**Problem 1.** Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be a finite field and let n be a positive integer  $(n \geq 2)$ . Ket V be the vector space of all  $n \times n$  matrices over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Which of the following sets of matrices A in V are subspaces of V.

Fall 2024

Due: 9/15/2024

### (a) all invertible A;

A subspace of a vector space must be closed under both addition and scalar multiplication. The set of all invertible matrices is not closed under addition. For instance, the identity matrix I and -I are both invertible, but their sum, I + (-I) = 0, is not invertible (it's the zero matrix, which is not invertible).

Thus, the set of all invertible matrices is not a subspace.

# (b) all non-invertible A;

Similarly, the set of non-invertible matrices is also not closed under addition. For example, take two non-invertible matrices, their sum might be invertible, violating the closure under addition. Hence, this set does not form a subspace.

Thus, the set of all non-invertible matrices is not a subspace.

# (c) all A such that AB = BA, where B is some fixed matrix in V;

This set is closed under both addition and scalar multiplication. If  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  commute with B, then  $(A_1+A_2)B=A_1B+A_2B=BA_1+BA_2=B(A_1+A_2)$ , so  $A_1+A_2$  commutes with B. If A commutes with B, then for any scalar  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $(\alpha A)B=\alpha(AB)=\alpha(BA)=B(\alpha A)$ , so  $\alpha A$  also commutes with B.

Thus, the set of all matrices that commute with a fixed matrix B is a subspace.

# (d) all A such that $A^2 = A$

These matrices are called idempotent matrices. To check whether this set forms a subspace, we need to verify closure under addition and scalar multiplication. If  $A_1^2 = A_1$  and  $A_2^2 = A_2$ , then in general,  $(A_1 + A_2)^2 \neq A_1 + A_2$ , so the set is not closed under addition. Similarly, for a scalar  $\alpha$ ,  $(\alpha A)^2 = \alpha^2 A^2 = \alpha^2 A$ , which is not necessarily equal to  $\alpha A$  unless  $\alpha = 0$  or 1.

Thus, the set of idempotent matrices is not a subspace.

**Problem 2.** Let V be the vector space of all functions from R into R; let  $V_e$  be the subset of even functions, f(-x) = f(x); let  $V_o$  be the subset of odd functions, f(-x) = -f(x).

(a) Prove that  $V_e$  and  $V_o$  are subspaces of V.

To prove that  $V_e$  and  $V_o$  are subspaces of V, we must check that each set satisfies the conditions for a subspace: closure under addition, closure under scalar multiplication, and that each contains the zero function.

First, consider  $V_e$ , the set of even functions. Let  $f, g \in V_e$ , i.e., f(-x) = f(x) and g(-x) = g(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . For closure under addition, we compute:

$$(f+g)(-x) = f(-x) + g(-x) = f(x) + g(x) = (f+g)(x),$$

which shows that  $f+g \in V_e$ . For scalar multiplication, let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then:

$$(cf)(-x) = cf(-x) = cf(x) = (cf)(x),$$

so  $cf \in V_e$ . Finally, the zero function f(x) = 0 is clearly even, as 0(-x) = 0(x) for all x. Hence,  $V_e$  is a subspace of V.

Now, consider  $V_o$ , the set of odd functions. Let  $f, g \in V_o$ , i.e., f(-x) = -f(x) and g(-x) = -g(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . For closure under addition, we compute:

$$(f+g)(-x) = f(-x) + g(-x) = -f(x) + -g(x) = -(f(x) + g(x)) = -(f+g)(x),$$

which shows that  $f+g\in V_o$ . For scalar multiplication, let  $c\in\mathbb{R}$ . Then:

$$(cf)(-x) = cf(-x) = c(-f(x)) = -(cf)(x),$$

so  $cf \in V_o$ . The zero function f(x) = 0 is also odd, as 0(-x) = -0(x) for all x. Hence,  $V_o$  is a subspace of V.

