Solution to Homework 1

Sec. 1.2

- 1. (a) Yes. It is condition (VS 3).
 - (b) No. If x, y are both zero vectors. Then by condition (VS 3) x = x + y = y.
 - (c) No. Let e be the zero vector. We have 1e = 2e.
 - (d) No. It will be false when a = 0.
 - (e) Yes.
 - (f) No. It has m rows and n columns.
 - (g) No.
 - (h) No. For example, we have x + (-x) = 0.
 - (i) Yes.
 - (j) Yes.
 - (k) Yes. That is the definition.
- 8. By (VS 7) and (VS 8), we have

(a+b)(x+y) = a(x+y) + b(x+y) = ax + ay + bx + by

- 14. Yes. All the condition are preserved when the field is the real numbers.
- 15. No. Because a real-valued vector scalar multiply with a complex number will not always be a real-valued vector.
- 21. Since each entries could be 1 or 0 and there are $m \times n$ entries, there are $2^{m \times n}$ vectors in that space.

Sec. 1.3

- 1. (a) No. This should make sure that the field and the operations of V and W are the same. Otherwise, for example, $V = \mathbb{R}$ and $w = \mathbb{Q}$ respectively. Then W is a vector space over \mathbb{Q} but not a space over \mathbb{R} So it is not a subspace of V.
 - (b) No. We should have that any subspace contains 0.
 - (c) Yes. We can choose W = 0.
 - (d) No. Let $V = \mathbb{R}$, $E_0 = \{0\}$ and $E_1 = \{1\}$. Then we have $E_0 \cap E_1 = \emptyset$ is not a subspace.

- (e) Yes. Only entries on diagonal could be nonzero.
- (f) No. It is the summation of that.
- (g) No. But it is called isomorphism. That is, they are the same in view of structure.
- 8. Just check whether it's closed under addition and scalar multiplication and whether it contains 0. And here s and t are in \mathbb{R} .
 - (a) Yes. It is a line t(3, 1, 1).
 - (b) No. It contains no (0,0,0).
 - (c) Yes. It is a plane with normal vector (2,7,1).
 - (d) Yes. It is a plane with normal vector (1, 4, 1).
 - (e) No. It contains no (0,0,0).
 - (f) No. We have both $(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}, 0)$ and $(0, \sqrt{6}, \sqrt{3})$ are elements of W_6 . But their sum $(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5} + \sqrt{6}, \sqrt{3})$ is not an element of W_6 .
- 11. No in general but yes when n = 1. Since W is not closed under addition. For example, when n = 2, $(x^2 + x) + (-x^2) = x$ is not in W.
- 19. It's easy to say that it is sufficient since if we have $W_1 \subset W_2$ or $W_2 \subset W_1$. Then the union of W_1 and W_2 will be W_1 or W_2 , a space of course.

To say it is necessary we may assume that neither $W_1 \subset W_2$ or $W_2 \subset W_1$ holds. Then we can find some $x \in W_1 - W_2$ and $y \in W_2 - W_1$. Thus by the condition of subspace we have x + y is a vector in W_1 or in W_2 , say W_1 . But this will make y = (x + y) - x should be in W_1 . It will be contradictory to the original hypothesis that $y \in W_2 - W_1$.

- 23. (a) We have $(x_1 + x_2) + (y_1 + y_2) = (x_1 + y_1) + (x_2 + y_2) \in W_1 + W_2$ and $c(x_1 + x_2) = cx_1 + cx_2 \in W_1 + W_2$ if $x_1, y_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2, y_2 \in W_2$. And we have $0 = 0 + 0 \in W_1 + W_2$. Finally $W_1 = \{x + 0 : x \in W_1, 0 \in W_2\} \subset W_1 + W_2$ and it's similar for the case of W_2 .
 - (b) If U is a subspace contains both W_1 and W_2 then x + y should be a vector in U for all $x \in W_1$ and $y \in W_2$.
- 28. By the previous exercise we have $(M_1 + M_2)^t = M_1^t + M_2^t = -(M_1 + M_2)$ and $(cM)^t = cM^t = -cM$. With addition that zero matrix is skewsymmetric we have the set of all skew-symmetric matrices is a space. We have $M_{nn}(\mathbb{F}) = A | A \in M_{nn}(\mathbb{F}) = (A + A^t) + (A - A^t) | A \in M_{nn}(\mathbb{F}) =$ $W_1 + W_2$ and $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$. The final equality is because $A + A^t$ is symmetric and $A - A^t$ is skew-symmetric. If \mathbb{F} is of characteristic 2, we have $W_1 = W_2$.
- 30. If $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$ and some vector $y \in V$ can be represented as $y = x_1 + x_2 = x'_1 + x'_2$, where $x_1, x'_1 \in W_1$ and $x_2, x'_2 \in W_2$. Then we have $x_1 x'_1 \in W_1$ and $x_1 x'_1 = x'_2 x_2 \in W_2$. But since $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{0\}$, we have $x_1 = x'_1$ and $x_2 = x'_2$.

