# MATH223 - Linear Algebra (class notes)

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# January 7th 2019

Should know how to solve a linear system and calculate a determinant... things like that.

• Written assignments (5): 10%

• Webwork assignments (5): 5%

• Midterm : 20%

• Final: 65%

Textbook: Schaum's Outline - Linear Algebra.

#### Motivation

We have linear systems, with two equations, like such:

$$3x - 2y + z = 2$$
$$x - y + z = 1$$

There is an algebraic way of seeing this, but we can also see this, from the geometric standpoint, as the intersection of the two planes in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Linear algebra has to do with things that are "flat", like a plane. As soon as we add in exponents to these equations, we get some curvature, and the techniques to solve these are different.

- Linear equations are the simplest kind, so you *must* understand them. Also, you can understand 'everything' about them.
- Theory used to describe solutions, etc.
- Linear equations are often used to approximate or model more complicated equations/situations.
- In applications, linear systems are often quite big (10000 equations/variables)

## Complex numbers

**Def:** Let *i* be a symbol. We declare  $i^2 = -1$ .

Now, what we'd like to do is take this symbol *i* and combine it with the usual real numbers that we are familiar with. We set, for example,

$$3i$$

$$i-4$$

$$3i-\pi$$

$$\sqrt{i}+21$$

**Def:** The field of complex numbers *C* consists of all expressions of the form a + bi, where  $a, b \in R$ .

Def: Addition (subtraction) and multiplication of complex numbers is defined by the following rules:

$$(a+bi) + (c+di) = (a+c) + (b+d)i$$

(ii) 
$$(a+bi)(c+di) = ac + adi + bci + bdi^{2}$$
$$= ac + adi + bci - bd$$
$$= (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$$

### Notation:

- 0 + bi = bi
- a + 0i = a (a *real* number)
- 0 + 0i = 0

Ex: If  $z_1 = 2 - i$ ,  $z_2 = 5i$ , then

$$z_1 + z_2 = 2 + 4i$$

and

$$z_1 z_2 = (2 - i)(5i) = 10i - 5i^2 = 5 + 10i$$

**Def:** Let  $z = a + bi \in C$ 

- (i)  $\bar{z} = a bi$ , called the *complex conjugate* of z
- (ii)  $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ , called the absolute value or modulus

**Def:** If  $z = a + bi \in C$  and  $z \neq 0$  (ie  $z \neq 0 + 0i$ ), then the number

$$z^{-1} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$$
$$= \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}i$$

is called the (multiplicative) inverse of z. It has the property  $zz^{-1}=$  $1 = z^{-1}z$ .

Proof. We have

$$zz^{-1} = (a+bi)(\frac{a}{a^2+b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2+b^2}i)$$

$$= \frac{a^2 - abi + abi - b^2i^2}{a^2+b^2}$$

$$= \frac{a^2 + 0 + b^2}{a^2+b^2}$$

$$= 1$$

**Note:** Since  $z \neq 0 + 0i$ ,  $a^2 + b^2 \neq 0$ 

**Def:** If  $z, w \in C$  and  $z \neq 0$  then

$$\frac{w}{z} = wz^{-1}$$

**Ex:** If z = 1 + 2i, w = 3 - i then

$$\frac{w}{z} = wz^{-1}$$

$$= (3-i)(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i)$$

$$= \frac{3}{5} - \frac{6}{5}i - \frac{i}{5} + \frac{2}{5}i^{2}$$

$$= \frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5} - \frac{7}{5}i$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} - \frac{7}{5}i$$

Or,

$$\frac{3-i}{1+2i} \cdot \frac{(1-2i)}{(1-2i)} = \frac{3-6i-i+2i^2}{1-2i+2i-4i^2}$$
$$= \frac{1-7i}{5}$$

# January 9th 2019

Complex numbers as points in  $R^2$ 

You can view a + bi as a point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . The usefulness of this is that we can consider, say, (3 + 2i) and (3 - i) as vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and they will conserve the same properties (addition of complex numbers corresponds to vector addition in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ). For the interpretation of multiplication to make sense, it's necessary to use polar coordinates.

*Equations with complex numbers* 

**Fact:** Every real number  $a \neq 0$  has two square roots:

- if a > 0, roots  $\pm \sqrt{a}$
- if a < 0, two roots are  $\pm i\sqrt{|a|}$ , since:

$$(\pm i\sqrt{|a|})^2 = i^2(\sqrt{|a|})^2$$

$$= -1 \cdot |a|$$

$$= a \qquad \text{(since } a < 0\text{)}$$

**Fact:** Quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  has solution

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

which may be in *C*.

Ex: Solve  $x^2 - 2x + 3 = 0$ , and factor  $x^2 - 2x + 3$ .

Sol:

$$x = \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4(1)(3)}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{-8}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm i\sqrt{8}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm i2\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$= 1 \pm i\sqrt{2}$$

**Note:** If  $ax^2 + bx + c$  has  $a, b, c \in R$  has a non-real root, say z, its other root is  $\bar{z}$  (z = a + bi,  $\bar{z} = a - bi$ ). This is not necessarily true if  $a,b,c \in C$ .

Back to problem. Factor  $x^2 - 2x + 3 = (x - (1 + i\sqrt{2}))(x - (1 - i\sqrt{2})$ 

**Caution:** -1 has two roots, namely  $\pm i$ , so you may write  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ , but be careful:

$$-1 = i^{2}$$

$$= i \cdot i$$

$$= \sqrt{-1} \cdot \sqrt{-1}$$

$$= \sqrt{(-1)(-1)}$$
 (this step doesn't quite work)
$$= \sqrt{1}$$

$$= 1$$

Theorem 1 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). If

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0 n^0$$

is a polynomial with  $a_n \neq 0$ , and  $a_n, a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_0 \in C$ , then p(x) factors into linear factors,

$$p(x) = a_n \cdot (x - r_1) \cdot (x - r_2) \cdot \ldots \cdot (x - r_n)$$

for some complex numbers  $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n$ . Some  $r_i$ 's may be equal.

**Corollary 1.1.** Every such polynomial has at least one root, and at most n distinct roots.

Note: Finding the roots is, in general, quite difficult.

Ex: Factor  $2x^3 + 2x$  (over C).

Sol:

$$2(x^{3} + x) = 2(x - 0)(x^{2} + 1)$$
$$= 2(x - 0)(x^{2} - i^{2})$$
$$= 2(x - 0)(x - i)(x + i)$$

Ex: Solve  $x^2 - i = 0$ 

**Sol:**  $x^2 = i$  so  $x = \pm \sqrt{i}$ . Want  $\sqrt{i}$  in format a + bi,  $a, b \in R$ .

$$\sqrt{i} = a + bi$$

$$i = (a + bi)^2$$

$$= a^2 + 2abi + b^2i^2$$

$$0 + i = (a^2 - b^2) + 2abi$$

$$0 = a^{2} - b^{2}$$

$$1 = 2ab$$

$$a = \pm b$$

$$ab = \frac{1}{2}$$
 (so a=b both + or both -)
$$a^{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$a = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = b$$

Two solutions,  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}i$  and  $-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}i$ .

*Vector spaces (Ch 4)* 

**Def.** The sets R and C (and also Q, rational numbers, although we won't go into details of this) are called fields (or fields of scalars). In this class, "a field of *K*" means that *K* is either *R* or *C*.

January 11th 2019

**Last time:** *Field K* is *R* or *C* (for this class).

Geometric vectors ('arrows')

You can add two vectors (arrows) (see figure 1)

**Observation:**  $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$ .

You can rescale a vector (see figure 2) **Observation:**  $a(b\vec{u}) = (ab)\vec{u}$ .

Also:  $1\vec{u} = \vec{u}$ 

Question: What properties are interesting? What other objects obey

the same properties?

**Abstraction:** Focus on properties more than on the objects.

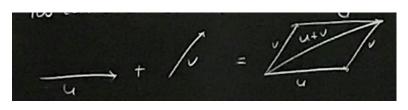


Figure 1: Vector addition



Figure 2: Vector rescaling

## Definition of a vector space

Let *V* be a set, called set of "vectors", and let *K* be a field (*R* or *C*) (elements of K called scalars). Assume that we have already defined two operations:

- (1) One called *addition*, which takes two vectors  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$  and produces another vector denoted  $\vec{u} + \vec{v} \in V$ .
- (2) One called *scalar multiplication* which takes a vector  $\vec{u} \in V$  and a scalar  $a \in K$  and produces another vector denoted  $a\vec{u} \in V$

Then if, for all vectors  $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$  and all scalars  $a, b \in K$ , the following 8 properties are true, then V is called a *vector space* (over K).

- (A1) u + v = v + u (commutative laws)
- (A2) There exists a vector in V, named zero vector and denoted 0 (or  $\vec{0}$ ) such that for all  $u \in V$ , u + 0 = u
- (A<sub>3</sub>) For each  $u \in V$ , there is a vector in V, called the (additive) inverse of *u* and denoted -u, having the property u + (-u) = 0 (where 0 is the zero vector defined in A2)

(A<sub>4</sub>) 
$$(u+v)+w=u+(v+w)$$

(SM1) 
$$a(u + v) = au + av$$
 (distributive laws)

(SM<sub>2</sub>) 
$$(a+b)u = au + bu$$

(SM<sub>3</sub>) 
$$a(bu) = (ab)u$$

(SM<sub>4</sub>) 
$$1u = u \ (1 \in R \text{ or } C)$$

These are called the vector space *axioms*.

Examples of vector spaces

Some examples:

(1)  $K^n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) | a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in K\}$ , with addition defined by

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

and scalar multiplication by

$$c(a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_n)=(ca_1,ca_2,\ldots,ca_n)$$

where  $c \in K$  (and K = set of scalar).

## Proof that $K^n$ is a vector space

Need to prove all 8 properties. We will do 2, the rest are exercises.

(A4) To prove for all  $u, v \in V$ , u + v = v + u.

*Proof concept:* To prove "for all  $x \in A$ , something", say "let  $x \in A$ " (means x is an arbitrary element of A, ie you only know  $x \in A$ ). Then, prove something for that x.

*Proof:* Let  $u, v \in K^n$ . This means  $u = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n), v =$  $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$  for some  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n \in K$ . Then

$$u + v = (a_1, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, \dots, b_n)$$
  
 $= (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n)$  (definition of addition in  $K^n$ )  
 $= (b_1 + a_1, \dots, b_n + a_n)$  (since  $a + b = b + a$  for  $R$  and  $C$ )  
 $= (b_1, \dots, b_n) + (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  (definition of addition in  $K^n$ )  
 $= v + u$ 

(A2) Proof concept: To prove "there exists" something, one method is to describe the thing directly.

