramic perspective**. Our prototype is Proposition 3.2.2:

Proposition 3.5.1. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $W \leq V$. Consider the collection of all linear transformations ϕ with $W \leq \ker(\phi)$, i.e.*

$$\mathcal{C}_{qs} := \{(X, \phi) \mid \phi : V \rightarrow X \text{ satisfying } W \leq \ker(\phi)\}$$

Then

(a) *Let $\pi_W : V \rightarrow V/W$ be the canonical projection. Then*

$$(W, \pi_W) \in \mathcal{C}_{qs};$$

(b) *For $T : V \rightarrow U$ such that $(U, T) \in \mathcal{C}_{qs}$, one has*

$$T = \beta \circ \pi_W \quad \text{with} \quad \beta(v + W) := T(v).$$

In other words, there is a uniquely defined $\beta : V/W \rightarrow U$ such that following diagram is commutative:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V & \xrightarrow{\pi_W} & V/W \\ & \searrow T & \downarrow \beta \\ & & U \end{array}$$

Proof. Since $W \leq \ker(\phi)$ by the fact that $(U, \phi) \in \mathcal{C}_{qs}$, so the hypothesis of Proposition 3.2.2 is satisfied, and one can take $\beta = \bar{T}$ in the proposition to obtain the result. □

As for *external direct sum*, one has the following:

Proposition 3.5.2. *Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Consider the collection of all linear transformations $\phi_j : V_j \rightarrow X$, i.e.*

$$\mathcal{C}_{ds} := \{(X, \{\phi_j\}_{j \in I}) \mid \phi_j : V_j \rightarrow X\}.$$

Then

- (a) For all $j \in I$, let $\iota_j : V_j \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ be defined by $\iota_j(v_j) := (\dots, \mathbf{0}, \overset{\text{position } j}{\widehat{v_j}}, \mathbf{0}, \dots)$.
Then

$$\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i, \{\iota_j\}_{j \in I} \right) \in \mathcal{C}_{ds};$$

- (b) For $T_j : V_j \rightarrow U$ such that $(U, \{T_j\}_{j \in I}) \in \mathcal{C}_{ds}$, one has

$$T_j = \beta \circ \iota_j \quad \text{with} \quad \beta((\dots, v_j, \dots)) := \sum_{j \in I} T_j(v_j)$$

(note that the sum $\sum_{j \in I} T_j(v_j)$ is finite by the definition of external direct sum).

In other words, there is a unique $\beta : \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \rightarrow U$ making the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V_j & \xrightarrow{\iota_j} & \bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \\ & \searrow T_j & \downarrow \beta \\ & & U \end{array}$$

While for *external direct product*, things are slightly different:

Proposition 3.5.3. Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Consider the collection of all linear transformations $\psi_j : X \rightarrow V_j$, i.e.

$$\mathcal{C}_{dp} := \{(X, \{\psi_j\}_{j \in I}) \mid \psi_j : X \rightarrow V_j\}.$$

Then

- (a) For all $j \in I$, let $\tau_j : \prod_{i \in I} V_i \rightarrow V_j$ be defined by $\tau_j((\dots, \overset{\text{position } j}{\widehat{v_j}}, \dots)) := v_j$.
Then

$$\left(\prod_{i \in I} V_i, \{\tau_j\}_{j \in I} \right) \in \mathcal{C}_{dp};$$

- (b) For $T_j : U \rightarrow V_j$ such that $(U, \{T_j\}_{j \in I}) \in \mathcal{C}_{dp}$, one has

$$T_j = \tau_j \circ \gamma \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma(u) := (\dots, T_i(u), \dots)$$

In other words, there is a unique $\gamma : U \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} V_i$ making the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} U & & \\ \gamma \downarrow & \searrow T_j & \\ \prod_{i \in I} V_i & \xrightarrow{\tau_j} & V_j \end{array}$$

3.6. Rough Introduction to Category Theory. Category theory is used to describe similarities between different branches of mathematics. These branches have something in common - (1) certain ‘objects’ with some specified structures, and (2) certain ‘maps’ between these objects preserving their structures. Examples include:

- (MAT 2040) n -vectors $\{\mathbb{R}^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and matrix transformations $\{A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m\}$;
- (MAT 2042) Vectors spaces $\{V\}$ and linear transformations $\{T : V \rightarrow W\}$;
- (MAT 3004) Groups $\{G\}$ and homomorphisms $\{\phi : G \rightarrow H\}$;
- (MAT 4002) Topological spaces $\{X\}$ and continuous functions $\{f : X \rightarrow Y\}$;

Here is a formal definition:

Definition 3.6.1. A (small) category \mathcal{C} consists of the following three mathematical entities:

- A set of objects $\text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ (or simply \mathcal{C});
- For every $X, Y \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$, a set of morphisms

$$\text{Hom}(X, Y) := \{f : X \rightarrow Y\}$$

- For every $X, Y, Z \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$, one can compose morphisms:

$$\circ : \text{Hom}(X, Y) \times \text{Hom}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(X, Z)$$

$$(f, g) \mapsto g \circ f$$

satisfying

- (1) For all morphisms f, g and h , one has $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$.
- (2) For any $X \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$, there exists an identity element $1_X \in \text{Hom}(X, X)$ such that

$$1_X \circ f = f \quad g \circ 1_X = g$$

for all $f \in \text{Hom}(U, X)$ and $g \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$.