# (b) Prove that $V_e + V_o = V$ .

We need to show that any function  $f \in V$  can be written as the sum of an even function and an odd function. Given  $f \in V$ , define two functions:

$$f_e(x) = \frac{f(x) + f(-x)}{2}, \quad f_o(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(-x)}{2}.$$

First, check that  $f_e$  is even:

$$f_e(-x) = \frac{f(-x) + f(x)}{2} = \frac{f(x) + f(-x)}{2} = f_e(x).$$

Thus,  $f_e \in V_e$ . Next, check that  $f_o$  is odd:

$$f_o(-x) = \frac{f(-x) - f(x)}{2} = -\frac{f(x) - f(-x)}{2} = -f_o(x).$$

Thus,  $f_o \in V_o$ .

Finally, observe that:

$$f(x) = f_e(x) + f_o(x),$$

which shows that any function  $f \in V$  can be written as the sum of an even function and an odd function. Therefore,  $V_e + V_o = V$ .

(c) Prove that  $V_e \cap V_o = \{0\}$ .

Suppose  $f \in V_e \cap V_o$ . This means that f is both even and odd. Thus, for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(-x) = f(x)$$
 (since f is even),

and

$$f(-x) = -f(x)$$
 (since f is odd).

Combining these, we get f(x) = -f(x), which implies that f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence, f = 0, the zero function.

Therefore,  $V_e \cap V_o = \{0\}$ .

**Problem 3.** Let V be the vector space of all  $n \times n$  matrices over the field  $\mathbb{F}$ , and let B be a fixed  $n \times n$  matrix. if

$$T(A) = AB - BA$$

verify that T is a linear transformation from V into V.

Additivity:

Let  $A_1, A_2 \in V$ . We compute  $T(A_1 + A_2)$  as follows:

$$T(A_1 + A_2) = (A_1 + A_2)B - B(A_1 + A_2).$$

$$T(A_1 + A_2) = A_1B + A_2B - (BA_1 + BA_2).$$

$$T(A_1 + A_2) = (A_1B - BA_1) + (A_2B - BA_2).$$

$$T(A_1 + A_2) = T(A_1) + T(A_2).$$

Thus, T is additive.

Homogeneity:

Let  $c \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $A \in V$ . We compute T(cA) as follows:

$$T(cA) = (cA)B - B(cA).$$

$$T(cA) = c(AB) - c(BA).$$

$$T(cA) = c(AB - BA) = cT(A).$$

Thus, T is homogeneous.

Since T satisfies both additivity and homogeneity, T is a linear transformation from V into V.

**Problem 4.** Let V be a vector space and T a linear transformation from V in V. Prove that the following two statements about T are equivalent.

(a) The intersection of the range of T and the null space of T is the zero subspace of V.

We want to show that the intersection of the range of T (aka the Im(T)) and the null space of T (aka the ker(T)) is the zero subspace:

$$\operatorname{Im}(T) \cap \ker(T) = \{0\}.$$

Let  $v \in \text{Im}(T) \cap \ker(T)$ . By definition of intersection,  $v \in \text{Im}(T)$  and  $v \in \ker(T)$ .

Since  $v \in \ker(T)$ , we have T(v) = 0.

Since  $v \in \text{Im}(T)$ , there exists some  $u \in V$  such that T(u) = v.

Applying T to both sides of the equation T(u) = v, we get:

$$T(T(u)) = T(v) = 0.$$

Therefore, T(T(u)) = 0, which means  $u \in \ker(T^2)$ .

Now, since  $v = T(u) \in \ker(T)$ , and T is linear, this implies that u must also be in  $\ker(T)$  (this will follow from the second subproblem). Hence, v = T(u) = 0.

Therefore, the only element in  $\operatorname{Im}(T) \cap \ker(T)$  is the zero vector, so:

$$Im(T) \cap \ker(T) = \{0\}.$$

(b) If  $T(T\alpha) = 0$ , then  $T\alpha = 0$ .

We need to show that if  $T(T(\alpha)) = 0$ , then  $T(\alpha) = 0$ .