Define 0 = (0, 0, ..., 0) (which is in  $K^n$ ). To prove for all  $u \in K^n$ , u + 0 = u, let  $u \in K^n$ . This means  $u = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ , so

$$u + 0 = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n + (0, 0, \dots, 0))$$

$$= (a_1 + 0, a_2 + 0, \dots, a_n + 0)$$

$$= (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$$

$$= u$$

(2) In the vector space  $C^2$ ,  $(2+3i,5-7i) \in C^2$  is an example of a vector and  $2i \in C$  is a scalar, so an example of scalar mult is :

$$2i(u) = 2i(2+3i,5-7i)$$
$$= (4i+6i^2,10i-14i^2)$$
$$= (-6+4i,14+10i)$$

January 14th 2019

**Problem:** Let  $J = \{(x,y) | x \in R, y \in R\}$  but define addition by

$$(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) = (-x_1 - x_2, y_1 + y_2)$$

and scalar multiplication by

$$c(x,y) = (cx, cy)$$

Show that *J* is not a vector space.

**Solution:** Show *one* of the 8 vector space axioms is false. Consider  $(A_1)$ :

$$(x_2, y_2) + (x_1, y_1) = (-x_2 - x_1, y_2 + y_1)$$

This is actually ok! Now consider (A<sub>4</sub>):

$$(x_1, y_1) + ((x_2, y_2) + (x_3, y_3)) = (x_1, y_1) + (-x_2 - x_3, y_2 + y_3)$$
$$= (-x_1 - (-x_2 - x_3), y_1 + y_2 + y_3)$$
$$= (-x_1 + x_2 + x_3, y_1 + y_2 + y_3)$$

While

$$((x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2)) + (x_3, y_3) = (-x_1 - x_2, y_1 + y_2) + (x_3, y_3)$$
$$= (-(-x_1 - x_2) - x_3, y_1 + y_2 + y_3)$$
$$= (x_1 + x_2 - x_3, y_1 + y_2 + y_3)$$

This does not quite yet prove that the axiom is false. To do so, give specific case where the equation is false.

**Actual proof:** Let u = (1,1), v = (2,2) and w = (3,3). Then,

$$u + (v + w) = (1,1) + ((2,2) + (3,3))$$

$$= (1,1) + (-2 - 3,5)$$

$$= (1,1) + (-5,5)$$

$$= (-1+5,6)$$

$$= (4,6)$$

Whereas,

$$(u+v) + w = ((1,1) + (2,2)) + (3,3)$$
$$= (-1-2,3) + (3,3)$$
$$= (-3,3) + (3,3)$$
$$= (-(-3) - 3,6)$$
$$= (0,6)$$

Hence, the axiom does not hold.

More examples of vector spaces

- (1)  $K^n$  (ie  $R^n$  or  $C^n$ ). See before
- (2) P(K) = polynomials, where coefficients are in K. Addition, scalar multiplication are "as expected", ie for multiplication:

$$f(x) = x^2 + 2ix - 4 \in P(C)$$
  

$$g(x) = -x^2 + ix \in P(C)$$
 (and also in  $P(R)$ )

For addition,

$$f(x) + g(x) = 3ix - 4$$

And for scalar multiplication,

$$2if(x) = 2ix^{2} + 4i^{2}x - 8i$$
$$= 2ix^{2} - 4x - 8i$$

(3)  $P_n(K)$  = polynomials of degree n or less, coefficient from K. For example,

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \in P_{2}(R)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \in P_{3}(R)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \in P_{2}(C)$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 2 \notin P_{1}(R)$$

**Note:** In P(K),  $P_n(K)$  the "vectors" are polynomials.

(4)  $M_{m \times n}(K) = m \times n$  matrices with entries from K. Scalars are K, addition and scalar multiplication as expected.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & i \\ 0 & \pi \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(C)$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1+i & -\pi \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(C)$$

$$A + B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1+i \\ 1+i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$2iA = \begin{pmatrix} 4i & 2i^2 \\ 0 & 2i\pi \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4i & -2 \\ 0 & 2\pi i \end{pmatrix}$$

The "zero vector" in  $M_{m \times n}(K)$  is the  $m \times n$  matrix with all entries 0.

(5) Let *X* be any set (think x = R or *C*, but not required). Define  $F(X,K) = \{f : X \to K\} = \text{all functions from } X \text{ to } K.$ **Ex:**  $f(x) = x^2 \in F(R, R)$ .

Ex: Let  $x = \{1, 2\}$ . Then g defined by

$$g(1) = 3$$
$$g(2) = \sqrt{2}$$

Addition in this space is defined by:

If  $f, g \in F(X, K)$  then f + g is the function defined by

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

*Note that*  $f(x) \in K$  and  $g(x) \in K$ , in other words they are *numbers* (scalars). The + in (f + g) is the addition of vectors f and g, while the other + is scalar addition.

*Scalar multiplication* in this space is defined by: if  $f \in F(X, K), c \in K$ then cf is the function defined by

$$(cf)(x) = cf(x)$$

*Note that cf* is the name of the function, that "multiplication" is scalar multiplication  $F(X, \models)$  and cf(x) is the multiplication of two scalars (numbers).

The fact that F(X, K) is a vector space and the axioms are followed is not so obvious.

**Prove (A2) true for** F(X,K)**.** Define  $z \in F(X,K)$  by

$$z(x) = 0$$
 (for all  $x \in X$ )

Note that 0 here is a scalar. Then if  $f \in F(X, K)$  is an arbitrary element, then we need to prove f + z = f. This is true since for all  $x \in X$ ,

$$(f+z)(x) = f(x) + z(x)$$
$$= f(x) + 0$$
$$= f(x)$$

Hence, f + z, f have the same output (namely f(x)) for every input. Hence, f + z = f.

Exercise: Try (A<sub>3</sub>).

January 16th 2019

**Theorem 2** (Cancellation Law). *Suppose v is a vector space over K. For* all vectors  $u, v, w \in V$ , if u + w = v + w then u = v.

*Note*: To prove "for all" you say let  $u \in V$  (means u is an arbitrary vector).

To prove "if p then q", denoted  $p \rightarrow q$ , assume p is true and use it to prove q.

*Proof.* Let  $u, v, w \in V$ . Assume u + w = v + w. By vector space axiom A<sub>3</sub>, there is a vector  $(-w) \in V$ . Add (-w) to both sides:

$$(u+w) + (-w) = (v+w) + (-w)$$
  
 $u + (w + (-w)) = v + (w + (-w))$  (by A1)  
 $u + \vec{0} = v + \vec{0}$  (by A3)

= u = v(by A2)

**Theorem 3.** Two points:

- 1. The zero vector is unique
- 2. For each  $u \in V$ , -u is unique

Note: To prove something is unique, suppose you have two of them and show they are the same.

*Proof.* 1) Assume 0 and *z* both satisfy the property (A2:  $\forall u \in V, u + v \in V$ 0 = u (\*) and u + z = u (\*\*)). Goal is to prove 0 = z.

$$z = z + 0$$
 (by \*, with  $u = z$ )  
=  $0 + z$  (by A4)

z = 0(by \*\*, with u = 0)

So the zero vector is unique.

2) Exercise.

**Theorem 4.**  $\forall u \in V, c \in K$ ,

1) 
$$c\vec{0} = \vec{0}$$

2) 
$$0u = \vec{0}$$

3) 
$$-(cu) = ((-c)u)$$

*Proof.* Of 2). Let  $u \in V$ . Then,

$$0u + 0u = (0 + 0)u$$
 (By SM2)  
 $0u + 0u = 0u$  (by R addition)  
 $0u + 0u = 0u + \vec{0}$  (by A2)  
 $0u + 0u = \vec{0} + 0u$  (by A4)  
 $0u = \vec{0}$  (by cancellation law)

*Note*: 0 + u = u is true for all  $u \in V$  (same as u + 0 = u then apply A4)

Linear combinations and spans

**Def:** Let  $u, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n \in V$ . If there are scalars  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in K$ such that  $u = a_1v_1, a_2v_2 \dots a_nv_n$  then u is said to be a linear combination of  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ .

Ex: In P(R),  $x^2 + 2x - 4$  is a linear comb of  $x^2$ , x, 1.

**Important problem:** Given vectors  $u, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ , determine if u is a linear combination of  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  and if so find  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ .

Ex: Determine if  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 6x + 8$  is a linear combination of

$$g_1(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$$
  

$$g_2(x) = -2x^2 - 4x - 2$$
  

$$g_3(x) = 2x^2 - 3$$

**Sol.** Are there  $a_1, a_2, a_3$  s.t.

$$2x^{2} + 6x + 8 = a_{1}(x^{2} + 2x + 1) + a_{2}(-2x^{2} - 4x - 2) + a_{3}(2x^{2} - 3)$$
$$= (a_{1} - 2a_{2} + 2a_{3})x^{2} + (2a_{1} - 4a_{2})x + (a_{1} - 2a_{2} - 3a_{3})$$

Equating coefficients,

$$a_1 - 2a_2 + 2a_3 = 2$$
  
 $2a_1 - 4a_2 = 6$   
 $a_1 - 2a_2 - 3a_3 = 8$ 

Solve the linear system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & 0 & 6 \\ 1 & -2 & -3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
(row reduce)

 $\therefore$  No solution, because of the last row. f is not a linear combination of  $g_1, g_2, g_3$ .

**Def:** Let  $S \subseteq V$  (S is a subset of V) and assume  $s \neq 0$ . The span of s, denoted span(s) is the set of all linear combinations of vectors from *S*, ie

$$span(s) = \{u \in V | \exists v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in S \}$$
  
and scalars  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  s.t.  
 $u = a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n\}$ 

# January 18th 2019

Last class

$$S \subseteq V$$

$$span(s) = \{u \in V | \exists v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in S$$
and scalars  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  s.t.
$$u = a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \dots + a_nv_n\}$$

**Ex:**  $S = \{\binom{1}{2}, \binom{3}{1}\} \subseteq R^2$ . Prove  $span(S) = R^2$ .

**Note:**  $\binom{a}{b}$  means (a, b).

**Proof note:** To prove two sets A, B are equal, ie A = B, you can prove  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$ .

Sol:

- (1) Prove  $span(S) \subseteq R^2$ . Trivial, since any linear combination of vectors in  $R^2$  is still in  $R^2$ .
- (2) Prove  $R^2 \subseteq span(S)$ . Let  $\binom{a}{b} \in R^2$  (arbitrary). To prove that there exists scalars  $x_1, x_2 \in K$  so that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In other words,

$$a = x_1 + 3x_2$$
$$b = 2x_1 + x_2$$

Want to show this has a solution (for all a, b). System is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

But,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 - 2(3) \neq 0$$

hence the system has (exactly one) solution.  $\binom{a}{b} \in span(S)$  so  $R^2 \subseteq span(S)$ . So by (1), (2),  $span(S) = R^2$ .  $\square$ 

**Note:** Ax = b,  $A_{n \times n}$  if A inv,  $x = A^{-1}b$ .

**Theorem 5.** Let  $S \subseteq V$ ,  $S \neq \emptyset$  ( $\emptyset = empty \ set$ ). Then,

- (1) If  $u, v \in span(S)$  then  $u + v \in span(S)$
- (2) If  $u \in span(S)$  and  $c \in K$ , then  $cu \in span(S)$
- (3)  $\vec{0} \in span(S)$

*Proof.* By direct proof.