Example 3.6.2. Here are some examples of categories:

- (1) $\mathcal{C}_{\text{set}} = \{\text{all possible sets } A\}$, $\text{Hom}(A, B) = \{\text{all functions } f : A \rightarrow B\}$.
- (2) $\mathcal{C}_{\text{vec}} = \{\text{all vectors } \mathbb{R}^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m) = \{\text{all matrix transformations } A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m\} = M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.
- (3) $\mathcal{C}_{\text{vs}} = \{\text{all vectors spaces } V\}$, $\text{Hom}(V, W) = \{\text{all linear transformations } T : V \rightarrow W\}$.

Definition 3.6.3. Let \mathcal{C} be a category. An **initial object** is an object $\mathcal{I} \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ such that for any $X \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$, there exists exactly one

$$i_x : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow X \quad \text{in } \text{Hom}(\mathcal{I}, X).$$

A **terminal object** is an object $\mathcal{T} \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ such that for any $X \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$, there exists exactly one

$$t_x : X \rightarrow \mathcal{T} \quad \text{in } \text{Hom}(X, \mathcal{T}).$$

Example 3.6.4. Consider \mathcal{C}_{vs} . Then $\mathcal{I} = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ is an initial object. Namely, for all $W \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C}_{vs})$, there is only one possible linear transformation $i_W : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow W$ given by:

$$i_W(\mathbf{0}) := \mathbf{0}_W$$

Similarly, $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ is also a terminal object, since there is only one possible linear transformation $t_W : W \rightarrow \mathcal{T}$ given by:

$$i_W(w) := \mathbf{0} \quad \text{for all } w \in W.$$

In general, initial objects and terminal objects may not exist in a category. But if it does, it possesses some very nice properties:

- Remark 3.6.5.** (1) Suppose \mathcal{I} is an initial object, then $i_{\mathcal{I}} : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{I}$ must be the identity map $i_{\mathcal{I}} = 1_{\mathcal{I}}$.
(2) Similarly, if \mathcal{T} is a terminal object, then $t_{\mathcal{T}} : \mathcal{T} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}$ must be the identity map $t_{\mathcal{T}} = 1_{\mathcal{T}}$.
(3) Suppose $\mathcal{I} \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ is an initial object. Then for any $V, W \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ and $\beta \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$, $\beta \circ i_V \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{I}, W)$. But there is only one element $i_W \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{I}, W)$ by the definition of initial object, so

$$i_W = \beta \circ i_V,$$

i.e. the following diagram commutes for all $V, W, X \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{I} & \xrightarrow{i_V} & V \\ & \searrow i_W & \downarrow \beta \\ & & W \\ & \searrow i_X & \downarrow \beta' \\ & & X \\ & & \vdots \end{array}$$

- (4) Similarly, if $\mathcal{T} \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ is a terminal object. Then for any $V, W \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$ and $\gamma \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$, $i_W \circ \gamma \in \text{Hom}(V, \mathcal{T})$. But there is only one element $i_V \in \text{Hom}(V, \mathcal{T})$ by the definition of terminal object, so

$$i_V = i_W \circ \gamma,$$

i.e. the following diagram commutes for all $U, V, W \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C})$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
& \vdots & \\
& U & \\
\gamma' \downarrow & \searrow t_U & \\
V & & \\
\gamma \downarrow & \searrow t_V & \\
W & \xrightarrow[t_W]{} & \mathcal{T}
\end{array}$$

Proposition 3.6.6. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} , and $W \leq V$ be a fixed vector subspace of V . Consider the category*

$$\mathcal{C}_{qs} := \{(X, \phi) \mid \phi : V \rightarrow X \text{ such that } W \leq \ker(T)\}$$

with

$$\text{Hom}((X, \phi), (Y, \psi)) := \{\beta : X \rightarrow Y \mid \psi = \beta \circ \phi\}$$

for $(X, \phi), (Y, \psi) \in \mathcal{C}_{qs}$. Then

$$\mathcal{I}_{qs} = (V/W, \pi_W)$$

is an initial object in \mathcal{C}_{qs} .