Conversely, if each vector in V can be uniquely written as $x_1 + x_2$, then $V = W_1 + W_2$. Now if $x \in W_1 \cap W_2$ and $x \neq 0$, then we have that x = x + 0 with $x \in W_1$ and $0 \in W_2$ or x = 0 + x with $0 \in W_1$ and $x \in W_2$, i.e. a contradiction.

- 31. (a) If v + W is a space, we have $0 = v + (-v) \in v + W$ and thus $v \in W$ and $v \in W$. Conversely, if $v \in W$ we have actually v + W = W, a space.
 - (b) We can prove that $v_1 + W = v_2 + W$ if and only if $(v_1 v_2) + W = W$. This is because $(-v_1) + (v_1 + W) = W$ and $(-v_1) + (v_2 + W) = (-v_1 + v_2) + W$. So if $(v_1 - v_2) + W = W$, a space, then we have $v_1 - v_2 \in W$ by the previous exercise. And if $v_1 - v_2 \in W$ we can conclude that $(v_1 - v_2) + W = W$.
 - (c) We have $(v_1 + W) + (v_2 + W) = (v_1 + v_2) + W = (v'_1 + v'_2) + W = (v'_1 + W) + (v'_2 + W)$ since by the previous exercise we have $v_1 v'_1 \in W$ and $v_2 v'_2 \in W$ and thus $(v_1 + v_2) (v'_1 + v'_2) \in W$. On the other hand, since $v_1 v'_1 \in W$ implies $av_1 av'_1 = a(v_1 v'_1) \in W$, we have $a(v_1 + W) = a(v'_1 + W)$.
 - (d) It is closed because V is closed. The commutativity and associativity of addition is also because V is commutative and associative. For the zero element we have (x + W) + W = x + W. For the inverse element we have (x + W) + (-x + W) = W. For the identity element of multiplication we have 1(x + W) = x + W. The distribution law and combination law are also followed by the original propositions in V. But there are one more thing should be checked, that is whether it is well-defined. But this is the exercise 1.3.31. (c).

Sec. 1.4

- 1. (a) Yes. Just pick any coefficient to be zero.
 - (b) No. By definition it should be $\{0\}$.
 - (c) Yes. Every subspaces of which contains S as a subset contains span(S) and span(S) is a subspace.
 - (d) No. This action will change the solution of one system of linear equations.
 - (e) Yes.
 - (f) No. For example, 0x = 3 has no solution.
- 10. Any symmetric 2×2 matrices can be written as following:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc}a&b\\b&c\end{array}\right) = aM_1 + cM_2 + bM_3$$

- 11. For $x \neq 0$ the statement is the definition of linear combination and the set is a line. For x = 0 the both side of the equation is the set of zero vector and the set is the origin.
- 14. We prove $span(S_1 \cup S_2) \subset span(S_1) + span(S_2)$ first. For $v \in span(S_1 \cup S_2)$ we have $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i + \sum_{j=1}^m a_j y_j$ with $x_i \in S_1$ and $y_j \in S_2$. Since the first summation is in $span(S_1)$ and the second summation is in $span(S_2)$, we have $v \in span(S_1) + span(S_2)$.

For the converse, let $u + v \in span(S_1) + span(S_2)$ with $u \in span(S_1)$ and $v \in span(S_2)$. We can write $v = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i + \sum_{j=1}^m a_j y_j$ with $x_i \in S_1$ and $y_j \in S_2$. This means $u + v \in span(S_1 \cup S_2)$.