(1) (Note, "if  $u, v \in span(S)$ " means for all  $u, v \in span(S)$ ). Let  $u, v \in span(S)$ . Then,

$$u = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_nu_n$$
 where  $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in S, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in K$   
 $v = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \ldots + b_mv_m$  where  $v_1, \ldots, v_m \in S, b_1, \ldots, b_m \in K$ 

Then  $u + v = a_1u_1 + \ldots + a_nu_n + b_1v_1 + \ldots b_mv_m$  which is in span(S) since  $u_1, \ldots, u_n, v_1, \ldots, v_m \in S$ .

(2) Let  $u \in span(S), c \in K$ . Then,

$$u = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_nu_n$$
 where  $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in S, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in K$ 

So,

$$cu = c(a_1u_1) + c(a_2u_2) + \ldots + c(a_nu_n)$$
  
=  $(ca_1)u_1 + (ca_2)u_2 + \ldots + (c_na_n)u_n$ 

Note: If you want to be very formal, you need to write down all of the vector space axioms. Which is in span(S) since it is a linear combination of  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  which are in S.

(3) (Prove  $\vec{0} \in span(S)$ ) Let  $u \in S$ . Note: This is possible only because  $S \neq \emptyset$ .

Then u = 1u, so  $u \in span(S)$ . Then using c = 0 and (2) and fact that  $u \in span(S)$ ,

$$cu = 0u = \vec{0}$$

is also in span(S). **Note:** Since u = 1u,  $S \subseteq span(S)$ .

Subspaces

**Def.** Let V be a vector space and  $W \subseteq V$  (subset). If W, using addition and scalar multiplication as defined in *V*, satisfies the definition of vector space, then W is called a subspace of V, denoted  $W \leq V$ (less than equal sign, read as "subspace").

Note: Main issue is that addition and scalar multiplication with vector from W produce vectors which are still in W.

**Theorem 6.** Let  $W \subseteq V$ . Then, if the following three properties hold,  $W \leq V$  (subspace).

- (SS1) For all  $w_1, w_2 \in W$ , we have  $w_1 + w_2 \in W$  ("closure under addition")
- (SS<sub>2</sub>) For all  $w \in W$  and scalars  $c \in K$ , we have  $cw \in W$  ("closure under scalar multiplication")
- $(SS_3)$   $\vec{0} \in W$ .

These are the same properties we just proved for spans; in other words, we proved earlier that span(S) is a subspace.

*Proof.* For W to have operations addition, scalar multiplication, just means (SS1) and (SS2) are true. So now, check (A1) - (SM4). Most of them are true because they are true in a larger vector space.

- (A1) Let  $u, v, w \in W$ . Then since  $u, v, w \in V$ , and (A1) holds in V, u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w.
- (A2) This is (SS3).
- (A<sub>3</sub>) This is the one we have to do a bit more work for. Let  $w \in W$ . Want to show  $-w \in W$ . Then, using (SS<sub>2</sub>) with c = -1 gives

$$-1(w) = -w$$
 (thm from last class)

is in *W*, as needed.

- (A4) Still true because it is true in V.
- (SM1-SM4) All hold because they hold in V.

January 21st 2019

A note on logic

Let *P*, *Q* be statements that are true or false.

(1) "If P then Q", also written symbolically as " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " (P implies Q) means if *P* is true, then *Q* is also true. To *prove* " $P \Rightarrow Q$ ", assume *P* and prove Q is true. If you *know* that " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " is true, you can *use* it: if you can establish that P is true, you may conclude Q is true. **Ex:** Let *A* be an  $n \times n$  matrix:

$$P: dot(A) = 1$$
  $Q: "A is invertible"$ 

Thm:  $P \Rightarrow Q$ 

(2) The *converse* of " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " is " $Q \Rightarrow P$ ". This is a (logically) different statement.

**Ex:** With *P* and *Q* as above, " $Q \Rightarrow P$ " is not true because  $A_{inv} \not\Rightarrow$ det(A) = 1.

- (3) The *contrapositive* of " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " is " $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$ " ie "if Q false, then P also false". Logically, this is the same as " $P \Rightarrow Q$ ".
- (4) The *equivalence* "P if and only if Q", written " $P \iff Q$ " means " $P \Rightarrow Q$  and also  $Q \Rightarrow P$ " is true. Also means that either both Pand Q are true or both are false.

**Ex:**  $det(A) \neq 0 \iff A$  is invertible.

To prove " $P \iff Q$ ", need to prove " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " and " $Q \Rightarrow P$ ".

**Note:**  $\neg P \Rightarrow \neg Q$  is the same as  $Q \Rightarrow P$ .

Subspaces (cont'd)

Thm (last class): Let  $W \subseteq V$  (subset). If

- 1. For all  $u, v \in W$ ,  $u + v \in W$
- 2. For all  $u \in W$ ,  $c \in K$ ,  $cu \in W$
- 3.  $\vec{0} \in W$

then  $W \leq V$  (subspace). (ie: (1), (2), (3) are true  $\Rightarrow W \leq V$ )

**Theorem 7.** *Let*  $W \subseteq V$ . *Then* 

$$W \leq V \Rightarrow (1), (2), (3)$$
 are true

(ie the converse of last theorem is true).

Proof. Exercise.

**Theorem 8.** *Let*  $W \subseteq V$ . *Then* 

$$W \leq V \iff (1), (2), (3)$$
 are true

Examples of subspaces and non-subspaces

Is each subset a subspace?

- (a)  $W = \{\binom{1}{2}, \binom{3}{1}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ . Not a subspace, since the zero vector is not in W. The others are also false, but it's enough to prove that one of the statements does not hold. But  $span(W) = R^2$  (so  $span(W) \le$
- (b)  $W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in R^3 | x + y z = 0 \right\}$ . Need to check (1), (2), (3):
  - (1) Let  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} \in W$ . Then we know x + y z = 0 and x' + y' z' = 0. Check:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x + x' \\ y + y' \\ z + z' \end{pmatrix}$$

Verify

$$(x + x') + (y + y') - (z + z') = (x + y - z) + (x' + y' - z')$$
$$= 0 + 0$$
$$= 0$$

So yes, it is in *W*.

(2) Let 
$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in W$$
 (means  $x + y - z = 0$ ), let  $c \in K$ . To prove

$$c \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} cx \\ cy \\ cz \end{pmatrix} \in W$$

Here, 
$$cx + cy - cz = c(x + y - z) = c(0) = 0$$
. So  $c \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in W$ 

(3) 
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W$$
, since  $0 + 0 - 0 = 0$ 

Since (1), (2), (3) true,  $W \le R^2$  (subspace)

(c) 
$$W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in R^3 | x + y - z = 1 \right\}$$
. This is *not* a subspace. (3) is false.

- (d)  $W = \{A \in M_{2\times 2} | A_{ij} \ge 0 \forall i, j\}$ , where  $A_{ij}$  is the entry of A in row i, column j. (1) and (3) are true:
  - (1) Add two matrices with non-negatives entries, result has nonnegative entries.

$$(2) \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W$$

Note, we wrote these out very informally. Now, (2) is false since, for example  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in W$  but

$$(-1)\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \not\in W$$

Two special subspaces

Let *V* be a vector space.

- (1)  $V \leq V$  is true
- (2)  $\{\vec{0}\} \le V$  is true ("zero subspace")

A refinement on the definition of span

**Def.** If  $S = \emptyset$  (emptyset), define  $span(S) = \{\vec{0}\}\$  (if  $S \neq \emptyset$ , span(S)defined as before).

**Theorem 9.**  $span(S) \leq V$ .

Proof Two cases:

- 1. If  $S = \emptyset$ ,  $span(S) = {\vec{0}} \le V$
- 2. If  $S \neq \emptyset$ , you already proved span(S) satisfies (1), (2), (3). So  $span(S) \leq V$ .

**Theorem 10.** (improved version of subspace conditions) Let  $W \subseteq V$ . Then

$$W \leq V \iff W \neq \emptyset$$
 and  $\forall w_1, w_2 \in W$  and  $c \in K$  we have  $cw_1 + w_2 \in W$ 

**Proof** We will actually prove (1), (2), (3)  $\iff$  *RHS* (right-hand side). Two parts to proof.

(1) "(1), (2), (3) 
$$\Rightarrow RHS$$
" or " $\Rightarrow$ "

# January 23rd 2019

## Recap:

- (1) If  $u, v \in W$  then  $u + v \in W$
- (2) if  $u \in W, c \in K$  then  $cu \in W$
- (3)  $\vec{0} \in W$

**Theorem 11.** *Let*  $W \subseteq V$ . *Then* 

 $W \leq V \iff W \neq \emptyset$  and  $\forall u, v \in W, c \in K$  we have  $cu + v \in W$ 

**Proof:** Suffices to prove (1), (2),  $(3) \iff RHS$ .

- 1.  $\Rightarrow$  Assume (1), (2), (3) (prove right-hand side). Two things to prove:
  - (1) Since  $\vec{0} \in W$  (by (3)),  $W \neq \emptyset$
  - (2) Let  $u, v \in W$  and  $c \in K$ . Since (2) holds,  $cu \in W$ . Since (1) holds,  $cu \in W$  and  $v \in W$ , so  $cu + v \in W$ .
- 2.  $\Leftarrow$  Assume RHS, prove (1), (2), (3).
  - (1) Let  $u, v \in W$ . Apply RHS with  $\Leftarrow$  to get

$$cu + v = 1u + v = u + v \in W$$

- (2) (Prove  $\vec{0} \in W$ ) Since  $W \neq \emptyset$ , there is a vector  $w \in W$ . Apply right-hand side with u = w, v = w, c = -1. So cu + v = $(-1)w + w = -w + w = \vec{0} \in W.$
- (3) Let  $u \in W$ ,  $c \in K$ . Apply RHS  $(cu + v \in W)$  with u = u, c = c,  $v = \vec{0}$  (note:  $\vec{0} \in W$  by (3) above). Then  $cu + v = cu + \vec{0} = cu \in V$ W

**Ex:** In F(R,R) = V (functions  $f: R \to R$ ), prove that

$$W = \{ f \in V | f(3) = 0 \}$$

is a subspace. Eg:  $f(x) = (x-3)e^x \in W$ .

**Solution:** (1), (2) together (by last thm). Let  $f,g \in W,c \in R$  (prove  $cf + g \in W$ ). We know f(3) = 0 and g(3) = 0. Then, check (cf + g)g(3) = cf(3) + g(3) = 0 + 0 = 0. So  $cf + g \in W$ .

Also, prove  $w \neq \emptyset$ .  $f(x) = x - 3 \in W$ , since f(3) = 0 (or, z(3) = 0satisfies z(3) = 0 so  $z \in W$ . Note that z is he zero vector of F(R,R)).

