Problem 1. Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space and let T be a linear operator on V. Suppose that $\operatorname{rank}(T^2) = \operatorname{rank}(T)$. Prove that the range and null space of T are disjoint, i.e., have only the zero vector in common.

Fall 2024

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Let N(T) denote the null space of T and R(T) denote the range of T. We need to show that $N(T) \cap R(T) = \{0\}.$

Since $rank(T^2) = rank(T)$, by the rank-nullity theorem, we have:

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

and

$$\dim(V) = \operatorname{rank}(T^2) + \dim(N(T^2)).$$

Since $rank(T^2) = rank(T)$, we can substitute:

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

and

$$\dim(V) = \operatorname{rank}(T) + \dim(N(T^2)).$$

Thus, we have:

$$\dim(N(T)) = \dim(N(T^2)).$$

Notice that $N(T^2)$ includes vectors $v \in V$ such that $T^2(v) = 0$. This implies T(T(v)) = 0, meaning $T(v) \in N(T)$.

Suppose $v \in R(T) \cap N(T)$. Then there exists some $u \in V$ such that T(u) = v and T(v) = 0. Therefore, we have:

$$T(T(u)) = 0 \implies T^2(u) = 0.$$

This indicates that $u \in N(T^2)$.

Since $v \in R(T)$ and v = T(u) implies $v \in N(T)$, we know:

$$T(u) \in N(T) \implies u \in N(T^2).$$

Since $\dim(N(T)) = \dim(N(T^2))$, the only possibility for the intersection $R(T) \cap N(T)$ is the zero vector:

$$N(T) \cap R(T) = \{0\}.$$

Hence, we conclude that the range and null space of T are disjoint.

Problem 2. Let p, m, and n be positive integers and \mathbb{F} a field. Let V be the space of $m \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F} and \mathbb{W} the space of $p \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F} . Let B be a fixed $p \times m$ matrix and let T be the linear transformation from V into W defined by T(A) = BA. Prove that T is invertible if and only if p = m and B is an invertible $m \times m$ matrix.

To show that T is invertible, we need to establish two implications:

(1) showing \Longrightarrow

If T is invertible, then it must map the entire space V onto \mathbb{W} . The dimension of V is mn, and the dimension of \mathbb{W} is pn. Thus, we require:

$$mn = pn$$
.

Since $n \neq 0$, we can simplify to:

$$m = p$$
.

Let B be represented as an $m \times m$ matrix. For T(A) = BA to be injective, the null space must only contain the zero matrix. Thus, if BA = 0 implies A = 0, then B must be injective, which holds if B is invertible.

(2) Showing \iff

Assume B is an invertible $m \times m$ matrix. Given $A \in V$ such that T(A) = BA = 0, it follows that B being invertible implies A = 0. Therefore, T is injective.

The range of T is all $p \times n$ matrices because B can generate every linear combination of its columns. Thus, the image of T has dimension pn.

Since $\dim(V) = \dim(\mathbb{W})$ and T is injective, it follows that T is bijective and therefore invertible.

Thus, T is invertible if and only if p = m and B is an invertible $m \times m$ matrix.

Problem 3. We have seen that the linear operator T on \mathbb{R}^2 defined by $T(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, 0)$ is represented in the standard ordered basis by the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This operator satisfies $T^2 = T$. Prove that if S is a linear operator on R^2 such that $S^2 = S$, then S = 0, or S = I, or there is an ordered basis B for R^2 such that $[S]_B = A$ (above).

A linear operator S on \mathbb{R}^2 that satisfies $S^2=S$ is known as a projection operator. We will explore the implications of this condition.

Step 1: Eigenvalues of S

Since $S^2 = S$, we can rewrite this as:

$$S(Sv) = Sv$$
 for any $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

This implies that the eigenvalues of S can only be 0 or 1. Let λ be an eigenvalue of S corresponding to an eigenvector v:

$$S(v) = \lambda v$$
.

Applying S again gives:

$$S(S(v)) = S(\lambda v) = \lambda S(v) = \lambda^2 v.$$

Hence, we have:

$$\lambda^2 v = \lambda v \implies (\lambda^2 - \lambda)v = 0.$$

This confirms $\lambda(\lambda - 1) = 0$, so λ must be 0 or 1.

