# Axler Algebra Notes, Problems and Solutions 

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## 1 Section 3A

Problem 3.9. Give an example a function $\rho: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that:

$$
\rho(w+z)=\rho(w)+\rho(z)
$$

for all $w, z \in \mathbb{C}$ but is not linear.
Proof. Consider the complex conjugate function with $\rho(x)=\bar{x}$, where for $x=a+b i$, then $\bar{x}=a-b i$. Given complex $x$ and $y$, we will have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \rho(x+y)=\rho\left(\left(a_{1}+i b_{1}\right)+\left(a_{2}+i b_{2}\right)\right)=\rho\left(\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)+\left(b_{1}+b_{2}\right) i\right) \\
& =\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)-\left(b_{1}+b_{2}\right) i=\left(a_{1}-b_{1} i\right)+\left(a_{2}-b_{2} i\right)=\rho(x)+\rho(y)
\end{aligned}
$$

However, this function is not linear, as given some complex $c$ with non-zero real and imaginary components, we know that $c^{2}$ is also imaginary. We also know that $\bar{c} c$ is real. Thus: $\rho\left(c^{2}\right)$ can't be equal to $c \rho(c)=c \bar{c}$. Hence, the function is not linear.

Problem 3.12. If $V$ is finite-dimensional with $\operatorname{dim} V>0$ and $W$ is infinite-dimensional, prove that $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is infinite-dimensional.

Proof. Assume that $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is finite-dimensional. It follows that there exists a basis of the form $V=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$ that span $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$. We also choose a basis $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}$ for $V$, since $\operatorname{dim} V>0$. For each $w \in W$, consider the linear map $f_{w}$ that takes $m_{1}$ to $w$, and all other $m_{i}$ to 0 . Since $V$ is a basis, we must have:

$$
f_{w}\left(m_{1}\right)=a_{1} v_{1}\left(m_{1}\right)+\cdots+a_{n} v_{n}\left(m_{1}\right)=w
$$

for some choice of coefficients. It follows that $v_{1}\left(m_{1}\right), \ldots, v_{n}\left(m_{1}\right)$ forms a basis for $W$, a contradiction to the fact that $W$ is infinite-dimensional

Problem 3.14. Suppose that $V$ is finite dimensional with $\operatorname{dim} V \geq 2$. Prove that there exist $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V, V)$ such that $S T \neq T S$.

Proof. Since linear maps can be explicitly defined as how they map basis vectors we first choose a basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ of $V$. We define $S$ to be the operator that sends $v_{1}$ to $v_{n}$ and $v_{n}$ to $v_{1}$, with all other $v_{k}$ being sent to themselves, and $T$ to be the operator that sends $v_{1}$ to 0 , and all other basis vectors to themself.

Clearly, $S T\left(v_{1}\right)=0$ and $T S\left(v_{1}\right)=v_{n}$. Since $n \geq 2$, these vectors are distinct. Thus $S T \neq T S$.

## 2 Section 3B

Problem 3.12. Suppose that $V$ is finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Prove that there exists a subspace $U$ of $V$ such that $U \cap$ null $T=\{0\}$ and range $T=\{T u: u \in U\}$.

Proof. Let us consider a basis $B$ of null $T$. We then choose some basis $B^{\prime}$ of $V$, which, by rank-nullity theorem, will have cardinality greater than or equal to $B$. We use $B$ to extend $B^{\prime}$ to a basis $C$ of $V$ (which we can do, as each $B^{\prime}$ is linearly independent).

Let $U=\operatorname{span}\left(C-B^{\prime}\right)$ (linear combinations of the elements in the new basis that are not in $\left.B^{\prime}\right)$. We assert that this is the $U$ that satisfies these conditions.