**Theorem 12.** Let  $A \in M_{m \times n}(K)$ ,  $b \in K^m$ . Define

$$S = \{x \in K^n | Ax = b\}$$

ie S = solution set to linear system Ax = b. Then,

$$S \leq K^n \iff b = \vec{0}$$
 (ie system is homogeneous)

#### Proof

- (i)  $\Rightarrow$  Assume  $S \leq K^n$ . Then  $\vec{0}_n \in S$  (by (3)). So  $A\vec{0} = b$  but  $A\vec{0}_n = \vec{0}_m$ so  $\vec{0} = b$ .
- (ii)  $\Leftarrow$  Assume  $b = \vec{0}_m$  (prove  $S \leq K^n$ ). Then  $A\vec{0}_n = \vec{0}_m$ , so  $\vec{0}_n \in S$ . Next, let  $u, v \in S, c \in K$ . So  $u, v \in K^n$  and Au = b, Av = b. Verify cu + v is a solution.

$$A(cu+v) = A(cu) + Av$$
 (prop of matrix multiplication)  
=  $c(Au) + Av$  (prop of matrix multiplication)  
=  $cb + b$   
=  $c\vec{0} + \vec{0}$   
=  $\vec{0}$ 

Ex: Equation ax + by + cz = d describes a plane in  $R^3$  (eg x + y + z =1) (and also, every plane can be described this way). That is,

$$\{(x, y, z) \in R^3 | ax + by + z = d\}$$

is a plane.

By last thm,

$$P$$
 is a subspace  $\iff ax + by + cz = d$  is a homogeneous system  $\iff d = 0$   $\iff P$  passes through origin  $(0,0,0)$ 

**Theorem 13.** *Let*  $S \subseteq V$ . *Then,* 

- (1)  $span(S) \leq V$  and  $S \subseteq span(S)$
- (2) If  $S \subseteq W$ , and  $W \leq V$  (subspace) then  $span(S) \subseteq W$  (actually,  $span(S) \leq W$ , subspace by (1))

#### **Proof:**

(1)  $\leq$  We know already. Let  $u \in S$ . Then u = 1u, so  $u \in span(S)$ 

(2) Assume  $S \subseteq W$ , and  $W \leq V$ . Let  $v \in span(S)$ . Then  $v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + a_3u_3 + a_3$  $a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_nu_n$  for some scalars and vectors  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in S$ . Since  $S \subseteq W$ ,  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in W$ . But W subspace. So  $a_1u_1, a_2u_2, \ldots, a_nu_n \in$ *W* (by prop (2) subspace) then  $a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 \in W$  (by prop (1) of subspaces). So then  $(a_1u_1 + a_2u_2) + a_3u_3 \in W$  (etc). So  $a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + a_3u_3 \in W$  $\ldots + a_n u_n \in W$ .

Note: "etc" here is actually a proof by mathematical induction. Omit for now.

# January 25th 2019

*Interlude : Symbolic logic (briefly)* 

Let *P*, *Q* be statements that could be true (*T*) or false (*F*). Define:

- (1)  $\neg P$ , "not P", is F when P is T, T when P is F
- (2)  $P \wedge Q$ , "P and Q", is T exactly when P, Q both T
- (3)  $P \vee Q$ , "P or Q" is T when P, Q both F
- (4)  $P \Rightarrow Q$ , "P implies Q", is T unless P is T and Q is F. Hence,  $P \Rightarrow Q$ is equivalent to  $\neg P \lor Q$ . We will write  $P \Rightarrow Q \equiv \neg P \lor Q$ .
- (5)  $P \iff Q$ , "P if and only if Q", is T if both T or both F.

### De Morgan's Laws

- $\neg (P \land Q) \equiv \neg P \lor \neg Q$
- $\neg (P \lor Q) \equiv \neg P \land \neg Q$

#### **Quantifiers**

- ∀ means "for all"
- ∃ means "there exists"

**Ex.** (A4) (commutativity)  $\forall u, v \in V \ u + v = v + u$ . **Ex. 2** (A2) (zero vector)  $\exists z \in V \ \forall u \in V \ (u+z=u) \land (z+u=u)$ (textbook version)

#### Negating quantifiers

- $\neg \forall u \in VP(u) \equiv \exists u \in V \neg P(u)$
- $\neg \exists u \in VP(u) \equiv \forall u \in V \neg P(u)$

Ex.

$$\neg (A2) \equiv \neg \exists z \in V \forall u \in V \quad u + z = u \land z + u = u$$

$$\equiv \forall z \in V \neg \forall u \in V \quad u + z = u \land z + u = u$$

$$\equiv \forall z \in V \exists u \in V \quad \neg (u + z = u \land z + u = u)$$

$$\equiv \forall z \in V \exists u \in V \quad (u + z \neq u \lor z + u \neq u)$$

## Proof by contradiction

You want to prove some statement *P*. Proof by contradiction works this way:

- (1) Assume  $\neg P$
- (2) Derive a contradiction (hard part)
- (3) Conclude *P* is true

Ex. Outline of how to prove (A2) does not hold in some vector space. You want to prove  $\neg(A2)$ .

$$\neg (A2) \equiv \neg \exists z \in V \ \forall u \in V \quad u + z = u \land z + u = u$$
$$\equiv \forall z \in V \neg \forall u \in V \quad u + z = u \land z + u = u$$

Let  $z \in V$ . Prove the right-hand part  $(\neg \forall u \in V \mid u + z = u \land z + u =$ u) by contradiction. Assume (for contradiction) that

$$\forall u \in V \quad u + z = u \land z + u = u \tag{1}$$

Use (1) by substituting  $u = \text{some specific vector (derive a contradic$ tion). Conclude that  $(\neg \forall u \in V \ u + z = u \land z + u = u)$  is true.

Last time

**Theorem 14.** *If* 
$$S \subseteq W$$
,  $W \leq V$  *then*  $span(S) \subseteq W$ .

Note. This means if you "promote" a subset to a subspace, adding in only what's necessary, what you get is span(S). Or, span(S) is the "smallest" subspace containing *S*.

Fact. Subspaces are "closed under taking linear combinations". Ie if  $W \leq V$ ,  $w_1, \ldots, w_n \in W$  and  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in K$  then

$$a_1w_1 + a_2w_2 + \ldots + a_nw_n \in W$$

Caution. Linear combinations are *finite* sums by definition. So you can't sum up infinitely many vectors.

*Illustration of this theorem* 

Let 
$$S = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \subseteq W = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} | x, y \in R \right\}$$
. Then

 $span(S) \subseteq W$  ie span(S) is in xy plane. In fact, span(S) = W.

**Def.** If W = span(S), we say that S spans W or is a spanning set for

**Ex.** 
$$S = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$
,  $span(S) = xy$ -plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . So  $S$  spans the

**Ex. 2.** 
$$S = \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \}, span(S) = \{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} | x \in R \} = line.$$

*Intersection of two subspaces* 

**Theorem 15.** Let  $W_1 \leq V$ ,  $W_2 \leq V$ . Then  $W_1 \cap W_2 \leq V$  (ie intersection of two subspaces is a subspace).

**Proof.**  $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{ w \in V | w \in W_1 \land w \in W_2 \}.$ 

- (1)  $\vec{0} \in W_1, \vec{0} \in W_2$  (because subspace). So  $\vec{0} \in W_1 \cap W_2$ .
- (2) Let  $u, v \in W_1 \cap W_2, c \in K$ . So  $u, v \in W_1$  and  $W_1 \in V$  so  $cu + v \in W_1$ and  $u, v \in W_2$  and  $W_2 \in V$  so  $cu + v \in W_2$ . Hence  $cu + v \in$  $W_1 \cap W_2$ .  $\square$

January 28th 2019

**Last time:**  $W_1 \leq V$  and  $W_2 \leq V \Rightarrow W_1 \cap W_2 \leq V$ .

**Corollary 15.1.** *The intersection of any number of subspaces is a subspace.* 

**Problem.** Prove that  $W = \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} | f(1) = 0 \land f(2) = 0\}$  is a subspace of  $F(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ .

Sol #1: Directly from subspace properties (omit)

**Sol #2:** We saw an example proving that  $\{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} | f(3) = 0\}$  is a subspace. The "3" is not important, so similarly:

$$W_1 = \{ f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} | f(1) = 0 \}$$
  
 $W_2 = \{ f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} | f(2) = 0 \}$ 

both subspaces of  $F(\mathbb{R},\mathbb{R})$ . Then  $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} | f(1) = 0\}$  $0 \wedge f(2) = 0$ } is a subspace.

**Q:** Is union of two subspaces also a subspace?

A: Not in general.

**Eg:**  $W_1 = x$ -axis  $= \{\binom{x}{0} | x \in \mathbb{R}\} \le \mathbb{R}^2$  $W_2 = y$ -axis  $= \{ \binom{0}{y} | y \in \mathbb{R} \} \le \mathbb{R}^2$ 

 $W_1 \cup W_2 = \text{xy-axis} = \{\binom{x}{y} | x = 0 \lor y = 0\}, \text{ which, importantly,}$ 

is not  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Not a subspace, since  $\binom{1}{0} \in W_1 \cup W_2$ ,  $\binom{0}{1} \in W_1 \cup W_2$ , but  $\binom{1}{1} = \binom{1}{0} + \binom{0}{1} \notin W_1 \cup W_2.$ 

**Note:** To promote  $W_1 \cup W_2$  to a subspace, you form  $span(W_1 \cup W_2)$ .

**Def:** Let  $W_1 \leq V$  m  $W_2 \leq V$ . The *sum* of  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  is

$$W_1 + W_2 = \{v \in V | \exists w_1 \in W_1, w_2 \in W_2, \text{ such that } v = w_1 + w_2\}$$

Ex:

$$W_1 = \{ax^2 | a \in \mathbb{R}\} \le P(\mathbb{R})$$

$$W_2 = \{ax | a \in \mathbb{R}\} \le P(\mathbb{R})$$

We have,

$$W_1 + W_2 = \{ax^2 + bx | a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

**Theorem 16.** Let  $W_1 \leq V$ ,  $W_2 \leq V$ . Then

- (a)  $W_1 + W_2 = span(W_1 \cup W_2)$  (hence  $W_1 + W_2$  is a subspace)
- (b)  $W_1 \leq W_1 + W_2$ ,  $W_2 \leq W_1 + W_2$

**Proof:** 

- (a)(1) Prove  $W_1 + W_2 \subseteq span(W_1 \cup W_2)$ . Let  $v \in W_1 + W_2$ , so v = $w_1 + w_2$  where  $w_1 \in W_1$  and  $w_2 \in W_2$ . Then  $w_1, w_2 \in W_1 \cup W_2$ so  $v \in span(W_1 \cup W_2)$ 
  - (2) "\(\to \)". Let  $v \in span(W_1 \cup W_2)$ . Means  $v = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + a_1u_1 + a_$ ...  $a_n u_n, u_1, u_2, ..., u_n \in W_1 \cup W_2$  and  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \in K$ . Each  $u_i$ is in  $W_1 \cup W_2$ . Separate into two groups and relabel, so that:
    - Those in  $W_1$ , call these

$$u_1, u_2, \dots u_l$$

So  $0 \le l \le n$ , l = 0 means *none* in  $W_1$ .

• Those in  $W_2 \setminus W_1 = \{ w \in W_2 | w \notin W_1 \}$  ("set difference"), call these

$$u_{l+1}, \ldots, u_n$$

So l = 0 means all in  $W_2 \setminus W_1$ , l = n means all in  $W_1$ .