Proof. By Proposition 3.5.1, for each $(U, T) \in \mathcal{C}_{qs}$, there exists a unique $\beta = \overline{T} : V/W \rightarrow U$ such that $T = \beta \circ \pi_W$. So

$$\text{Hom}((V/W, \pi_W), (U, T)) := \{\beta\}$$

has exactly one element. □

Similarly, one has

Proposition 3.6.7. *Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Consider the category*

$$\mathcal{C}_{ds} := \{(X, \{\phi_j\}_{j \in I}) \mid \phi_j : V_j \rightarrow X\}.$$

with

$$\text{Hom}((X, \{\phi_j\}_{j \in I}), (Y, \{\phi'_j\}_{j \in I})) := \{\beta : X \rightarrow Y \mid \phi_j = \beta \circ \phi'_j \text{ for all } j\}$$

for $(X, \{\phi_j\}_{j \in I}), (Y, \{\phi'_j\}_{j \in I}) \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C}_{ds})$. Then

$$\mathcal{I}_{ds} = \left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} T_i(v_i), \{\iota_j\}_{j \in I} \right)$$

is an initial object in \mathcal{C}_{ds} .

As for external direct product, one has

Proposition 3.6.8. *Let $\{V_i \mid i \in I\}$ be collection of vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Consider the category*

$$\mathcal{C}_{dp} := \{(X, \{\psi_j\}_{j \in I}) \mid \psi_j : X \rightarrow V_j\}.$$

with

$$\text{Hom}((X, \{\psi_j\}_{j \in I}), (Y, \{\psi'_j\}_{j \in I})) := \{\gamma : X \rightarrow Y \mid \psi_j = \psi'_j \circ \gamma \text{ for all } j\}$$

for $(X, \{\psi_j\}_{j \in I}), (Y, \{\psi'_j\}_{j \in I}) \in \text{Obj}(\mathcal{C}_{dp})$. Then

$$\mathcal{I}_{dp} = \left(\prod_{i \in I} T_i(v_i), \{\tau_j\}_{j \in I} \right)$$

is a terminal object in \mathcal{C}_{dp} .

These observations seems very complicated, but they will become very useful in understand tensor products and linear transformations on tensor products in the next chapter.

4. TENSOR PRODUCT AND THE DETERMINANT

4.1. Motivation. We begin by giving some motivations on studying tensor products:

Definition 4.1.1. Let V_1, V_2, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . A **bilinear map** is a function

$$f : V_1 \times V_2 \rightarrow W$$

satisfying

$$f(\alpha v_1 + \beta v'_1, v_2) = \alpha f(v_1, v_2) + \beta f(v'_1, v_2), \quad f(v_1, \alpha v_2 + \beta v'_2) = \alpha f(v_1, v_2) + \beta f(v_1, v'_2).$$

More generally, let V_1, \dots, V_k, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . A **k -linear map** is a function

$$f : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow W$$

satisfying

$$f(\dots, v_{i-1}, \alpha v_i + \beta v'_i, v_{i+1}, \dots) = \alpha f(\dots, v_{i-1}, v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots) + \beta f(\dots, v_{i-1}, v'_i, v_{i+1}, \dots).$$

for all $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Example 4.1.2. (1) The inner product of real vector spaces (e.g. dot product)

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is bilinear.

(2) The cross product of \mathbb{R}^3

$$\times : \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

is bilinear.

(3) The determinant function:

$$\det : \overbrace{\mathbb{F}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{F}^n}^{n \text{ copies}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

$$\det(v_1, \dots, v_n) := \det((v_1 \mid \dots \mid v_n))$$

is n -linear.

One would like to use linear algebra to study k -linear maps. However, they are almost always not a linear transformation if we treat $V_1 \times \dots \times V_k = \prod_{i=1}^k V_i$ as a external direct product space: For instance, if $f : V_1 \times V_2 \rightarrow W$ is bilinear, then

$$f(3(v_1, v_2)) = f(\textcolor{blue}{3}v_1, \textcolor{red}{3}v_2) = \textcolor{blue}{3}f(v_1, \textcolor{red}{3}v_2) = \textcolor{blue}{3} \cdot \textcolor{red}{3}f(v_1, v_2) \neq 3f(v_1, v_2)$$

Inspired by Section 3.6, one would like to make the following:

Definition 4.1.3 (Universal Property of Tensor Product). *Let V_1, \dots, V_k be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Consider the category*

$$\mathcal{C}_{tp} := \{(W, f) \mid f : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow W \text{ is } k\text{-linear}\}$$

with

$$\text{Hom}((W, f), (U, g)) := \{\beta : W \rightarrow U \mid g = \beta \circ f\}.$$

*Then the **tensor product***

$$\mathcal{I}_{tp} := (V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k, \iota : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k)$$

(both terms to be determined later) is defined to be the initial object in \mathcal{C}_{tp} .