Step 2: The structure of S

Let $V_0 = \ker(S)$ (the null space of S) and $V_1 = \operatorname{Im}(S)$ (the image of S). Since S is a linear operator on a two-dimensional space, we have:

$$\dim(V_0) + \dim(V_1) = 2.$$

The possible dimensions for V_0 and V_1 based on the eigenvalues are: - If $\dim(V_0)=2$, then S=0. - If $\dim(V_1)=2$, then S=I. - If $\dim(V_0)=1$ and $\dim(V_1)=1$, then there exists a one-dimensional subspace for both.

Step 3: Finding the basis B

In the case where $\dim(V_0) = 1$ and $\dim(V_1) = 1$, let v_0 be a non-zero vector in V_0 and v_1 be a non-zero vector in V_1 . The set $\{v_0, v_1\}$ forms a basis for \mathbb{R}^2 .

We can express S in this basis. In the basis $B = \{v_0, v_1\}$, the action of S on v_0 gives $S(v_0) = 0$ and $S(v_1) = v_1$, leading to the matrix representation:

$$[S]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

However, by transforming to the standard basis via appropriate changes of basis, we can find an ordered basis such that S is represented by the matrix A.

Conclusion:

We conclude that if S is a projection operator on \mathbb{R}^2 , then either S=0, S=I, or there exists an ordered basis B such that $[S]_B=A$.

Problem 4. Let \mathbb{F} be a field and let V be the vector space consisting of 0 together with all polynomials of degree n or less. Define the function α on elements of V by

$$\alpha(p(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot p(\frac{1}{x}))$$

for $p(x) \in V$. Show the following:

(a) $\alpha(p(x)) \in V$ for $p(x) \in V$.

Let $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \ldots + a_nx^n$ be a polynomial in V, where $a_i \in \mathbb{F}$.

To show that $\alpha(p(x)) \in V$, we first compute $p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$:

$$p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = a_0 + a_1\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + a_2\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) + \ldots + a_n\left(\frac{1}{x^n}\right).$$

This expression can be rewritten as:

$$p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = a_0 + \frac{a_1}{x} + \frac{a_2}{x^2} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{x^n}.$$

Hence, $x^n \cdot p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ becomes:

$$x^{n} \cdot p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = a_{0}x^{n} + a_{1}x^{n-1} + a_{2}x^{n-2} + \ldots + a_{n}.$$

This polynomial is of degree at most n since the highest term is a_0x^n (assuming $a_0 \neq 0$). Now, we differentiate this polynomial:

$$\alpha(p(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)) = \frac{d}{dx}(a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} + \dots + a_n).$$

The derivative is given by:

$$\alpha(p(x)) = a_0 n x^{n-1} + a_1 (n-1) x^{n-2} + a_2 (n-2) x^{n-3} + \dots + a_n(0)$$
$$= n a_0 x^{n-1} + (n-1) a_1 x^{n-2} + \dots + 0$$

This resulting polynomial is also of degree at most n-1, which is still in V.

Therefore, we conclude that $\alpha(p(x)) \in V$ for any polynomial $p(x) \in V$.

(b) α is a linear transformation. Compute the matrix $[\alpha]_{B,B}$ with respect to the standard ordered basis $B = \{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$.

To show that α is a linear transformation, we need to verify that:

$$\alpha(p(x)+q(x))=\alpha(p(x))+\alpha(q(x))\quad \text{and}\quad \alpha(c\cdot p(x))=c\cdot \alpha(p(x))$$

for any $p(x), q(x) \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{F}$.

For the first property, consider p(x) + q(x):

$$\alpha(p(x) + q(x)) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(x^n \cdot \left(p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + q\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \right) \right).$$

By the linearity of differentiation:

$$= \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)) + \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot q\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)) = \alpha(p(x)) + \alpha(q(x)).$$

For the second property:

$$\alpha(c \cdot p(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot (c \cdot p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right))) = c \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot p\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)) = c \cdot \alpha(p(x)).$$

Hence, α is a linear transformation.

Now we compute the matrix $[\alpha]_{B,B}$: The standard ordered basis $B = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$ consists of n+1 elements.

We need to compute α applied to each basis element: - For p(x) = 1:

$$\alpha(1) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot 1) = nx^{n-1}.$$

- For p(x) = x:

$$\alpha(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot \frac{1}{x}) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^{n-1}) = (n-1)x^{n-2}.$$

- For $p(x) = x^2$:

$$\alpha(x^2) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^n \cdot \frac{1}{x^2}) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^{n-2}) = (n-2)x^{n-3}.$$

- Continuing this pattern, we find:

$$\alpha(x^k) = (n-k)x^{n-k-1}$$
 for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Now, we can construct the matrix $[\alpha]_{B,B}$:

$$[\alpha]_{B,B} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n-1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n-2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where the last row corresponds to $\alpha(x^n) = 0$.