Sec. 1.5

- 1. (a) No. For example, take $S = \{(1,0), (2,0), (0,1)\}$ and then (0,1) is not a linear combination of the other two.
 - (b) Yes. It is because $1\vec{0} = \vec{0}$.
 - (c) No. It is independent by the remark after Definition of linearly independent.
 - (d) No. For example, we have $S = \{(1,0), (2,0), (0,1)\}$ but $\{(1,0), (0,1)\}$ is linearly independent.
 - (e) Yes. This is the contrapositive statement of Theorem 1.6.
 - (f) Yes. This is the definition.
- 2. (a) Linearly dependent.
 - (b) Linearly independent.
 - (c) Linearly independent.
 - (d) Linearly dependent.
 - (e) Linearly dependent.
 - (f) Linearly independent.
 - (g) Linearly dependent.
 - (h) Linearly independent.
 - (i) Linearly independent.
 - (j) Linearly dependent.
- 9. It is sufficient since if u = tv for some $t \in \mathbb{F}$ then we have utv = 0. While it is also necessary since if au + bv = 0 for some $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ with at least one of the two coefficients not zero, then we may assume $a \neq 0$ and $u = -\frac{b}{a}v$.
- 10. Pick $v_1 = (1, 1, 0), v_2 = (1, 0, 0), v_3 = (0, 1, 0)$. And we have that none of the three is a multiple of another and they are dependent since $v_1 v_2 v_3 = 0$.
- 13. (a) Sufficiency: If {u+v, u-v} is linearly independent we have a(u+v)+b(u-v) = 0 implies a = b = 0. Assuming that cu + dv = 0, we can deduce that c+d/2 (u+v) + c-d/2 (u-v) = 0 and hence c+d/2 = c-d/2 = 0. This means c = d = 0 if the characteristic is not two.
 Necessity: If {u, v} is linearly independent we have au + bv = 0 implies a = b = 0. Assuming that c(u + v) + d(u v) = 0, we can deduce that (c+d)u + (c-d)v = 0 and hence c+d = c-d = 0. This means c = d = 0 if the characteristic is not two.
 - (b) Similar to (a).
- 15. Sufficiency: If $u_1 = 0$, then S is linearly independent. Suppose u_{k+1} is in span $(\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\})$ for some k, say $u_{k+1} = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \cdots + a_ku_k$. Then we have $a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \cdots + a_ku_k u_{k+1} = 0$ is a nontrivial representation.

Necessary: If S is linearly dependent, there is some integer k such that there is some nontrivial representation.

$$a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_ku_k + a_{k+1}u_{k+1} = 0$$

Furthermore we may assume that $a_{k+1} \neq 0$ otherwise we may choose less k until that $a_{k+1} \neq 0$. Hence we have

$$u_{k+1} = -\frac{1}{a_{k+1}} \left(a_1 u_1 + a_2 u_2 + \dots + a_k u_k \right)$$

and so $u_{k+1} \in \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\})$

Sec. 1.6

- 1. (a) No. The empty set is its basis.
 - (b) Yes. This is the result of Replacement Theorem.
 - (c) No. For example, the set of all polynomials has no finite basis.
 - (d) No. \mathbb{R}^2 has $\{(1,0), (1,1)\}$ and $\{(1,0), (0,1)\}$ as bases.
 - (e) Yes. This is the Corollary after Replacement Theorem.
 - (f) No. It is n+1.
 - (g) No. It is $m \times n$.
 - (h) Yes. This is the Replacement Theorem.
 - (i) No. For $S = \{1, 2\}$, a subset of \mathbb{R} , then $5 = 1 \times 1 + 2 \times 2 = 3 \times 1 + 1 \times 2$.
 - (j) Yes. This is Theorem 1.11.
 - (k) Yes. It is 0 and V respectively.
 - (1) Yes. This is the Corollary 2 after Replacement Theorem.
- 5. It is impossible since the dimension of \mathbb{R}^3 is three.
- 7. We have first $\{u_1, u_2\}$ is linearly independent. And since $u_3 = -4u_1$ and $u_4 = -3u_1 + 7u_2$, we can check that $\{u_1, u_2, u_5\}$ is linearly independent and hence it is a basis.
- 11. Since $\{u, v\}$ is a basis for V, dim V = 2. So if $\{u + v, au\}$ is a set of 2 linearly independent vectors, then it is a basis. Now if

$$c_1(u+v) + c_2(au) = 0,$$

then we get

$$(c_1 + ac_2)u + c_1v = 0.$$

By the linear independency of $\{u, v\}$, we have

$$\begin{cases} c_1 + ac_2 &= 0 \\ c_1 &= 0 \end{cases}.$$

As a and b are nonzero, we have $c_1 = c_2 = 0$. Hence $\{u + v, au\}$ are linearly independent and is a basis for V.

Similarly $c_1(au) + c_2(bv) = 0$ implies $c_1 = c_2 = 0$. So $\{au, bv\}$ are linearly independent, hence a basis for V.