Then, let  $w_1 = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_lu_l$  (or  $w_1 = \vec{0}$  if l = 0),  $w_2 = a_{l+1}u_{l+1} + \ldots + a_nl_n \text{ (or } w_2 = \vec{0} \text{ if } l = n).$ Then  $w_1 \in W_1$  since  $W_1$  is a subspace, similarly  $w_2 \in W_2$ . So

$$v = a_1 u_1 + ... + a_n u_n$$
  
=  $w_1 + w_2 \in W_1 + W_2$  as required

(b)  $W_1 \leq W_1 + W_2$ ,  $W_2 \leq W_1 + W_2$ . Follows from (a), since  $S \subseteq$  $span(S) \square$ .

Linear independence

**Def:** Vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n \in V$  (all distinct) are said to be *linearly dependent* if  $\exists$  scalars  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in K$  *not all* o such that

$$a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_nu_n = \vec{0}$$

Above equation called a dependence relation.

**Note:** If  $a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \ldots + a_nu_n = \vec{0}$  and  $a_1 \neq 0$ , then you can solve for  $u_1$ :

$$u_1 = \frac{-a_2}{a_1}u_2 - \frac{a_3}{a_1}u_3 - \dots - \frac{a_n}{a_1}u_n$$

ie  $u_1$  = linear combination of others, "depends on" others. Ex:  $\{x^2 + x, 2x^2, \frac{x}{10}\}$  is a dependent set of vectors in  $P(\mathbb{R})$  since

$$(x^2 + x) - \frac{1}{2}(2x^2) - 10(\frac{x}{10}) = 0$$

**Def:** A set of vectors  $S \subseteq V$  (possibly infinite) is dependent if  $\exists$  a finite subset  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq S$  of it which is dependent.

**Def:** Vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  are linearly independent if they are *not* dependent. That is,

$$\neg \exists a_1, \dots, a_n \in K \quad (a_1u_1 + \dots + a_nu_n = \vec{0} \land \neg (a_1 = 0 \land a_2 = 0 \land \dots \land a_n = 0))$$

$$\forall a_1, \dots, a_n \in K \quad \neg (a_1u_1 + \dots + a_nu_n = \vec{0} \land \neg (a_1 = 0 \land a_2 = 0 \land \dots \land a_n = 0))$$

$$\forall a_1, \dots, a_n \in K \quad (\neg (a_1u_1 + \dots + a_nu_n = \vec{0}) \lor (a_1 = 0 \land a_2 = 0 \land \dots \land a_n = 0))$$

Note that  $P \implies Q \equiv \neg P \lor Q$ . In other words,  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$  are linearly independent if

$$\forall a_1, \dots, a_n \in K(a_1u_1 + \dots + a_nu_n = \vec{0} \implies a_1 = 0 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n = 0)$$

Which is to say that the only solution to  $a_1u_1 + \dots + a_nu_n = \vec{0}$  is the trivial solution  $a_1 = 0, a_2 = 0, \ldots, a_n = 0$ .

# January 30th 2019

Last class

 $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  independent if  $x_1v_1 + \ldots + x_nv_n = \vec{0}$  has only trivial solution  $x_1 = x_2 = ... = x_n = 0$ .

Ex: Prove that  $\{1 + x^2, x + x^2, 1 + x + x^2\}$  is independent.

Solution: Consider equation

$$a(1+x^2) + b(x+x^2) + c(1+x+x^2) = 0 = 0(1) + 0x + 0x^2$$

Want to show a = b = c = 0 is the only solution.

Equation means for all  $x \in K$  ( $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ),

$$a(1+x^2) + b(x+x^2) + c(1+x+x^2) = 0$$

So, substitute any scalar for x:

$$x = 0$$
  $a + c = 0$   
 $x = 1$   $2a + 2b + 2c = 0$   
 $x = -1$   $2a + 0b + c = 0$ 

Can translate into linear system:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
2 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\
2 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

Row-reduce:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Only solution is a = 0, b = 0, c = 0 so vectors are independent. If we obtain infinitely many, then you can find dependent set so dependent.

Some important cases

- (i)  $S = \emptyset$  is linearly independent since there are no vectors with which to form a dep. relation.
- (ii) If  $\vec{0} \in S$ , then dependent (since  $1\vec{0} = \vec{0}$  is a dep. relation)

(iii)  $\{u\}$  is independent  $\iff u \neq \vec{0}$ .

**Note**:  $u + (-1)u = \vec{0}$  is *not* a dep. elation, since *u* is repeated. But,  $\{u, -u\}$  is dependent since

$$u + (-u) = \vec{0}$$

is a dep. relation.

**Proposition 17.** *Let* A,  $B \subseteq V$  *where*  $A \subseteq B$ .

- (i) If A is dependent, B is also dependent
- (ii) If B is independent, A is also independent (contrapositive)

**Proof:** 

(i) If A dep, we have a dep relation

$$a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + ... + a_nv_n = \vec{0}$$
 (not all scalars 0,  $v_1, ..., v_n \in A$ )

which is also a dependence relation in B since  $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in B$ .

(ii) This is the contrapositive of (i).

**Note:** Converse is false,  $B dep \not\rightarrow A dep$ .

Extending an independent set

**Theorem 18.** Let  $S \subseteq V$  be linearly independent and suppose  $u \notin S$ . Then,  $S \cup \{u\}$  independent  $\iff u \notin span(S)$ .

**Proof:** 

(i) " $\rightarrow$ " We will prove this as the contrapositive, ie  $u \in span(S) \rightarrow$ *dep.* Assume  $u \in span(S)$ . So,

$$u = a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$$
 where  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n \in S$   
 $\vec{0} = (-1)u + a_1v_1 + ... + a_nv_n$ 

Which is a linear combination of vectors from  $S \cup \{u\}$ , not all coefficients 0 since first is -1. Also, the vectors  $u, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ are all distinct, since  $u \notin S$ . So this is a dependence relation on  $S \cup \{u\}$ , so the set is dependent.

(ii) " $\leftarrow$ " Also by contrapositive. Assume  $S \cup \{u\}$  dep, want to show that  $u \in span(S)$ . So there is a dependence relation on  $S \cup \{u\}$ . Two cases:

• Case 1: Dependence relation does not involve u (or, involves u but with coefficient 0), ie we have

$$a_1v_1 + \ldots + a_nv_n = \vec{0}$$
 (not all scalars  $0, v_1, \ldots, v_n \in S$ )

But this contradicts independence of *S*, so case 1 does not occur.

• Case 2: Dependence relation involves *u* (with coeff *not* 0), so

$$au + a_1v_1 + \ldots + a_nv_n = \vec{0} \quad v_1, \ldots v_n \in S$$

and  $a \neq 0$ . Rewrite:

$$u = \frac{-a_1}{a}v_1 - \frac{a_2}{a}v_2 - \dots - \frac{a_n}{a}v_n \qquad (a \neq 0)$$

Hence  $u \in span(S)$ .  $\square$ 

Note: Conclusion can be restated as

$$S \cup \{u\}$$
 dependent  $\iff u \in span(S)$ 

Basis and dimension

**Fact:** If *W* is subspace, then span(W) = W. (Exercise)

So every subspace is a span. But thinking of W as span(W) is excessive. Would like to find the smallest S such that

$$span(S) = W$$

**Def:** Let  $W \leq V$ . A *basis* of W is a set  $B \subseteq V$  such that

- (i) span(B) = W ("enough vectors to produce W")
- (ii) *B* is linearly independent ("no extra vectors in *B*")

#### **Examples:**

(i) Let 
$$e_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow (row \ i)$$
 . Then,

$$\{e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n\}$$

is a basis for  $K^n$ . For example,

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

is a basis for  $K^3$ .

More next class.

February 1st 2019

**Recall:** B is a basis of W if span(B) = W and B is linearly indepen-

**Examples:** 

- (1)  $P_n(K)$  has basis  $\{1, x, x^2, ..., x^n\}$
- (2) P(K) has basis  $\{1, x, x^2, x^3, \ldots\}$  (infinitely many)
- (3)  $M_{m \times n}(K)$  has basis  $\{E^{ij} | 1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le n\}$  where  $E^{ij} = m \times n$ matrix of 0s except 1 in row i, column j. eg:  $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$  has basis

$$E^{11} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $E^{12} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $E^{21} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $E^{22} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

- (4)  $W = {\vec{0}}$  has basis  $\emptyset$  since
  - (i) span  $\emptyset = {\vec{0}}$  (by special def)
  - (ii) ∅ is independent

Two important questions

- (1) Does W always have basis? (spoiler: yes)
- (2) How to find a basis?

**Theorem 19** (Bases exist). *Let V be vector space and S a finite set with* span(S) = V. Then there is a subset  $B \subseteq S$  which is a basis of V.

*Proof.* Algorithm to produce *B*.

- (1) If  $V = \{\vec{0}\}$ , use  $B = \emptyset$ .
- (2) Take one vector,  $u_1 \in S(u_1 \neq \vec{0})$ . Consider  $span\{u_1\}$
- (3) If  $span\{u_1\} = V$ , done.  $B = \{u_1\}$  is a basis (set of one non-zero vector is independent)
- (4) If  $span\{u_1\} \neq V$ , there must be a vector  $u_2 \in S$  where  $u_2 \notin S$  $span(\{u_1\})$  (Why? If not,  $S \subseteq span(\{u_1\}) \leq V$ , then  $span(S) \subseteq$  $span\{u_1\}$ , but span(S) = V contradicts  $V \neq span\{u_1\}$ ). By previous theorem, since  $u_2 \notin span\{u_1\}$ ,  $\{u_1, u_2\}$  is linearly independent.
- (5) Consider  $\{u_1, u_2\}$ . If  $span\{u_1, u_2\} = V$ , done:  $B = \{u_1, u_2\}$ . Else, continue as before, finding  $u_3 \in S$ ,  $u_3 \notin span\{u_1, u_2\}$  (etc)

Since S is *finite*, this must *stop* and at that point you have basis  $B \subseteq$ S.  Illustration of this thm

Find basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  that is a subset of

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Following this algorithm,

$$u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ u_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \ u_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Theorem 20.** Let V be a vector space,  $L \subseteq V$  a linearly indepedent set, and  $S \subseteq V$  a spanning set (ie V = span(S)). Then  $\exists$  a subset  $E \subseteq S$  such that  $L \cup E$  is a basis of V (ie you can always extend it to a basis)

Proof Omitted.

**Theorem 21.** Suppose V has a finite spanning set S. Then V has a basis and all bases have the same size, which is at most |S|.

Proof Omitted.

**Def** If *V* has a finite basis *B*, then the *dimension* of *V* is

$$dim V = |B|$$

If *V* does not have a finite basis, it is called *infinite dimensional*. Ex:

(1)  $\dim K^n = n$ .

$$\left(\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0\\\dots\\0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\\dots\\0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\\dots\\1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \right)$$

- (2)  $dim P_n(K) = n + 1 \text{ (basis } \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\})$
- (3) P(K) is infinite dimensional (A#1, proved a finite set of polynomials cannot span P(K))
- (4)  $dim\ M_{m\times n}(K) = mn$  (see basis  $E^{ij}$ , defined above)

**Theorem 22.** Every vector space (including the infinite dimensional ones) has a basis.

Proof Uses Axiom of Choice. Difficult.

