# $\begin{tabular}{ll} MATH251-Algebra~2\\ {\tt Vector~spaces,~linear~(in) dependence,~span,~bases;~linear~transformations,~kernel,~image,~isomorphisms.} \end{tabular}$

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# 1 Introduction

**Remark 1.1.** This course is about vector spaces and linear transformations between them; a vector space involves multiplication by scalars, where the scalars come from some field. We recall first examples of fields, then vector spaces, as a motivation, before presenting a formal definition.

## 1.1 Vector Spaces

Remark 1.2. Much of this is recall from Algebra 1.

## **\* Example 1.1: Examples of Fields**

- 1.  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; the field of rational numbers.
- 2.  $\mathbb{R}$ ; the field of real numbers;  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .
- 3.  $\mathbb{C}$ ; the field of complex numbers;  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ .
- 4.  $\mathbb{F}_p \equiv \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \equiv \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}; the(unique) field of pelements, where pprime.^a$ 
  - (a) p = 2;  $\mathbb{F}_2 \equiv \{0, 1\}$ .
  - (b) p = 3;  $\mathbb{F}_3 \equiv \{0, 1, 2\}$ .
  - (c) · · ·

 $\overline{a}$  where  $a+_pb:=$  remainder of  $\frac{a+b}{p},$   $a\cdot_pb:=$  remainder of  $\frac{a\cdot b}{p}.$ 

**Remark 1.3.** Throughout the course, we will denote an abstract field as  $\mathbb{F}$ .

## **® Example 1.2: Examples of Vector Spaces**

- 1.  $\mathbb{R}^3:=\{(x,y,z):x,y,z\in\mathbb{R}\}$ . We can add elements in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , and multiply them by real scalars.
- 2.  $\mathbb{F}^n := \underbrace{\mathbb{F} \times \mathbb{F} \times \cdots \mathbb{F}}_{n \text{ times}} := \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) : a_i \in \mathbb{F}\}, \text{ where } n \in \mathbb{N}^1; \text{ this is a generalization of the previous example, where we took } n = 3, \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}. \text{ Operations follow identically; addition:}$

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) := (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

and, taking a scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ , multiplication:

$$\lambda \cdot (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) := (\lambda \cdot a_1, \lambda \cdot a_2, \dots, \lambda \cdot a_n).$$

We refer to these elements  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  as *vectors* in  $\mathbb{F}^n$ ; the vector for which  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$  is the 0 *vector*, and is the additive identity, making  $\mathbb{F}^n$  an abelian group under addition, that admits multiplication by scalars from  $\mathbb{F}$ .

- 3.  $C(\mathbb{R}) := \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} : f \text{ continuous}\}$ . Here, we have the constant zero function as our additive identity  $(x \mapsto 0 \forall x)$ , and addition/scalar multiplication of two continuous real functions are continuous.
- 4.  $\mathbb{F}[t] := \{a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \cdots + a_nt^n : a_i \in \mathbb{F} \forall i, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , ie, the set of all polynomials in t with coefficients from  $\mathbb{F}$ . Here, we can add two polynomials;

$$(a_0 + a_1t + \dots + a_nt^n) + (b_0 + b_1t + \dots + b_mt^m) := \sum_{i=0}^{\max\{n,m\}} (a_i + b_i)t^i,$$

(where we "take" undefined  $a_i/b_i$ 's as 0; that is, if m>n, then  $a_{m-n},a_{m-n+1},\ldots,a_m$  are taken to be 0). Scalar multiplication is defined

$$\lambda \cdot (a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + \dots + a_nt^n) := \lambda a_0 + \lambda a_1t + \lambda a_2t^2 + \dots + \lambda a_nt^n.$$

Here, the zero polynomial is simply 0 (that is,  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ ).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Where we take  $0 \in \mathbb{N}$ , for sake of consistency. Moreover, by convention, we define  $\mathbb{F}^0$  (that is, when n = 0) to be  $\{0\}$ ; the trivial vector space.

# $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition** 1.1: Vector Space

A vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is an abelian group with an operation denoted + (or  $+_V$ ) and identity element<sup>2</sup>denoted  $0_V$ , equipped with scalar multiplication for each scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  satisfying the following axioms:

- 1.  $1 \cdot v = v$  for  $1 \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $\forall v \in V$ .
- 2.  $\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot v) = (\alpha \cdot \beta)v, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V.$
- 3.  $(\alpha + \beta) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot v + \beta \cdot v, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}, v \in V.$
- 4.  $\alpha \cdot (u+v) = \alpha \cdot u + \alpha \cdot v, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}, u, v \in V.$

We refer to elements  $v \in V$  as vectors.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 1.1

For a vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , the following holds:

- 1.  $0 \cdot v = 0_V, \forall v \in V \text{ (where } 0 := 0_{\mathbb{F}}\text{)}$
- 2.  $-1 \cdot v = -v, \forall v \in V \text{ (where } 1 := 1_{\mathbb{F}})^3$
- 3.  $\alpha \cdot 0_V = 0_V, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$

*Proof.* 1.  $0 \cdot v = (0+0) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v + 0 \cdot v \implies 0 \cdot v = 0_V$  (by "cancelling" one of the  $0 \cdot v$  terms on each side).

- 2.  $v + (-1 \cdot v) = (1 \cdot v + (-1) \cdot v) = (1 1) \cdot v = 0 \cdot v = 0_V \implies (-1 \cdot v) = -v$ .
- 3.  $\alpha \cdot 0_V = \alpha \cdot (0_V + 0_V) = \alpha \cdot 0_V + \alpha \cdot 0_V \implies \alpha \cdot 0_V = 0_V$  (by, again, cancelling a term on each side).

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# 1.2 Creating Spaces from Other Spaces

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>The "zero vector".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>NB: "additive inverse"

## → **Definition** 1.2: Product/Direct Sum of Vector Spaces

For vector spaces U, V over the same field  $\mathbb{F}$ , we define their *product* (or *direct sum*) as the set

$$U \times V = \{(u, v) : u \in U, v \in V\},\$$

with the operations:

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

## $\circledast$ Example 1.3: $\mathbb{F}$

 $\mathbb{F}^2=\mathbb{F} imes\mathbb{F},$  where  $\mathbb{F}$  is considered as the vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  (itself).

## $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition** 1.3: Subspace

For a vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , a *subspace* of V is a subset  $W \subseteq V$  s.t.

- 1.  $0_V \in W^4$
- 2.  $u + v \in W \, \forall u, v \in W$  (closed under addition)
- 3.  $\alpha \cdot u \in W \, \forall \, u \in W, \alpha \in \mathbb{F}^5$

Then, W is a vector space in its own right.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>This is equivalent to requiring that  $W \neq \emptyset$ ; stated this way, axiom 3. would necessitate that  $0 \cdot w = 0_V \in W$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Note that these axioms are equivalent to saying that W is a subgroup of V with respect to vector addition; 2. ensures closed under addition, and 3. ensures the existence of additive inverses (as per  $-1 \cdot v = -v$ ).

## **® Example 1.4: Examples of Subspaces**

- 1. Let  $V := \mathbb{F}^n$ .
  - $W := \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : x_1 = 0\} = \{(0, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{F}\}.$
  - $W := \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : x_1 + 2 \cdot x_2 = 0\}$

<u>Proof.</u> Let  $x = (x_1, ..., x_n), y = (y_1, ..., y_n) \in W$ . Then,  $x + y = (x_1 + y_1, ..., x_n + y_n)$ , and  $x_1 + y_1 + 2 \cdot (x_2 + y_2) = x_1 + 2 \cdot x_2 + y_1 + 2 \cdot y_2 = 0 + 0 = 0 \implies x + y \in W$ . Similar logic follows for axioms 2., 3.

• (More generally)

$$a_{11}x_1 + \cdots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$W := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n : a_{21}x_1 + \cdots + a_{2n}x_n = 0 \},$$

$$a_{k1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{kn}x_n = 0$$

that is, a linear combination of homogenous "conditions" on each term.

- $W^* := \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_1 + x_2 = 1\}$  is *not* a subspace; it is not closed under addition, nor under scalar multiplication.
- 2. Let  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n := \{a_0 + a_1t + \cdots + a_nt^n : a_i \in \mathbb{F}\}$ . Then,  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{F}[t]$ , the more general polynomial space. *However*, the set of all polynomials of degree *exactly* n (all axioms fail, in fact) is not a subspace of  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$ .
  - $W := \{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p(1) = 0\}.$
  - $W := \{p(t) \in \mathbb{F}[t]_n : p''(t) + p'(t) + 2p(t) = 0\}.$
- 3. Let  $V:=C(\mathbb{R})$  be the space of continuous function  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ .
  - $W := \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : f(\pi) + 7f(\sqrt{2}) = 0 \}.$
  - $W:=C^1(\mathbb{R}):=$  everywhere differentiable functions.
  - $W := \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : \int_0^1 f \, dx = 0 \}.$

Let  $W_1, W_2$  be subspaces of a vector space V over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then, define the following:

1. 
$$W_1 + W_2 := \{w_1 + w_2 : w_1 \in W_1, w_2 \in W_2\}$$

2. 
$$W_1 \cap W_2 := \{ w \in V : w \in W_1 \land w \in W_2 \}$$

These are both subspaces of V.