Assume  $T(T(\alpha)) = 0$  for some  $\alpha \in V$ . This means  $T(\alpha) \in \ker(T)$ , i.e., the vector  $T(\alpha)$  is in the null space of T.

Now, consider the fact that the intersection of  $\operatorname{Im}(T)$  and  $\ker(T)$  is the zero subspace (from the first subproblem). Since  $T(\alpha) \in \operatorname{Im}(T)$  and  $T(\alpha) \in \ker(T)$ , it follows that:

$$T(\alpha) = 0.$$

Therefore, if  $T(T(\alpha)) = 0$ , then  $T(\alpha) = 0$ .

This proves the implication.

**Problem 5.** Find two linear operations T and U on  $\mathbb{R}^{\nvDash}$  such that TU=0 but  $UT\neq 0$ .

Consider the following two linear maps T and U on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  represented by matrices:

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad U = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

First, let's compute the product TU:

$$TU = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This gives TU = 0, since every entry in the resulting matrix is zero.

Now, let's compute the product UT:

$$UT = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This gives  $UT = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , which is not the zero matrix.

Therefore, we have found that TU=0 but  $UT\neq 0$ .

**Problem 6.** Let V be a vector space over the field  $\mathbb{F}$  and T a linear operator on V. If  $T^2=0$ , what can you say about the relation of the range of T to the null space of T? Give an example of a linear operator T on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $T^2=0$  but  $T\neq 0$ .

The range of T is contained in the null space of T. This is because for any vector  $v \in V$ , if  $T(v) \in \text{Range}(T)$ , then applying T to T(v) gives T(T(v)) = 0, so  $T(v) \in \text{Null}(T)$ .

To see this more concretely, let  $T^2=0$  and let  $W=\mathrm{Range}(T)$ . For any  $w\in W$ , there exists some  $v\in V$  such that w=T(v). Then applying T again, T(w)=T(T(v))=0, so  $w\in\mathrm{Null}(T)$ . Thus,  $W\subseteq\mathrm{Null}(T)$ .

Example of a linear operator T on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $T^2=0$  but  $T\neq 0$ .

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let's check that  $T^2 = 0$ :

$$T^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

So  $T^2=0$ . Also,  $T\neq 0$  because T is not the zero matrix.

The range of T is:

$$\operatorname{Range}(T) = \operatorname{span}\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\},$$

which is a one-dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

The null space of T is:

$$Null(T) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid x \in \mathbb{R} \right\},\,$$

which is a one-dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Range $(T) \subseteq \text{Null}(T)$ , satisfying the condition that the range of T is contained in the null space of T.

**Problem 7.** Let V be a vector space over the field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Assume W is a subspace of V and  $S, S_i, i \in I$  are arbitrary subsets. Verify the following:

(a)  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(W) = W$ 

By definition, the span of a set W is the set of all linear combinations of elements of W. Since W is a subspace of V, it is closed under linear combinations and contains all such

combinations of its elements. Thus,  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(W)$  includes every element of W, and every element of  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(W)$  is in W. Therefore:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(W)=W.$$

(b)  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S)) = \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S)$ 

Let  $T = \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S)$ . By definition,  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(T)$  is the set of all linear combinations of elements in T. Since T is already the span of S, it means T consists of all linear combinations of elements in S. Therefore:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S)) = \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S).$$

(c)  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\bigcup_{i\in I}S_i)=\sum_{i\in I}\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i).$ 

Let  $S = \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$ . The span of S is the set of all linear combinations of elements in S. Each element in S belongs to some  $S_i$ , so every linear combination of elements in S can be expressed as a linear combination of elements in  $S_i$  for some  $i \in I$ . Thus:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\left(\bigcup_{i\in I}S_i\right)=\sum_{i\in I}\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i),$$

where  $\sum_{i \in I} \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i)$  denotes the set of all finite sums of elements where each element is from some  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i)$ .

(d)  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\bigcap_{i\in I}S_i)\subseteq\bigcap_{i\in I}\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i).$  Equality may not hold; give an explicit example of this.