# **Theorem 23.** Suppose dim V = n. Let $A \subseteq V$ . Then,

- (1) If span(A) = V, then  $|A| \ge n$  (or, if |A| < n then A does not span V) and if also |A| = n then A is linearly independent, hence basis.
- (2) If A is linearly independent, then  $|A| \le n$  (or, if |A| > n then A *dep)* and if also |A| = n then span(A) = V hence A is a basis.

#### Proof Omitted.

Note: If you have *correct number* of vectors, you need only check spanning or independent, not both, to check if basis.

Ex: If you have 7 matrices in  $M_{3\times 2}(K)$ , they will be dependent. If you have 5, it's not a basis.

# February 4th 2019

#### Last class

Suppose dim V = n,  $S \subseteq V$ , |S| = n. Then S span  $V \iff S$  linearly independent (only in case |S| = dim V).

## Lagrange Interpolation

**Problem** Given "data points"  $(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2), \dots, (a_n, b_n)$  where all  $a_i$  are different. Find a polynomial p(x) of degree n-1, p(x) = $c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + c_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \ldots + c_1x + c_0$  whose graph y = p(x) passes through all the points.

**Sol #1** Substitute  $(a_1, b_1)$  into y = p(x):

$$b_1 = c_{n-1}a_i^{n-1} + \ldots + c_1a_i + c_0$$
 (for each  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ )

Which is a system of *n* linear equations (vars =  $c_{n-1}, \dots, c_0$ ) in *n* variables.

We'll do something different.

**Def** For scalars  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  (all different), define the *Lagrange polynomials* for each i = 1, 2, ..., n set

$$l_{i}(x) = \prod_{k=1, k \neq i}^{n} \frac{(x - a_{k})}{(a_{i} - a_{k})}$$

$$= \frac{(x - a_{1})}{(a_{i} - a_{1})} \cdot \frac{(x - a_{2})}{(a_{i} - a_{2})} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{(x - a_{n})}{a_{i} - a_{n}} \qquad \text{(omitting } \frac{(x - a_{i})}{(a_{i} - a_{i})})$$

Ex For  $a_1 = 2$ ,  $a_2 = 4$ ,  $a_3 = 6$  we would have

$$l_1(x) = \frac{(x-4)}{2-4} \cdot \frac{(x-6)}{(2-6)}$$
$$l_2(x) = \frac{(x-2)}{4-2} \cdot \frac{(x-6)}{(4-6)}$$
$$l_3(x) = \frac{(x-2)}{6-2} \cdot \frac{(x-4)}{(6-4)}$$

**Note:** All degree 2,  $l_1(4) = 0$ ,  $l_1(6) = 0$ ,  $l_1(2) = 1$ .

**Fact**  $l_i(a_i) = 0$  if  $i \neq j$  and 1 if i = j.

**Proof** If  $i \neq j$ , there is a factor  $\frac{x-a_j}{a_i-a_j}$ , so at  $x = a_j$ ,  $\frac{a_j-a_j}{a_i-a_j} = 0$ . If i = j,

$$l_i(a_i) = \prod_{k=1, k \neq i}^{n} \frac{(a_i - a_k)}{(a_i - a_i)} = 1$$

**Proposition 24.** Lagrange polynomials  $l_1(x), \ldots, l_n(x)$  form a basis of  $P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$ .

**Proof** We have *n* polunomials (they *are* distinct),  $\dim P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}) =$ n-1+1 = n. So correct number. Suffices to prove *span* or lin independence. We'll prove independence. Suppose

$$d_1l_1(x) + d_2l_2(x) + \ldots + d_nl_n(x) = 0$$
 (note: for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ )

Substitute  $x = a_1$ ,  $x = a_2$ , etc into the above. At  $x = a_1$ ,  $l_1(a_1) = 1$  but  $l_i(a_1) = 0$  for  $j \neq 1$  so

$$d_1 1 + d_2 0 + \ldots + d_n 0 = 0$$

so  $d_1 = 0$ . Similarly,  $d_i = 0$  for all j. More formally, for any j = 0 $1, 2, \ldots, n$  we have at  $x = a_i$ 

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i l_i(a_j) = 0$$

but all terms are 0 *except* when i = j. Set

$$d_j = d_j(1) = d_j l_j(a_j) = 0$$

Hence Lagrange polynomials for a basis.

**Problem** Find poly degree n-1 through points  $(a_1, b_1), \ldots, (a_n, b_n)$ . **Sol:** Set  $p(x) = b_1 l_1(x) + b_2 l_2(x) + ... + b_n l_n(x)$  (it has degree n - 1). Then

$$p(a_1) = b_1 l_1(a_1) + b_2 l_2(a_1) + \dots + b_n l_n(a_1)$$
  
=  $b_1(1) + 0 + 0 + \dots + 0$   
=  $b_1$ 

For each i = 1, 2, ..., n,

$$p(a_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j l_j(a_i)$$
  
= 0 + 0 + ... +  $b_i l_i(a_i)$  + ... + 0  
=  $b_i$ 

Dimension of subspaces

**Theorem 20.** Let  $W \leq V$ , V finite-dimensional. Then

- (i)  $\dim W \leq \dim V$
- (ii)  $\dim W = \dim V \iff W = V$

#### **Proof**

- (i) Similar to proof that *V* has basis. Use *W* as a spanning set for W. Pick out vectors one at a time (similar to before) to build a basis. You cannot put more than *dim V* vectors into your basis, as this would give an independent set in *V* of size *more than dim V* (impossible). So this process has to stop, and it produces a basis for W.
- (ii) " $\rightarrow$ " Assume  $dim\ W = dim\ V = n$ . Take basis B of W. It is a size nlinearly independent set inside V, hence B also basis for V, hence,

$$V = span B = W$$

"
$$\leftarrow$$
" If  $W = V$ , clearly  $dim\ W = dim\ V$ .  $\square$ 

**Subspaces of**  $\mathbb{R}^3$  If  $W \leq \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $dim\ W = 0, 1, 2$  or 3.

This allows us to make the following classification: Problem Let

dim W	Classification
0	$\{ \vec{0} \}$
1	$span\{u\} = line through origin$
2	$span\{u,v\} = plane through origin$
3	$\mathbb{R}^3$

 $W = \{A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) | tr(A) = 0\}$ , where  $tr(A) = \text{trace of } A = \text{sum o$ entries on diagonal =  $A_{11} + A_{22} + \ldots + A_{nn}$ .

**Exercise** Prove *W* is a subspace.

**Will do next class:** Find *dim W* and find a basis of *W*.

## *February 6th 2019*

#### Intuition

Solution set W to a homogeneous system  $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$  is a subspace of  $K^n(n = \# \text{ of variables })$ . If no equations,  $W = K^n$ ,  $\dim W = n$ . For each equation, expect the dimension of W to drop by 1, unless the equation is redundant.

**Eg:** In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , one equation

$$a_1x+b_1y+c_1z=0$$
 (= plane)  
**add in**  $a_2x+b_2y+c_2z=0$  (intersection of two planes, = line)  
**add in**  $a_3x+b_3y+c_3z=0$  (intersection of three planes, (o,o))

**Problem:**  $W = \{A \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}) | tr \ A = 0\}$ . Find  $dim \ W$ , basis of W. **Solution #1:** Clever way: "guess" a basis. Note:  $tr\ A = A_{11} + A_{22} + A_{23} + A_{24} + A_{25} + A_{25}$  $\ldots + A_{nn}$  (one linear condition). Expecting

$$dim\ W = n^2 - 1$$

Observe that  $\dim W \neq n^2$ . This happens only if  $W = M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ , and obviously there are matrices which don't have trace 0. Specifically:

$$tr \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & 1 \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(In proofs, can choose any example, provided property holds).

Know dim  $W \le n^2 - 1$ . If you can find independent set of size  $n^2 - 1$  in  $W_1$ , it will be a basis. Try first n = 3. Looking for  $3^2 - 1 = 8$ independent  $3 \times 3$  matrices, all trace 0.

Want trace = 0. Therefore, consider all matrices which have all 0's in the diagonal:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

These 6 are obviously independent. Now, take two more which are independent:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1
\end{pmatrix}$$

Now we have 8 independent matrices (check carefully). So for n = 3, dim W = 8, this is a basis.

#### General case

Two types of basis matrices:

(I) All  $E^{ij}$  (1 in (i,j)-pos, o elsewhere)) where  $i \neq j$ . How many are there?

# of non-diagonal entries = entries - entries on diagonal = 
$$n^2 - n$$

Or,  $\binom{n}{2}$  ways to choose 2 distinct values from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , 2 ways to order each pair. Total:

$$\binom{n}{2} 2 = \frac{n!}{2!(n-2)!} 2$$
$$= n(n-1)$$
$$= n^2 - n$$

(II) Looking for n-1 more, since  $n^2 - n + n - 1 = n^2 - 1$ 

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & -1 & & & \\ & & \cdots & & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & -1 & & \\ & & & \cdots & \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & \\ & 0 & & & \\ & & \cdots & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \dots$$
(n-1 of those)

Formally, let, for i = 1, 2, ..., n - 1,  $D_i = \text{matrix with } 1 \text{ in pos } (i, i)$ and -1 in pos (i+1, i+1), 0 elsewhere.

Verifying all matrices  $E^{ii}$ ,  $D_i$  are independent; clear that suffices to check  $D_1, D_2, \ldots, D_{n-1}$  independent. Suppose

$$x_1D_1 + x_2D_2 + \ldots + x_nD_n = n \times n$$
 zero matrix

The (1,1)-entry on left is  $x_1$ , so  $x_1 = 0$ . The (2,2)-entry on left is  $-x_1 + x_2$ ,

$$x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & -1 & & & \\ & & \dots & & \\ & & & 0 & \\ \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & -1 & & \\ & & & \dots & \\ \end{pmatrix} + \dots = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ & 0 & & & \\ & & 0 & & \\ & & \dots & & \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

but  $x_1 = 0$  so  $x_2 = 0$  also, etc. So similarly for all  $x_i = 0$ , so independent. Formally you'd do a proof by induction, but this is

Now have  $n^2 - 1$  independent vectors in  $W_1$  so  $dim W \ge n^2 - 1$ 1. Already, know dim  $W \le n^2 - 1$ . So dim  $W = n^2 - 1$ , have independent set of correct size, so basis.

**Solution #2:** Let  $x_{ij}$  be the (i, j)-entry of A. So have  $n^2$  variables  $(x_{ij}, i, j = 1, 2, ..., n)$  one equation,

$$x_{11} + x_{22} + \ldots + x_{nn} = 0$$
 (tr A = 0)

Solve system. All  $x_{ii}$ ,  $i \neq j$  free variables, so are  $x_{22}, \ldots, x_{nn}$ .

**Theorem 21.** Let U, W be finite dimension subspaces of V. Then,

$$dim(U+W) = dim \ U + dim \ W - dim \ U \cap W$$

It's like sets,  $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$ .

Proof Omitted.