12. Suppose $\{u, v, w\}$ is a basis for V. Then we know dim V = 3. So $\{u + v + w, v + w, w\}$ is a basis if they are linearly independent. For

$$c_1(u+v+w) + c_2(v+w) + c_3(w) = 0,$$

we can rearrange to get

$$c_1u + (c_1 + c_2)v + (c_1 + c_2 + c_3)w = 0.$$

By the linear independence of $\{u, v, w\}$, we have $c_1 = c_1+c_2 = c_1+c_2+c_3 = 0$. Then obviously we have $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = 0$. So $\{u+v+w, v+w, w\}$ are linearly independent and hence a basis.

22. One can see that the dimension of W_1 after intersecting with W_2 does not change. So it is natural to think that W_1 is a set not larger than W_2 and contained in W_2 .

More rigorously, we claim that $W_1 \subset W_2$ is the condition.

It is obvious to see that $W_1 \subset W_2$ implies $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_1)$. Since $W_1 \subset W_2$, $W_1 \cap W_2$ is just W_1 . So their dimensions are equal.

To show the necessary condition, we show that $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = \dim(W_1)$ implies $W_1 \subset W_2$. Suppose that W_1 is not contained in W_2 , that means there is some vector $v \in W_1 \setminus W_2$. Let β be the basis of $W_1 \cap W_2$, in particular β is in W_1 . Note that v is in W_1 but not W_2 , so $v \notin \operatorname{span}(\beta)$. But then $\beta \cup \{v\}$ are linearly independent in W_1 . So the size of this linearly independent set of vectors is greater than $\dim(W_1)$, which leads to a contradiction. Hence W_1 must be contained in W_2 .

23. (a) Note that $W_1 = \operatorname{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\})$ has the same dimension as $W_2 = \operatorname{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v\})$. So v cannot help in generating more combinations. In other word v is already in $\operatorname{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\})$. Hence we claim that $v \in \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\} = W_1$ is the condition.

To show the necessary condition, we suppose $v \notin W_1$. Let β be a basis of W_1 . Note that $\beta \subset W_1 \subset W_2$ and $v \in W_2$. Then $\beta \cup \{v\}$ is a linearly independent set in W_2 . But then

$$\dim(W_2) = \dim(W_1) = |\beta| < |\beta| + 1 = |\beta \cup \{v\}| \le \dim(W_2)$$

leads to a contradiction. Hence $v \in W_1$.

To check that the condition is sufficient, if $v \in \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$, then

 $\operatorname{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v\}) = \operatorname{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}).$

Hence W_1 and W_2 are the same, so are their dimensions.

(b) With the above condition, it shows that $\dim(W_1) \neq \dim(W_2)$ implies $v \notin W_1$. Then following the same arguments in (a), we arrive at

 $\dim(W_1) = |\beta| < |\beta| + 1 = |\beta \cup \{v\}| \le \dim(W_2).$

Hence $\dim(W_1) < \dim(W_2)$.

26. For any $f \in P_n(\mathbb{R})$ with f(a) = 0, we have f(x) = (x - a)g(x) for some $g \in P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$. So the subspace

$$\{f \in P_n(\mathbb{R}) : f(a) = 0\}$$

is equivalent to

$$\{f \in P_n(\mathbb{R}) : f(x) = (x - a)g(x), g \in P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})\}.$$

But $P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$ is of dimension n, so is the subspace.

More explicitly, $\{1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}\}$ is a basis for $P_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$. One can easily check that $\{(x-a)1, (x-a)x, \ldots, (x-a)x^{n-1}\}$ is a basis for the subspace. Or simply one can observe $\{x-a, x^2-a^2, \ldots, x^n-a^n\}$ is another basis for the subspace.

29. (a) Suppose $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\}$ is a basis for $W_1 \cap W_2$. Then one can extend it to a basis $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ for W_1 and a basis $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p\}$ for W_2 . We want to show that $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p\}$ is a basis for $W_1 + W_2$. Suppose we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i u_i + \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i v_i + \sum_{i=1}^{p} c_i w_i = 0.$$

One can rearrange to get

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i v_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i u_i + v_i + \sum_{i=1}^{p} c_i w_i.$$

We then see the left hand side is in W_1 , while the right hand side is in W_2 . So both are in $W_1 \cap W_2$. In particular, $-\sum_{i=1}^m b_i$ can be expressed as a combination of $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k\}$.

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i v_i = s_1 u_1 + s_2 u_2 + \dots + s_k u_k$$

We can rearrange to get

$$s_1u_1 + s_2u_2 + \dots + s_ku_k + b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_mv_m = 0.$$

Note that $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m\}$ is a basis. The linear independence implies coefficients are all zero. In particular $b_1 = b_2 = \cdots = b_m = 0$. Now the right hand side vanishes

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i u_i + v_i + \sum_{i=1}^{p} c_i w_i.$$

Again, linear independence of $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p\}$ implies that $a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_k = c_1 = c_2 = \cdots = c_p = 0$. Hence

$$\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p\}$$

are linearly independent.