By the property of initial object, we can study all k -linear maps

$$g : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow U$$

as follows:

- $\text{Hom}((V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k, \iota), (U, g)) = \{\beta\}$ has only one element; so
- $g = \beta \circ \iota$, where

$$\beta : V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k \rightarrow U$$

is a **linear transformation**

In other words,

understand k -linear map $g \leftrightarrow$ understand linear transformation β

Question: how to construct $V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k$ and $\iota : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k$?

4.2. Construction of Tensor Product Space. For simplicity, we will only construct $V \otimes W$ in this section. The general case with k vector spaces $V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k$ can be constructed similarly.

Definition 4.2.1. *Let V, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Consider the set*

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(v, w) \mid v \in V, w \in W\},$$

then we define $\mathcal{X} = \text{Span}(\mathcal{S})$.

Remark 4.2.2. *Note that we only consider \mathcal{S} as a **set**, but not a vector space $V \times W$. In particular, there are no relations on the elements $(v, w) \in \mathcal{X}$. For instance we **do not** have*

$$(2v, 2w) = 2(v, w), \quad (\mathbf{0}, w) + (v, \mathbf{0}) = (v, w)$$

in \mathcal{X} . The only legitimate rule in \mathcal{X} is

$$3(v, w) + 2(v, w) = 5(v, w)$$

*(and is **not** equal to $(5v, 5w)$!) More precisely, the set \mathcal{S} is a basis in \mathcal{X} .*

Definition 4.2.3. Let $\mathcal{Y} \leq \mathcal{X}$ be a vector subspace spanned by vectors of the form

$$\{1 \cdot (v_1 + v_2, w) - 1 \cdot (v_1, w) - 1 \cdot (v_2, w)\} \quad \{1 \cdot (v, w_1 + w_2) - 1 \cdot (v, w_1) - 1 \cdot (v, w_2)\}$$

and

$$\{(\alpha v, w) - \alpha(v, w)\} \quad \{(v, \alpha w) - \alpha(v, w)\}$$

for all $v, v_1, v_2 \in V$, $w, w_1, w_2 \in W$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$.

Then the **tensor product** $V \otimes W$ is defined by the quotient space

$$V \otimes W := \mathcal{X}/\mathcal{Y}.$$

We now see some arithmetic in $V \otimes W$:

Example 4.2.4. In $V \otimes W$, one has:

$$\begin{aligned} (v_1 + v_2) \otimes w &= (v_1 + v_2, w) + \mathcal{Y} \\ &= (v_1 + v_2, w) - [(v_1 + v_2, w) - (v_1, w) - (v_2, w)] + \mathcal{Y} \\ &= 0 \cdot (v_1 + v_2, w) + (v_1, w) + (v_2, w) + \mathcal{Y} \\ &= [(v_1, w) + \mathcal{Y}] + [(v_2, w) + \mathcal{Y}] \\ &= v_1 \otimes w + v_2 \otimes w \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, one has

$$\begin{aligned} v \otimes (w_1 + w_2) &= (v \otimes w_1) + (v \otimes w_2) \\ (\alpha v) \otimes w &= \alpha(v \otimes w) \\ v \otimes (\alpha w) &= \alpha(v \otimes w) \end{aligned}$$

Remark 4.2.5. We mention some fundamental differences between product space $V \times W$ and the tensor product space $V \otimes W$:

- (1) $(v, \mathbf{0}) \neq 0_{V \times W}$ in $V \times W$, but $v \otimes \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}_{V \otimes W}$:

$$v \otimes \mathbf{0} = v \otimes (0 \cdot w) = 0(v \otimes w) = \mathbf{0}_{V \otimes W}$$

- (2) $(v_1, w_1) + (v_2, w_2) = (v_1 + v_2, w_1 + w_2)$ in $V \times W$, but $(v_1 \otimes w_1) + (v_2 \otimes w_2)$ cannot be simplified further in $V \otimes W$ unless $v_1 = v_2$ or $w_1 = w_2$. Therefore, a general element in $V \otimes W$ is of the form:

$$v_1 \otimes w_1 + \cdots + v_n \otimes w_n$$

Example 4.2.6. Let $V = W = \mathbb{R}^2$. Then $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ can be rewritten in term of e_1 and e_2 :

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} &= (3e_1 + 2e_2) \otimes (-4e_1 + 2e_2) \\ &= (3e_1) \otimes (-4e_1 + 2e_2) + (e_2) \otimes (-4e_1 + 2e_2) \\ &= (3e_1) \otimes (-4e_1) + (3e_1) \otimes (2e_2) + (e_2) \otimes (-4e_1) + e_2 \otimes (2e_2) \\ &= -12(e_1 \otimes e_1) + 6(e_1 \otimes e_2) - 4(e_2 \otimes e_1) + 2(e_2 \otimes e_2) \end{aligned}$$

As an exercise, check that $e_1 \otimes e_2 + e_2 \otimes e_1$ cannot be re-written as $(ae_1 + be_2) \otimes (ce_1 + de_2)$ for any $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$.