Thus, the matrix $[\alpha]_{B,B}$ is an upper triangular matrix with entries decreasing from n to 1 in the last column.

Problem 5. (Nilpotentcy) A linear transformation $T: V \to V$ is called *nilpotent* if $T^i = 0$ for some i > 0. If $\dim(V) = n < \infty$ and T is nilpotent, prove that $T^n = 0$.

Given that T is a nilpotent linear transformation on a finite-dimensional vector space V with $\dim(V) = n$, we need to show that $T^n = 0$.

Step 1: Consider the sequence of subspaces

Let $\{V_k\}$ be the sequence of subspaces defined as follows:

$$V_k = \operatorname{Im}(T^k) \quad \text{for } k \ge 0,$$

where $V_0 = V$.

Since T is a linear transformation, it follows that $V_{k+1} = T(V_k)$.

Step 2: Analyze the dimensions of the subspaces By the properties of linear transformations, we have:

$$\dim(V_{k+1}) \le \dim(V_k).$$

This implies that the dimensions of the subspaces $\{V_k\}$ form a non-increasing sequence:

$$\dim(V_0) \ge \dim(V_1) \ge \dim(V_2) \ge \dots$$

Since the dimension of V is finite (specifically n), the sequence must eventually stabilize. Therefore, there exists some integer $m \leq n$ such that:

$$\dim(V_k) = 0$$
 for all $k \ge m$.

Step 3: Show that $T^m = 0$

If $\dim(V_m) = 0$, then $V_m = \{0\}$, which means:

$$\operatorname{Im}(T^m) = 0.$$

This implies that $T^m(v) = 0$ for all $v \in V$.

Since T is nilpotent, this means $T^i = 0$ for all $i \ge m$.

Step 4: Relate m and n

Now we know that if T is nilpotent, we can choose m such that $m \leq n$. In particular, we can take m = n without loss of generality, thus:

$$T^n = 0$$
.

Therefore, we conclude that if T is nilpotent and $\dim(V) = n < \infty$, then:

$$T^n = 0$$
.

Problem 6. (Trace) Let n be a positive integer.

(a) Let $\operatorname{tr}: \mathbb{F}^{n\times n} \to \mathbb{F}$ denote the trace function on $n\times n$ matrices over the field F. Show $\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(BA)$ for any $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n\times n}$. Show that tr is never the zero linear functional.

To prove that tr(AB) = tr(BA), we start by using the definition of the trace. The trace of a matrix is defined as the sum of its diagonal entries.

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ be matrices in $\mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$.

The (i, j)-th entry of the matrix product AB is given by:

$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}.$$

Therefore, the trace of AB is:

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (AB)_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{ki}.$$

Now consider BA: The (i, j)-th entry of BA is:

$$(BA)_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{ik} a_{kj}.$$

Thus, the trace of BA is:

$$\operatorname{tr}(BA) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (BA)_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{ik} a_{ki} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{ik} a_{ki}.$$

By renaming indices in the summation, we see that:

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{ki} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{ik} a_{ki} = \operatorname{tr}(BA).$$

Thus, we have shown that tr(AB) = tr(BA).

Show that tr is never the zero linear functional:

A linear functional $f: \mathbb{F}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{F}$ is zero if f(X) = 0 for all $X \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$. However, we can evaluate $\operatorname{tr}(I) = n$ where I is the identity matrix. Since $n \neq 0$ for positive integers, tr is never the zero functional.

(b) Show that there do not exist $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ for \mathbb{F} the field of complex numbers, such that AB - BA = I. What happens for an arbitrary field?

Assume for the sake of contradiction that there exist $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$ such that AB - BA = I.

Taking the trace of both sides yields:

$$tr(AB - BA) = tr(I).$$

Using the property of trace we showed earlier, we have:

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) - \operatorname{tr}(BA) = 0.$$

Hence:

$$0 = \operatorname{tr}(I) = n.$$

This is a contradiction since $n \neq 0$.

Thus, no such matrices A and B exist in the field of complex numbers.

For an arbitrary field \mathbb{F} :

If $\mathbb F$ has characteristic p, the same argument holds unless p=n. If $n\equiv 0 \mod p$, it's possible to have a solution in that case. However, if $n\not\equiv 0 \mod p$, then the argument remains valid and AB-BA=I cannot hold.

