Lecture 22: Vector Space Isomorphisms

Math 3013 Oklahoma State University

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Agenda

1. Linear Transformations and Their Associated Subspaces

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- 2. Invertibility of Linear Transformations
- 3. Vector Space Isomorphisms
- 4. General Vector Spaces

Review: Linear Transformations and Matrices

A linear transformation is a function $T : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ between two vector spaces such that

(i)
$$T(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda T(\mathbf{x})$$
 for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, and all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$
(ii) $T(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = T(\mathbf{x}_1) + T(\mathbf{x}_2)$ for all $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^m$

Linear Transformations \iff Matrices :

▶ $n \times m$ matrix $\mathbf{A} \implies$ linear transformation $T_{\mathbf{A}} : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$T_{\mathsf{A}}\left(\mathsf{x}
ight)\equiv\mathsf{A}\mathsf{x}$$

• Linear transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n \Longrightarrow n \times m$ matrix \mathbf{A}_T

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathcal{T}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \cdots & \uparrow \\ \mathcal{T}\left(\mathbf{e}_{1}\right) & \cdots & \mathcal{T}\left(\mathbf{e}_{m}\right) \\ \downarrow & \cdots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix}$$

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Range and Kernel of a Linear Transformation $\mathcal{T}: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{Range}\left(T \right) &\equiv& \{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \mathbf{y} = T\left(\mathbf{x} \right) \textit{ for some } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \} \\ &\approx& \textit{ColSp}\left(\mathbf{A}_{T} \right) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{Ker}\left(T\right) &\equiv& \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{m} \mid T\left(\mathbf{x}\right) = 0\} \\ &\approx& \textit{NullSp}\left(\mathbf{A}_{T}\right) \\ &\equiv& \text{solution set of } \mathbf{A}_{T}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \end{array}$$

The Dimensions of Range(T) and Ker(T)Recall

Theorem If **A** is an $n \times m$ matrix

$$\#$$
columns of $oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}=\mathsf{Rank}\left(oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}
ight)+\mathsf{Nullity}\left(oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}
ight)$

where

$$Rank (\mathbf{A}) = \dim (RowSp(\mathbf{A})) = \dim (ColSp(\mathbf{A}))$$
$$= # (columns with pivots in any R.E.F. of \mathbf{A})$$

and

$$Nullity(\mathbf{A}) = \dim(NullSp(\mathbf{A}))$$

- = dim (solution set of Ax = 0)
- = # (free parameters in general solution)
- = #(columns without pivots in any R.E.F. of **A**)

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Dimension Formula for Subspaces attached to a Linear Transformation

Theorem If $T : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear transformation, then

$$m = \dim(Range(T)) + \dim(Kernel(T))$$

Proof Let \mathbf{A}_T be the $n \times m$ matrix attached to $T : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$m = \# (\text{columns of } \mathbf{A}_{T})$$

= $\# (\text{columns of any R.E.F. of } \mathbf{A}_{T} \text{ with pivots})$
+ $\# (\text{columns any R.E.F. of } \mathbf{A}_{T} \text{ without pivots})$
= $\dim (ColSp(\mathbf{A}_{T})) + \dim (NullSp(\mathbf{A}_{T}))$

 $= \dim (Range(T)) + \dim (Kernel(T))$

Vector Spaces over ${\mathbb R}$

Definition

A vector space over \mathbb{R} is a set V for which the following operations are defined

- scalar multiplication: for every λ ∈ ℝ and v ∈ V we have a map (λ, v) → λv ∈ V.
- ► vector addition: for every pair of vectors u, v ∈ V we have a map (u, v) → u + v ∈ V

It is also necessary that these operations of vector addition and scalar multiplication together satisfy 8 axioms.