Now for any vector $z \in W_1 + W_2$, we have z = x + y, where $x \in W_1$ and $y \in W_2$. Then we can write x and y as follows.

$$x = a_1u_1 + a_2u_2 + \dots + a_ku_k + b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_mv_m$$
$$y = c_1u_1 + c_2u_2 + \dots + c_ku_k + d_1w_1 + d_2w_2 + \dots + d_mw_m$$

So we can rearrange the sum to get

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i + c_i)u_i + \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i v_i + \sum_{i=1}^{p} d_i w_i$$

$$\in \operatorname{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_p\})$$

Hence we have checked $\{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k, v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_p\}$ is a basis for $W_1 + W_2$. Then one can easily check their dimensions.

$$\dim(W_1 + W_2) = k + m + p = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2) - \dim(W_1 + W_2)$$

(b) V is the direct sum of W_1 and W_2 if and only if $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. But $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ if and only if $\dim(W_1 \cap W_2) = 0$. From the above formula, we have $\dim(V) = \dim(W_1) + \dim(W_2)$.

Sec. 2.1

15. To show that T is linear, for any $f, g \in P(\mathbb{R})$, we write $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$ and $g(x) = sum_{i=0}^{m} b_i x^i$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $n \ge m$ and set $b_i = 0$ for i > m. So we can write $g(x) = sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i x^i$. Then

$$T(f(x) + g(x)) = \int_0^x (f(x) + g(x))dt = \int_0^x \sum_{i=0}^n (a_i + b_i)t^i dt$$
$$= \int_0^x \sum_{i=0}^n a_i t^i dt + \int_0^x \sum_{i=0}^n b_i t^i dt$$
$$= T(f(x)) + T(g(x))$$

and, similarly, $T(\alpha f(x)) = \alpha T(f(x))$.

To prove that T is one-to-one, we suppose T(f(x)) = T(g(x)). Then one can do the integration and get $a_i = b_i$ for all $0 \le i \le n$.

$$\int_0^x f(t)dt = \int_0^x g(t)dt$$
$$\sum_{i=0}^n \frac{a_i}{i+1} x^{i+1} = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{b_i}{i+1} x^{i+1}$$

Hence $f \equiv g$ and T is one-to-one.

However T is not onto. For example, for any constant $c \in P(\mathbb{R})$ but there is no such $f \in P(\mathbb{R})$ such that $T(f(x)) = \int_0^x f(t)dt = 1$.

- 17. Let's recall the rank-nullity formula $\dim V = \dim R(T) + \dim N(T)$.
 - (a) Suppose dim $V < \dim W$ but T is onto. Then we have R(T) = W. But dim $N(T) \ge 0$. So

 $\dim V < \dim W = \dim R(T) <= \dim R(T) + \dim N(T) = \dim V,$

which is a contradiction. Hence T cannot be onto.

(b) Suppose dim $V > \dim W$ but T is one-to-one. Then we have $N(T) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ and dim N(T) = 0. But dim $R(T) \le \dim W$. So

 $\dim V > \dim W \ge \dim R(T) = \dim R(T) + \dim N(T) = \dim V,$

which is again a contradiction. Hence T cannot be one-to-one.

18. Note that N(T) is in the domain while R(T) is in the codomain. Consider the linear transformation T(x, y) = (y, 0). One can easily check that

$$N(T) = \{(x, 0) : x \in \mathbb{R}\} = R(T).$$

19. Consider T(x,y) = (-y,x) and U(x,y) = (2x,2y). Then

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

and

$$N(T) = \{(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^2\} = N(U).$$

Actually T is a rotation and U is a scaling. One can also try U to be a translation. The conclusion is the same.

Sec. 2.2

13. Suppose $T: V \to W$, $U: V \to W$ and $R(T) \cap R(U) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. If $\alpha T + \beta U$ is the zero linear transformation from V to W (that is the 0 in $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$), then we want to show that $\alpha = \beta = 0$. That means $(\alpha T + \beta U)(v) = 0$ for all $v \in V$. So

$$\alpha T(v) = -\beta U(v)$$
 for all $v \in V$.

Note that the left hand side is in R(T), while the right hand side is in R(U). Then $R(T) \cap R(U) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ implies that $\alpha T(v) = 0$ and $-\beta U(v) = 0$ for all v in V. Note that T and U are nonzero linear transformations. Hence it must be that $\alpha = \beta = 0$ and the linear independency follows.