Proof.

- 1. (a)  $0_V \in W_1$  and  $0_V \in W_2 \implies 0_V = 0_V + 0_V \in W_1 + W_2$ .
- (b)  $(u_1 + u_2) + (v_1 + v_2) = (u_1 + v_1) + (u_2 + v_2) \in W_1 + W_2$ .
- (c)  $\alpha \cdot (u+v) = \alpha \cdot u + \alpha \cdot v \in W_1 + W_2$
- 2. (a)  $0_V \in W_1$  and  $0_V \in W_2 \implies 0_V = 0_V + 0_V \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .
  - (b)  $u, v \in W_1 \cap W_2 \implies u + v \in W_1 \wedge u + v \in W_2 \implies u + v \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .
  - (c)  $\alpha \cdot u \in W_1 \wedge \alpha \cdot u \in W_2 \implies \alpha \cdot u \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .

# 1.3 Linear Combinations and Span

## **→ Definition** 1.4: Linear Combination

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . For finitely many vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ , their *linear combination* is a sum of the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = a_1 \cdot v_1 + \dots + a_n \cdot v_n,$$

where  $a_i \in \mathbb{F} \, \forall i$ .

A linear combination is called *trivial* if  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ , that is, all coefficients are 0.

If n=0 (ie, we are "summing up" 0 vectors), we define the sum as the zero vector;  $\sum_{i=1}^{0} a_i v_i := 0_V$ .

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#### → **Definition 1.5:** A More General Definition of Linear Combination

For a (possibly infinite) set S of vectors from V, a linear combination of vectors in S is a linear combination of  $a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$  for some finite subset  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\} \subseteq S$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>That is, we do not allow infinite sums.

## $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 1.6: Span**

For a subset  $S \subseteq V$ , we define its *span* as

$$\operatorname{Span}(S) := \operatorname{set} \operatorname{of} \operatorname{all linear combinations} \operatorname{of} S := \{a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n : a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in S\}.$$

By convention, we set  $Span(\emptyset) = \{0_V\}.$ 

## **\* Example 1.5**

Let  $S := \{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1), (1, 1, -2)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ . Then,

$$0_{\mathbb{R}^3} = (0,0,0) = 1 \cdot (1,0,-1) + 1 \cdot (0,1,-1) + -1 \cdot (1,1,-2).$$

We claim, moreover, that  $\mathrm{Span}(S)=U:=\{(x,y,z)\in\mathbb{R}^3:x+y+z=0\}$  (a plane through the origin).

*Proof.* Note that  $S \subseteq U$ , hence  $S \subseteq \operatorname{Span} S \subseteq U$ . OTOH, if  $(x, y, z) \in U$ , we have z = -x - y, and so

$$(x, y, z) = (x, y, -x - y) = x \cdot (1, 0, -1) + y \cdot (0, 1, -1) \in \text{Span}(S)$$

hence  $U \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S)$  and thus  $\operatorname{Span}(S) = U$ .

**Remark 1.4.** We implicitly used the following claim in the proof above; we prove it more generally.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 1.3

Let V be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and let  $S \subseteq V$ . Then,  $\operatorname{Span}(S)$  is always a subspace. Moreover, it is the smallest (minimal) subspace containing S (that is, for any subspace  $U \supseteq S$ , we have that  $U \supseteq \operatorname{Span} S$ ).

<u>Proof.</u> Because adding/scalar multiplying linear combinations of elements of S again results in a linear combination of elements of S, and  $0_V \in \text{Span}(S)$  by definition, we have that Span(S) is indeed a subspace.

If  $U \supset S$  is a subspace of V containing S, then by definition U is closed under addition, that is, taking linear combinations of its elements (in particular, of elements of S); hence,  $U \supset \operatorname{Span}(S)$ .

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Lemma 1.1

For  $S \subseteq V$  and  $v \in V$ ,  $v \in \text{Span}(S) \iff \text{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) = \text{Span}(S)$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Let  $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S) \Longrightarrow v = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n, a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in V$ . Then, for any linear combination

$$b_1u_1 + \cdots + b_mu_m + b \cdot v = b_1u_1 + \cdots + b_mu_m + b(a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n)$$

is a linear combination of vectors in  $S \cup \{v\}$  (first equality) or equivalently, a combination of vectors in S (second equality) and thus  $\operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) \subseteq \operatorname{Span} S$ . The reverse inclusion follows trivially.

$$(\Leftarrow) \operatorname{Span}(S \cup \{v\}) = \operatorname{Span} S \implies v \in \operatorname{Span}(S).$$

## **\* Example 1.6**

(From the above example) We have

$$Span(\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1)\} \cup \{(1,1,-2)\}) = Span(\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1)\}),$$

since  $(1, 1, -2) \in \text{Span}(\{(1, 0, -1), (0, 1, -1)\})$  (it was redundant, as it could be generated by the other two vectors).

## **→ Definition** 1.7: Spanning Set

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . We call  $S \subseteq V$  a spanning set for V if  $\mathrm{Span}(S) = V$ . We call such a spanning set minimal if no proper subset of S is a spanning set  $(\not\exists v \in S \text{ s.t. } S \setminus \{v\} \text{ spanning})$ .

**Remark 1.5.** Note that any  $S \subseteq V$  is a spanning for Span(S). But, S may not be minimal; indeed, consider the previous example. We were able to remove a vector from S while having the same span.

#### **\* Example 1.7**

For  $\mathbb{F}^n$  as a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ , the *standard spanning set* 

$$\operatorname{St}_{n} := \{ \underbrace{(1, \dots, 0)}_{:=e_{1}}, \underbrace{(0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)}_{:=e_{2}}, \dots, \underbrace{(0, \dots, 1)}_{e_{n}} \}.$$

Given any  $x := (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ , we can write

$$x = x_1 \cdot e_1 + \dots \cdot x_n \cdot e_n.$$

This is clearly minimal; removing any  $e_i$  would then result in a 0 in the *i*th "coordinate" of a vector, hence  $\operatorname{St}\setminus\{e_i\}$  would span only vectors whose *i*th coordinate is 0.

## → **Definition** 1.8: Linear Dependence

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A set  $S \subseteq V$  is said to be *linearly dependent* if there is a nontrivial linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to  $0_V$ .

Conversely, S is called *linearly independent* if there is no nontrivial linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to  $0_V$ ; all linear combinations of vectors in S that equal  $0_V$  are trivial.

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## **Example 1.8**

- 1. The empty set  $\varnothing$  is linearly independent; there are no non-trivial linear combinations that equal  $0_V$  (there are no linear combinations at all).
- 2. For  $v \in V$ , the set  $\{v\}$  is linearly dependent iff  $v = 0_V$ .
- 3.  $S:=\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(1,1,-2)\}:=\{v_1,v_2,v_3\}; S \text{ is linearly dependent } (v_1+v_2-v_3=(0,0,0)).$
- 4.  $V:=\mathbb{F}^3; S:=\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(0,0,1)\}=\{v_1,v_2,v_3\}$  is linearly independent.

Proof. Suppose

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + a_3v_3 = 0_V$$

$$\implies a_1 = 0 \land a_2 = 0 \land -a_1 - a_2 + a_3 = 0 \implies a_3 = 0$$

$$\implies a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$$

Hence only a trivial linear combination is possible.

5.  $St_n$  is linearly independent.

Proof.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i e_i = 0_{\mathbb{F}^n} \implies a_i = 0 \,\forall i$$

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Lemma 1.2

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb F$  , and  $S\subseteq V$  (possibly infinite).

- 1. S is linearly dependent  $\iff$  there is a finite subset  $S_0 \subseteq S$  that is linearly dependent.
- 2. S is linearly independent  $\iff$  all finite subsets of S are linearly independent.

*Proof.* 2. follows from the negation of 1.

(  $\iff$  ) Trivial.

( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose S linearly dependent. Then,  $0_V=$  some nontrivial linear combination of vectors  $v_1,\ldots,v_n$  in S. Let  $S_0=\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}$ , then,  $S_0$  is linearly dependent itself.

# 1.4 Linear Dependence and Span

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  and  $S \subseteq V$ .

- 1. S linearly dependent  $\iff \exists v \in \text{Span}(S \setminus \{v\}).$
- 2. S linearly independent  $\iff$  there is no  $v \in \text{Span}(S \setminus \{v\})$ .

*Proof.* 2. follows from the negation of 1.

( $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose S linearly dependent. Then,  $0_V = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i v_i$  for some nontrivial linear combination of distinct vectors S. At least one of  $a_i \neq 0$ ; we can assume wlog (reindexing)  $a_1 \neq 0$ . Then,

$$a_1 v_1 = -\sum_{i=2}^n a_i v_i \implies v_1 = (-a_1^{-1}) \sum_{i=2}^n a_i v_i = \sum_{i=2}^n (-a_1^{-1} a_i) v_i,$$

hence,  $v_1 \in \operatorname{Span}(\{v_2, \dots, v_n\}) \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(S \setminus \{v\})$ 

( $\iff$ ) Suppose  $v \in \text{Span}(S \setminus \{v\})$ , then  $v = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$ , with  $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in S \setminus \{v\}$ , thus

$$0_V = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n - v,$$

which is not a trivial combination (-1 on the v; v cannot "merge" with the other vectors), hence S is linearly dependent.