Let us show the inclusion first. If  $x \in \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\bigcap_{i \in I} S_i)$ , then x is a linear combination of elements in  $\bigcap_{i \in I} S_i$ . Each such element belongs to every  $S_i$ , so x is in every  $\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i)$ . Therefore:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\left(\bigcap_{i\in I}S_i\right)\subseteq\bigcap_{i\in I}\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i).$$

Example where equality does not hold:

Consider  $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ , and let:

$$S_1 = \{(x,0) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}, \quad S_2 = \{(0,y) \mid y \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Then:

$$\bigcap_{i \in \{1,2\}} S_i = \{(0,0)\},\,$$

and:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\left(\bigcap_{i\in\{1,2\}}S_i\right)=\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\{(0,0)\}=\{(0,0)\}.$$

However:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_1) = \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\{(1,0)\} = \mathbb{R}^2,$$

and:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_2) = \operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\{(0,1)\} = \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Therefore:

$$\bigcap_{i\in\{1,2\}}\mathrm{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i)=\mathbb{R}^2,$$

which is strictly larger than:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\left(\bigcap_{i\in\{1,2\}}S_i\right)=\{(0,0)\}.$$

Thus, in this example:

$$\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}\left(\bigcap_{i\in I}S_i\right)
eq \bigcap_{i\in I}\operatorname{Span}_{\mathbb{F}}(S_i).$$

## **Problem 8.** (Direct Sums)

(a) Show that the operation of direct sums is "commutative": that is, there is a natural isophorism

$$V_1 \oplus V_2 \approx V_2 \oplus V_1$$

Consider the vector space  $V_1 \oplus V_2$ . An element of  $V_1 \oplus V_2$  can be written as a pair  $(v_1, v_2)$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$  and  $v_2 \in V_2$ .

Define a map  $\phi: V_1 \oplus V_2 \to V_2 \oplus V_1$  by

$$\phi((v_1, v_2)) = (v_2, v_1).$$

We will show that  $\phi$  is a linear isomorphism.

Linearity:

For  $(v_1, v_2), (w_1, w_2) \in V_1 \oplus V_2$  and  $c \in \mathbb{F}$ :

$$\phi((v_1, v_2) + (w_1, w_2)) = \phi((v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2)) = (v_2 + w_2, v_1 + w_1).$$

$$\phi((v_1, v_2)) + \phi((w_1, w_2)) = (v_2, v_1) + (w_2, w_1) = (v_2 + w_2, v_1 + w_1).$$

Thus,  $\phi$  preserves addition.

For scalar multiplication:

$$\phi(c(v_1, v_2)) = \phi((cv_1, cv_2)) = (cv_2, cv_1),$$

$$c\phi((v_1, v_2)) = c(v_2, v_1) = (cv_2, cv_1).$$

Thus,  $\phi$  preserves scalar multiplication.

#### Bijectivity:

To show that  $\phi$  is bijective, we need to find its inverse. Define  $\psi: V_2 \oplus V_1 \to V_1 \oplus V_2$  by

$$\psi((v_2, v_1)) = (v_1, v_2).$$

It is straightforward to verify that  $\psi$  is the inverse of  $\phi$  since:

$$\phi \circ \psi((v_2, v_1)) = \phi((v_1, v_2)) = (v_2, v_1),$$

$$\psi \circ \phi((v_1, v_2)) = \psi((v_2, v_1)) = (v_1, v_2).$$

Thus,  $\phi$  is an isomorphism, proving that  $V_1 \oplus V_2 \cong V_2 \oplus V_1$ .

(b) Explain the difference between the vector spaces  $(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3$  and  $V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$ .

Note that an element of  $(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3$  can be represented as  $((v_1, v_2), v_3)$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$ ,  $v_2 \in V_2$ , and  $v_3 \in V_3$ . Similarly, an element of  $V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$  can be represented as  $(v_1, (v_2, v_3))$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$ ,  $v_2 \in V_2$ , and  $v_3 \in V_3$ .