16. Let $n = \dim V$. Suppose $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ is a basis for N(T). Then one can extend it to be a basis β for V.

$$\beta = \{v_1, v_2 \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$$

Note that $\{Tv_{k+1}, \ldots, Tv_n\}$ is a basis for R(T). Since dim $W = \dim V = n$, we can extend the above to be a basis γ for W.

$$\gamma = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k, Tv_{k+1}, \dots, Tv_n\}$$

Now we can check that $[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta}$ is diagonal.

$$[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ [Tv_1]_{\gamma} & [Tv_2]_{\gamma} & \cdots & [Tv_n]_{\gamma} \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix}$$

One can see that Tv_1, Tv_2, \ldots, Tv_k are zero vectors and Tv_{k+1}, \ldots, Tv_n are basis in W. So $\{[Tv_{k+1}]_{\gamma}, \ldots, [Tv_n]_{\gamma}\}$ are $\{e_{k+1}, \ldots, e_n\}$, where e_j is a vector with a 1 at *j*th entry and 0 elsewhere.

$$[T]^{\gamma}_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} O & O \\ O & I_{n-k} \end{pmatrix}$$

Sec. 2.3

- 12. Note that UT is a transformation from V to Z.
 - (a) Suppose T(x) = T(y) for $x, y \in V$. Then by transforming them with U, we have UT(x) = UT(y). As UT is one-to-one, so x = y. Hence T is one-to-one.

However U may not be one-to-one. One example is that T(x,y) = (x,y,0) and U(x,y,z) = (x,y). Then T and UT are one-to-one, while U is not.

(b) Suppose $z \in Z$. As UT is onto, there exists some $v \in V$ such that UT(v) = z. Then take w = T(v), we have U(w) = U(T(v)) = z. Hence U is onto.

However T may not be onto. A counter example would be the one in (a).

- (c) For UT(x) = UT(y), as U is one-to-one, we have T(x) = T(y). Again as T is one-to-one, we have x = y. So UT is one-to-one. For $z \in Z$, as U is onto, there exists some $w \in W$ such that U(w) = z. Then for this w, as T is onto, there exist some $v \in V$ such that T(v) = w. Hence we have found $v \in V$ such that UT(v) = U(w) = z. So UT is onto.
- 13. Denote $(M)_{ij}$ as the entry at *i*th row and *j*th column. Then one can simply write from definition to check that they are equal.

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (AB)_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (A)_{ij} (B)_{ji}$$
$$\operatorname{tr}(BA) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (BA)_{jj} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (A)_{ji} (B)_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (A)_{ij} (B)_{ji}$$

As the sum is finite, we can interchange the order of summations and get the result.

17. Suppose $T: V \to V$ is a linear transformation such that $T = T^2$. Denote

$$W_1 = \{y \in V : T(y) = y\}$$
 and $W_2 = \{y \in V : T(y) = 0\} (= N(T)).$

Note that for every vector $x \in V$, we can write x = T(x) + (x - T(x)). In other words, we write

$$x = u + v$$
, where $u = T(x)$ and $v = x - T(x)$.

We claim that $u \in W_1$ and $v \in W_2$. Firstly, T(u) = T(T(x)) = T(x) = u, so $u \in W_1$. Next, T(v) = T(x - T(x)) = T(x) - T(T(x)) = T(x) - T(x) = 0, so $v \in W_2$.

Moreover we can see that

$$V = W_1 \oplus W_2,$$

that means $W_1 \cap W_2 = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. For any $y \in W_1 \cap W_2$, we have both T(y) = y and T(y) = 0, so y = 0.

To interpret this, V is decomposed into two subspaces, say $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$. A vector $v \in V$ can be expressed as a sum of two parts, one from each subspace. A transformation T will preserve the first part and remove the other part, that is just a projection. Hence T is a projection of vectors onto some subspace $W1 \subset V$ which $V = W_1 \oplus W_2$.

Sec. 2.4

4. As A and B are invertible, there exists A^{-1} and B^{-1} such that

$$A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$$
 and $B^{-1}B = BB^{-1} = I$.

So it is easy to check

$$B^{-1}A^{-1}AB = I$$
 and $ABB^{-1}A^{-1} = I$.

Hence AB is invertible and $B^{-1}A^{-1}$ is the inverse of AB. In other words $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

16. Φ is an isomorphism if it is a one-to-one onto linear transformation. It is easy to check that Φ is linear.

$$\Phi(C+D) = B^{-1}(C+D)B = B^{-1}CB + B^{-1}DB = \Phi(C) + \Phi(D)$$
$$\Phi(\alpha C) = B^{-1}(\alpha C)B = \alpha B^{-1}CB = \alpha \Phi(C)$$

Note that B is invertible. Then for any C and D such that $\Phi(C) = \Phi(D)$, we have $B^{-1}CB = B^{-1}DB$. Hence C = D and Φ is one-to-one.

