Prerequisites from Linear Algebra

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It is assumed that the reader is familiar with the linear and bilinear algebra from the second year core algebra course. The main 'extra' that is needed is the idea of a quotient vector space; this will be familiar to those who have done B2a algebra, but maybe not to others, so I summarise it below. It will also be useful to know the statement of Jordan normal form. We really only need one result from bilinear algebra, with which I think everyone will be familiar, but it's repeated below just to make sure.

Highly recommended for alternating or additional reading is Halmos' book, *Finite-Dimensional Vector Spaces*.

1 Quotient Spaces and isomorphism theorems

Suppose that W is a subspace of the vector space V. A *coset of* W is a set of the form

$$v + W = \{v + w : w \in W\}.$$

It is important to realise that unless W = 0, each coset will have many different labels; in fact, v + W = v' + W if and only if $v - v' \in W$.

The quotient space V/W is the set of all cosets of W. This becomes a vector space, with zero element 0 + W = W, if addition is defined by

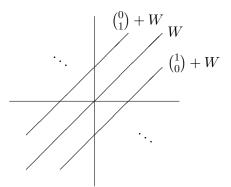
$$(v+W) + (v'+W) = (v+v') + W$$
 for $v, v' \in V$

and scalar multiplication by

$$\lambda(v+W) = \lambda v + W$$
 for $v, v' \in V, \lambda \in F$.

One must check that these operations are *well-defined*; that is, they do not depend on the choice of labelling elements. Suppose for instance that v + W = v' + W. Then, since $v - v' \in W$, we have $\lambda v - \lambda v' \in W$ for any scalar λ , so $\lambda v + W = \lambda v' + W$.

The following diagram shows the elements of \mathbb{R}^2/W , where W is the subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 spanned by $\binom{1}{1}$.



The cosets \mathbb{R}^2/W are all the translations of the line W. One can choose a standard set of coset representatives by picking any line through 0 (other than W) and looking at its intersection points with the cosets of W; this gives a geometric interpretation of the isomorphism $\mathbb{R}^2/W \cong \mathbb{R}$.

It is often useful to consider quotient spaces when attempting a proof by induction on the dimension of a vector space. In this context, it can be useful to know that if v_1, \ldots, v_k are vectors in V such that the cosets v_1+W, \ldots, v_k+W form a basis for the quotient space V/W, then v_1, \ldots, v_k , together with any basis for W, forms a basis for V.

We can now state the isomorphism theorems for vector spaces.

Theorem 1.1. (a) Let V and W be vector spaces and let $x : V \to W$ be a linear map. Then ker x is a subspace of V, im x is a subspace of W, and

 $V/\ker x \cong W.$

Now let U and W be subspaces of V. (b) $(U+W)/W \cong U/(U \cap W)$. (c) The quotient space W/U is a subspace of V/U and $(V/U)/(W/U) \cong V/W$.

Proof. (a) Define a map $\phi: V/\ker x \to \operatorname{im} x$ by

$$\phi(v + \ker x) = x(v).$$

This map is well-defined since if $v + \ker x = v' + \ker x$ then $v - v' \in \ker x$, so $\phi(v + \ker x) = x(v) = x(v') = \phi(v' + \ker x)$. It is routine to check that ϕ is linear, injective, and surjective, so it gives the required isomorphism.

For (b) consider the composite of the inclusion map $U \to U + W$ with the quotient map $U + W \to (U + W)/W$. This gives us a linear map $U \to (U + W)/W$. Under this map, $x \in U$ is sent to $0 \in (U + W)/W$ if and only if $x \in W$, so its kernel is $U \cap W$. Now apply part (a). Part (c) can be proved similarly; we leave this to the reader.

2 Interlude: The Diagonal Fallacy

Consider the following (fallacious) argument. Let V be a 2-dimensional vector space, say with basis v_1, v_2 . Let $x : V \to V$ be the linear map whose matrix with respect to this basis is

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

We claim that if U is an x-invariant subspace of V; that is, $x(U) \subseteq U$, then either U = 0, $U = \text{Span}\{v_1\}$, or U = V. Clearly each of these subspaces is invariant under x, so we only need to prove that there are no others. But since $x(v_2) = v_1$, $\text{Span}\{v_2\}$ is not x-invariant. (QED?)

Here we committed the *diagonal fallacy*: We assumed that an arbitrary subspace of V would contain one of our chosen basis vectors. This assumption is very tempting — which perhaps explains why it is so often made¹ — but it is nonetheless totally unjustified. I suspect one reason why people end up committing this error is that they get confused with a *good* way to use linearity, namely the fact that one can save time and space by only defining a linear map on elements of a given basis.

3 Jordan Normal Form

Let V be a finite-dimensional complex vector space and let $x : V \to V$ be a linear map. The exercise below outlines a proof that one can always find a basis of V in which x is represented by an upper triangular matrix. For many purposes, this result is sufficient. For example, since the eigenvalues of a matrix in upper triangular form are its diagonal entries, it implies that a nilpotent map may be represented by a strictly upper triangular matrix, and so nilpotent maps have trace 0.

Exercise 3.1. Let V be an n-dimensional vector space where $n \ge 1$, and let $x: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear map.

- (i) Show that x has an eigenvector, v say.
- (ii) Let U = Span {v}. Show that x induces a linear transformation x̄ : V/U → V/U. By induction, we know that there exists a basis {v₁ + U...v_{n-1} + U} of V/U in which x̄ has a upper triangular matrix. Prove that {v, v₁,..., v_{n-1}} is a basis of V and that the matrix of x in this basis is upper triangular.

¹The author's personal record is hearing the diagonal fallacy committed in three tutorials in a row, on two different courses. After reading Kafka's *The Penal Colony* an unpalatable but probably highly successful to the problem occured to him. (See marginal diagram.)

Sometimes, however, one needs the full strength of Jordan normal form. A general matrix in Jordan normal form looks like

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & A_r \end{pmatrix},$$

where each A_i is a Jordan block matrix $J_t(\lambda)$ for some $t \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$:

$$J_t(\lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}_{t \times t.}$$

Any linear transformation of a complex vector space can be represented by a matrix in Jordan normal form. One can successfully use Jordan normal form without knowing anything about how to prove this; that said, if you really want a proof you might see www.maths.ox.ac.uk/~wildon/JNF.pdf.

4 Bilinear Algebra

Definition 4.1. A bilinear form on a vector space V is a map

$$(-,-): V \times V \to F$$

such that

$$\begin{aligned} &(\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2, w) = \lambda_1 (v_1, w) + \lambda_2 (v_2, w), \\ &(v, \mu_1 w_1 + \mu_2 w_2) = \mu_1 (v, w_1) + \mu_2 (v, w_2), \end{aligned}$$

for all $v_i, w_i \in V$ and $\lambda_i, \mu_i \in F$.

For example, if $F = \mathbb{R}$ and $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, then the usual dot product is a bilinear form on V.

Given a subset U of a vector space V, we set

$$U^{\perp} = \{ v \in V : (u, v) = 0 \text{ for all } u \in U \}.$$

This is always a subspace of V. We say that the form (-,-) is nondegenerate if $V^{\perp} = \{0\}$.

There is an important connection between bilinear forms and dual spaces. Let $\varphi: V \to V^*$ be the linear map defined by $\varphi(v) = (-, v)$. That is, $\varphi(v)$ is the linear map sending $u \in V$ to (u, v). If (-, -) is non-degenerate, then $\ker \varphi = 0$, so by dimension counting, φ is an isomorphism from V to V^* . Hence every element of V^* is of the form (-, v) for a unique $v \in V$; this is a special case of the *Riesz representation theorem*.