Define a map  $\phi: (V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3 \to V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$  by

$$\phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = (v_1, (v_2, v_3)).$$

To show that  $\phi$  is an isomorphism, note that:

$$\phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3) + ((w_1, w_2), w_3)) = \phi(((v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2), v_3 + w_3)) = (v_1 + w_1, (v_2 + w_2, v_3 + w_3)),$$

$$\phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) + \phi(((w_1, w_2), w_3)) = (v_1, (v_2, v_3)) + (w_1, (w_2, w_3)) = (v_1 + w_1, (v_2 + w_2, v_3 + w_3)).$$

For scalar multiplication:

$$\phi(c((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = \phi((cv_1, cv_2), cv_3) = (cv_1, (cv_2, cv_3)),$$
$$c\phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = c(v_1, (v_2, v_3)) = (cv_1, (cv_2, cv_3)).$$

Thus,  $\phi$  is a linear isomorphism, showing that  $(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3 \cong V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$ . The isomorphism preserves the structure of the vector spaces, so the direct sum operation is associative.

(c) Show that the operation of direct sum is "associative": that is, there is a natural isomorphism

$$(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3 \approx V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$$

Consider the vector space  $(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3$ . An element of  $(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3$  is of the form  $((v_1, v_2), v_3)$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$ ,  $v_2 \in V_2$ , and  $v_3 \in V_3$ .

Define a map  $\phi: (V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3 \to V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$  by

$$\phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = (v_1, (v_2, v_3)).$$

We need to show that  $\phi$  is a linear isomorphism.

### Linearity:

For 
$$((v_1, v_2), v_3), ((w_1, w_2), w_3) \in (V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3$$
 and  $c \in \mathbb{F}$ :

$$\phi((((v_1, v_2), v_3) + ((w_1, w_2), w_3))) = \phi(((v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2), v_3 + w_3)) = (v_1 + w_1, (v_2 + w_2, v_3 + w_3)).$$

$$\phi((v_1,(v_2,v_3))) + \phi((w_1,(w_2,w_3))) = (v_1,(v_2,v_3)) + (w_1,(w_2,w_3)) = (v_1+w_1,(v_2+w_2,v_3+w_3)).$$

For scalar multiplication:

$$\phi(c((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = \phi((cv_1, cv_2), cv_3) = (cv_1, (cv_2, cv_3)),$$
$$c\phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = c(v_1, (v_2, v_3)) = (cv_1, (cv_2, cv_3)).$$

Thus,  $\phi$  preserves both vector addition and scalar multiplication, making it a linear map.

### Bijectivity:

To find the inverse, define  $\psi: V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3) \to (V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3$  by

$$\psi((v_1, (v_2, v_3))) = ((v_1, v_2), v_3).$$

Verify that  $\psi$  is the inverse of  $\phi$ :

$$\phi \circ \psi((v_1, (v_2, v_3))) = \phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = (v_1, (v_2, v_3)),$$
  
$$\psi \circ \phi(((v_1, v_2), v_3)) = \psi((v_1, (v_2, v_3))) = ((v_1, v_2), v_3).$$

Hence,  $\phi$  is an isomorphism, proving that  $(V_1 \oplus V_2) \oplus V_3 \cong V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus V_3)$ . The direct sum operation is associative.

(d) Give a definition of the direct sum of k>3 vector spaces ove  $\mathbb F$  using k-tuples. Give an inductive definition assuming the case k=2 is given. Verify that the two definitions give isomorphic vector spaces.

The direct sum of k vector spaces  $V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  can be defined using k-tuples. Specifically, the direct sum is:

$$V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_k = \{(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k) \mid v_i \in V_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k\}.$$

This space is the set of all k-tuples where each component is an element from the corresponding vector space.

#### **Inductive Definition:**

Assume that the direct sum is defined for *k* vector spaces, i.e.,

$$V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_k = \{(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k) \mid v_i \in V_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k\}.$$

For k + 1 vector spaces, we can define:

$$V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_k \oplus V_{k+1} = \{((v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k), v_{k+1}) \mid v_i \in V_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k+1\}.$$

This can be seen as taking the direct sum of the previously defined direct sum with  $V_{k+1}$ .