Vector Space Axioms

- 1. $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ (associativity of vector addition)
- 2. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$ (commutativity of vector addition)
- There exists an element 0 ∈ V such that v + 0 = v for all v ∈ V. (additive identity.)
- 4. For each $\mathbf{v} \in V$ there exists an element $-\mathbf{v} \in V$ such that $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$. (additive inverses)
- 5. $\lambda (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \lambda \mathbf{u} + \lambda \mathbf{v}$ (distributivity of scalar multipliciation over vector addition).
- 6. $(\lambda + \mu) \mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v} + \mu \mathbf{v}$. (distributivity of scalar multiplication over addition of scalars)
- 7. $\lambda(\mu \mathbf{v}) = (\lambda \mu) \mathbf{v}$ (scalar multiplication preserves associativity of multiplication in \mathbb{R} .)
- 8. $(1)\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ (preservation of scale).

Examples of Vector Spaces over $\mathbb R$

To show that a set V is a vector space one has to state explicit rules defining

- (i) scalar multiplication in $V: *_V : V \times \mathbb{R} \to V$
- (ii) vector addition in $V : +_V : V \times V \rightarrow V$
- (iii) the zero vector $\mathbf{0}_V$ in V: $\mathbf{0}_V + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$

and then verify that all 8 axioms are then satisfied by virtue of the explicit rules for (i), (ii), and (iii).

Example 1. $V = \mathbb{R}^n = \{ [x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R} \}$

- scalar multiplication : $\lambda [x_1, \dots, x_n] \equiv [\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n]$
- vector addition : [x₁,...,x_n] + [y₁,...,y_n] = [x₁ + y₁,...,x_n + y_n]
 zero vector : 0 = [0,...,0]

Example 2. Subspaces

Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Since V is closed under both scalar multiplication and vector addition

$$\blacktriangleright \ \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \ , \ \mathbf{v} \in V \quad \Longrightarrow \quad (\lambda \mathbf{v}) \in V,$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 \in V$$

one obtains rules for scalar multiplication and vector addition in V by restricting operations of scalar multiplication and vector addition in \mathbb{R}^n to V:

Furthermore, one can use $\mathbf{0}_{\mathbb{R}^n} \in V$ as the zero-vector $\mathbf{0}_V$ of V. With $*_V$, $+_V$, and $\mathbf{0}_V$ so defined, all 8 axiom are satisfied, and so any subspace of \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Example 3. $V = \{ \text{ functions } f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \}$

- scalar multiplication : $(\lambda f)(x) = \lambda f(x)$
- vector addition : (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)
- ▶ zero vector : $\mathbf{0}$ = the function f_0 defined by $f_0(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

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Example 4. $V = \{$ vibrational modes of a stretched string $\}$

► scalar multiplication : changing the amplitude of vibrations by a factor |λ| and also reversing the phase of a vibration if λ < 0.</p>

- vector addition: superimposing vibrational modes (like harmonics)
- zero vector : 0 = the string at rest

Example 5. $V = \{ \text{polynomials of degree } n \}$

 scalar multiplication : λ (a_nxⁿ + ··· + a₁x + a₀) = λa_nxⁿ + ··· + λa₁x + λa₀

 vector addition : (a_nxⁿ + ··· + a₀) + (b_nxⁿ + ··· + b₀) = (a_n+b_n)xⁿ + ··· + (a₀+b₀)

 zero vector : the zero polynomial (all coefficients = 0).

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Working with General Vector Spaces

From now on we shall think of the vector space \mathbb{R}^n as a special case of these more general vector spaces over \mathbb{R} .

Yet, \mathbb{R}^n shall remain fundamental, since it will continue to provide the concrete computational platform for general linear algebra.

I will show you how computations for general vector spaces are carried out a little latter in this lecture.

First, however, I want to show how that the definitions and structural results we had the vector space \mathbb{R}^n extend to these more general vector spaces by simply replacing the vector space \mathbb{R}^n with a general vector space V over \mathbb{R} .