Ex: If W is a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (through (0,0)) and L is a line in  $\mathbb{R}$  (through (0,0)) and L is not in the plane, prove  $W+L=\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Sol:** *L* not in plane gives  $L \cap W = \{\vec{0}\}$ . So

$$dim(L+W) = dim L + dim W - dim L \cap W$$
$$= 1 + 2 - 0$$
$$= 3$$

Hence  $L + W = \mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Problem:** Suppose  $dim\ V = n$ , and U, W subspaces, each of dimension more than  $\frac{n}{2}$ . Prove that  $U \cap W \neq \{\vec{0}\}$ .

**Proof** By contradiction. Suppose  $U \cap W = \{\vec{0}\}$ . So  $\dim U \cap W = 0$ . Then

$$dim(U+W) = dim \ U + dim \ W - dim \ U \cap W$$

$$> \frac{n}{2} + \frac{n}{2} - 0 = n$$

Says U + W is a subspace of V of dim more than  $dim\ V$ . Impossible, so  $U \cap W \neq \{\vec{0}\}.$ 

END OF MIDTERM MATERIAL.

February 8th 2019

Monday: No class, office hours during class time. Tuesday night: Midterm!

Linear transformations - Definition and basic properties

(Chap. 5 in the text) **Def.** Let *U*, *V* be vector spaces, both over field *K*. A funcion  $T: U \rightarrow V$  is called a *linear transformation* if

- (i)  $\forall u_1, u_2 \in U \ T(u_1 + u_2) = T(u_1) + T(u_2)$ . The first '+' is in U, while the second '+' is in V. The vectors spaces need not be related in any way, except that they must be over the same field of scalars.
- (ii)  $\forall u \in U, c \in K \ T(cu) = cT(u)$ . Again, the first scalar multiplication happens in *U*, while the second scalar multiplication happens in V.

Comment: Linear transformations are the functions that are somehow "compatible" with the vector space operations.

**Ex:** Prove that  $T: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$T(ax^2 + bx + c) = \begin{pmatrix} a+b \\ b+c \end{pmatrix}$$

Sol:

(i) Let  $p_1(x) = a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1$ ,  $p_2(x) = a_2x^2 + b_2x + c_2$  be in  $P_2(x)$ .

$$T(p_1(x) + p_2(x)) = T((a_1 + a_2)x^2 + (b_1 + b_2)x + c_1 + c_2)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + a_2 + b_1 + b_2 \\ b_1 + b_2 + c_1 + c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$T(p_1(x)) + T(p_2(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + b_1 \\ b_1 + c_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_2 + b_2 \\ b_2 + c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + b_1 + a_2 + b_2 \\ b_1 + c_1 + b_2 + c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

(ii) Let  $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c \in P_2(\mathbb{R}), d \in K$ .

$$T(dp(x)) = T(dax^{2} + dbx + dc)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} da + db \\ db + dc \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= d \begin{pmatrix} a + b \\ b + c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= dT(ax^{2} + bx + c)$$

$$= dT(p(x))$$

So *T* is a linear transformation.

**Ex** Define  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  by  $T(x,y) = (x^2, x + y)$ . Show that T is *not* a linear transformation.

**Sol** Try u = (2,3), v = (3,4).

$$T(u+v) = T(5,7)$$
  
= (25,12)

On the other hand,

$$T(u) + T(v) = T(2,3) + T(3,4)$$

$$= (4,5) + (9,7)$$

$$= (13,12)$$

$$\neq (25,12)$$

So *T* is *not* linear.

**Ex:** Define  $\frac{d}{dx}: P(\mathbb{R}) \to P(\mathbb{R})$  by

$$\frac{d}{dx}p(x) = p'(x)$$
 (derivative)

Then  $\frac{d}{dx}$  is a linear transformation, since we know from calculus that

$$\frac{d}{dx}(p(x) + q(x)) = \frac{d}{dx}p(x) + \frac{d}{dx}q(x)$$
$$\frac{d}{dx}(cp(x)) = c\frac{d}{dx}p(x) \qquad (c \in \mathbb{R})$$

**Proposition 22.** Let  $T: U \to V$  be a linear transformation. Then,

- (i)  $T(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$  (where the first  $\vec{0}$  is the zero vector of U and the second is the zero vector of V)
- (ii)  $\forall u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n \in U$  and  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n \in K$ ,

$$T(c_1u_1 + c_2u_2 + \dots + c_nu_n) = c_1T(u_1) + c_2T(u_2) + \dots + c_nT(u_n)$$

Proof. (i)

$$\begin{split} T(\vec{0}_U) &= T(\vec{0}_U + \vec{0}_U) \\ T(\vec{0}_U) &= T(\vec{0}_U) + T(\vec{0}_U) \\ \vec{0}_V + T(\vec{0}_U) &= T(\vec{0}_U) + T(\vec{0}_U) \\ \vec{0}_V &= T(\vec{0}_V) \end{split} \tag{A2}$$

(ii)

$$T(c_1u_1 + (c_2u_2 + \ldots + c_nu_n)) = T(c_1u_1) + T(c_2u_2 + \ldots + c_nu_n)$$
 (T linear)  
 $= c_1T(u_1) + T(c_2u_2 + \ldots + c_nu_n)$  (T linear)  
 $= \ldots$  (proof by induction)  
 $= c_1T(u_1) + \ldots + c_nT(u_n)$ 

**Proposition 23.** *Let*  $T: U \rightarrow V$  *function* (U, V vector spaces)*. Then,* 

*T* is linear transformation  $\iff$ 

$$\forall u_1, u_2 \in U \ c \in K, T(cu_1 + u_2) = cT(u_1) + T(u_2)$$

**Proof:** Exercise. 

# February 15th 2019

**Def** ("matrix defines a linear transformation") Let  $A \in M_{m \times n}(K)$ . Define a function  $L_A: K^n \to K^m$  by

$$L_A(v) = Av$$
 (A an  $m \times n$  matrix,  $v \ n \times 1$ )

ie multiply matrix by vector.

### **Proposition 24.** $L_a$ is a linear transformation.

*Proof.* Let  $u, v \in K^n, c \in K$ . Then

$$L_A(cu + v) = A(cu + v)$$
  
=  $A(cu) + Av$  (prop of matrix multiplication)  
=  $cAu + Av$   
=  $cL_A(u) + L_A(v)$ 

**Ex**  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $L_A : R^3 \to R^2$ . Calculate:

$$L_A(1,3,-2) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 2-3-4 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -5 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Spoiler:** All linear transformations between finite-dim vector spaces can be described in this way, "matrix transformation".

Two special linear transformations

- (1) **Zero transformations:**  $0: V \to W$  defined by  $O(v) = \vec{0}$  ( $\vec{0}$  of W) for all  $v \in V$ .
- (2) **Identity** transformation,  $I: V \to V$  (same vector space) I(v) = vfor all  $v \in V$

Both are linear transformations (exercise).

Kernel and Image (ch. 5.4)

**Def** Let  $T: V \to W$  be a linear transformation. Define:

(i) **Kernel** or **nullspace** of *T*,

$$Ker(T) = \{v \in V | T(v) = \vec{0}\}$$

Note: Always one vector which satisfies this.

(ii) **Image** of T is

$$Im(T) = \{ w \in W | \exists v \in V \ w = T(v) \}$$

**Note:**  $Ker(T) \subseteq V$ ,  $Im(T) \subseteq W$ .

**Ex** Define  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$T(x,y) = (x,0)$$
 ("proj onto x-axis")

Then

$$Ker(T) = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | T(x,y) = (0,0) \}$$

$$= \{(0,y) | y \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$= "y - axis"$$

$$Im(T) = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | (x,y) = T(x',y') \text{ some } x',y' \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$= \{(x,0) | x \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$= "x - axis"$$

**Ex** Define  $D: P_n(\mathbb{R}) \to P_n(\mathbb{R})$  to be derivative, D(f(x)) = f'(x). Find kernel and image of *D*.

**Sol** We have

$$Ker(D) = \{ f \in P_n(\mathbb{R}) | f'(x) = 0 \}$$
  
= const. polys  
=  $\{ a | a \in \mathbb{R} \}$   
=  $P_0(\mathbb{R})$ 

Claim  $Im(D) = P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$ .

*Proof.* Prove inclusion " $\subseteq$ " and " $\supseteq$ ".

- (i) " $\subseteq$ " Let  $f(x) \in Im(D)$ . Then  $\exists g(x) \in P_n$  s.t. f(x) = D(g(x)) =g'(x). Since  $deg(g) \le n$ ,  $deg(f) = deg(g') \le n - 1$  (property of differentiation). So  $f(x) \in P_{n-1}$ .
- (ii) " $\supseteq$ " Let  $f(x) \in P_{n-1}$ . Need to find  $g(x) \in P_n$  such that D(g(x)) =g'(x) = f(x). Set  $g(x) = \int f(x)dx$ . Know from calculus that the degree of g is one higher, ie

$$deg(g(x)) = 1 + deg(f(x))$$

So  $deg(g) \le n$ . So  $g(x) \in P_n$  and g'(x) = f(x) (calculus).

**Theorem 25.** Let  $T: V \to W$  be linear transformation. Then,

- (i)  $Ker(T) \leq V$
- (ii)  $Im(T) \leq W$

*Ie they are subspaces.* 

*Proof.* By direct proof.

(i)  $T(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$  always (lin transform) so  $\vec{0} \in Ker(T)$ . Let  $v_1, v_2 \in$  $Ker(T), c \in K$ . We know  $T(v_1) = \vec{0}, T(v_2) = \vec{0}$ . Then

$$T(cv_1 + v_2) = cT(v_1) + T(v_2)$$
 (T linear)  
=  $c\vec{0} + \vec{0}$   
=  $\vec{0}$ 

Hence  $cv_1 + v_2 \in Ker(T)$ . So  $Ker(T) \subseteq V$  (we already knew  $Ker(T) \subseteq V$ 

(ii)  $T(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$ , hence  $\vec{0}_w = T$  (something), ie  $\vec{0}_w \in Im(T)$ . Let  $w_1, w_2 \in Im(T)$  $Im(T), c \in K$ . We know  $w_1 = T(v_1), w_2 = T(v_2)$  for some  $v_1, v_2 \in$ V. Then

$$cw_1 + w_2 = cT(v_1) + T(v_2)$$
  
=  $T(cv_1 + v_2)$  (T linear)

Hence  $cw_1 + w_2 \in Im(T)$ . So  $Im(T) \leq W$ .

**Def**  $T: V \to W$  linear. The *nullity* of T is  $dim\ Ker(T)$  (dim nullspace). The rank of T is  $dim\ Im(T)$ .

**Note:**  $Ker(T) \leq V$  so  $nullity(T) \leq dim\ V$ ,  $Im(T) \leq W$  so  $rank(T) \leq$ dim W.

Ex In  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ , proj onto x-axis,

$$Ker(T) = y - axis$$
 (so  $nullity(T) = 1$ )  
 $Im(T) = x - axis$  (so  $rank(T) = 1$ )

**Ex 2** For  $D: P_n(\mathbb{R}) \to P_n(\mathbb{R})$ , differentiation.

$$Ker\ D = P_0(\mathbb{R})$$
 (so  $nullity(D) = 1$ )  
 $Im\ D = P_{n-1}$  (so  $rank(D) = n$ )

February 18th 2019

**Notation** For set  $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}, T : V \to W \text{ denotes } T(S) =$  $\{T(v_1), T(v_2), \ldots, T(v_n)\}.$ 

**Proposition 26.**  $T: V \to W$  linear and V = span(S). Then Im T =span(T(S)). In particular, if B basis of V, T(B) **spans** Im (T) (but need not be a basis).