# Verification of Isomorphism:

To verify that these definitions are isomorphic, we need to show that:

$$(V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_k) \oplus V_{k+1} \cong V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus (V_k \oplus V_{k+1}) \cdots)$$

Define a map  $\phi: (V_1 \oplus V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus V_k) \oplus V_{k+1} \to V_1 \oplus (V_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus (V_k \oplus V_{k+1}) \cdots)$  by

$$\phi(((v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k), v_{k+1})) = (v_1, (v_2, \dots, (v_k, v_{k+1}) \dots)).$$

To verify that  $\phi$  is an isomorphism, check that it preserves addition and scalar multiplication, and is bijective with a clear inverse.

Thus, by induction, the direct sum operation is associative and can be defined using k-tuples.

**Problem 9.** Show that if the index set I is infinite and all vector spaces  $V_i$  are non-trivial (i.e., the have elements different from 0), then the direct sum  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$  is a proper subspace of the direct product  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ . (This uses the axiom of choice).

#### Definitions:

The direct sum  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$  consists of all tuples  $(v_i)_{i \in I}$  where  $v_i \in V_i$  and  $v_i = 0$  for all but finitely many  $i \in I$ . The direct product  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$  consists of all tuples  $(v_i)_{i \in I}$  where  $v_i \in V_i$  for all  $i \in I$ .

Claim: 
$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \subsetneq \prod_{i \in I} V_i$$

Proof.

1. 
$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} V_i$$
:

By definition, every element of  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$  is an element of  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ , because the direct sum is a subset of the direct product. Thus, we have:

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} V_i.$$

2.  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$  is a proper subspace of  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ :

To prove this, we need to show that there exists at least one element in  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$  that is not in  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$ .

Since I is infinite, there exists an infinite subset  $J \subset I$ . For each  $i \in J$ , choose a non-zero vector  $v_i \in V_i$  (possible because each  $V_i$  is non-trivial).

Define a tuple  $(w_i)_{i \in I} \in \prod_{i \in I} V_i$  by:

$$w_i = \begin{cases} v_i & \text{if } i \in J, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \notin J. \end{cases}$$

This tuple  $(w_i)_{i \in I}$  is an element of  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$  because each  $w_i \in V_i$ .

However,  $(w_i)_{i\in I} \notin \bigoplus_{i\in I} V_i$ , because J is infinite and thus there are infinitely many non-zero entries in  $(w_i)_{i\in I}$ . By definition of  $\bigoplus_{i\in I} V_i$ , it can only contain tuples with finitely many non-zero entries.

Therefore, the tuple  $(w_i)_{i\in I}$  is not in  $\bigoplus_{i\in I} V_i$ , showing that  $\bigoplus_{i\in I} V_i$  is a proper subset of  $\prod_{i\in I} V_i$ .

Thus, the direct sum  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} V_i$  is indeed a proper subspace of the direct product  $\prod_{i \in I} V_i$ .

**Problem 10.** Let  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  be subspaces of a vector space V such that their set-theoretic union is also a subspace. Prove that one of the spaces  $W_i$  is contained in the other.

Showing that  $W_1 \cap W_2 \neq \emptyset$ :

Since  $W_1 \cup W_2$  is a subspace, it must contain the zero vector. Therefore,  $0 \in W_1 \cup W_2$ . This implies that 0 is in at least one of  $W_1$  or  $W_2$ , but more importantly,  $0 \in W_1 \cap W_2$ . Hence,  $W_1 \cap W_2$  is non-empty.

Proving that  $W_1 \cup W_2$  being a subspace implies  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  are contained in each other.

Since  $W_1 \cup W_2$  is a subspace, it is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. Consider any vectors  $u \in W_1$  and  $v \in W_2$ . Since  $W_1 \cup W_2$  is a subspace, their sum u + v must also be in  $W_1 \cup W_2$ .