Firstly, it is clear that $U$ and null $T$ contain the zero vector. In addition, if there were some non-zero vector $v$ in $U$ and null $T$, this would imply that there exist coefficients such that:

$$
v=a_{1} u_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} u_{n}=b_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+b_{m} v_{m}
$$

where $u_{i} \in U$ and $v_{i} \in B^{\prime}$. We know that $U \cup B^{\prime}$ forms a basis for $V$, so the above equation implies that:

$$
a_{j} u_{j}=b_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+b_{m} v_{m}-a_{1} u_{1}+\cdots+a_{j-1} v_{j-1}-a_{j+1} v_{j+1}+\cdots+a_{n} u_{n}
$$

where we know that at least one $a_{i}$ (namely $a_{j}$ ) is non-zero, and at least one $b_{i}$ is non-zero to conclude that the existence of $v$ violates the linear independence of $U \cup B^{\prime}$.

Clearly, $\{T u: u \in U\} \subset$ range $T$. In addition, we pick some $T(x) \in$ range $T$. We have:

$$
x=a_{1} u_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} u_{n}+b_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+b_{m} v_{m}
$$

as $U \cup B^{\prime}$ is a basis for $V$. We then get:

$$
T(x)=T\left(a_{1} u_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} u_{n}\right)+T\left(b_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+b_{m} v_{m}\right)=T\left(a_{1} u_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} u_{n}\right)=T(u)
$$

where $u \in U$. Thus, range $T \subset\{T u: u \in U\}$. We have inclusion both ways, so $\{T u: u \in U\}=$ range $T$. This completes the proof.

Problem 3.19. Suppose that $V$ and $W$ are finite dimensional and $U$ is a subspace of $V$. Prove that there exists $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ such that null $T=U$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim} U \geq \operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} W$.

Proof. First, assume that exists such a $T$. From rank-nullity theorem, we have:

$$
\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} \text { range } T+\operatorname{dim} \text { null } T=\operatorname{dim} \text { range } T+\operatorname{dim} U \leq \operatorname{dim} W+\operatorname{dim} U
$$

which clearly implies that $\operatorname{dim} U \geq \operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} W$. Conversely, assume that $\operatorname{dim} U \geq \operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} W$. Consider the basis $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ of $U$. We extend this to a basis for $V$ by adding vectors $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m}$.

We define $T$ to be the map that takes each $u_{k}$ to 0 . We define a basis for $W$, which we label $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{r}$. We know that $\operatorname{dim} W \geq \operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} U$, which is equal to the number of vectors $v_{k}$. Thus, we are able to assign each $v_{k}$ to some vector $w_{s}$ of the basis for $W$.

We have assigned values to each basis vector of $V$, which means that $T$ is linear. In addition, it is clear that null $T=U$.

Problem 3.26. Suppose $D \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}), \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}))$ is such that $\operatorname{deg} D p=(\operatorname{deg} p)-1$ for every nonconstant polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. Prove that $D$ is surjective.

Proof. Consider some $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ such that the degree of $p$ is $n$. Consider the subset $\left\{x^{n+1}, x^{n}, \ldots, x\right\}$ of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$. We map each of these terms under $D$ to get the set $B=\left\{D\left(x^{n+1}, D\left(x^{n}\right), \ldots, D(x)\right\}\right.$.

The $k$-th elements of this list will be a polynomial of degree $n+1-k$. It is easy to check that such a list is linearly independent: we complete the redundancy-removal procedure, starting at $D(x)$, noting that for each $D\left(x^{k}\right)$, we cannot write $D\left(x^{k}\right)$ as a sum of the polynomials $\left\{D\left(x^{k-1}, \ldots, D(x)\right\}\right.$ as $D\left(x^{k}\right)$ contains a term of degree $n+1-k$, which none of the other elements posses.

It follows that the elements of $B$ are linearly independent. Let us consider the subspace $V_{n} \subset \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ of all polynomials of degree $n$. Clearly, such a space will have degree $n+1$. It is also clear that each element of $B$ is in $V_{n}$. Thus, $B$ is a linearly independent list of length $n+1$ contained in $V_{n}$. It follows that $B$ is a basis for $V_{n}$.

Thus, for the $p$ that we considered initially, we can write:

$$
p=c_{1} D(x)+\cdots+c_{n+1} D\left(x^{n+1}\right)=D\left(c_{1} x+\cdots c_{n+1} x^{n+1}\right)
$$

Therefore, $p$ can be written asd the image of some element of $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ and the map $D$ is surjective.