# $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 1.1

 $S \subseteq V$  is linearly independent  $\iff S$  a minimal spanning set of  $\operatorname{Span} S$ .

*Proof.* Follows from proposition 1.4, 2.

# → **Definition** 1.9: Maximally Independent

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A set  $S \subseteq V$  is called *maximally independent* if S is linearly independent and  $\exists v \in V \setminus S$  s.t.  $S \cup \{v\}$  is still linearly independent.

In other words, there is no proper supset  $\tilde{S} \supseteq S$  that is still independent.

## $\hookrightarrow \underline{Lemma} \ 1.3$

If  $S \subseteq V$  maximally independent, then S is spanning for V.

<u>Proof.</u> Let  $S \subseteq V$  be maximally independent. Let  $v \in V$ ; supposing  $v \notin S$  (in the case that  $v \in S$ , then  $v \in \operatorname{Span}(S)$  trivially). By maximality,  $S \cup \{v\}$  is linearly dependent, hence there exists a nontrivial linear combination that equals

 $0_V$ . Since S independent, this combination must include v, with a nonzero coefficient. We can write

$$av + \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i = 0_V \quad a \neq 0, v_i \in S$$

$$\implies v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-a^{-1}a_i)v_i \in \operatorname{Span} S.$$

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 1.1

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  and let  $S \subseteq V$ . TFAE:

- 1. S is a minimal spanning set;
- 2. S is linearly independent and spanning;
- 3. *S* is a maximally linearly independent set;
- 4. Every vector in V is equal to *unique* linear combination of vectors in S.

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<u>Proof.</u> (1.  $\implies$  2.) Suppose S is spanning for V and is minimal. Then, by corollary 1.1, we have that S is linearly independent, and is thus both linearly independent and spanning.

(2.  $\Longrightarrow$  3.) Suppose S is linearly independent and spanning. Let  $v \in V \setminus S$ ; S is spanning, hence  $v \in \operatorname{Span} S$ , that is, there exists a linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to v:

$$v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n, a_i \in \mathbb{F}, v_i \in S.$$

Thus,  $0_V = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n - v$ , thus  $S \cup \{v\}$  is linearly dependent, and so S is maximally linearly independent.

- (3.  $\implies$  1.) Suppose S is maximally linearly independent. By lemma 1.3, S is spanning, and since S is linearly independent, by corollary 1.1, S is minimally spanning for  $\operatorname{Span} S$ .
- (2.  $\implies$  4.) Suppose S is linearly independent and spans V, and let  $v \in V$ . We have that  $v \in \operatorname{Span} S$  and hence is equal to a linear combination of vectors in S. This gives existence; we now need to prove uniqueness.

Suppose there exist two linear combinations that equal v,

$$v = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n = b_1u_1 + \dots + b_mu_m,$$

 $a_i, b_j \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $v_i, u_j \in S$ . With appropriate reindexing/relabelling and allowing certain scalars to equal 0, we can assume that the combinations use the same vectors (with potentially different coefficients), that is,

$$v = a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_k w_k = b_1 w_1 + \dots + a_k w_k.$$

This implies, then,

$$(a_1 - b_1)w_1 + \cdots + (a_k - b_k)w_k = 0_V$$

and by the assumed linear independent of S, each coefficient  $(a_i - b_i) = 0 \,\forall i \implies a_i = b_i \,\forall i$ , hence, these are indeed the same representations, and thus this representation is unique.

(4.  $\implies$  2.) Suppose every vector in V admits a unique linear combination of vectors in S. Clearly, then, S is spanning. It remains to show S is linearly independent. Suppose

$$0_V = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$$

for  $v_i \in S$ . But we have that every vector has a unique representation, and we know that  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$  is a (valid) linear combination that gives  $0_V$ ; hence, this must be the unique combination,  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ , and the linear combination above is trivial. Hence, S is linearly independent and spanning.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 1.10: Basis**

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

In the words of 4, we call the unique linear combination of vectors in S that is equal to v the unique representation of v in S. Its coefficients are called the Fourier coefficients of v in S.

## **\* Example 1.9**

- 1.  $\operatorname{St}_n = \{e_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ .
- 2. In  $\mathbb{F}^3$ , the set

$$\{(1,0,-1),(0,1,-1),(0,0,1)\}$$

is a basis; it is linearly independent and spanning.

3. For  $\mathbb{F}[t]_n$ , the standard basis is

$$\{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}.$$

4. For  $\mathbb{F}[t]$ , the standard basis is

$$S := \{1, t, t^2, \dots\} = \{t^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

5. Let  $\mathbb{F}[t]$  denote the space of all formal power series  $\sum_{n\in\mathbb{N}}a_nt^n$ ; polynomials are an example, but with only finite nonzero coefficients. Note that, then, the set S defined above is not a basis for this "extended" set. We *can* in fact find a basis for this set; we need more tools first.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 1.2

Every vector space has a basis.

**Remark 1.6.** This theorem relies on assuming the Axiom of Choice.

*Proof (Attempt).* (Of theorem 1.2) We will try to "inductively" build a maximally independent set, as follows:

Begin with an empty set  $S_0 := \emptyset$ , and iteratively add more vectors to it. Let  $v_0 \in V$  be a non-zero vector, and let  $S_1 := \{v_0\}$ .

If  $S_1$  is maximal, then we are done. Otherwise, there exists a new vector  $v_1 \in V \setminus S_1$  s.t.  $S_2 := \{v_0, v_1\}$  is still independent.

If  $S_2$  is maximal, then we are done. Otherwise, there exists a new vector  $v_2 \in V \setminus S_2$  s.t.  $S_3 := \{v_0, v_1, v_2\}$  is still independent.

Continue in this manner; this would take arbitrarily many finite, or even infinite, steps; we would need some "choice function" that would "allow" us to choose any particular ith vector  $v_i$ .

We can make this construction precise via the Axiom of Choice and transfinite induction (on ordinals); alternatively, we will prove a statement equivalent to the Axiom of Choice, Zorn's Lemma.

**Remark 1.7.** Before stating Zorn's Lemma, we introduce the following terminology.

#### **→ Axiom 1.1: Axiom of Choice**

Let X be a set of nonempty sets. Then, there exists a choice function f defined on X that maps each set of X to an element of that set.

## → Definition 1.11: Inclusion-Maximal Element

A inclusion-maximal element of I is a set  $S \in I$  s.t. there is no strict super set  $S' \supseteq S$  s.t.  $S' \in I$ .

#### **→ Definition 1.12: Chain**

Let X a set. Call a collection  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  a *chain* if any two  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$  are comparable, ie,  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \subseteq A$ .

## **→ Definition 1.13: Upper Bound**

An *upper bound* of a collection  $\tau \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  is a set  $U \subseteq X$  s.t.  $U \supset J \forall J \in \tau$ ; U contains the union of all sets in J.

#### **\* Example 1.10: Of The Previous Definitions**

Let 
$$X := \mathbb{N}, I := \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}).$$

The maximal elements of I would be  $\{0\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ .

Chains would include  $C_0 := \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}, C_1 := \{\emptyset, \{0\}\}, C_2 := \{\emptyset\}$  (or any set containing a single element).

The sets  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  are upper bounds for I, while neither is an element of I. The set  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is an upper bound for  $C_0$ . A chain  $\{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, 2\}, \dots\}$  has an upper bound of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

#### → Lemma 1.4: Zorn's Lemma

Let X be an ambient set and  $I \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  be a nonempty collection of subsets of X. If every chain  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq I$  has an upper bound in I, then I has a maximal element.

"Proof". This is equivalent to the Axiom of Choice; proving it is beyond the scope of this course :(.

Proof of theorem 1.2, cnt'd. We obtain a maximal independent set using Zorn's Lemma.

Let I be the collection of all linearly independent subsets of V. I is nonempty;  $\emptyset \in I$ , as is  $\{v\} \in I$  for any nonzero  $v \in V$ . To apply Zorn's, we need to show that every chain  $\mathcal{C}$  if sets in I has an upper bound in I; that is, every linearly independent set has an upper bound that itself is linearly independent.

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a chain in I. Let  $S:=\bigcup \mathcal{C}$  be the union of all sets in  $\mathcal{C}$ . To show S is linearly independent, it suffices to show that every finite subset  $\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}\subseteq S$  is linearly independent. Let  $S_i\in \mathcal{C}$  be s.t.  $v_i\in S_i$  for each i. Because  $\mathcal{C}$  a chain, for each i,j we have either  $S_i\subseteq S_j$  or  $S_j\subseteq S_i$ , and so we can order  $S_1,\ldots,S_n$  in increasing order w.r.t  $\subseteq$ . This implies, then, there is a maximal  $S_{i_0}$  s.t.  $S_{i_0}\supseteq S_i \ \forall \ i\in \{1,\ldots,n\}$ . Moreover, we have that  $\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}\in S_{i_0}$ , and that  $S_{i_0}$  is linearly independent and thus  $\{v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n\}$  is also linearly independent.