There are two cases to consider:

Case 1  $u + v \in W_1$ :

If  $u+v\in W_1$ , since  $u\in W_1$  and  $u+v\in W_1$ , it follows that v must be in  $W_1$  (because  $W_1$  is a subspace and closed under subtraction). Therefore,  $W_2\subseteq W_1$  because v was an arbitrary element of  $W_2$ .

Case  $2u + v \in W_2$ :

Similarly, if  $u+v\in W_2$ , then since  $v\in W_2$  and  $u+v\in W_2$ , it follows that u must be in  $W_2$  (because  $W_2$  is a subspace and closed under subtraction). Thus,  $W_1\subseteq W_2$  because u was an arbitrary element of  $W_1$ .

In either case, we find that one of the subspaces is contained in the other.

#### **Problem 11.** (Subspaces)

(a) Let R be an commutative ring (we assume that R is also associative and has a unit). Show that the set R\* of invertible elements in R is an abelian group, i.e., there is an operation  $\boxplus$  which is commutative, associative, there exist a zero element and "negatives"

To show that  $R^*$ , the set of invertible elements in a commutative ring R, forms an abelian group under multiplication, we need to verify the following group properties:

Closure under Multiplication:

Let  $a, b \in R^*$ . Since a and b are invertible, there exist  $a^{-1}$  and  $b^{-1}$  in R such that:

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

We need to show that  $a \cdot b$  is also invertible. Consider:

$$(a \cdot b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}.$$
 
$$(a \cdot b) \cdot (b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}) = a \cdot (b \cdot b^{-1}) \cdot a^{-1} = a \cdot 1 \cdot a^{-1} = a \cdot a^{-1} = 1.$$
 
$$(b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}) \cdot (a \cdot b) = b^{-1} \cdot (a^{-1} \cdot a) \cdot b = b^{-1} \cdot 1 \cdot b = b^{-1} \cdot b = 1.$$

Therefore,  $a \cdot b$  is invertible, and  $(a \cdot b)^{-1} = b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}$ , confirming that  $R^*$  is closed under multiplication.

#### Associativity:

Multiplication in R is associative, and since  $R^*$  is a subset of R, the operation of multiplication is associative in  $R^*$ . Specifically, for any  $a, b, c \in R^*$ :

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

## **Existence of Identity Element:**

The identity element in R under multiplication is 1, and  $1 \in R^*$  because 1 is invertible with  $1^{-1} = 1$ . Therefore, 1 serves as the identity element for  $R^*$ .

#### Existence of Inverses:

By definition, each element  $a \in R^*$  has an inverse  $a^{-1} \in R$ . Thus, for every  $a \in R^*$ , the element  $a^{-1}$  is also in  $R^*$ , satisfying the requirement for inverses in the group.

# Commutativity:

Since R is commutative, for any  $a, b \in R^*$ :

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$
.

Hence,  $R^*$  inherits this commutativity from R, and so  $R^*$  is abelian.

Therefore,  $(R^*, \cdot)$  is an abelian group where the group operation is multiplication. It is closed, associative, has an identity element, and every element has an inverse, and the operation is commutative.

(b) Let  $\mathbb{F}_p$  be the field with p elements, p a prime. Let A be an abelian group. Find a "natural" condition in order that A will be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  (in a unique way). [Hint: 1 does what?]

The element 1 in the field  $\mathbb{F}_p$  must act as the multiplicative identity on the abelian group A. This requirement ensures that A can be given a vector space structure over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  where the scalar multiplication by 1 leaves each vector unchanged.

The "natural" condition for A to be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is that A must be a finite abelian group of order  $p^n$  for some positive integer n. This condition ensures that A has a structure that allows it to be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  in a unique way.

The field  $\mathbb{F}_p$  has exactly p elements. For A to be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , A must be isomorphic to  $\mathbb{F}_p^n$  for some n. Therefore, A must have  $p^n$  elements.

The order of A must be  $p^n$  because this is the number of elements in  $\mathbb{F}_p^n$ . For A to have this order, it must be that A is a finite abelian group whose order is a power of p.