Problem 3.29. Suppose $\phi \in \mathcal{L}(V, \mathbb{F})$. Suppose that $u \in V$ is not in null $\phi$. Prove that:

$$
V=\operatorname{null} \phi \oplus\{a u: a \in \mathbb{F}\}
$$

Proof. In the case that $\phi$ is the trivial map, the null space of $\phi$ is all $V$ and the theorem is proved.
In the case that $\phi$ is not the trivial map, we know from rank-nullity theorem that:

$$
\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} \text { null } \phi+\operatorname{dim} \text { range } \phi
$$

However, it is clear that range $\phi=\mathbb{F}$, so $\operatorname{dim}$ range $\phi=\operatorname{dim} \mathbb{F}=1$. This implies that:

$$
\operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} \text { null } \phi=1
$$

Now, we know that given some $V$, and a subspace $U$ of $V$, there exists some $U^{\prime}$ such that $V=U \oplus U^{\prime}$. We let $U=$ null $\phi$. Since the sum of these subspaces is direct, it follows that:

$$
\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} \text { null } \phi+\operatorname{dim} U^{\prime} \Rightarrow \operatorname{dim} U^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} \text { null } \phi=1
$$

where we used the equation above. Thus, $U^{\prime}$ must be a one-dimensional subspace. All one dimensional subspaces of some vector space $V$ are all multiples of a single vector, $u$. In addition, since the sum of $U^{\prime}$ and the null space is direct, this vector cannot be in null $\phi$. Therefore:

$$
U^{\prime}=\{a u: a \in \mathbb{F}\}
$$

and:

$$
V=\operatorname{null} \phi \oplus\{a u: a \in \mathbb{F}\}
$$

for some $u \in V$.
Now, the last thing we have to show is that $U^{\prime}$ can be multiples of any vector not in the null-space (not just $u$ ). Given some $v \in V$, we will have, from above:

$$
v=n+a u
$$

for some $n$ in the null space. Given some $w$ also not in the null space, we choose $c$ such that $a \phi(u)-c \phi(w)=0$, which we can do as we know that both $\phi(u)$ and $\phi(w)$ are non-zero. Thus:

$$
n+a u=(n+a u-c w)+c w=m+c w
$$

where $m$ is in the null space. We prove inclusion the other way in a similar fashion, implying that:

$$
\text { null } \phi \oplus=\{a u: a \in \mathbb{F}\}=\text { null } \phi \oplus=\{a w: a \in \mathbb{F}\}
$$

Therefore, we are able to conclude that:

$$
V=\operatorname{null} \phi \oplus\{a u: a \in \mathbb{F}\}
$$

for any $u$ not in the null space.

Problem 3.30. Suppose $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ are linear maps from $V$ to $\mathbb{F}$ that have the same null space. Show that there exists some $c \in \mathbb{F}$ such that $\phi_{1}=c \phi_{2}$.

Proof. Using the previous result, we can write $V$ as the sum:

$$
V=\text { null } \phi_{1} \oplus\{a u: u \in \mathbb{F}\}=\text { null } \phi_{2} \oplus\{a u: u \in \mathbb{F}\}
$$

Let us pick some $v \in V$. We will have $v=n+a u$ where $n$ is in the null-space of both maps. We will have:

$$
\phi_{1}(v)=\phi_{1}(n+a u)=\phi_{1}(n)+a \phi_{1}(u)
$$

We then choose some $c$ such that $\phi_{1}(u)=c \phi_{2}(u)$, which we can do as both $\phi_{1}(u)$ and $\phi_{2}(u)$ are non-zero. In addition, we will have: $\phi_{1}(n)=\phi_{2}(n)=0$, as both maps have the same null-space. We note that $c \phi_{2}(n)=\phi_{2}(n)$. Thus, we will have:

$$
\phi_{1}(n)+a \phi_{1}(u)=c \phi_{2}(n)+c \phi_{2}(a u)=c \phi_{2}(n+a u)=c \phi_{2}(v)
$$

This completes the proof.

## 3 Section 3C

Problem 3.6. Suppose that $V$ and $W$ are finite-dimensional and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$. Prove that if $\operatorname{dim}$ range $T=1$ if and only if there exists a basis of $V$ and a basis of $W$ such that with respect to these bases, all entires of $\mathcal{M}(T)$ are equal to 1 .