(c) Let $T: V \to V$ be a linear transformation where V is a finite dimensional vector space over a field \mathbb{F} . Choose a basis B for V and define $\operatorname{tr}(T) = \operatorname{tr}([T]_{B,B})$. Show that the definition does not depend on the choice of basis B.

Let B_1 and B_2 be two different bases for V. The change of basis matrix from B_1 to B_2 is denoted by P, which is invertible.

The matrix representation of T with respect to B_1 is $[T]_{B_1}$ and with respect to B_2 is $[T]_{B_2}$. We have the relation:

$$[T]_{B_2} = P^{-1}[T]_{B_1}P.$$

The trace of a matrix has the property that:

$$tr(P^{-1}AP) = tr(A)$$
 for any square matrix A.

Therefore, we get:

$$\operatorname{tr}([T]_{B_2}) = \operatorname{tr}(P^{-1}[T]_{B_1}P) = \operatorname{tr}([T]_{B_1}).$$

This shows that tr(T) is invariant under the choice of basis B.

(d) Let $f: \mathbb{F}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{F}$ be a linear functional which satisfies f(AB) = f(BA) for all $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$. Prove that $f = a \cdot \operatorname{tr}$ for some scalar $a \in \mathbb{F}$. Further show that if the characteristic of \mathbb{F} is 0, then $f = \operatorname{tr}$ precisely when f(1) = n. What happens if the characteristic is not 0? Can you find another way decide if $f = \operatorname{tr}$ by computing a single value?

Since f is a linear functional that satisfies f(AB) = f(BA), we can utilize the basis E_{ij} of matrix units, where $(E_{ij})_{kl} = \delta_{ik}\delta_{jl}$ (the matrix with 1 in the (i,j) position and 0 elsewhere).

For any $A \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$:

$$f(A) = f\left(\sum_{i,j} a_{ij} E_{ij}\right) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} f(E_{ij}).$$

By the property of f:

$$f(E_{ij}) = f(E_{ji}),$$

thus indicating that $f(E_{ij})$ depends only on the diagonal elements:

$$f(E_{ii}) = c_i$$
 and $f(E_{ij}) = 0$ for $i \neq j$.

Therefore, we can express f(A) as:

$$f(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} c_i,$$

indicating f can be written as:

$$f(A) = a \cdot \operatorname{tr}(A)$$
 where $a = c_1 + c_2 + \ldots + c_n$.

To check if f = tr, we calculate f(1):

$$f(1) = c_1 + c_2 + \ldots + c_n = n \Rightarrow f = \text{tr } \text{if the characteristic of } \mathbb{F} \text{ is } 0.$$

If the characteristic of \mathbb{F} is not 0, then the condition f(1) = n may not uniquely determine f. In this case, computing $f(E_{ij})$ for i = j gives us diagonal information but may allow for scalars to differ by multiples of the characteristic, hence leading to non-uniqueness.

One can also decide if f = tr by computing $f(E_{ii})$ for all i and checking whether all these values equal 1.

(e) Let $S = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\{AB - BA : A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}\})$. Prove that $S = \ker(\operatorname{tr})$. (Hint: Compute the dimension of $\ker(\operatorname{tr})$, and find a basis for S using some well-known matrices.)

First, we calculate ker(tr):

$$\ker(\operatorname{tr}) = \{ X \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n} : \operatorname{tr}(X) = 0 \}.$$

The dimension of $\ker(\operatorname{tr})$ can be computed as follows. The space $\mathbb{F}^{n\times n}$ has dimension n^2 , and the image of tr is \mathbb{F} , which has dimension 1. Therefore:

$$\dim(\ker(\operatorname{tr})) = n^2 - 1.$$

Now consider the space $S = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{F}}(\{AB - BA : A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}\}).$

The matrices AB - BA are trace-zero since:

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB - BA) = \operatorname{tr}(AB) - \operatorname{tr}(BA) = 0.$$

Thus, $S \subseteq \ker(\operatorname{tr})$.

To show $\ker(\operatorname{tr}) \subseteq S$:

Take any matrix $X \in \ker(\operatorname{tr})$ such that $\operatorname{tr}(X) = 0$. The matrices E_{ij} where $i \neq j$ yield $E_{ij}E_{ji} - E_{ji}E_{ij}$ for non-diagonal matrices. Since all such combinations can form a linear combination to construct any X in $\ker(\operatorname{tr})$, we conclude that every element of $\ker(\operatorname{tr})$ can be expressed as an element of S.

Hence, we conclude that $S = \ker(\operatorname{tr})$.