

Math 110, Summer 2013
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Homework 4 Solution

(1) Which of the following maps are isomorphisms? Explain why or why not.

(a) $T: P_3(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^3$ given by $T(p(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} p(1) \\ p(2) \\ p(3) \end{pmatrix}$.

Solution: This is not an isomorphism - there are NO isomorphisms between $P_3(\mathbb{F})$ and \mathbb{F}^3 since they do not have the same dimension.

(b) $T: \mathbb{F}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^3$ given by $T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x + y \\ y + z \\ x - z \end{pmatrix}$.

Solution: This is not an isomorphism, since it's not injective. It has the vector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in its null space.

(c) $T: P_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow P_n(\mathbb{F})$ given by $T(a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n) = (a_n + a_{n-1}x + \cdots + a_1x^{n-1} + a_0x^n)$. (note: there was a mistake here - it originally said $P(\mathbb{F})$ instead of $P_n(\mathbb{F})$, and the formula actually doesn't make sense if it's left as $P(\mathbb{F})$. Sorry for any confusion.)

Solution: This is an isomorphism. We saw in class that a map is an isomorphism if it sends a basis to a basis. This map sends the standard basis $(1, x, \dots, x^n)$ to the list $(x^n, x^{n-1}, \dots, 1)$, which is also a basis.

(d) $T: \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{F}, V) \rightarrow V$ given by, for $S \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{F}, V)$, $T(S) = S(1)$.

Solution: We saw in class that $\dim \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{F}, V) = \dim \mathbb{F} \cdot \dim V = 1 \cdot \dim V = \dim V$, so to check the map is an isomorphism, it's enough to check it's injective (then we get surjectivity for free). So we prove it's injective. Pick $S \in \text{Null } T$. We show that S is the zero map $\mathbb{F} \rightarrow V$. This means we have to show that $S(c) = 0$ for all $c \in \mathbb{F}$. Since $T(S) = 0$, we know $S(1) = 0$, and then by linearity, for any $c \in \mathbb{F}$, $S(c) = cS(1) = c \cdot 0 = 0$, so S is the zero map, hence T is injective, hence an isomorphism.

(2) Prove that isomorphism (denoted \cong) is an *equivalence relation* on the set of vector spaces. That is, prove

(a) $V \cong V$ for every vector space V .

Proof: The identity map is an isomorphism $V \rightarrow V$, so V is isomorphic to itself.

(b) If V, W are two vector spaces with $V \cong W$, then $W \cong V$.

Proof: If $V \cong W$, then there is a map $T: V \rightarrow W$ which has an inverse. Call the inverse S . But then since $S: W \rightarrow V$ is a map with an inverse, we see that $W \cong V$.

(c) If U, V, W are three vector spaces such that $U \cong V$ and $V \cong W$, then $U \cong W$.

Proof: First off, since $U \cong V$, $\dim U = \dim V$ by some theorem from class ("isomorphic spaces have the same dimension, and vice versa"). Similarly $\dim V = \dim W$. Thus all three dimensions are the same and in particular $\dim U = \dim W$. In fact, by the same theorem, this already implies that they're isomorphic. But if you prefer to use the definition, we need to produce an isomorphism $U \rightarrow W$, and since the dimensions are the same it's enough to check surjectivity (or injectivity) alone. By our assumptions, we have $T: U \rightarrow V$ and $S: V \rightarrow W$ - the given isomorphisms. We claim $S \circ T$ is an isomorphism $U \rightarrow W$. To see the surjectivity, pick $w \in W$. Since S is an isomorphism, there is $v \in V$ with $Sv = w$, and since T is an isomorphism, there is a $u \in U$ with $Tu = v$. Putting this together shows $w = Sv = S(Tu) = (S \circ T)u$, so $S \circ T$ is surjective, hence an isomorphism. Thus $U \cong W$.

- (3) Let $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be given by $T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y \\ -y \end{pmatrix}$. Find a subspace U of \mathbb{R}^2 such that $T|_U$ is the identity map on U . Find a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^2 such that $T|_W$ is the zero map on W .

