# Advanced Linear Algebra MAT 315 

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## Linear maps

Let $V$ and $W$ be vector spaces over a field $\mathbb{F}$.
3.2 Definition A map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is said to be linear if:
$T(u+v)=T u+T v$ for all $u, v \in V$
$T(\lambda v)=\lambda(T v)$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ and all $v \in V$
( $T$ is additive);
( $T$ is homogeneous).

Linear maps or linear transformations? $\quad T v$ or $T(v)$ ?
3.3 Notation $\mathcal{L}(V, W)=\{$ all the linear maps $V \rightarrow W\}$

Other notations: $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{F}}(V, W)$ or $\operatorname{Hom}(V, W)$.
Examples of linear maps
Zero $\quad 0 \in \mathcal{L}(V, W): x \mapsto 0$
Identity

$$
I \in \mathcal{L}(V, V): x \mapsto x \quad \text { Other notations: id, or id }{ }_{V} \text {, or } 1 .
$$

Inclusion $\quad$ in $\in \mathcal{L}(V, W): x \mapsto x$ if $V \subset W$

Inclusion
in $\in \mathcal{L}(V, W): x \mapsto x$ if $V \subset W$

## Examples of linear maps

Differentiation $\quad D: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}): D p=p^{\prime}$

Integration $\quad T: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: T p=\int_{0}^{1} p(x) d x$

Multiplication by $x^{3} \quad T: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F}):(T p)(x)=x^{3} p(x)$

Backward shift
$T \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{F}^{\infty}, \mathbb{F}^{\infty}\right): T\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots\right)=\left(x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, \ldots\right)$

## A linear map takes 0 to 0

3.11 Theorem Let $T: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map. Then $T(0)=0$.

Proof $T(0)=T(0+0)=T(0)+T(0)$.
So, $\quad T(0)=T(0)+T(0)$.
Add $-T(0)$ to both sides.

$$
0=T(0)
$$

Linear operations in $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$
3.6 Definition Let $S, T: V \rightarrow W$ be maps and $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$.

The sum $S+T$ and the product $\lambda T$ are maps $V \rightarrow W$ defined by $(S+T)(v)=S v+T v \quad$ and $\quad(\lambda T)(v)=\lambda(T v) \quad$ for all $v \in V$.

Theorem If $S, T$ are linear maps, then $S+T$ and $\lambda T$ are linear maps.
Proof. Exercise! It's easy!
3.7 Theorem With the operations of addition and scalar multiplication, $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is a vector space.
Proof. Exercise! It's easy!

## Composition

Definition Let $T: U \rightarrow V$ and $S: V \rightarrow W$ be maps.
The composition $S \circ T$ is a map $U \rightarrow W$ defined by formula

$$
(S \circ T)(u)=S(T(u)) \text { for all } u \in U . \quad U \xrightarrow{T} V \xrightarrow{S} \xrightarrow{S} W
$$

Composition is also called a product. (Say, in Axler's textbook.)
Often $S \circ T$ is denoted by $S T$, like a product.
Theorem If $S$ and $T$ are linear maps, then $S \circ T$ is a linear map.
Proof. Exercise! It's easy!
3.9 Algebraic properties of composition
$\begin{array}{lc} & \left(T_{1} T_{2}\right) T_{3}=T_{1}\left(T_{2} T_{3}\right) \\ \text { associativity } & T \operatorname{id}_{V}=T=\operatorname{id}_{W} T \\ \text { identity } & \left(S_{1}+S_{2}\right) T=S_{1} T+S_{2} T \text { and }\left(T_{1}+T_{2}\right) S=T_{1} S+T_{2} S . \\ \text { distributivity } & \end{array}$

## Categories

A category provides a framework with a convenient language to speak about objects of unspecified nature, but related to each other in a very specific way.
A category consists of:
objects and
morphisms: for any two objects $X, Y$ morphisms $X \rightarrow Y$, and


The composition is associative: $h \circ(g \circ f)=(h \circ g) \circ f$


With any object $X$, the identity morphism $\operatorname{id}_{X}: X \rightarrow X$ is associated:
for $A \xrightarrow{f} X \xrightarrow{\text { id }_{X}} X$ we have $\operatorname{id}_{X} \circ f=f$
and for $X \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id}_{X}} X \xrightarrow{g} B$ we have $g \circ \mathrm{id}_{X}=g$.

## Examples of categories

## Example 1. The category of sets

Objects are sets, morphisms are maps, compositions are compositions of maps.

## Example 2. The category of vector spaces over a field $\mathbb{F}$

Objects are vector spaces over $\mathbb{F}$, morphisms are linear maps, compositions are compositions of linear maps.