Moreover, given A, we can also find $C = BAB^{-1}$ such that $\Phi(C) = B^{-1}BAB^{-1}B = A$. Hence Φ is onto. So it is an isomorphism.

Sec. 3.2

2. (g) By elementary row operations, we get the RREF (reduced row echelon form).

/ 1	1	0	1		(1	1	0	1
2	2	0	2		0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	\rightarrow	0	0	0	0
$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \end{pmatrix}$	1	0	1 /		0 /	0	0	$\left(\begin{array}{c}1\\0\\0\\0\end{array}\right)$

So the rank is just 1.

5. (h) By computing the RREF of (A|I), we see the rank is just 3. So the inverse does not exist.

(1	0	1	1	(´ 1	0	0	-1
1	1	-1	2		0	1	0	5
2	0	1	0	\rightarrow	0	0	1	2
$\int 0$	-1	1	-3 /		0	0	0	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 5 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Sec. 3.3

3. (g) Consider

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 1\\ x_2 - x_3 + x_4 = 1 \end{cases}$$

One particular solution is $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 0$ and $x_4 = 1$. Now we consider the homogenous system

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0 \\ x_2 - x_3 + x_4 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_1 = -3x_3 + x_4 \\ x_2 = x_3 - x_4 \end{cases}$$

We choose (-3, 1, 1, 0) and (1, -1, 0, 1) to be a basis for the solution set of the homogenous system. Then all the solutions can be written as (0, 0, 0, 1) + s(-3, 1, 1, 0) + t(1, -1, 0, 1). Hence the solutions to the system are

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3s+t \\ s-t \\ s \\ t+1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for all } s, t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

4. (b) First, rewrite the system of linear equations as Ax = b.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3 = 5\\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1\\ 2x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = 4 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1\\ 1 & 1 & 1\\ 2 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1\\ x_2\\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5\\ 1\\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

i. By computing the RREF of (A|I),

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & | & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & | & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 & 1 & | & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & | & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & | & \frac{1}{9} & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2}{9} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & | & -\frac{4}{9} & \frac{2}{3} & -\frac{1}{9} \end{pmatrix},$$

we get

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 3\\ 1 & 3 & -2\\ -4 & 6 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

ii. As we now have A^{-1} , x is just $A^{-1}b$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & -2 \\ -4 & 6 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Sec. 3.4

12. (a) Check that (0, -1, 0, 1, 1, 0) and (1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0) are solutions to the system, so $S \subset V$. Suppose

$$a(0, -1, 0, 1, 1, 0) + b(1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0) = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0).$$

One can easily solve that a = b = 0. Hence they are linearly independent.

(b) Consider the system

$$\begin{cases} x_1 & -x_2 & +2x_4 & -3x_5 & +x_6 & = 0\\ 2x_1 & -x_2 & -x_3 & +3x_4 & -4x_5 & +4x_6 & = 0 \end{cases}$$

One can solve for any two of the variables, say x_1 and x_2 .

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = x_3 & -x_4 & +x_5 & -3x_6 \\ x_2 = x_3 & +x_4 & -2x_5 & -2x_6 \end{cases}$$

We then get a set of basis for the solution set by setting each of $\{x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6\}$ to be 1.

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

To extend S to a basis for V, we compute the RREF to select two more linearly independent vectors to form a basis.

Hence we choose (-1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0) and (-3, -2, 0, 0, 0, 1). Therefore, the extended basis is

	$\begin{pmatrix} 0\\ -1\\ 0\\ 1\\ 1\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$,	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$,	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$,	$\begin{pmatrix} -3\\ -2\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$		} .
l	(0)		(0/		(0)		(1)	J	

Sec. 4.1

For Exercise 5, 7 and 8, we introduce the following notations.

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

5. Suppose B is obtained by interchanging the rows of A.

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

Then the determinants can be easily computed.

$$\det(B) = cb - ad = -(ad - bc) = -\det(A)$$

7. Note that

$$A^t = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then the determinants are equal.

$$\det(A^t) = ad - bc = \det(A)$$

8. As A is upper triangular, we have c = 0. Then

 $\det(A) = ad - bc = ad,$

which is the product of the diagonal entries of A.