Solution: Let U be the zero subspace. Then for all $v \in U$ (the only choice is $v = 0$) $Tv = 0 = v$, so T is the identity map on U . This silly choice of U turns out to be the only one! For W , we could actually take the same example, since on the zero subspace, the identity map and the zero map are the SAME MAP! There's only one input, after all. But for a more interesting example, we could take W to be the x -axis. Then $T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, so $T|_W = 0$.

- (4) (True or false? If true, prove it. If false, find a counterexample.) If $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and U is a subspace of V that is T -invariant, then U contains a non-zero eigenvector for T .

Solution: FALSE! We always have two obvious invariant subspaces: the zero subspace, and the whole space. If we take U to be the zero subspace, then it's invariant, but doesn't contain any nonzero eigenvectors, because it doesn't contain any nonzero vectors at all! Alternatively, take for example $V = \mathbb{R}^2$. We've seen that a rotation through $\pi/4$ radians has no nonzero eigenvectors. So if we let $U = \mathbb{R}^2$ also, then U is invariant, but doesn't contain any nonzero eigenvectors - another counterexample.

- (5) Consider the operator $T: P_2(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow P_2(\mathbb{F})$ given by $Tp(x) = xp'(x)$. Find a basis for $P_2(\mathbb{F})$ with respect to which the matrix for T is diagonal (in other words, diagonalize T).

Solution: We need to produce a basis of eigenvectors. So we solve $Tp(x) = \lambda p(x)$. Write $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$. Then our equation looks like

$$xp'(x) = 2ax^2 + bx = \lambda ax^2 + \lambda bx + \lambda c,$$

and equating the coefficients of like powers of x gives us the system

$$2a = \lambda a$$

$$b = \lambda b$$

$$0 = \lambda c.$$

From the first equation, we see that either $\lambda = 0$ or $c = 0$. If $\lambda = 0$, the the other two equations tell us that $a = b = 0$, so $\lambda = 0$ is an eigenvalue, whose eigenvectors are the constant polynomials, spanned by the polynomial 1. So now assume that $\lambda \neq 0$. Then c must be zero. From the second equation, either $\lambda = 1$ or $b = 0$. If $\lambda = 1$, b could be anything, but the first equation forces $a = 0$. So $\lambda = 1$ is an eigenvalue, with eigenvectors bx , i.e., spanned by x . Finally assume instead that $b = 0$. Then we look at the final equation and see that $\lambda = 2$ (of course $a = 0$ gives a solution, but then our polynomial is the zero polynomial, and this doesn't tell us about eigenvalues). So $\lambda = 2$ is an eigenvalue, with eigenvectors ax^2 .

Summarizing, we have found three eigenvalues with eigenspaces

$$E_0 = \text{Span}(1)$$

$$E_1 = \text{Span}(x)$$

$$E_2 = \text{Span}(x^2)$$

Since each of these are 1-dimensional, we can produce a basis for $P_2(\mathbb{F})$ by choosing one vector from each, say the basis $B = (1, x, x^2)$, the standard basis. Then

$$M(T, B) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix},$$

which is diagonal.

- (6) Consider the operator $T: \mathbb{F}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}^3$ given by $Tx = Ax$, where $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$. Find a basis for \mathbb{F}^3 with respect to which the matrix for T is diagonal (in other words, diagonalize T).

Solution: As in 5, we find eigenvectors/values. The equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

gives us the system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \lambda x \\ -x + 2y + z &= \lambda y \\ -2x + 3z &= \lambda z \end{aligned}$$

Look at the first equation. Either $\lambda = 1$ or $x = 0$. If $\lambda = 1$, then plugging this in to the other two equations gives

$$\begin{aligned} -x + y + z &= 0 \\ -2x + 2z &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

so $x = z$ and $y = 0$. Thus we have a one-dimensional eigenspace $E_1 = \text{Span} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Now consider the case when $x = 0$. Plugging this in to the other equations gives the system

$$\begin{aligned} 2y + z &= \lambda y \\ 3z &= \lambda z \end{aligned}$$

From the second equation, either $z = 0$ or $\lambda = 3$. If $z = 0$, then $\lambda = 2$ and y could be anything, so we have another eigenspace $E_2 = \text{Span} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Finally, if (still using $x = 0$) $\lambda = 3$, then the second equation reads

$2y + z = 3y$, so $z = y$. This gives us the third eigenspace, $E_3 = \text{Span} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Thus $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 consisting of eigenvectors for T , and in fact

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$$

is the “diagonal decomposition” of A .