Proof. Clearly, if there are bases of $V$ and $W$ such that $\mathcal{M}(T)$ has ones in all entries, then each basis vector in the chosen basis will get mapped to the sum of all the chosen basis vectors of $W$, which we call $w$. It follows that range $T=\operatorname{span}(w)$, implying that the dimension of the range of $T$ is 1 .

Conversely, assume that dim range $T=1$. From rank-nullity theorem, it follows that $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{null} T=$ $n-1$, where $n$ is the dimension of $V$. Since the dimension of the range is 1 . There must exist some vector $v$ of $V$ such that $T(v)=w$, where $w \neq \mathbf{0}$. We choose a basis $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}$ of $W$, which means that:

$$
w=a_{1} w_{1}+\cdots+a_{m} w_{m}
$$

We let the set $\left\{a_{1} w_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} w_{m}\right\}$ be a basis for $W$, and denote the $k$-th element of the basis $w_{k}^{\prime}$. Now, consider some basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ for the null space of $T$. The set of vectors $\left\{v+v_{0}, v+v_{1}, \ldots, v+v_{n-1}\right\}$ (where $v_{0}=\mathbf{0}$ ) will clearly be a basis for $V$, as each vector in the $n$-element set is linearly independent. We denote the $k+1$-th element of this basis $v_{k}^{\prime}$.

Now, consider $T$ acting upon some basis vector:

$$
T\left(v_{k}^{\prime}\right)=T(v)+T\left(v_{0}\right)=w=w_{1}^{\prime}+\cdots+w_{m}^{\prime}
$$

So in the primed bases, each element of $\mathcal{M}(T)$ is 1 , by definition.

## 4 Section 3D

Problem 3.17. Suppose $V$ is finite-dimensional and $\mathcal{E}$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{L}(V)$ such that $S T \in \mathcal{E}$ and $T S \in \mathcal{E}$ for all $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ and all $T \in \mathcal{E}$. Prove that $\mathcal{E}=\{\mathbf{0}\}$ or $\mathcal{E}=\mathcal{L}(V)$.

Proof. Clearly, $\mathcal{E}$ can be the trivial subspace.

Now, consider what happens when we assume that there is some non-zero $T \in \mathcal{E}$. It follows that there must exist some $v \in V$ such that $T(v)=w_{1}$, where $w_{1}$ is non-zero. Extending $w_{1}$ to a basis for $V$, we get the set $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}$.

We let $S_{1}^{k}$ be the map that takes $w_{k}$ to $v$ and all other basis elements to 0 . We let $S_{2}^{k}$ be the map that takes $w_{1}$ to $w_{k}$, and all other basis elements to 0 . It follows that the map $T S_{1}^{k}$ takes $w_{k}$ to $w_{1}$, and all other basis vectors to 0 , and is in $\mathcal{E}$. We can then conclude that $S_{2}^{r} T S_{1}^{k}$ is also in $\mathcal{E}$, and is the map that takes $w_{k}$ to $w_{r}$, and all other basis elements to 0 .

Clearly, any map from $V$ to $V$ can be written as a linear combination of maps of the form $S_{2}^{r} T S_{1}^{k}$. Since $\mathcal{E}$ is a subspace, all such linear combinations are in $\mathcal{E}$. This implies that $\mathcal{E}=\mathcal{L}(V)$.

It follows that $\mathcal{E}$ is either trivial, or the whole space $\mathcal{L}(V)$.

## 5 Section 3E

Problem 3.7. If $x, v \in V$ and $U, W$ are subspaces of $V$, such that $v+U=x+W$, then $U=W$
Proof. Clearly, $v \in v+U$. It follows that $v=x+w$, for some $w \in W$. We then have $v-x=w$, so $v-x \in W$.

Now, consider $u \in U$. We will have $v+u=x+w^{\prime} \Rightarrow u=x-v+w^{\prime}=w^{\prime}-(v-x)=w^{\prime}-w$, so $u \in W$. Proving this each $w \in W$ is in $U$ is identical. Thus, we have inclusion both ways, so $U=W$.