Now we prove that our definition of $V \otimes W = \mathcal{X}/\mathcal{Y}$ satisfies the universal property:

Theorem 4.2.7. Let $V \otimes W = \mathcal{X}/\mathcal{Y}$ be as defined above. Consider the map $\iota : V \times W \rightarrow V \otimes W$ defined by

$$\iota(v, w) := v \otimes w$$

Then ι is a bilinear map, and $(V \otimes W, \iota)$ is the initial object for \mathcal{C}_{tp} .

Proof. to be filled in □

4.3. Basis of Tensor Product. Let V, W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{F} , with $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ being bases of V and W . In this section, we will prove that

$$\mathcal{B} := \{v_i \otimes w_j | 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m\}$$

is a basis of $V \otimes W$.

Proposition 4.3.1. \mathcal{B} spans the tensor product space $V \otimes W$.

Proof. Note that a general element in $V \otimes W$ is of the form $v^{(1)} \otimes w^{(1)} + \dots + v^{(n)} \otimes w^{(n)}$. So it suffices to express each $v \otimes w := v^{(l)} \otimes w^{(l)}$ in terms of linear combinations of $v_i \otimes w_j$.

Suppose that $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$ and $w = \beta_1 w_1 + \dots + \beta_m w_m$. So

$$\begin{aligned} v \otimes w &= (\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n) \otimes w \\ &= (\alpha_1 v_1) \otimes w + \dots + (\alpha_n v_n) \otimes w \\ &= \alpha_1 (v_1 \otimes w) + \dots + \alpha_n (v_n \otimes w) \end{aligned}$$

For each $v_i \otimes w$, $v_i \otimes w = \beta_1 (v_i \otimes w_1) + \dots + \beta_m (v_i \otimes w_m)$. Therefore,

$$v \otimes w = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_j (v_i \otimes w_j)$$

and the result follows. □

Theorem 4.3.2. \mathcal{B} is linearly independent in $V \otimes W$. So it is a basis of $V \otimes W$.

Proof. Suppose

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{ij} (v_i \otimes w_j) = \mathbf{0}$$

for some $\alpha_{ij} \in \mathbb{F}$, then we will use universal property to show that all α_{ij} are zeros.

Let $\{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$ be the dual basis of V^* , and $\{\psi_1, \dots, \psi_m\}$ be the dual basis of W^* . For $1 \leq p \leq n$ and $1 \leq q \leq m$, define

$$\pi_{p,q} : V \times W \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

by $\pi_{p,q}(v, w) := \phi_p(v)q(w)$. Then it is easy to check that $\pi_{p,q}$ is bilinear: for instance,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_{p,q}(\alpha v_1 + \beta v_2, w) &= \phi_p(\alpha v_1 + \beta v_2)q(w) \\ &= (\alpha \phi_p(v_1) + \beta \phi_p(v_2))q(w) \\ &= \alpha \phi_p(v_1)q(w) + \beta \phi_p(v_2)q(w) \\ &= \alpha \pi_{p,q}(v_1, w) + \beta \pi_{p,q}(v_2, w). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $(\mathbb{F}, \pi_{p,q}) \in \mathcal{C}_{tp}$. By the universal property of the tensor product, there is a unique linear transformation

$$\Pi_{p,q} : V \otimes W \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

with $\pi_{p,q}(v \otimes w) = \Pi_{p,q} \circ \iota(v, w)$. In other words,

$$\Pi_{p,q}(v \otimes w) = \phi_p(v)q(w).$$

Applying the mapping $\Pi_{p,q}$ to

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{ij} (v_i \otimes w_j) = \mathbf{0}$$

one has:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pi_{p,q} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{ij} (v_i \otimes w_j) \right) &= \Pi_{p,q}(\mathbf{0}) \\
\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{ij} \Pi_{p,q}((v_i \otimes w_j)) &= 0 \\
\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{ij} \pi_{p,q}(v_i, w_j) &= 0 \\
\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_{ij} \phi_p(v_i) \psi_q(w_j) &= 0 \\
\alpha_{pq} &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

for all p, q . So the result follows. \square

Remark 4.3.3. *Note that the above proofs work perfectly well for infinite-dimensional vector spaces. Namely:*

Suppose $\{v_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a basis of V and $\{w_j \mid j \in J\}$ is a basis of W . Then

$$\mathcal{B} := \{v_i \otimes w_j \mid i \in I, j \in J\}$$

is a basis of $V \otimes W$.