Thus, as we can apply Zorn's Lemma, we conclude that I has a maximal element, ie, there is a maximal independent set, and thus a V indeed has a basis.

← Lecture 06; Last Updated: Fri Jan 19 13:36:58 EST 2024

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 1.3

For every vector space V over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ , any two bases  $\mathcal{B}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_2$  are equinumerous/of equal size/cardinality, ie, there is a bijection between  $\mathcal{B}_1$  and  $\mathcal{B}_2$ .

**Remark 1.8.** We will only prove this for vector spaces that admit a finite basis.

#### → Lemma 1.5: Steinitz Substitution

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let  $Y \subseteq V$  be a (possibly infinite) linearly independent set and let  $Z \subseteq V$  be a finite spanning set. Then:

- 1.  $k := |Y| \le |Z| =: n$
- 2. There is  $Z' \subseteq Z$  of size n k s.t.  $Y \cup Z'$  is still spanning.

*Proof.* We prove by induction on k.

k=0 gives that  $Y=\emptyset$ , and so Z'=Z itself works  $(Z'\cup Y=Z)$  as a spanning set.

Suppose the statement holds for some  $k \geq 0$ . Let Y be an independent set such that |Y| = k + 1, ie

$$Y := \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k, y_{k+1}\}, \quad y \in V.$$

By our inductive assumption, we can consider  $Y' := \{y_1, \dots, y_k\} \subseteq Y$  of size k, to obtain a set

$$Z' = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{n-k}\} \subseteq Z$$
, s.t.  $Y' \cup Z' = \{y_1, \dots, y_k, z_1, \dots, z_{n-k}\}$ 

is spanning. As this is spanning, we can write  $y_{k+1}$  as a linear combination of vectors in  $Y' \cup Z'$ , ie

$$y_{k+1} = a_1 y_1 + \dots + a_k y_k + b_1 z_1 + \dots + b_{n-k} z_{n-k}, \quad a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{F}.$$

It must be that at least one of  $b_j$ 's must be nonzero; if they were all zero, then  $y_{k+1}$  would simply be a linear combination of vector  $y_i$  giving that  $y_{k+1}$  linearly dependent, contradicting our construction of Y linearly independent.

Assume, wlog,  $b_{n-k} \neq 0$ . Then, we can write

$$z_{n-k} = b_{n-k}^{-1} y_{k+1} - b_{n-k}^{-1} a_1 y_1 - \dots - b_{n-k}^{-1} a_k y_k - b_{n-k}^{-1} b_1 z_1 - \dots - b_{n-k}^{-1} b_{n-k-1} z_{n-k-1},$$

and hence

$$z_{n-k} \in \text{Span}\{y_1, \dots, y_{k+1}, z_1, \dots, z_{n-k-1}\} = \text{Span}\left(\underbrace{\{y_1, \dots, y_{k+1}\}}_{Y} \cup \underbrace{\{z_1, \dots, z_{n-k-1}\}}_{:=Z''}\right).$$

We had that  $Y' \cup Z'$  was spanning, and  $(Y' \cup Z') \setminus (Y \cup Z'') = \{z_{n-k}\} \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(Y \cup Z'')$ , and we thus have that  $Y \cup Z''$  is also spanning.

## **⇔ Corollary 1.2: Finite Basis Case for theorem 1.3**

Let V be a vector space that admits a finite basis. Then, any two bases of V are equinumerous.

*Proof.* Let Y, Z be two finite bases for V. Then, Y is independent and Z is spanning, so by Steinitz Substitution,  $\overline{|Y|} \le |Z|$ . OTOH, Z is independent, and Y is spanning, so by Steinitz Substitution,  $|Z| \le |Y|$ , and we conclude that |Y| = |Z|. Let n := |Y|.

It remains to show that there exist no infinite bases for V; it suffices to show that there is no independent set of size n+1. To this end, let  $I \subseteq V$  such that |I| = n+1 be an independent set. Y is still spanning, hence, by the substitution lemma,  $n+1 \le n$ , a contradiction. Hence, I as defined cannot exist and so any basis of V must be of size n.

#### **→ Definition 1.14: Dimension**

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  . The *dimension* of V, denote

$$\dim(V)$$

as the cardinality/size of any basis for V. We call V finite dimensional if  $\dim(V)$  is a natural number, i.e. V admits a finite basis. Otherwise, we say V is infinite dimensional.

## → Corollary 1.3: of Steinitz Substitution

Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and denote  $n := \dim(V)$ . Then:

- 1. Every linearly independent subset  $I \subseteq V$  has size  $\leq n$ ;
- 2. Every spanning set  $S \subseteq V$  for V has size  $\geq n$ ;
- 3. Every independent set I can be completed to a basis to V, ie, there exists a basis B for V s.t.  $I \subseteq B$ .

*Proof.* Fix a basis B for V, |B| =: n.

- 1. If I is a independent set, then because B spanning, Steinitz Substitution gives  $|I| \leq |B|$ .
- 2. If S spanning for V, then because B is linearly independent, Steinitz Substitution gives  $|B| \leq |S|$ .
- 3. Let I be an independent set. Then, because B is spanning, Steinitz Substitution gives  $B' \subseteq B$  of size n |I| s.t.  $I \cup B'$  is spanning. Moreover,  $|I \cup B'| \le n$ , and by 2. it must have size  $\ge n$ , and thus has size precisely n and is thus a minimally spanning set and thus a basis.

## → Corollary 1.4: Monotonicity of Dimension

Let V be a vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . For any subspace  $W \subseteq \dim W \leq \dim V$ , and

$$\dim W = \dim V \iff W = V.$$

*Proof.* Let  $B \subseteq W$  be a basis for W. Because B is independent,  $|B| \leq \dim(V)$  by 1. of corollary 1.3, so  $\dim(W) = \overline{|B|} \leq \dim(V)$ .

If  $|B| = \dim(V)$ , then B is a basis for V again by 1. of corollary 1.3, so  $W = \operatorname{Span}(B) = V$ .

 $\hookrightarrow$  Lecture 07; Last Updated: Mon Jan 22 13:43:44 EST 2024

# 2 Linear Transformations

## 2.1 Definitions

#### **→ Definition 2.1: Linear Transformation**

Let V, W be vector spaces over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . A function  $T: V \to W$  is called a *linear transformation* if it preserves the vector space structures, that is,

1. 
$$T(v_0 + v_1) = T(v_0) + T(v_1), \forall v_0, v_1 \in V;$$

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

3. 
$$T(0_V) = 0_W$$
.

**Remark 2.1.** *Note that 3. is redundant, implied by 2., but included for emphasis:* 

$$T(0_V) = T(0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot 0_V) = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot T(0_V) = 0_W.$$

## **\* Example 2.1: Linear Transformations**

- 1.  $T: \mathbb{F}^2 \to \mathbb{F}^2$ ,  $T(a_1, a_2) := (a_1 + 2a_2, a_1)$ .
- 2. Let  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ , and let  $T_{\theta} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  be the rotation by  $\theta$ . The linearity of this is perhaps most obvious in polar coordinates, ie  $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $v = r(\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha)$  for appropriate  $r, \alpha$ , and  $T_{\theta}(v) = r(\cos(\alpha + \theta), \sin(\alpha + \theta))$ .
- 3.  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ , a reflection about the x-axis, ie, T(x,y) = (x,-y).
- 4. Projections,  $T: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^n$ .
- 5. The transpose on  $M_n(\mathbb{F})$ , ie,  $T:M_n(\mathbb{F})\to M_n(\mathbb{F})$ , where  $A\mapsto A^t$ .
- 6. The derivative on space of polynomials of degree leq  $n, D : \mathbb{F}[t]_{n+1} \to \mathbb{F}[t]_n, p(t) \mapsto p'(t)$ .

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 2.1

Linear transformations are completely determined by their values on a basis.

That is, let  $\mathcal{B} := \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be a basis for a vector space V over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let W also be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and let  $w_1, \dots, w_n \in W$  be arbitrary vectors. Then, there is a unique linear transformation  $T: V \to W$  s.t.  $T(v_i) = w_i \, \forall \, i = 1, \dots, n$ .

*Proof.* We aim to define T(v) for arbitrary  $v \in V$ . We can write

$$v = a_1 v_1 + \cdots + a_n v_n$$

as the unique representation of v in terms of the basis  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then, we simply define

$$T(v) := a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_n w_n,$$

for our given  $w_i$ 's. Then,  $T(v_i) = 1 \cdot w_i = w_i$ , as desired, and T is linear;

1. Let  $u, v \in V$ ;  $u := \sum_n a_i v_i, v := \sum_n b_i v_i$ . Then,

$$T(u+v) = T(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i v_i) = T(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i) v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i) w_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i w_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i w_i = T(u) + T(v).$$

2. Scalar multiplication follows similarly.

To show uniqueness, suppose  $T_0, T_1$  are two linear transformations satisfying  $T_0(v_i) = w_i = T_1(v_i)$ . Let  $v \in V$ , and write  $v = \sum_n a_i v_i$ . By linearity,

$$T_k(v) = T_k(\sum_n a_i v_i) = \sum_n a_i T(v_i) = \sum_n a_i w_i,$$

for k = 0, 1, hence,  $T_1(v) = T_0(v)$  for arbitrary v, hence the transformations are equivalent.