(7) If $P \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ satisfies $P^2 = P$,

(a) prove that the only possible eigenvalues of P are 0 and 1.

Proof: Suppose λ is an eigenvalue of P . Then for some $v \neq 0$, $Pv = \lambda v$, and applying P gives $P^2v = \lambda Pv$, so $Pv = \lambda Pv$. Thus $(1 - \lambda)Pv = 0$. Therefore $\lambda = 1$ or $Pv = 0$. So $\lambda = 1$ is a possible eigenvalue, and otherwise we must have $Pv = 0$, which means v is in the nullspace, which is the same as the 0-eigenspace, so P has zero as an eigenvalue.

(b) prove that the set of eigenvectors with eigenvalue 1 is equal to the range of P .

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Range } P &= \{w \mid w = Pv \text{ for some } v \in V\} \\ &= \{w \mid w = P^2v \text{ for some } v \in V\} \\ &= \{w \mid w = P(Pv) \text{ for some } v \in V\} \\ &= \{w \mid w = Pw\} \\ &= E_1. \end{aligned}$$

(going from the third line to the fourth is not completely obvious - owing to the disappearance of the “for some $v \in V$ ” in the set definition. Can you see why this is true?)

- (8) Let $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ be such that $ST = TS$ (we say they “commute”)
 (a) Prove that T^n and S commute, for any $n \geq 0$.

Proof: $T^n S = T^{n-1} S T = T^{n-2} S T^2 = \dots = T S T^{n-1} = S T^n$, where at each step we switched the order of S and one of the T 's, using our assumption.

- (b) Let $p(x)$ be any polynomial, and let $p(T) \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ be the operator obtained by replacing x by T , as defined in class. Prove that $\text{Null } p(T)$ is invariant under S .

Proof: (note: this will be heavily used if we ever make it to the Jordan form section of the end of the course) To show $\text{Null } p(T)$ is S -invariant, we pick $v \in \text{Null } p(T)$, and show that Sv is also in $\text{Null } p(T)$. So let $v \in \text{Null } p(T)$. To see that Sv is in $\text{Null } p(T)$, we apply the operator $p(T)$ to the vector Sv , and show that the answer is zero. First write $p(T) = a_0 I + a_1 T + \dots + a_n T^n$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1) \quad & p(T)(Sv) = (a_0 I + a_1 T + \dots + a_n T^n)(Sv) \\
 (2) \quad & = a_0 I(Sv) + a_1 T(Sv) + \dots + a_n T^n(Sv) \\
 (3) \quad & = a_0 S(Iv) + a_1 S(Tv) + \dots + a_n S(T^n v) \\
 (4) \quad & = S(a_0 Iv + a_1 Tv + \dots + a_n T^n v) \\
 (5) \quad & = S(p(T)v) \\
 (6) \quad & = S(0) = 0,
 \end{aligned}$$

where going from line (2)-(3) we used the fact from part (a) that S commutes with all powers of T , and going from line (5)-(6) we used that $v \in \text{Null } p(T)$. All the other steps just used the definitions of polynomial operators and linearity.

- (9) Let $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Prove that if v is a non-zero eigenvector of T which is not in $\text{Range } T$, then $v \in \text{Null } T$.

Proof: Let $Tv = \lambda v$, with $v \neq 0$, and assume that $v \notin \text{Range } T$. There are two cases: $\lambda = 0$ or $\lambda \neq 0$. If $\lambda \neq 0$, then $v = \frac{1}{\lambda} Tv = T(\frac{1}{\lambda} v) \in \text{Range } T$, and we assumed this was not the case. So it must be that $\lambda = 0$. But then $Tv = \lambda v = 0v = 0$, so $v \in \text{Null } T$. Done. (note: you should be familiar by now with the idea that the 0-eigenspace is the same as the nullspace, which is essentially the content of the final sentence)