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Revised Definitions

Definition

A **subspace** of a general vector space V is a subset $W \subset V$ that is closed under both the operations of scalar multiplication and vector addition:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \lambda \in \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{w} \in w & \Longrightarrow & \lambda \mathbf{w} \in W \\ \mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2 \in W & \Longrightarrow & \mathbf{w}_1 + \mathbf{w}_2 \in W \end{array}$$

Definition

The **span** of a set of vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k$ in a general vector space V is the subspace of V generated by these vectors:

$$span(\mathbf{v}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{v}_k)\equiv\{c_1\mathbf{v}_1+\cdots+c_k\mathbf{v}_k\mid c_1,\ldots c_k\in\mathbb{R}\}$$

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Definition

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ in a general vector space V are **linearly independent** if

$$x_1\mathbf{v}_1+\cdots+x_k\mathbf{v}_k=\mathbf{0}_V\quad\Longleftrightarrow\quad x_1=0,\ldots,x_k=0$$

Definition

A **basis** for a subspace W of a general vector space V is a set of vectors $\{\mathbf{w}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_k\}$ such that

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$$\blacktriangleright W = span(\mathbf{w}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_k)$$

Theorem

Every vector space has a basis.

Every basis for a vector space has the same number of vectors

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Definition

The **dimension** of a vector space V is the number of vectors in any basis for V.

Definition

A **linear transformation** between two vector spaces V and W is a function $T: V \to W$ such that

$$T (\lambda \mathbf{v}) = \lambda T (\mathbf{v})$$

$$T (\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = T (\mathbf{v}_1) + T (\mathbf{v}_2)$$

Definition

The **range** of a linear transformation $T: V \rightarrow W$ is the subspace of W defined by

$$Range(T) \equiv \{ \mathbf{w} \in W \mid \mathbf{w} = T(\mathbf{v}) \text{ for some } \mathbf{v} \in V \}$$

Definition

The **kernel** of a linear transformation $T: V \rightarrow W$ is the subspace of V defined by

$$Kernel(T) = \{ \mathbf{v} \in V \mid T(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}_V \}$$

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Vector Spaces Isomorphisms

Definition

A linear transformation $T: V \to W$ is an **isomorphism** if there exists a linear transformation $T^{-1}: W \to V$ such that

$$egin{array}{rll} T^{-1}\left(\left. T\left(\mathbf{v}
ight)
ight) &=& \mathbf{v} &, & orall \mathbf{v} \in V; \ T\left(\left. T^{-1}\left(\mathbf{w}
ight)
ight) &=& \mathbf{w} &, & orall \mathbf{w} \in W \end{array}$$

Theorem

A linear transformation $T: V \to W$ is an isomorphism if and only if

(i)
$$Range(T) = W$$
, and

(ii) Kernel(T) = { $\mathbf{0}_V$ }

Finite Dimensional Vector Spaces

In this course, we restrict our attention to finite-dimensional vector spaces.

Here is a fundamental result concerning finite dimensional vector spaces:

Theorem

Every finite dimensional vector space V is isomorphic to some \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof. Let $B = {\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n}$ be a basis for a vector space V.

I'll now establish an invertible linear transformation $i_B: V \to \mathbb{R}^n$.

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Proof, Cont'd

Because *B* is a basis for *V*, every vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$ has a unique expression as

$$\mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n \tag{(*)}$$

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For any $\mathbf{v} \in V$, we define $i_B : V \to \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$i_B(c_1\mathbf{b}_1+\cdots+c_n\mathbf{b}_n)\equiv [c_1,\ldots,c_n]\in\mathbb{R}^n$$

(the numbers c_1, \ldots, c_n being uniquely determined by the expansion (*)). Clearly, $Range(i_B) = \mathbb{R}^n$, since we can reach any vector $[x_1, \ldots, x_n] \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by applying i_B to the vector $\mathbf{v} = x_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + x_n \mathbf{b}_n \in V$

Proof, Cont'd

It is also clear that

$$i_B(c_1\mathbf{b}_1+\cdots+c_n\mathbf{b}_n)=[0,\ldots,0]\in\mathbb{R}^n \implies c_1=0,\ldots,c_n=0$$

and so

Kernel
$$(i_B) = \{\mathbf{0}_V\}$$

Since

(i) Range
$$(i_B) = \mathbb{R}^n$$
,
(ii) Kernel $(i_B) = \{\mathbf{0}_V\}$

Thus, $i_B : V \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is an isomorphism and so V and \mathbb{R}^n are isomorphic.