Corollary 4.3.4. *If $\dim(V), \dim(W) < \infty$, then $\dim(V \otimes W) = \dim(V) \dim(W)$.*

In the proof of the above theorem, one finds it very helpful to construct a linear transformation on $V \otimes W$ by a bilinear map on $V \times W$. We do one more example of such trick:

Theorem 4.3.5. *Let V, W be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} (not necessarily finite dimensional). Then*

$$V \otimes W \cong W \otimes V.$$

Proof. Define

$$\phi : V \times W \rightarrow W \otimes V$$

by $\phi(v, w) := w \otimes v$. Then one can check that ϕ is bilinear map. So universal property implies that there exists a linear transformation

$$\Phi : V \otimes W \rightarrow W \otimes V$$

satisfying $\phi(v, w) = \Phi(v, w)$, i.e.

$$\Phi(v \otimes w) = w \otimes v.$$

Similarly, one can also construct a linear transformation

$$\Psi : W \otimes V \rightarrow V \otimes W$$

satisfying

$$\Psi(w \otimes v) = v \otimes w.$$

Then for and $v^{(1)} \otimes w^{(1)} + \cdots + v^{(n)} \otimes w^{(n)} \in W \otimes V$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi \circ \Phi(v^{(1)} \otimes w^{(1)} + \cdots + v^{(n)} \otimes w^{(n)}) &= \Psi(\Phi(v^{(1)} \otimes w^{(1)}) + \cdots + \Phi(v^{(n)} \otimes w^{(n)})) \\ &= \Psi(w^{(1)} \otimes v^{(1)} + \cdots + w^{(n)} \otimes v^{(n)}) \\ &= \Psi(w^{(1)} \otimes v^{(1)}) + \cdots + \Psi(w^{(n)} \otimes v^{(n)}) \\ &= v^{(1)} \otimes w^{(1)} + \cdots + v^{(n)} \otimes w^{(n)} \end{aligned}$$

So $\Psi \circ \Phi$ is the identity map. And similarly, $\Phi \circ \Psi$ is also an identity map. So they are inverses to each other, and the result follows. \square

4.4. Linear Transformation on Tensor Product Spaces. As in the discussions on vector spaces in the last chapter, once we have constructed new vector spaces, we will construct new linear transformations.

Proposition 4.4.1. *Let V, V', W, W' be vector spaces over \mathbb{F} . Suppose that $T : V \rightarrow V'$ and $S : W \rightarrow W'$ are linear transformations, then there exists a unique linear transformation*

$$T \otimes S : V \otimes W \rightarrow V' \otimes W'$$

satisfying $(T \otimes S)(v \otimes w) = T(v) \otimes S(w)$.

Proof. Once again, we use universal property to help. Define the map

$$T \times S : V \times W \rightarrow V' \otimes W'$$

by $(T \times S)(v, w) := T(v) \otimes S(w)$. Then the map is bilinear, and as before there exists a unique linear transformation

$$T \otimes S : V \otimes W \rightarrow V' \otimes W'$$

satisfying $(T \otimes S)(v \otimes w) = T(v) \otimes S(w)$. \square

Proposition 4.4.2. *The operation $T \otimes S$ satisfies all the properties of tensor product, i.e.*

$$(\alpha T_1 + \beta T_2) \otimes S = \alpha(T_1 \otimes S) + \beta(T_2 \otimes S) \quad T \otimes (\alpha S_1 + \beta S_2) = \alpha(T \otimes S_1) + \beta(T \otimes S_2)$$

Therefore, the notation “ \otimes ” in the definition of $T \otimes S$ is justified.

Proof. By Remark 4.3.3, $v_i \otimes w_j$ forms a basis of $V \otimes W$. Therefore, one only needs to check that both sides of the equation gives the same image upon applying $v_i \otimes w_j$. \square

Remark 4.4.3. Suppose $T : V \rightarrow V'$ has a matrix representation A , and $S : W \rightarrow W'$ has a matrix representation B . Then using the basis of $W \otimes V$ (with correct ordering), the matrix representation of $T \otimes S : V \otimes W \rightarrow V' \otimes W'$ is the **Kronecker product**:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11}B & a_{12}B & \dots & a_{1n}B \\ a_{21}B & a_{22}B & \dots & a_{2n}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1}B & a_{m2}B & \dots & a_{mn}B \end{pmatrix}$$

We omit the proof here.