## Example 3. The category of linear maps Let $\mathbb{F}$ be a field.

Objects are linear maps $V \rightarrow W$, where $V$ and $W$ are vector spaces over $\mathbb{F}$.
A morphism $(V \xrightarrow{T} W) \rightarrow(X \xrightarrow{S} Y)$ is a pair $(V \xrightarrow{L} X, W \xrightarrow{M} Y)$ of linear maps such that $M \circ T=S \circ L$.
It is presented by a diagram: $\begin{array}{lll}V & L^{2} \\ \downarrow_{T} & & S \\ & & \end{array} \quad$ which is commutative: $M \circ T=S \circ L$.

$$
\stackrel{\downarrow}{W} \xrightarrow{M} \stackrel{\downarrow}{Y}
$$



## Operators

### 3.67 Definition

A linear map from a vector space to itself is called an operator.

$$
\text { Notation } \quad \mathcal{L}(V)=\{\text { all linear maps } V \rightarrow V\}=\mathcal{L}(V, V) .
$$

Category of operators in vectors spaces over a field $\mathbb{F}$ objects are operators $T: V \rightarrow V$, a morphism $(V \xrightarrow{T} V) \rightarrow(W \xrightarrow{S} W)$ is a linear map $V \xrightarrow{L} W$ such that $S \circ L=L \circ T$.
or, rather, a commutative diagram

a composition of morphisms is the composition of the linear maps.
Axler: "The deepest and most important parts of linear algebra ... deal with operators."
Which categories will be used in this course?

## Inverses and invertibles

In any category:

## Definition

Morphisms $T: V \rightarrow W$ and $S: W \rightarrow V$ are said to be inverse to each other if $S \circ T=\mathrm{id}_{V}$ and $T \circ S=\mathrm{id}_{W}$.
A morphism $T: V \rightarrow W$ is called invertible if there exists a morphism inverse to $T$.
3.54 Uniqueness of Inverse If a morphism is invertible then its inverse is unique.

Proof Let $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ be inverse to $T: V \rightarrow W$. Then

$$
S_{1}=S_{1} \mathrm{id}_{W}=S_{1}\left(T S_{2}\right)=\left(S_{1} T\right) S_{2}=\mathrm{id}_{V} S_{2}=S_{2}
$$

3.55 Notation If $T$ is invertible, then its inverse is denoted by $T^{-1}$.

For a morphism $T: V \rightarrow W$, the inverse morphism $T^{-1}$ is defined by two properties:

$$
T T^{-1}=\operatorname{id}_{W} \quad \text { and } \quad T^{-1} T=\mathrm{id}_{V} .
$$

## Isomorphism

In any category:
3.58 Definition An invertible morphism is called an isomorphism.

Objects $V$ and $W$ are called isomorphic if $\exists$ an isomorphism $V \rightarrow W$.

## Properties of isomorphisms

- An identity morphism is an isomorphism.
- The composition of isomorphisms is an isomorphism.
- The map inverse to an isomorphism is an isomorphism.


## Relation of being isomorphic is equivalence.

It is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

A category does not recognize any difference between its isomorphic objects, although the objects may be not identically the same.

## surjectivity, injectivity and bijectivity

Back to the category of sets and maps
3.20 Definition A map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is called surjective if $T(V)=W$.
3.15 Definition A map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is called injective if $T u=T v \Longrightarrow u=v$.

## Definition

A map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is called bijective if $T$ is both injective and surjective.

not a map

a map

injection, but not surjection 1-to-1

surjection,
but
not injection "onto"

bijection
invertible

## Invertible = bijection

Which sets are isomorphic in the category of sets and maps?
3.56 Theorem. Invertibility is equivalent to bijectivity.

You should know this. If not, see the textbook, page 81.

## Null space

3.12 Definition (reminder) For $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, the null space of $T$ is

$$
\operatorname{null} T=T^{-1}\{0\}=\{v \in V \mid T v=0\} .
$$

Another name: kernel. Notation: $\operatorname{Ker} T$.

### 3.13 Examples

- For $T: V \rightarrow W: v \mapsto 0, \quad \operatorname{null} T=V$
- For differentiation $D: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}), \quad$ null $D=\{$ constants $\}$
- For multiplication by $x^{3} T: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F}): T p=x^{3} p(x), \quad$ null $T=0$
- For backward shift $T \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbb{F}^{\infty}, F^{\infty}\right): T\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots\right)=\left(x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, \ldots\right)$
$\operatorname{null} T=\{(a, 0,0, \ldots) \mid a \in \mathbb{F}\}$


## Null space is a subspace

3.14 Theorem. For $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$, null $T$ is a subspace of $V$.

Proof. As we know (by 3.11) $T(0)=0$. Hence $0 \in \operatorname{null} T$.
$u, v \in \operatorname{null} T \Longrightarrow T(u+v)=T(u)+T(v)=0+0=0 \Longrightarrow u+v \in \operatorname{null} T$.
$u \in \operatorname{null} T, \lambda \in \mathbb{F} \Longrightarrow T(\lambda u)=\lambda T u=\lambda 0=0 \quad \Longrightarrow \lambda u \in \operatorname{null} T$.

## Injectivity and the null space

3.15 Definition (reminder)

A map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is called injective if $T u=T v \Longrightarrow u=v$.

A map $T: V \rightarrow W$ is injective $\Longleftrightarrow u \neq v \Longrightarrow T u \neq T v$.
3.16 $T$ is injective $\Longleftrightarrow$ null $T=\{0\}$.

Proof
$\Longrightarrow$ Recall $0 \in \operatorname{null} T$. If null $T \neq\{0\}$, then $\exists v \in \operatorname{null} T, v \neq 0$.
So, $T v=T 0=0$ and $T$ is not injective.
$\Longleftarrow$ Let $u, v \in V, T u=T v$. Then $0=T u-T v=T(u-v)$. Hence $u-v \in \operatorname{null} T=\{0\} \quad \Longrightarrow u=v$. ■