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Coordinatizing General Vector Spaces

Unlike \mathbb{R}^n which comes equipped with a natural basis

 $\mathcal{E} = \{[1,0,0,\ldots,0,0], [0,1,0,\ldots,0,0], \ldots, [0,0,0,\ldots,0,1]\}$

(the **standard basis** for \mathbb{R}^n), general vector spaces usually do not such an obvious basis.

Nevertheless, bases are vital to doing calculations in a general vector space.

However, once one has a basis $B = {\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n}$ for a general vector space V, the isomorphism

$$i_B: V \to \mathbb{R}^n$$
; $i_B(c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n) \equiv [c_1, \ldots, c_n]$

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provides unique numerical coordinates for every vector $\mathbf{v} \in V$.

The Calculation Scheme for General Vector Spaces

Given a general vector space V with basis $B = {\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n}$, one carries out calculations by using the isomorphism $i_B : V \to \mathbb{R}^n$ to translate questions about vectors, subspaces, etc. in V to questions about vectors, subspaces, etc. in \mathbb{R}^n (our fundamental calculational platform).

Then when one knows the answers to the questions in \mathbb{R}^n , one can use the inverse linear transformation $i_B^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \to V$ to recover the corresponding answer in the context of vectors, subspaces, etc. in V.



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Application: Solutions of Homogeneous Linear Differential Equations

We've seen that the set of functions on the real line can be given the structure of a vector space over \mathbb{R} .

I'll now show you how results from Math 2233 Differential Equations can be understood linear algebraically.

Let $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ be the set of differentiable functions on the real line. $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ together with the operations

$$(\lambda f) (x) = \lambda f (x) (f+g) (x) = f (x) + g (x)$$

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satisfies the axioms of a generalized vector space.

Application: $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$, Cont'd

Consider the derivative operator $\frac{d}{dx}$. It sends functions in $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ to functions in $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$. Moreover, it is compatible with the operations of scalar multiplication and vector addition:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\lambda f) = \lambda \frac{df}{dx} \quad \text{if } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$
$$\frac{d}{dx}(f+g) = \frac{df}{dx} + \frac{dg}{dx}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{d}{dx}:C^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}\right)\to\mathbb{C}^{\infty}\left(\mathbb{R}\right)$$

is actually a linear transformation.

Similarly, all higher derivatives are also linear transformations from $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ to $C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$.

Now consider the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2f}{dx^2} = 0$$

In linear algebraic language, finding the solutions of $\frac{d^2f}{dx^2} = 0$ is equivalent to finding the kernel of the linear transformation $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$

$$\ker\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right) = \left\{f \in C^{\infty(\mathbb{R})} \mid \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f = 0\right\}$$

In Math 2233 (or even Calculus 1), one finds that the general solution of this differential equation is

$$f\left(x
ight)=c_{1}+c_{2}x$$
 , $c_{1},c_{2}\in\mathbb{R}$

Thus,

$$\frac{d^2f}{dx^2} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) = c_1 \cdot 1 + c_2 \cdot x$$

Linear algebraically, we can interpret this result as saying the subspace ker $\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right)$ is generated by two functions $f_1(x) = 1$ and $f_2(x) = x$.

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In fact, $f_1(x) = 1$ and $f_2(x) = x$, are linearly independent, and so provide a basis for ker $\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right)$. Indeed, the Wronkskian Condition

$$0 \neq W[f_1, f_2](x) = f_1(x) \frac{df_2}{dx}(x) - \left(\frac{df_1}{dx}(x)\right) f_2(x)$$

that one encounters in Math 2233, is just the differential equations method for checking that two functions are linearly independent. For if the Wronskian condition does not hold

$$0 = W[f_1, f_2] = f_1(x) \frac{df_2}{dx}(x) - \left(\frac{df_1}{dx}(x)\right) f_2(x) = 0$$

we get a first order ordinary differential equation for $f_2(x)$ whose solution is

$$f_{2}\left(x
ight)=\lambda f_{1}\left(x
ight)$$
 for some $\lambda\in\mathbb{R}$

and this in turn implies that

$$\lambda f_{1}\left(x\right)-f_{2}\left(x\right)=0$$