4.5. Exterior Tensor Product. Before going to the definition of exterior product, let us briefly mention some results on multilinear tensor product $V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k$ without proving them:

- **General vector:**

$$v_1^{(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes v_k^{(1)} + \dots + v_1^{(n)} \otimes \dots \otimes v_k^{(n)}$$

- **k -linearity:**

$$\begin{aligned} & v_1 \otimes \dots \otimes (\alpha v_i + \beta v'_i) \otimes \dots \otimes v_k \\ &= \alpha(v_1 \otimes \dots \otimes v_i \otimes \dots \otimes v_k) + \beta(v_1 \otimes \dots \otimes v'_i \otimes \dots \otimes v_k) \end{aligned}$$

- **Universal property:** Let

$$\iota : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k$$

$$\iota(v_1, \dots, v_k) := v_1 \otimes \dots \otimes v_k,$$

then for any k -linear map $f : V_1 \times \dots \times V_k \rightarrow U$, there exists a unique *linear transformation*

$$\beta : V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k \rightarrow U$$

satisfying

$$\beta(v_1 \otimes \dots \otimes v_k) = f(v_1, \dots, v_k).$$

- **Linear transformation:** Let $T_i : V_i \rightarrow W_i$ be linear transformations. Then there exists a unique linear transformation

$$T_1 \otimes \dots \otimes T_k : V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_k \rightarrow W_1 \otimes \dots \otimes W_k$$

satisfying

$$T_1 \otimes \dots \otimes T_k(v_1 \otimes \dots \otimes v_k) = T_1(v_1) \otimes \dots \otimes T_k(v_k).$$

In the case when $V_1 = \dots = V_k = V$, $W_1 = \dots = W_k = W$ and $T_1 = \dots = T_k = T$, we will use the shorthand

$$T^{\otimes k} : V^{\otimes k} \rightarrow W^{\otimes k}$$

Definition 4.5.1. A k -linear map $f : V \times \cdots \times V \rightarrow W$ is called **alternating** if

$$f(v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_k) = \mathbf{0}_W$$

whenever $v_i = v_j$ for some $i \neq j$.

Example 4.5.2. The cross product and determinant function in Example 4.1.2 are alternating, since $v \times v = \mathbf{0}$ and the determinant of a matrix with 2 identical columns is equal to 0.

Lemma 4.5.3. If $f : V \times \cdots \times V \rightarrow W$ is an alternating map, then

$$f(v_1, \dots, v, \dots, w, \dots, v_k) = -f(v_1, \dots, w, \dots, v, \dots, v_k)$$

for all $v_i, v, w \in V$

Proof. Exercise. □

Definition 4.5.4. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . Consider the vector subspace $U \leq V^{\otimes k}$ spanned by vectors of the form

$$v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v \otimes \cdots \otimes v \otimes \cdots \otimes v_k$$

for all $v, v_1, \dots, v_k \in V$. Then the **k -exterior product** of V is the quotient space

$$\wedge^k V := V^{\otimes k} / U.$$

We write $v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k := v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_k + U \in \wedge^k V$.

By definition, one can check that

- $\wedge^k V$ is k -linear:

$$\begin{aligned} & v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge (\alpha v_i + \beta v'_i) \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k \\ &= \alpha(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_i \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k) + \beta(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v'_i \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k) \end{aligned}$$

for $i = 1, \dots, k$.

- $\wedge^k V$ is alternating:

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v \wedge \cdots \wedge v \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k &:= v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v \otimes \cdots \otimes v \otimes \cdots \otimes v_k + U \\ &= \mathbf{0} + U \\ &= \mathbf{0}_{\wedge^k V} \end{aligned}$$

- $\wedge^k V$ changes sign by swapping two entries:

$$v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v \wedge \cdots \wedge w \wedge \cdots \wedge v \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k = -(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge w \wedge \cdots \wedge v \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k)$$

Theorem 4.5.5. Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} . Consider the category

$$\mathcal{C}_{ep} := \{(W, f) \mid f : V \times \cdots \times V \rightarrow W \text{ is } k\text{-alternating}\}$$

with

$$\text{Hom}((W, f), (U, g)) := \{\beta : W \rightarrow U \mid g = \beta \circ f\}.$$

Then the k -exterior product

$$\mathcal{I}_{tp} := (\wedge^k V, \iota)$$

is the initial object in \mathcal{C}_{ep} . Consequently, for all k -alternating maps $f : V \times \cdots \times V \rightarrow U$, there exists a linear transformation

$$\beta : \wedge^k V \rightarrow U$$

such that $f = \beta \circ \iota$.

Consequently, for all linear transformations $T : V \rightarrow W$, one can define

$$f : V \times \cdots \times V \rightarrow \wedge^k W$$

by $f(v_1, \dots, v_k) := T(v_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge T(v_k)$. Then one can easily check that f is k -alternating, and the universal property implies that there exists

$$T^{\wedge k} := \beta : \wedge^k V \rightarrow \wedge^k W$$

satisfying $T^{\wedge k}(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_k) = T(v_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge T(v_k)$.