Problem 3.18. Suppose that $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ and $U$ is a subspace of $V$. Let $\pi$ denote the quotient map from $V$ onto $V / U$. Prove that there exists $S \in \mathcal{L}(V / U, W)$ such that $T=S \circ \pi$ if and only if $U \subset$ null $T$.

Proof. Assume that there exists $S$ such that $T=S \circ \pi$. Let us pick some $u \in U$. We note that $T u=(S \circ \pi)(u)=S([u])=S([0])=0$, so $U \subset$ null $T$.

Assume that $U \subset$ null $T$. Since $U$ is a subspace of the null space, it follows that for $u \in U$, we have $T(u)=0$. Thus, given $w$ and $v$ in $V$ such that $\pi(w)=\pi(v)$, we can notice that $w-v \in U$, by definition of the quotient space, so

$$
T(w-v)=T(w)-T(v)=0 \Rightarrow T(w)=T(v)
$$

Thus, we define $S$ to be the map that takes $[v]$ in the quotient space to $T(v)$ in $W$. Such a map is well defined as if $[v]=[w]$, then $S([w])=T(w)=T(v)=S([v])$. Clearly, such a map is linear, as:

$$
S([w]+[v])=S([w+v])=T(w+v)=T(w)+T(v)=S([w])+S([v])
$$

and:

$$
\lambda S([w])=\lambda T(w)=T(\lambda w)=S([\lambda w])=S(\lambda[w])
$$

and the proof is complete.

## 6 Section 3F

Proposition 1. Let $U^{0}$ be the annihiltor of $U$ as a subspace of $V$. It follows that:

$$
\operatorname{dim} U^{0}+\operatorname{dim} U=\operatorname{dim} V
$$

Proof. We attempt to prove this in the language of linear functionals.
We know that $V^{\prime}$ is the space of functionals from $V$ to $\mathbb{F}$. We know that $U$ is a subspace of $V$, so it follows that we can choose a basis $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ of $U$, then extend it to a basis for $V$ by adding vector $v_{n+1}, \ldots, v_{m}$.

Using this basis, we can define the dual basis on $V^{\prime}$ of the elements $\phi_{i}\left(v_{k}\right)$ for $v_{k}$ in the basis of $V$.
We define a linear map $T: V^{\prime} \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ which takes the basis element $\phi_{i}$ to itself if $1 \leq i \leq n$ (so the corresponding $v_{i}$ is in $U$ ), and to 0 otherwise.

We assert that null $T=U^{0}$. Let us pick some $\phi \in$ null $T$. We will have:

$$
T\left(a_{1} \phi_{1}+\cdots+a_{m} \phi_{m}\right)=a_{1} \phi_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} \phi_{n}=0
$$

Since each element of the dual basis is linearly independent, all $a_{k}$ must be 0 , thus, $\phi$ is a linear combination of the $\phi_{k}$ basis elements for $k \geq n+1$. It follows that $\phi(u)=0$ for all $u \in U$,
as $u$ is a linear combination of exclusively the basis elements $v_{k}$ from $k=1$ to $k=n$. Thus, $\phi$ is in $U^{0}$.
Now, if $\phi \in U^{0}$, it follows that $\phi(u)=0$ for all $u \in U$, so we will have:

$$
T(\phi)=a_{1} T\left(\phi_{1}\right)+\cdots a_{m} T\left(\phi_{m}\right)=a_{1} \phi_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} \phi_{n}
$$

Now, given some $v_{k}$ for $k$ between 1 and $n$, we will have:

$$
\left(a_{1} \phi_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} \phi_{n}\right)\left(v_{k}\right)=a_{k} \phi_{k}\left(v_{k}\right)=a_{k}=0
$$

so each $a_{k}$ is equal to 0 , implying that $T(\phi)$ is the zero map, so $\phi$ is in the null space. Thus, $U^{0}=$ null $T$.