#### **→ Definition 2.2: Some Important Transformations**

We denote  $T_0: V \to W$  by  $T_0(v) := 0_W \forall v \in V$  the zero transformation. We denote  $I_V: V \to V$ ,  $I_V(v) := v \forall v \in V$ , as the identity transformation.

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## 2.2 Isomorphisms, Kernel, Image

#### → **Definition 2.3: Isomorphism**

Let V, W be vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ . An *isomorphism* from V to W is a linear transformation  $T: V \to W$  (a homomorphism for vector spaces) which admits an inverse  $T^{-1}$  that is also linear.

If such an isomorphism exists, we say V and W are isomorphic.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 2.1

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

*Proof.* The direction  $\implies$  is trivial.

Suppose  $T:V\to W$  is linear and bijective, ie  $T^{-1}$  exists. We need to show that  $T^{-1}$  is linear. Let  $w_1,w_2\in W, a_1,a_2\in \mathbb{F}$ . Then:

$$T^{-1}(a_1w_1 + a_2w_2) = T^{-1}(a_1T(T^{-1}(w_1)) + a_2T(T^{-1}(w_2)))$$
(by linearity of  $T$ ) 
$$= T^{-1}(T(a_1T^{-1}(w_1) + a_2T^{-1}(w_2)))$$

$$= a_1T^{-1}(w_1) + a_2T^{-1}(w_2).$$

**Remark 2.2.** This proposition holds for all structures that only have operations; it does not for those with relations, such as graphs, orders, etc..

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 2.2

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

<u>Proof.</u> Fix a basis  $\mathcal{B} := \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  for V, and let  $T : V \to \mathbb{F}^n$  be the unique linear transformation determined by  $\mathcal{B}$  with  $T(v_i) = e_i$ , where  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  is the standard basis for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ . We show that T is a bijection.

(Injective) Suppose  $T(x) = T(y), x, y \in V$ . Write  $x = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n, y = b_1v_1 + \cdots + b_nv_n$ , the unique representation of x, y in the basis  $\mathcal{B}$ . We have:

$$a_1e_1 + \dots + a_ne_n = a_1T(v_1) + \dots + a_nT(v_n) = T(a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n) = T(x) = T(y) = \dots = b_1e_1 + \dots + b_ne_n$$

but by the uniqueness of representation in a basis, it follows that each  $a_i = b_i$ , hence, x = y.

(Surjective) Let  $w \in \mathbb{F}^n$ . Then,  $w = a_1 e_1 + \cdots + a_n e_n$  (uniquely). But then,

$$w = a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n) = T(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n),$$

where  $a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n \in V$ , hence T indeed surjective.

**Remark 2.3.** Replacing  $\mathbb{F}^n$  with an arbitrary n-dim vector space W over  $\mathbb{F}$  yields the following.

#### → Theorem 2.3: Freeness of Vector Space

Let W,V be vector spaces over  $\mathbb F$  and let  $\beta,\gamma$  be bases for V,W respectively. Every bijection  $T:\beta\to\gamma$  can be extended to an isomorphism  $\hat T:V\to W$ .

In particular, all vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$  with equinumerous bases are isomorphic.

**Remark 2.4.** The proof follows very similarly to the previous theorem, but extended to arbitrary, possible infinite, spaces.

Proof.

## → <u>Definition</u> 2.4: Image/Kernel

For a linear transformation  $T: V \to W$ , where V, W are vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ , we define the *image* 

$$Im(T) := T(v),$$

and its kernel

$$Ker(T) = T^{-1}(\{0_W\}).$$

Ker(T) and Im T are subspaces of V, W resp.

*Proof.* (Ker(T)) Let  $v_0, v_1 \in \text{Ker } T$  and  $a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{F}$ , then

$$T(a_0v_0 + a_1v_1) = a_0T(v_0) + a_1T(v_1) = 0_W \implies a_0v_0 + a_1v_1 \in \text{Ker } T.$$

 $(\operatorname{Im}(T))$  Let  $w_0, w_1 \in \operatorname{Im} T$ ,  $a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{F}$ . Then  $w_i = T(v_i), v_i \in V$ , and so

$$a_0w_0 + a_1w_1 = a_0T(v_0) + a_1T(v_1) = T(a_0v_0 + a_1v_1) \implies a_0w_0 + a_1w_1 \in \operatorname{Im} T.$$

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 2.3

Let  $T:V\to W$  be a linear transformation, where V,W vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let  $\beta$  be a (possibly infinite) basis for V. Then, T(B) spans  $\mathrm{Im}(T)$ .

In particular, T is surjective iff  $T(\beta)$  spans W.

*Proof.* Let  $w \in \text{Im}(T)$ , so w = T(v) for some  $v \in V$ , where we have  $v := a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n, v_i \in \beta$ . Then,

$$w = T(v) = a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n) \in \operatorname{Span}(\{T(v_1), \dots, T(v_n)\}) \subseteq \operatorname{Span}(T(\beta)).$$

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## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 2.4

Let  $T:V\to W$  be a linear transformation, where V,W vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ . TFAE:

- 1. T is injective.
- 2. Ker(T) is the trivial subspace  $\{0_V\}$ .
- 3.  $T(\beta)$  is independent for each basis  $\beta$  for V.
- 3'.  $T(\beta)$  is independent for some basis  $\beta$  for V.

*Proof.* (1.  $\implies$  2.) Trivial; only  $0_V$  can be mapped to  $0_W$ .

(2.  $\implies$  1.) Suppose  $Ker(T) = \{0_V\}$  and let  $T(x) = T(y), x, y \in V$ . By linearity,

$$T(x-y) = T(x) - T(y) = 0_W \implies x-y \in \operatorname{Ker}(T) \implies x-y = 0_V \implies x = y.$$

(2.  $\Longrightarrow$  3.) Fix a basis  $\beta$  for V. To show that  $T(\beta)$  linearly independent, take an arbitrary linear combination  $a_1w_1 + \cdots + a_nw_n \in T(\beta)$ . Suppose  $\sum_i a_iw_i = 0_W$ . Since  $w_i \in T(\beta)$ ,  $w_i = T(v_i)$ ,  $v_i \in \beta$ , hence

$$0_W = a_1 w_1 + \dots + a_n w_n = a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n) = T(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n)$$

$$\implies a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n \in \text{Ker}(T)$$

$$\implies a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n = 0_V,$$

but each  $v_i$  is linearly independent, hence this must be a trivial linear combination, and thus  $a_i = 0 \,\forall i$ .

- $(3) \implies (3')$  Trivial; stronger statement implies weaker statement.
- (3')  $\Longrightarrow$  (2) Suppose  $T(\beta)$  linearly independent for some basis  $\beta$  for V. Suppose  $T(v) = 0_W, v \in V$ . We write

$$v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n, v_i \in \beta.$$

Then,

$$0_W = T(v) = T(a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n) = a_1T(v_1) + \dots + a_nT(v_n),$$

but  $\{T(v_i)\}\subseteq T(\beta)$  is linearly independent, hence, this combination must be trivial and each  $a_i=0$ , and thus  $v=0_V$  and so  $\mathrm{Ker}(T)=\{0_V\}$  is trivial.

## → **Definition** 2.5: Rank, nullity

Let V,W be vector spaces over  $\mathbb F$  and  $T:V\to W$  be linear. Define  $\mathit{rank}$  of T as

$$rank(T) := \dim(Im(T)),$$

and *nullity* of T as

$$\operatorname{nullity}(T) := \dim(\operatorname{Ker}(T)).$$

#### → Theorem 2.4: Rank-Nullity Theorem

Let V, W be vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}, \dim(V) < \infty$ . Let  $T: V \to W$  be a linear transformation. Then,

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

**Remark 2.5.** Intuitively: the nullity is the number of vectors we "collapse"; the rank is what is left. Together, we have the entire space.

**Remark 2.6.** This follows directly from the first isomorphism theorem for vector spaces, and the fact that  $\dim(V/\ker(T)) = \dim(V) - \dim(\ker(T))$ ; however, we will prove it without this result below.

<u>Proof.</u> Let  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$  be a basis for  $\operatorname{Ker}(T)$ , and complete it to a basis  $\beta := \{v_1, \ldots, v_k, u_1, \ldots, u_{n-k}\}$  for V, where  $\overline{n := \dim(V)}$ . We need to show that  $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = n - k$ .

Recall that  $\{T(v_1), \ldots, T(v_k), T(u_1), \ldots, T(u_{n-k})\}$  spans  $\operatorname{Im}(T)$ . But  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \operatorname{Ker}(T)$ , so  $T(v_i) = 0_W \, \forall \, i = 1, \ldots, k$ . Hence, letting  $\gamma := \{T(u_1), \ldots, T(u_{n-k})\}$  spans  $\operatorname{Im}(T)$ . It remains to show that  $\gamma$  is independent.