Sec. 4.2

26. By negating a row of the matrix A, we change det(A) by a factor of -1. To obtain -A, we can negate every row of A, that is negating n times. So

$$\det(-A) = (-1)^n \det(A).$$

For $\det(-A) = \det(A)$, either $\det(A) = 0$, which means A is not invertible; or $(-1)^n = 1$, which means n is even or \mathbb{F} is of characteristic 2.

27. It is obvious that A is not of full-rank, so det(A) = 0.

Sec. 4.3

12. Note that $\det(Q^t) = \det(Q)$. So if $QQ^t = I$, we have $\det(QQ^t) = \det(I)$. Then

$$\det(Q)^2 = \det(Q) \det(Q^t) = \det(QQ^t) = \det(I) = 1.$$

Hence $det(Q) = \pm 1$.

15. Note that $\det(Q^{-1}) = \det(Q)^{-1}$ for invertible matrix $Q \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{F})$. If A and B are similar, there exists some invertible matrix Q such that $A = Q^{-1}BQ$. So

$$\det(A) = \det(Q^{-1}BQ) = \det(Q^{-1})\det(B)\det(Q) = \det(B).$$

22. (a) Note that $\beta = \{1, x, \dots, x^n\}$ and $\gamma = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{n+1}\}.$

$$[T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ [T(1)]_{\gamma} & [T(x)]_{\gamma} & [T(x^2)]_{\gamma} & \cdots & [T(x^n)]_{\gamma} \\ | & | & | & | \end{pmatrix}$$

For $T(x^j) = (c_0^j, c_1^j, \dots, c_n^j)$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$. As γ is just the standard basis, $T(x^j)$ as its usual representation under γ . Hence we have

$$M = [T]_{\beta}^{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_0 & c_0^2 & \cdots & c_0^n \\ 1 & c_1 & c_1^2 & \cdots & c_1^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & c_n & c_n^2 & \cdots & c_n^n \end{pmatrix}.$$

- (b) Using Exercise 22 from Sec. 2.4, we know that T is an isomorphism. In other words, T is an invertible transformation, so is M. Hence $det(M) \neq 0$.
- (c) We recall that

$$a^{n} - b^{n} = (a - b)(a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \dots + ab^{n-2} + b^{n-1}).$$

Then we are ready to expand the determinant.

$$\det(M) = \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_0 & c_0^2 & \cdots & c_0^n \\ 1 & c_1 & c_1^2 & \cdots & c_1^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & c_n & c_n^2 & \cdots & c_n^n \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_0 & c_0^2 & \cdots & c_0^n \\ 0 & c_1 - c_0 & c_1^2 - c_0^2 & \cdots & c_1^n - c_0^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & c_n - c_0 & c_n^2 - c_0^2 & \cdots & c_n^n - c_0^n \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \det\begin{pmatrix} c_1 - c_0 & c_1^2 - c_0^2 & \cdots & c_1^n - c_0^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_n - c_0 & c_n^2 - c_0^2 & \cdots & c_n^n - c_0^n \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^n (c_i - c_0) \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_1 + c_0 & \cdots & \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_1^{n-1-i} c_0^i \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & c_n + c_0 & \cdots & \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_n^{n-1-i} c_0^i \end{pmatrix}$$

Observe that the second column can be reduced by a multiple of the first column.

$$\det(M) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (c_i - c_0) \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_1 & c_1^2 + c_1 c_0 + c_0^2 & \cdots & \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_1^{n-1-i} c_0^i \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & c_n & c_n^2 + c_n c_0 + c_0^2 & \cdots & \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_n^{n-1-i} c_0^i \end{pmatrix}$$

In the same way, we can reduce the $j{\rm th}$ column by multiples of previous columns. By these column operations, we can get

$$\det(M) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (c_i - c_0) \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_1 & c_1^2 & \cdots & c_1^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & c_n & c_n^2 & \cdots & c_n^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

In the same fashion, we expand this determinant.

$$\det(M) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (c_i - c_0) \prod_{i=2}^{n} (c_i - c_1) \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_2^{n-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & c_n & \cdots & c_n^{n-2} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\vdots$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} (c_i - c_0) \prod_{i=2}^{n} (c_i - c_1) \cdots \prod_{i=n}^{n} (c_i - c_{n-1})$$
$$= \prod_{0 \le i, j \le n} (c_j - c_i)$$

Sec. 4.4

1. Basically these are the major "rules" for us to handle determinants. Please make sure you don't get them wrong.

- (a) True.
- (b) False. (It depends.)
- (c) True.
- (d) False.
- (e) False.
- (f) True.
- (g) True.
- (h) False.
- (i) True.
- (j) True.
- (k) True.

And, of course, please make sure you understand the reasons behind each fact.