*Proof.* By direct proof.

(i) " $\subseteq$ ". Let  $w \in Im(T)$ , ie w = T(v), some  $v \in V$ . Since S spans V,  $v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i$ , some  $v_i \in S$ . So

$$w = T(v) = T(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i)$$
  
=  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i)$   $(T(v_i) \in T(S), \text{ by T linear})$ 

All of which is  $\in span(T(S))$ .

(ii) " $\supset$ " Let  $w \in span\ T(S)$ . So

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i)$$
 (for some vectors  $v_i \in S$ )  
 $= T(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i$  (T linear)  
 $= T(something)$  (so  $w \in Im(T)$ )

**Ex** Define  $T: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathcal{M}_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$  by

$$T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(1) - f(2) & 0\\ 0 & f(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise: T is linear. Find basiss for *Im T*. **Sol** Take basis  $\{1, x, x^2\}$  for  $P_2$ . Calculate

$$T(1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$T(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$T(x^{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

So 
$$Im\ T = span\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\}.$$
Basis for  $Im\ T$  is  $\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$ 
(so  $Im\ T = \left\{\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{pmatrix} | a, b \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$ 

Note: The next theorem is very impor-

**Theorem 27.** ("Dimension theorem") Let  $T: V \to W$  linear with Vfinite-dimensional. Then,

$$dim V = dim ker(T) + dim Im(T)$$
  
 $dim V = nullity(T) + rank(T)$ 

**Note** *dim W* is *not* involved.

*Proof.* Let  $B = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$  be basis KerT (so k = dim Ker T). Let  $n = dim \ V$ . Note  $T(v_i) = 0$ , (i = 1, 2, ..., k). Let S span V. Plan: extend *B* to basis of *V*, show  $T(extra\ vector) = basis$  of *Im*. By theorem 20-1, there exists  $E \subseteq S$  such that  $B \cup E$  is a basis of V. Denote

$$E = \{v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$$
 (note  $n = \dim V, |E| = n - k$ )

Claim T(E) is basis for  $Im\ T$ .

- (i) T(E) spans ImT
  - (a) " $\subseteq$ " is clear since  $T(E) \subseteq Im\ T$  by definition. So span  $T(E) \le$ Im(T)(Im T < W)
  - (b) " $\supseteq$ " Let  $w \in Im(T)$ , ie w = T(v), some  $v \in V$ . Since  $B \cup E$  is a basis,  $v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i$ . Then,

$$w = T(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i v_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i T(v_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=k+1}^{n} a_i v_i$$
(Since  $T(v_i) = 0$  for  $i = 1, 2, ..., k$ )

Hence  $w \in span(T(E))$ , since  $E = \{v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ 

(ii) T(E) is linearly independent. Suppose

$$\sum_{i=k+1}^{n} b_i T(v_i) = \vec{0} \qquad \qquad \text{(linear comb vectors in } T(E)\text{)}$$

So by linearity of T,

$$T(\sum_{i=k+1}^n b_i v_i) = \vec{0}$$

So  $\sum_{i=k+1}^{n} b_i v_i \in Ker T$ , ie is linear comb of B

So 
$$\sum_{i=k+1}^{n} b_i v_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i v_i$$

ie  $\sum_{i=1}^k (-b_i)v_i + \sum_{i=k+1}^n b_i v_i = \vec{0}$  is linear comb of  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  (ie  $B \cup$ 

*E*) but these independent. So all  $b_i = 0$ , hence T(E) independent.

Conclude T(E) basis of  $Im\ T$ . So,

$$dim \ Im \ T = |T(E)| = |E| = n - k$$

So,

$$n = k + n - k$$
  
 $\dim V = |B| + |T(E)| = \dim KerT + \dim Im T$ 

Why is |T(E)| = |E|? True unless

$$T(v_i) = T(v_i)$$
 (for some  $i, j \ge k + 1, i \ne j$ )

If so,

$$T(v_i) - T(v_j) = 0$$
 
$$T(v_i - v_j) = 0$$
 (so  $v_i - v_j \in \mathit{Ker}\ T$ )

Hence  $v_i - v_j = \sum_{l=1}^n a_l v_l$ , dep relation on  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ . Impossible. **Problem** For  $T: P_2 \to \mathcal{M}_{2\times 2}$ ,

$$T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(1) - f(2) & 0\\ 0 & f(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

Find basis for Ker T.

**Sol** Already know  $dim\ Im\ T=2$  (last ex). So

$$dimP_2 = dim \ Ker \ T + dim \ Im \ T$$
  
  $3 = dim \ Ker \ T + 2$ 

So *Ker T* is 1-dimensional. Only need to find *one* non-zero f(x) s.t.

$$T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(1) - f(2) & 0 \\ 0 & f(0) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

ie need f(1) = f(2) and f(0) = 0. For example,  $f(x) = x^2 - 3x$ works. So  $\{x^2 - 3x\}$  is a basis for Ker T (or,  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ , f(1) = a + b + c = f(2) = 4a + 2b + c, f(0) = 0 = c, solve)

Comments on dimension theorem

 $T: V \to W$ , linear.

$$dim\ V = dim\ (Im\ T) + dim\ (Ker\ T)$$

Left-hand part of the sum: Dimensions that are preserved ("saved") by T. Right-hand part: dimensions that are "lost" when you apply T. **Dimension:** Subspaces are *infinite* sets (except  $\{\vec{0}\}$ ). Dimension gives a way to compare the *sizes* of subspaces.

Injective/surjective transformation (ch. 5.5.)

**Def** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a function (X, Y sets).

(i) *f* is *surjective* ("onto") if

$$\forall y \in Y \ \exists x \in X \ f(x) = y$$

(equivalently, the image of *f* is *Y*)

(ii) *f* is called *injective* (or "on-to-one") if

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X(x_1 \neq x_2 \to f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))$$

(equivalently,  $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X \ (f(x_1) = f(x_2) \to x_1 = x_2)$ )

**Theorem 28.** ("How to check if T inj/surj") Let  $T: V \to W$ . Then,

- (i) T injective  $\iff$  Ker $(T) = \{\vec{0}\}\ (nullity\ (T) = 0)$
- (ii) T surjective  $\iff$  dim(Im T) = dim W (rank(T) = dim W)
- (i) Proof. By direct proof.
  - (1) " $\Rightarrow$ " Assume T inj. (know  $\{\vec{0}\} \leq Ker\ T$ ). Let  $v \in Ker\ (T)$ . So  $T(v) = \vec{0}$ . But also  $T(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$ , so  $T(v) = T(\vec{0})$  hence  $v = \vec{0}$  since T is injective.
  - (2) " $\Leftarrow$ " Assume  $Ker\ T = \{\vec{0}\}$ . Let  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ . Suppose  $T(v_1) = T(v_2)$  (prove  $v_1 = v_2$ ).

$$T(v_1)-T(v_2)=\vec{0}$$
 
$$T(v_1-v_2)=\vec{0} \hspace{1cm} ext{(linear)}$$

So 
$$v_1 - v_2 \in Ker \ T = \{\vec{0}\}$$
. So  $v_1 - v_2 = \vec{0}, v_1 = v_2$ .

- (ii) Proof. By direct proof.
  - (1) " $\Rightarrow$ " Assume T is surjective, that is Im T = W. Hence dim Im T =dim W.
  - (2) " $\Leftarrow$ " Assume dim Im  $T = \dim W$ . But Im  $T \leq W$ , hence Im T =W (by thm 20-2)

**Problem** Define  $T: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$T(f(x)) = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$$

(Exercise: *T* is linear). Is *T* injective? Surjective? **Sol** *Dim Thm*:

$$dim P_2 = dim Im T + dim Ker T$$
  
 $3 = dim Im T + dim Ker T$ 

Hence  $ImT \leq \mathbb{R}^1$ , so  $Im\ T = \{\vec{0}\}\ \text{or}\ \mathbb{R}$ . It is not  $\{\vec{0}\}\ \text{since}\ \int_0^1 1 dx =$  $1 \neq 0$ ,  $T(1) \neq 0$ . Hence  $Im\ T = \mathbb{R}$  so

$$3 = 1 + dim Ker T$$

So dim Ker T = 2. Ker  $T \neq \{\vec{0}\}$  not injective. Im  $T = \mathbb{R}$  is surjective.

**Theorem 29.** ("shortcut when dim same")  $T: V \rightarrow W$  linear, and  $dim\ V = dim\ W.\ Then,$ 

$$T$$
 injective  $\iff$   $T$  surjective

Proof. Dim Thm:

$$dim\ W = dim\ V = dim\ Im\ T + dim\ Ker\ T$$

If T inj, dim Ker T = 0. So

$$dim\ W = dim\ Im\ T + 0$$

So T surjective (thm 28). If T surj,  $dim\ Im\ T = dim\ W$  (thm 28), so

$$dim W = dim W + dim Ker T$$

So dim Ker 
$$T = 0$$
 so Ker  $T = \{\vec{0}\}$ 

**Problem**  $T: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^3$ , defined by

$$T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(0) \\ f(1) \\ f(2) \end{pmatrix}$$

Is *T* injective? Surjective?

**Sol** Same *dim* (= 3). Check only one. Check surjective directly from

Let 
$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$$
. Is  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = T(f(x))$ , some  $f(x) \in P_2$ ?

That is, given  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ , is there a degree 2 polynomial such that f(0) = a, f(1) = b, f(2) = c? By Lagrange Interpolation, f(x) exists (deg = 1, less than # of points). So T surj, so also inj.

*Isomorphism and coordinates (ch 5.5, 4.11 and 4.12)* 

Def: (Isomorphism)

- (1) If  $T: V \to W$  (linear) is injective and surjective, it is called an isomorphism.
- (2) If V, W vector spaces and there exists an isomorphism  $T: V \to W$ , we say V and W are isomorphic and write  $V \simeq W$

**Note** A function that is injective and surjective is called *bijective*.

Ex 
$$T: P_2(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^3$$
,  $T(f(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f(0) \\ f(1) \\ f(2) \end{pmatrix}$  is an isomorphism (last ex.)

so  $P_2(\mathbb{R}) \simeq \mathbb{R}^3$ 

Ex Prove that

$$T(ax^2 + bx + c) = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

is isomorphism  $P_2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Sol** *T* is linear : let  $f(x), g(x) \in P_2(\mathbb{R}), d \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then,

$$T(df + g) = T(c(a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1) + (a_2x^2 + b_2x + c_2))$$

$$= T((da_1 + a_2)x^2 + (db_1 + b_2) + (dc_1 + c_2))$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} da_1 + a_2 \\ db_1 + b_2 \\ dc_1 + c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= d\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ b_1 \\ c_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_2 \\ b_2 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= dT(f) + T(g)$$

So T linear. Same dim(=3). Check surj. Let  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . Then

 $T(ax^2 + bx + c) = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix}$ , hence surj., hence inj., hence *isomorphism*.