Let  $a_1T(u_1) + \cdots + a_{n-k}T(u_{n-k}) = 0_W$ ; by linearity,

$$T(a_1u_1 + \dots + a_{n-k}u_{n-k}) = 0_W$$

$$\implies a_1u_1 + \dots + a_{n-k}u_{n-k} \in \text{Ker}(T)$$

$$\implies a_1u_1 + \dots + a_{n-k}u_{n-k} = b_1v_1 + \dots + b_kv_k,$$

but each of these  $u_i, v_j \in \beta$ , hence, each coefficient must be identically zero as  $\beta$  linearly independent, and thus  $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = n - k$ . This completes the proof.

## **⇔ Corollary 2.1: Pigeonhole Principle for Dimension**

Let  $T: V \to W$  be a linear transformation. If T injective, then  $\dim(W) \ge \dim(V)$ .

*Proof.* If  $\dim(V) < \infty$ , then  $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = \dim(V)$ , and we have that  $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) \le \dim(W)$  and conclude  $\dim(V) \le \dim(W)$ .

If 
$$\dim(V) = \infty$$
, then  $\dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = \infty$  and  $\dim(W) \ge \dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = \infty$ .

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 2.2

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and V, W be n-dimensional vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ . For a linear transformation  $T: V \to W$ , TFAE:

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

*Proof.* (2.  $\iff$  3.) Follows from rank $(T) = \dim(\operatorname{Im}(T)) = n \iff \operatorname{Im}(T) = W$ .

(1.  $\Longrightarrow$  3.) We have  $\operatorname{nullity}(T) = 0$  so  $\operatorname{rank}(T) = \dim(V) = n$ .

(3.  $\implies$  1.) If rank(T) = n, then nullity(T) = 0.

 $\hookrightarrow \textit{Lecture 10; Last Updated: Mon Feb 5 14:03:23 EST 2024}$ 

#### → Theorem 2.5: First Isomorphism Theorem for Vector Spaces

Let V, W be vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let  $T: V \to W$  be a linear transformation. Then,

$$V/\operatorname{Ker}(T) \cong \operatorname{Im}(T),$$

by the isomorphism given by  $v + \text{Ker}(T) \mapsto T(v)$ .

<u>Proof.</u> From group theory, we know that  $\hat{T}: V/\operatorname{Ker}(T) \to \operatorname{Im}(T)$ , where  $\hat{T}(v+\operatorname{Ker}(T)) := T(v)$  is well-defined, and is an isomorphism of abelian groups. We need only to check that  $\hat{T}$  is linear, namely, that is respects scalar multiplication.

We have

$$\hat{T}(a \cdot (v + \text{Ker}(T))) = \hat{T}((a \cdot v) + \text{Ker}(T))$$
$$= T(av) = a \cdot T(v)$$
$$= a\hat{T}(v + \text{Ker}(T)),$$

as desired.

# **2.3** The Space Hom(V, W)

## → **Definition** 2.6: Homomorphism Space

For vector spaces V, W over  $\mathbb{F}$ , let  $\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)$  (also denoted  $\ell(V, W)$ ) denote the set of all linear transformations from V to W. We can turn this into a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  as follows:

1. Addition of linear transformations: for  $T_0, T_1 \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$ , define

$$(T_0 + T_1): V \to W, \quad v \mapsto T_0(v) + T_1(v).$$

 $(T_0 + T_1)$  is clearly a linear transformation, as the linear combination of linear transformations  $T_0, T_1$ .

2. Scalar multiplication of linear transformations: for  $T \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{F}$ , define

$$(a \cdot T) : V \to W, \quad v \mapsto a \cdot T(v),$$

which is again clearly linear in its own right.

# $\hookrightarrow$ **Proposition 2.5**

Endowed with the operations described above,  $\operatorname{Hom}(V,W)$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}.$ 

*Proof.* Follows easily from the definitions.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 2.6: Basis for Hom(V, W)

For vector spaces V, W over  $\mathbb{F}$  and bases  $\beta, \gamma$  for V, W resp., the following set

$$\{T_{v,w} = v \in \beta, w \in \gamma\},\$$

is a basis for  $\operatorname{Hom}(V,W)$ , where for each  $v \in \beta$  and  $w \in \gamma$ ,  $T_{v,w} \in \operatorname{Hom}(V,W)$  defined as the unique linear transformation such that

$$T_{v,w}(v') = \begin{cases} w & v' = v \\ 0_W & v' \neq v \iff \beta \setminus \{v\} \end{cases}.$$

*Proof.* Left as a (homework) exercise.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 2.3

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

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 2.6

Let  $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \gamma = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$  be bases for V, W resp. Then, by theorem 2.6,

$$\{T_{v_i,w_j}: i \in \{1,\ldots,n\}, j \in \{1,\ldots,m\}\}$$

is a basis for  $\operatorname{Hom}(V,W)$ , and it has  $n\cdot m$  vectors by construction.

# 2.4 Matrix Representation of Linear Transformations, Finite Fields

Consider a linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m$  between finite fields. We know that T is uniquely determined by its value of basis vectors, so fix the standard bases

$$\beta = \{e_1^{(n)}, \dots, e_n^{(n)}\} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\},\$$

and note that T is determined by  $\{T(v_1), \ldots, T(v_n)\} \subseteq \mathbb{F}^m$ .

**Remark 2.7.** We denote vectors in  $\mathbb{F}^n$  as column vectors, ie  $\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^n$ .

Each  $T(v_i)$  is a column vector in  $\mathbb{F}^m$ , and we an put these into a  $m \times n$  matrix, namely:<sup>7</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Where [T] denotes a matrix named "T".

$$[T] := \begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ T(v_1) & \cdots & T(v_n) \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}}_{n}$$

We call this the *matrix representation* of T in the standard bases. The operation of multiplying an  $m \times n$  matrix and a  $n \times 1$  vector is precisely defined so that

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Proposition 2.7**

 $T(v) = [T] \cdot v \text{ for all } v \in \mathbb{F}^n.$ 

Proof. Let 
$$v = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$
, where  $v = x_1v_1 + \cdots + x_nv_n$ . Then

$$T(v) = x_1 T(v_1) + \dots + x_n T(v_n)$$
$$T(v_i) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mi} \end{pmatrix}$$

so

$$T(v) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \cdot x_1 + \dots + a_{1n} \cdot x_n \\ & \ddots \\ a_{m1} \cdot x_1 + \dots + a_{mn} \cdot x_n \end{pmatrix} = [T] \cdot v$$

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 2.7**

For a given  $m \times n$  matrix A over  $\mathbb{F}$ , define  $L_A : \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m$  by  $L_A(v) := A \cdot v$ , where v is viewed as an  $n \times 1$  column. It follows from definition that the  $L_A$  is linear.

In other words, every  $T \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$  is equal to  $L_A$  for some A.

← Lecture 11; Last Updated: Sun Feb 4 21:15:41 EST 2024

The map

$$\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m) \to M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$$

$$T \mapsto [T]$$

is an isomorphism of vector spaces, with inverse

$$M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \to \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$$
  
 $A \mapsto L_A.$ 

<u>Proof.</u> Linearity: Let  $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be the standard basis for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ . Fix  $T_1, T_2 \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n, \mathbb{F}^m)$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ .

1.

$$[T_{1} + T_{2}] = \begin{pmatrix} & & | & & | \\ \cdots & (T_{1} + T_{2})(v_{i}) & \cdots \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} & & | & & | \\ \cdots & T_{1}(v_{i}) + T_{2}(v_{i}) & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} & & | & & | \\ \cdots & T_{1}(v_{i}) & \cdots \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} & & | & & | \\ \cdots & T_{2}(v_{i}) & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

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

2. It remains to show that  $\alpha \cdot [T] = [\alpha \cdot T]$ ; the proof follows similarly to 1.

<u>Inverse</u>: We need to show that 1.  $A \mapsto L_A \mapsto [L_A]$  is the identity on  $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ , and conversely, that 2.  $T \mapsto [T] \mapsto L_{[T]}$  is the identity on  $\mathrm{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n,\mathbb{F}^m)$ .

- 1. We need to show that  $[L_A] = A$ . The jth column of  $[L_A]$  is  $L_A(v_j) = A \cdot v_j = j$ th column of  $A =: A^{(j)}$ . Hence, the jth column of  $[L_A]$  is equal to the jth column of A, and thus they are equal.
- 2. We showed this in proposition 2.7.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 2.4

 $\dim(\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{F}^n,\mathbb{F}^m)) = \dim(M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})) = m \cdot n.$ 

**Remark 2.8.** This was stated previously in proposition 2.6 by constructing an explicit basis. Indeed, this basis is precisely the image of the standard basis for  $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$  under the map  $A \mapsto L_A$ .

# 2.5 Matrix Representation of Linear Transformations, General Spaces

**Remark 2.9.** The previous section was concerned with representing transformations between finite fields  $\mathbb{F}^n$ ,  $\mathbb{F}^m$ ; this section aims to make the same construction for any finite dimensional V, W.

#### **→ Definition 2.8: Coordinate Vector**

Let V be a finite dimensional space over  $\mathbb{F}$  and let  $\beta := \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be a basis for V. Let  $v \in V$ , with (unique) representation  $v = a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n$ . We denote

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

the *coordinate vector* of v in base  $\beta$ .