Given A is a finite abelian group of order  $p^n$ , there is a unique (up to isomorphism) vector space structure on A over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . This is because every finite abelian group of order  $p^n$  is isomorphic to a direct sum of n copies of  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , thus it has a unique vector space structure over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

Therefore, the natural condition for A to be a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is that A must be a finite abelian group whose order is a power of p. This ensures that A can be given a unique vector space structure over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

(c) Show that if R is the ring of n-tuples of elements in  $\mathbb{F}_4$  with componentwise addition and multiplication, then R\* is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_3$ .

Firstly, recall that R is defined as:

$$R = (\mathbb{F}_4)^n$$
,

where  $\mathbb{F}_4$  is the finite field with 4 elements. We can describe  $\mathbb{F}_4$  as  $\mathbb{F}_2[x]/(x^2+x+1)$  with elements  $\{0,1,\alpha,\alpha+1\}$ , where  $\alpha$  is a root of  $x^2+x+1$  in  $\mathbb{F}_4$ .

Next,  $R^*$  denotes the additive group of R, so:

$$R^* = (\mathbb{F}_4)^n,$$

which is the same as R under addition. Hence,  $R^*$  consists of all n-tuples over  $\mathbb{F}_4$  with componentwise addition.

To show that  $R^*$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_3$ , we need to define scalar multiplication by elements of  $\mathbb{F}_3$ . Given an element  $\mathbf{v}=(v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n)\in R^*$  and a scalar  $c\in\mathbb{F}_3$ , we define scalar multiplication as:

$$c \cdot \mathbf{v} = (c \cdot v_1, c \cdot v_2, \dots, c \cdot v_n),$$

where  $c \cdot v_i$  denotes the multiplication of the scalar  $c \in \mathbb{F}_3$  with the element  $v_i \in \mathbb{F}_4$  (computed in  $\mathbb{F}_4$ ).

To verify that  $R^*$  is a vector space, we check the vector space axioms over  $\mathbb{F}_3$ .

Firstly,  $R^*$  is closed under addition. Given two vectors  $\mathbf{u}=(u_1,u_2,\ldots,u_n)$  and  $\mathbf{v}=(v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n)$  in  $R^*$ , their sum is:

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, \dots, u_n + v_n).$$

Since addition in  $\mathbb{F}_4$  is closed,  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is also in  $R^*$ , so  $R^*$  is closed under addition.

Next,  $R^*$  is closed under scalar multiplication. Given a vector  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) \in R^*$  and a scalar  $c \in \mathbb{F}_3$ , scalar multiplication is defined as:

$$c \cdot \mathbf{v} = (c \cdot v_1, c \cdot v_2, \dots, c \cdot v_n).$$

Since multiplication in  $\mathbb{F}_4$  is closed and  $\mathbb{F}_4$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_3$ , each component  $c \cdot v_i$  remains in  $\mathbb{F}_4$ , so  $c \cdot \mathbf{v} \in R^*$ . Hence,  $R^*$  is closed under scalar multiplication.

The properties of associativity and commutativity of addition hold because  $\mathbb{F}_4$  itself is an associative and commutative ring.

The zero vector  $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, \dots, 0)$  is in  $R^*$ , and for any  $\mathbf{v} \in R^*$ ,  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$ , ensuring the existence of an additive identity.

For any vector  $\mathbf{v}=(v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n)\in R^*$ , its additive inverse is  $-\mathbf{v}=(-v_1,-v_2,\ldots,-v_n)$ . Since  $\mathbb{F}_4$  is closed under additive inverses,  $R^*$  also contains all additive inverses.

Scalar multiplication distributes over vector addition and field addition:

$$c \cdot (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c \cdot \mathbf{u} + c \cdot \mathbf{v},$$

$$(c+d) \cdot \mathbf{v} = c \cdot \mathbf{v} + d \cdot \mathbf{v},$$

and scalar multiplication is associative:

$$c \cdot (d \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (c \cdot d) \cdot \mathbf{v}.$$

Since  $R^*$  satisfies all these axioms, it follows that  $R^*$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_3$ .