Finally, using the fundmanetal theorem of linear maps:

$$
\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{range}(T)+\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{null}(T)=\operatorname{dim} U^{\prime}+\operatorname{dim} U^{0}
$$

But we know that $\operatorname{dim} V^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} V$ and $\operatorname{dim} U^{\prime}=\operatorname{dim} U$, so:

$$
\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} U+\operatorname{dim} U^{0}
$$

Problem 3.36. Suppose $U$ is a subspace of $V$. Let $i: U \rightarrow V$ be the inclusion map defined by $i(u)=u$. Thus, $i^{\prime} \in \mathcal{L}\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$.

Show that null $i^{\prime}=U^{0}$
Proof. By definition, $i^{\prime}(\rho)=i \circ \rho$. Thus, the null space of $i$ will be all $\rho$ such that $\rho \circ i$ is the 0 map. Clearly, if $u \in U$, then $i(u)=u$, so we must then have $\rho(u)=0$ for all $u \in U$. Thus, $\rho$ is in $U^{0}$. Recall that $U^{0}$ is the set of all $\rho$ such that $\rho(u)=0$ for all $u \in U$. It follows that $(\rho \circ i)(u)=\rho(u)=0$ for all $u \in U$, so $\rho$ is in the null space. Thus, the two sets are equal.

Prove that if $V$ is finite-dimensional, then range $i^{\prime}=U^{\prime}$.
Proof. range $i^{\prime}$ is the set of all $\rho \circ i$. Clearly, this will be a map from $U$ to $\mathbb{F}$, so it follows that $\rho \circ i$ is in $U^{\prime}$.

Conversely, consider some $\rho \in U^{\prime}$. We define $\gamma$ to be the map that takes $u$ to $\rho(u)$ if $u \in U$ and 0 otherwise. Since $U$ is a subspace, it is easy to verify that such a map is linear. Clearly $\gamma \circ i$ will be equal to $\rho$. Thus, $\rho$ is in the range of $i^{\prime}$.

It follows that the two sets are equal.
Prove that if $V$ is finite dimensional, then $\tilde{i^{\prime}}$ is an isomorphism from $V^{\prime} / U^{0}$ onto $U^{\prime}$
Proof. Recall the definition of the "tilded" operator, which is a map from $V /($ null $T)$ to $W$ defined by $T(v+\operatorname{null} T)=T v$.

We prove first that $\tilde{T}$ is an isomorphism from $V /($ null $T)$ to range $T$. First, it is easy to see that such a map is surjective. Now assume that $\tilde{T}(v+\operatorname{null} T)=T(v)=0$. Thus, $v \in$ null $T$, so $v+$ null $T=0+$ null $T$. It follows that $v+$ null is the zero vector of the space. Thus, the null space of $\tilde{T}$ is trivial, so it is injective.

From the above results, $U^{0}=$ null $i^{\prime}$ and $U^{\prime}=$ range $i^{\prime}$, so it follows immediately that $\tilde{i}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism.

Problem 3.37. Suppose $U$ is a subspace of $v$. Let $\pi: V \rightarrow V / U$ be the usual quotient map. Thus, $\pi^{\prime} \in \mathcal{L}^{\prime}\left((V / U)^{\prime}, V^{\prime}\right)$.

Show that $\pi^{\prime}$ is injective.

Proof. Assume that $\pi^{\prime}(\rho)=\rho \circ \pi=0$. Assume that $\rho$ is not the 0 map, so there exists some $v+U$ such that $\rho(v+U) \neq 0$. It then follows that $(\rho \circ \pi)(v)=\rho(v+U) \neq 0$, so $\rho \circ \pi$ is not the zero map. Thus, $\rho$ must be the the zero map. It follows that the null space of $\pi^{\prime}$ is trivial, so it is injective.
Show that rangen $\pi^{\prime}=U^{0}$
Pick some $\rho \circ \pi$ is the range of $\pi^{\prime}$. Let us pick some $u \in U$. It follows that:

$$
(\rho \circ \pi)(u)=\rho(u+U)=\rho(0+U)=0
$$

as the zero vector must get mapped to the zero vector. Thus, $\rho \circ \pi$ is in $U^{0}$.
Conversely, consider some $\rho$ in $U^{0}$.