**Remark 2.10.** Recall that  $V \cong \mathbb{F}^n$  where  $\dim(V) = n$ , by the unique linear transformation  $v_i \mapsto e_i$ , where  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  the standard basis for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ . We denote this transformation

$$I_{\beta}:V\to\mathbb{F}.$$

For an arbitrary  $v \in V$ ,  $I_{\beta}(v)$  maps v to its coordinate vector:

$$I_{\beta}(v) = I_{\beta}(a_1v_1 + \dots + a_nv_n) = a_1I_{\beta}(v_1) + \dots + a_nI_{\beta}(v_n)$$
(1)

$$= a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_n e_n = [v]_{\beta}.$$
 (2)

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 2.9

The map

$$I_{\beta}: V \to \mathbb{F}^n, \quad v \mapsto [v]_{\beta}$$

is an isomorphism.

Suppose we are given a linear transformation  $T:V\to W$ , where V,W finite dimensional spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Fix  $\beta:=\{v_1,\ldots,v_n\}$  and  $\gamma:=\{w_1,\ldots,w_m\}$  as bases for V,W resp. We can denote  $[T(v_i)]_{\gamma}$  as  $T(v_i)$  in base  $\gamma$  (in the field m), and construct a matrix for T:<sup>8</sup>

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} := \begin{pmatrix} | & | \\ [T(v_1)]_{\gamma} & \cdots & [T(v_n)]_{\gamma} \\ | & | \end{pmatrix}$$

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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Where we denote  $[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}$  as the matrix representation of the transform  $T:V\to W$ , with basis  $\beta,\gamma$  for V,W respectively.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ Theorem 2.7

Let  $T: V \to W, \beta, \gamma$  as above.

1. The following diagram commutes:

Namely,  $I_{\gamma} \circ T = L_{[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma}} \circ I_{\beta}$ , or equivalently, given  $v \in V$ ,  $[T(v)]_{\gamma} = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \cdot [v]_{\beta}$ .

2. The map  $\operatorname{Hom}(V,W) \to M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F}), T \mapsto [T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}$  is a vector space isomorphism with inverse begin the map  $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F}) \to \operatorname{Hom}(V,W), A \mapsto I^{-1}_{\gamma} \circ L_A \circ I_{\beta}$ 

*Proof.* 2. is left as a (homework) exercise; it follows directly from 1.

Fix  $v \in V$ . We need to show that  $I_{\gamma} \circ T(v) = L_{[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}} \circ I_{\beta}(v)$ . We have

$$I_{\gamma} \circ T(v) = [T(v)]_{\gamma}.$$

ОТОН,

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

We need to show, then, that  $[T(v)]_{\gamma} = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \cdot [v]_{\beta}$ . Let  $v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$ , so  $[v]_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$ . Recall that  $[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} | & | \\ [T(v_1)]_{\gamma} & \cdots & [T(v_n)]_{\gamma} \\ | & | \end{pmatrix}$$
. Thus, we have

$$\begin{split} [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} \cdot [v]_{\beta} &= a_1 [T(v_1)]_{\gamma} + \dots + a_n [T(v_n)]_{\gamma} = [a_1 T(v_1) + \dots + a_n T(v_n)]_{\gamma} \quad \textit{(by linearly of } I_{\gamma} \textit{)} \\ &= [T(a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_n v_n)]_{\gamma} \quad \textit{(by linearity of } T\textit{)} \\ &= [T(v)]_{\gamma}, \end{split}$$

which is precisely what we wanted to show.

**Remark 2.11.** For  $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$  and  $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{F}^n$ , we have

$$A \cdot x = x_1 \cdot A^{(1)} + x_2 \cdot A^{(2)} + \dots + x_n \cdot A^{(n)},$$

where  $A^{(j)}$  is the jth column of A; thus  $A \cdot x$  is a linear combination of A, with coefficients given by the vector x; this

# 2.6 Composition of Linear Transformations, Matrix Multiplication

## $\hookrightarrow$ Proposition 2.10

Composition is associative; given  $T: V \to W, S: W \to U$ , and  $R: U \to X$ , then

$$(R \circ S) \circ T = R \circ (S \circ T).$$

*Proof.* Fix  $v \in V$ . Then

$$(R \circ S) \circ T(v) = (R \circ S)(T(v)) = R(S(T(v)))$$

ОТОН:

$$R \circ (S \circ T)(v) = R((S \circ T)(v)) = R(S(T(v))).$$

Let  $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$  and  $B \in M_{l \times m}(\mathbb{F})$ . Then,  $L_A : \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^m$  and  $L_B : \mathbb{F}^m \to \mathbb{F}^l$ , and have composition  $L_B \circ L_A : \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^l$ . We know that  $L_B \circ L_A$  is a linear transformation, and thus must be equal to  $L_C$  for some matrix  $C \in M_{l \times n}(\mathbb{F})$ . Indeed, C is the matrix representation of the transformation  $[L_B \circ L_A]$ , as proven previously.

Let  $\beta = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  for  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , then

$$[L_B \circ L_A] = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & | \\ L_B \circ L_A(e_1) & \cdots & L_B \circ L_A(e_n) \\ & | & & | \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} & & & | \\ B \cdot (A \cdot e_1) & \cdots & B \cdot (A \cdot e_n) \\ & | & & | \end{pmatrix}$$

# → **Definition** 2.9: Matrix Multiplication

For matrices  $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$  and  $B \in M_{l \times m}(\mathbb{F})$ , define their product  $B \cdot A$  to be the matrix

$$[L_B \circ L_A] = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ B \cdot (A \cdot e_1) & \cdots & B \cdot (A \cdot e_n) \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ B \cdot A^{(1)} & \cdots & B \cdot A^{(2)} \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix} = (c_{ij})_{1 \le i \le l}^{1 \le j \le n}$$

where  $A^{(j)}$  is the jth column of A,  $c_{ij} := \begin{pmatrix} - & B_{(i)} & - \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} | & A^{(j)} \\ | & | \end{pmatrix}$ .

$$[L_B \circ L_A] = B \cdot A$$
, ie  $L_B \circ L_A = L_{B \cdot A}$ .

*Proof.* Follows from our definition.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 2.5

Matrix multiplication is association;  $C \cdot (B \cdot A) = (C \cdot B) \cdot A$  for  $A \in M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F}), B \in M_{l \times m}(\mathbb{F}), C \in M_{k \times l}(\mathbb{F})$ .

*Proof.* 
$$C \cdot (B \cdot A) = [L_C \circ (L_B \circ L_A)] = [(L_C \circ L_B) \circ L_A] = (C \cdot B) \cdot A.$$

**Remark 2.12.** This is proven by the linear transformation representation of matrices; try proving this directly from our definition.

## $\hookrightarrow$ Corollary 2.6

Let V, W, U be finite-dimensional vector spaces over  $\mathbb{F}$ ,  $T: V \to W, S: W \to U$  be linear transformations and  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  be bases for V, W, U resp. Then,

$$[S \circ T]^{\gamma}_{\alpha} = [S]^{\gamma}_{\beta} \cdot [T]^{\beta}_{\alpha}.$$

*Proof.* Follows from the commutativity of the diagrams:

In "words", for  $v \in V$ ,

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

ie we have shown that  $L_{[S \circ T]^{\gamma}_{\alpha}} = L_{[S]^{\gamma}_{\beta} \cdot [T]^{\beta}_{\alpha}}$ . Because  $A \mapsto L_A$  is an isomorphism, it follows that  $[S \circ T]^{\gamma}_{\alpha} = [S]^{\gamma}_{\beta} \cdot [T]^{\beta}_{\alpha}$ .

## 2.7 Inverses of Transformations and Matrices

**Remark 2.13.** Recall that, given a function  $f: X \to Y$ , a function  $g: Y \to X$  is called

- 1. a left inverse of f if  $g \circ f = \mathrm{Id}_X$ ;
- 2. a right inverse of f if  $f \circ g = Id_X$ ;
- 3. a (two-sided) inverse of f if g both a left and right inverse of f.

If an inverse exists, it is unique; let  $g_0, g_1$  be inverse of f, then,  $g_0 = g_0 \circ (f \circ g_1) = (g_0 \circ f) \circ g_1 = g_1$ .

Let  $f: X \to Y$ . Then,

- 1. f has a left-inverse  $\iff$  f injective;
- 2. f has a right-inverse  $\iff$  f surjective;
- 3. f has an inverse  $\iff$  f bijective.

<u>Proof.</u> ((a),  $\Longrightarrow$ ) Suppose  $g: Y \to X$  is a left-inverse of f and  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ . Then,  $g \circ f(x_1) = g \circ f(x_2) \Longrightarrow x_1 = x_2$  and so f injective.

((b),  $\Longrightarrow$  ) Suppose  $g:Y\to X$  is a right-inverse of f and let  $y\in Y$ . Then,  $f(g(y))=y\implies y\in f(X)$ .

The remainder of the cases and directions are left as an exercise.