4.6. The Determinant. We are now in the position to define the determinant of a linear operator $T : V \rightarrow V$ for a vector space V with $\dim(V) = n < \infty$.

Lemma 4.6.1. *Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{F} with $\dim(V) = n$. For $0 \leq k \leq n$, one has*

$$\dim(\wedge^k V) = \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Proof. Homework exercise - suppose $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis of V , show that

$$\{v_{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge v_{i_k} \mid 1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_k \leq n\}$$

is a basis of $\wedge^k V$. □

Therefore, in the particular case when $k = n$, $\dim(\wedge^n V) = 1$, and is spanned by

$$\zeta := v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n$$

for any choice of basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of V .

Definition 4.6.2. *Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F} with $\dim(V) = n$, and $T : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear operator.*

Then $\wedge^n V = \text{Span}(\zeta)$ is one-dimensional, and the linear operator

$$T^{\wedge n} : \wedge^n V \rightarrow \wedge^n V$$

satisfying $T(u_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge u_n) = T(u_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge T(u_n)$ satisfies

$$T^{\wedge n}(\zeta) = \Delta_T \cdot \zeta$$

*for some scalar Δ_T . We define the **determinant** of T by*

$$\det(T) := \Delta_T.$$

Example 4.6.3. Let $T : \mathbb{F}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^2$ be given by $T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\wedge^2 \mathbb{F}^2 = \text{Span}(e_1 \wedge e_2)$, and

$$T^2 : \wedge^2 \mathbb{F}^2 \rightarrow \wedge^2 \mathbb{F}^2$$

satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} T^{\wedge 2}(e_1 \wedge e_2) &= T(e_1) \wedge T(e_2) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \end{pmatrix} \wedge \begin{pmatrix} b \\ d \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (ae_1 + ce_2) \wedge (be_1 + de_2) \\ &= (ae_1) \wedge (be_1) + (ae_1) \wedge (de_2) + (ce_2) \wedge (de_1) + (ce_2) \wedge (de_2) \\ &= 0 + (ad)e_1 \wedge e_2 + (bc)e_2 \wedge e_1 + 0 \\ &= (ad - bc)e_1 \wedge e_2 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\det(T) = ad - bc$ as expected.

More generally, suppose Let $T : \mathbb{F}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^n$ be given by

$$T(v) := Av, \quad \text{where } A = (a_1 | a_2 | \dots | a_n)$$

By writing $\det(A) := \det(T)$ as in MAT2042, one has

$$T^{\wedge n}(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) = a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n = \det(A)(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n)$$

So if A have identical columns $a_i = a_j$ for $i \neq j$, one has $a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n = \mathbf{0}$ and hence $\det(A) = 0$.

Also, if $A' = (a_2 | a_1 | \dots | a_n)$ and $T'(v) := A'v$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A')(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) &= (T')^{\wedge n}(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) \\ &= a_2 \wedge a_1 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n \\ &= -(a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n) \\ &= -\det(A)(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) \end{aligned}$$

and hence $\det(A') = -\det(A)$.

By similar arguments, one can conclude the following defining properties of the determinant:

Corollary 4.6.4. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$. Then the following holds:

- $\det(I_{n \times n}) = 1$;
- $\det(a_1 | \dots | a_i | \dots | a_j | \dots | a_n) = -\det(a_1 | \dots | a_j | \dots | a_i | \dots | a_n)$;
- For any $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$, $\det(a_1 | \dots | \alpha a_i | \dots | a_n) = \alpha \det(a_1 | \dots | a_i | \dots | a_n)$;

As another advantage of understanding determinant in such a way, we have

Theorem 4.6.5. *Let $S, T : V \rightarrow V$ be linear operators. Then*

$$\det(S \circ T) = \det(S) \det(T)$$

Proof. Pick any basis $\{v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n\}$ of $\wedge^n V$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \det(T \circ S)(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n) &= (T \circ S)^{\wedge n}(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n) \\ &= (T \circ S)(v_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge (T \circ S)(v_n) \\ &= T(S(v_1)) \wedge \cdots \wedge T(S(v_n)) \\ &= (T^{\wedge n})(S(v_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge S(v_n)) \\ &= (T^{\wedge n}) \circ (S^{\wedge n})(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n) \\ &= (T^{\wedge n})(\det(S)(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n)) \\ &= \det(S) T^{\wedge n}(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n) \\ &= \det(S) \det(T)(v_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge v_n) \end{aligned}$$

and hence $\det(T \circ S) = \det(T) \det(S)$. □

Corollary 4.6.6. *Let $A, B \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$, then*

$$\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B).$$