## $7 \quad$ Section 5A

Proposition 2. Given a set of $m$ distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{m}$, along with a set of corresponding eigenvectors $V=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m}\right\}$, the set $V$ is linearly independent.
Proof. We will prove this proposition by induction. Clearly, this will be true in the case of one eigenvalue, $\lambda$. Assume that it holds true given $n$ eigenvalues. We prove it holds true for $n+1$.
Consider the set of eigenvalues $\left\{\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n+1}\right\}$ with corresponding eigenvectors $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n+1}\right\}$. Assume that there is a non-trivial linear combination:

$$
a_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} v_{n}+a_{n+1} v_{n+1}=0
$$

Note that since eigenvectors are non-zero, for this non-trivial linear combination to be 0 , we must have at least two $a_{i}$ not equal to 0 otherwise we would have $a_{k} v_{k}=0$, for non-zero $a_{k}$, which can't be the case. It follows that at least one $a_{i}$ with $1 \leq i \leq n$ is non-zero.
We define the linear operator $\left(T-\lambda_{n+1} I\right)$. We then have:

$$
\left(T-\lambda_{i} I\right)\left(a_{1} v_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} v_{n}+a_{n+1} v_{n+1}\right)=\sum_{k \neq n+1} a_{k}\left(\lambda_{k}-\lambda_{n+1}\right) v_{k}=0
$$

But since all eigenvalues are unique, we must have $\lambda_{k}-\lambda_{n+1} \neq 0$. In addition, it least one $a_{i}$ in this sum is non-zero. Thus, we have found a non-trivial linear combination of $n$ eigenvectors that yields the zero vector, a contradiction to the inductive hypothesis.

It follows that the set $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n+1}\right\}$ is linearly independent and the proof is complete.

Problem 5.28. Suppose $V$ is finite-dimensional with $\operatorname{dim} V \geq 3$ and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ is such that every 2-dimensional subspace of $V$ is invariant under $T$. Prove that $T$ is a scalar multiple of the identity operator.

Proof. Consider some $v \in V$. Since the dimension of $V$ is greater than or equal to 3 , we can also choose two other vectors, $w$ and $z$ that form a linearly independent set $\{v, w, z\}$. We consider the two-dimensional subspaces $A=\operatorname{span}(v, w)$ and $B=\operatorname{span}(v, z)$. We know that $A$ is invariant, so it follows that $T v=a v+b w$, but we know that $B$ is also invariant, so $T v=c v+d z$. This implies that:

$$
(c-a) v+d z-b w=0
$$

and since these vectors are linearly independent, we have $d=b=0$, so it follows that $v$ is sent to a multiple of itself.

Now, we pick linearly independent $v$ and $w$ in $V$ such that $T v=a v$ and $T w=b w$. We will have:

$$
T(v+w)=c(v+w)=T(v)+T(w)=a v+b w
$$

so since $v$ and $w$ are linearly independent, it follows that $c=a=b$, so $T v=c v$ and $T w=c w$. Thus, $T$ is a scalar multiple of the identity map and the proof is complete.

Problem 5.35. Suppose $V$ is finite-dimnensional, $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$, and $U$ is invariant under $T$. Prove that each eigenvalue of $T / U$ is an eigenvalue of $T$.

Proof. Let us assume that we have $\lambda$ such that there exists $v+U$ where $(T / U)(v+U)=T(v)+U=$ $\lambda v+U$. This implies that $T v-\lambda v \in U$.

Assume that
To do this, it is enough to show that the map $T-\lambda I$ is not surjective.

## 8 Section 5C

Problem 5.5. Suppose that $V$ is a finite-dimensional vector space and $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$. Prove that $T$ is diagonalizable if and only if:

$$
V=\operatorname{null}(T-\lambda I) \oplus \operatorname{range}(T-\lambda I)
$$

for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
Proof. First, consider the case where $V=\operatorname{null}\left(T-\lambda_{k} I\right) \oplus \operatorname{range}\left(T-\lambda_{k} I\right)$. It follows that:

$$
V=E\left(\lambda_{1}, T\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus E\left(\lambda_{m}, T\right)
$$

Let us pick $v \in \bigoplus_{i \neq k} E\left(\lambda_{i}, T\right)$