**Remark 2.14.** *Proof of* (b),  $\iff$  *uses Axiom of Choice.* 

## **\* Example 2.2**

- 1. The differentiation transform  $\delta: \mathbb{F}[t]_{n+1} \to \mathbb{F}[t]_n, p(t) \mapsto p'(t)$  has a right inverse, the integration transform,  $\iota: \mathbb{F}[t]_n \to \mathbb{F}[t]_{n+1}$ ,  $p(t) \mapsto$  antiderivative of p(t); conversely,  $\iota$  has left inverse  $\delta$ ; they do not admit inverses.
- 2. Let  $f: \mathbb{F}[\![t]\!] \to \mathbb{F}[\![t]\!]$  be the left-shift map, where  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n \mapsto \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n t^{n-1}$ . Then,  $g: \mathbb{F}[\![t]\!] \to \mathbb{F}[\![t]\!]$  with  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n \mapsto \sum_{n=0} a_n t^{n+1}$ , the right-shift map, is a right inverse of f, but f has no left inverse (it is not injective).

**Remark 2.15.** The existence of only one-sided inverses existing happens only when in infinite-dimensional vectors spaces, or when the dimension of the domain is not the same as the dimension of the codomain.

## **⇔ Corollary 2.7: Of Rank-Nullity Theorem**

Let  $T: V \to W$  s.t.  $\dim(V) = \dim(W) < \infty$ . TFAE:

- 1. T has a left-inverse;
- 2. T has a right-inverse;
- 3. T is invertible (has an inverse).

*Proof.* We have already that T injective  $\iff T$  surjective  $\iff T$  bijective.

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 2.10: Matrix Inverse**

We call a  $n \times n$  matrix B over  $\mathbb{F}$  the *inverse* of an  $n \times n$  matrix A over  $\mathbb{F}$  if  $A \cdot B = B \cdot A = I_n$ . We denote  $B = A^{-1}$ .

Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ . Then,

- 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, ie  $B \cdot A = I_n \iff$  it has a right-inverse, ie  $A \cdot B = I_n$ .
- Proof. 1.  $L_A$  invertible  $\iff \exists T: \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^n$ -linear s.t.  $L_A \circ T = T \circ L_A = I_{\mathbb{F}^n} \iff \exists$  a matrix  $B \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  such that  $L_A \circ L_B = L_B \circ L_A = I_{\mathbb{F}^n} \iff$  there is a matrix  $B \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  s.t.  $L_{AB} = L_{BA} = I_{\mathbb{F}^n} \iff$  there is a  $B \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$  s.t.  $A \cdot B = B \cdot A = I_n$ .
  - 2. Follows directly from corollary 2.7 and part 1.

#### 2.7.1 Invariant Subspaces and Nilpotent Transformations

#### $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 2.11:** *T*-Invariant

Let  $T: V \to V$  be a linear transformation. We call a subspace  $W \subseteq V$  *T-invariant* if  $T(W) \subseteq W$ .

## **\* Example 2.3: Examples of Invariant Subspaces**

- 1. For any  $T: V \to V$ ,  $\operatorname{Im}(T)$  is T-invariant.
- 2. For any  $T: V \to V$ ,  $\operatorname{Ker}(T)$  is T-invariant, since  $T(v) = 0_V \in \operatorname{Ker}(T) \, \forall \, v \in \operatorname{Ker}(T)$ . Moreover, for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the space  $\operatorname{Ker}(T^n)$  is T-invariant.

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## $\hookrightarrow$ **Proposition 2.14**

For a linear operator  $T: V \to V$ , the following hold:

- 1.  $V \supseteq \operatorname{Im}(T) \supseteq \operatorname{Im}(T^2) \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \operatorname{Im}(T^n) \supseteq \cdots$ . Moreover,  $\operatorname{Im}(T^n)$  is T-invariant for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- 2.  $\{0_V\} \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}(T) \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}(T^2) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}(T^n) \subseteq \cdots$ . Moreover,  $\operatorname{Ker}(T^n)$  is T-invariant for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $\underline{\underline{Proof.}} \quad \text{ 1. If } x \in \operatorname{Im}(T^{n+1}), \text{ then } x = T^{n+1}(y) = T^n(T(y)) \in \operatorname{Im}(T^n) \text{ for some } y \in V, \text{ hence } \operatorname{Im}(T^{n+1}) \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(T^n).$  If  $x \in \operatorname{Im}(T^n)$ , then  $x = T^n(y)$  so  $T(x) = T(T^n(y)) = T^n(T(y)) \in \operatorname{Im}(T^n)$ , so  $T(\operatorname{Im}(T^n)) \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(T^n)$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>Because the domain and codomain are the same, we often call T a "linear operator".

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>T^n := T \circ T \circ \cdots \circ T$ , n times;  $T^0 := I_V$ .

2. If  $x \in \text{Ker}(T^n)$ , then  $T^{n+1}(x) = T(T^n(x)) = T(0_V) = 0_V$  hence  $x \in \text{Ker}(T^{n+1})$  so  $\text{Ker}(T^n) \subseteq \text{Ker}(T^{n+1})$ . Moreover,  $T(x) \in \text{Ker}(T^n)$  since  $T(x) \in \text{Ker}(T^{n-1}) \subseteq \text{Ker}(T^n)$ , since  $T^{n-1}(T(x)) = T^n(x) = 0_V$  so  $T(\text{Ker}(T^n)) \subseteq \text{Ker}(T^n)$ .

## **® Example 2.4: More Examples of Invariant Subspaces**

Let  $T: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$  by T(x,y,z) := (2x+y,3x-y,7z). Then, the x-y plane is T-invariant, as is the z axis. Hence, we can decompose  $\mathbb{R}^3$  into two T-invariant subspaces, namely the x-y plane  $\oplus z$ -axis.

## $\hookrightarrow$ **Definition 2.12: Nilpotent**

In a ring R, an element  $r \in R$  is called *nilpotent* if  $r^n = 0$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ .

More specifically, a linear transformation  $T: V \to V$  is called nilpotent if  $T^n = 0$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ .

For a matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ , A is called nilpotent if  $A^n = 0_n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ .

## **® Example 2.5: Examples of Nilpotent Transformations**

- 1. Let V, n-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$  with basis  $\beta := \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ . Let  $T : V \to V$  be the unique linear transformation that "shifts"  $\beta$ : ie,  $T(v_1) := 0_V$ ,  $T(v_2) := v_1, \dots, T(v_n) = v_{n-1}$ .
- 2. The differentiation operation,  $\delta : \mathbb{F}[t]_n \to \mathbb{F}[t]_n$  is nilpotent, since  $\delta^{n+1} = 0$  for any polynomial.
- 3. For any matrix  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ , A is nilpotent iff  $L_A : \mathbb{F}^n \to \mathbb{F}^n$  is nilpotent.

Proof. 
$$L_{A^k} = L_A^k \implies A^k = 0 \iff L_{A^k} = 0 \iff L_A^k = 0$$

4.  $n \times n$  matrices that are strictly upper triangular are nilpotent. For instance, for  $3 \times 3$ , we need to show

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{3} = 0 \iff \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{3} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \star \\ \star \\ \star \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

We have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \star \\ \star \\ \star \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{2} \begin{pmatrix} \star \\ \star \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ \star \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \star \\ \star \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \star \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

If V is n-dimension  $T: V \to V$  is linear nilpotent, then  $T^n = 0$ .

Proof. Left as a (homework) exercise.

#### **→ Definition 2.13: Domain Restriction**

For a function  $f: X \to Y$  and  $A \subseteq X$ , we define the *restriction* of f to A as the function  $f|_A: A \to Y$  given by  $a \mapsto f(a)$ .

## → **Theorem** 2.8: Fitting's Theorem

For finite dimensional vector space V over  $\mathbb{F}$  and a linear transformation  $T:V\to V$ , there is a decomposition

$$V = U \oplus W$$

as a direct sum of T-invariant subspaces U, W such that  $T|_U : U \to U$  is nilpotent and  $T|_W : W \to W$  is an isomorphism.

<u>Proof.</u> Recall that  $\operatorname{Im}(T) \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \operatorname{Im}(T^n)$  and  $\operatorname{Ker}(T) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}(T^n)$ . Both of these become constant eventually, ie the inequalities become strict equalities, hence  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}^+$  such that  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\operatorname{Im}(T^{N+k}) = \operatorname{Im}(T^N)$  and  $\operatorname{Ker}(T^{N+k}) = \operatorname{Ker}(T^N)$ .

Let  $U:=\mathrm{Ker}(T^N)$  and  $W:=\mathrm{Im}(T^N).$  These are clearly T-invariant.

 $T^N(\operatorname{Ker}(T^N))=\{0_V\}$ , and  $T(\operatorname{Im}(T^N))=\operatorname{Im}(T^{N+1})=\operatorname{Im}(T^N)=W$  and thus  $T|_W:W\to W$  is surjective and hence  $T|_W$  must be injective and thus an isomorphism.

It remains to show that  $V = U \oplus W$ .

<u>Claim</u>:  $U \cap W = \{0_V\}$ ; If  $v \in U \cap W$ ,  $T^N(v) = 0_V$  but  $T|_W$  an isomorphism so  $T^N(v) = 0 \iff v = 0_V$ , hence  $U \cap W = \{0_V\}$ .

Thus, we have  $\dim(U+W)=\dim(U)+\dim(W)-\dim(U\cap W)=\dim(U)+\dim(W)=\dim(V)$ ; moreover, it must be that U+W=V.

← Lecture 15; Last Updated: Wed Feb 7 14:27:48 EST 2024