# Econ 204 2020

#### Lecture 8

#### Outline

- 1. Bases
- 2. Linear Transformations
- 3. Isomorphisms

### Linear Combinations and Spans

**Definition 1.** Let X be a vector space over a field F. A linear combination of  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$  is a vector of the form

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i$$
 where  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in F$ 

 $\alpha_i$  is the coefficient of  $x_i$  in the linear combination.

If  $V \subseteq X$ , the span of V, denoted span V, is the set of all linear combinations of elements of V.

A set  $V \subseteq X$  spans X if span V = X.

# Linear Dependence and Independence Definition 2. A set $V \subseteq X$ is linearly dependent if there exist

 $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in V$  and  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in F$  not all zero such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_i = 0$$

A set  $V \subseteq X$  is linearly independent if it is not linearly dependent.

Thus  $V \subseteq X$  is linearly independent if and only if

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} v_{i} = 0, \quad v_{i} \in V \ \forall i \Rightarrow \alpha_{i} = 0 \ \forall i$$

**Definition 3.** A Hamel basis (often just called a basis) of a vector space X is a linearly independent set of vectors in X that spans X.

**Example:**  $\{(1,0),(0,1)\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (this is the standard basis).

# **Example, cont:** $\{(1,1), (-1,1)\}$ is another basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$ : Suppose $(x, y) = \alpha(1, 1) + \beta(-1, 1)$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbf{R}$ $x = \alpha - \beta$ $y = \alpha + \beta$ $x + y = 2\alpha$ $\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{x+y}{2}$ $y - x = 2\beta$ $\Rightarrow \beta = \frac{y-x}{2}$ $(x,y) = \frac{x+y}{2}(1,1) + \frac{y-x}{2}(-1,1)$

Since (x, y) is an arbitrary element of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\{(1, 1), (-1, 1)\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . If (x, y) = (0, 0),

$$\alpha = \frac{0+0}{2} = 0, \quad \beta = \frac{0-0}{2} = 0$$

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so the coefficients are all zero, so  $\{(1,1), (-1,1)\}$  is linearly independent. Since it is linearly independent and spans  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , it is a basis.

**Example:**  $\{(1,0,0),(0,1,0)\}$  is not a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , because it does not span  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Example:**  $\{(1,0), (0,1), (1,1)\}$  is not a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

1(1,0) + 1(0,1) + (-1)(1,1) = (0,0)

so the set is not linearly independent.

**Theorem 1** (Thm. 1.2'). Let V be a Hamel basis for X. Then every vector  $x \in X$  has a unique representation as a linear combination of a finite number of elements of V (with all coefficients nonzero).\*

*Proof.* Let  $x \in X$ . Since V spans X, we can write

$$x = \sum_{s \in S_1} \alpha_s v_s$$

where  $S_1$  is finite,  $\alpha_s \in F$ ,  $\alpha_s \neq 0$ , and  $v_s \in V$  for each  $s \in S_1$ . Now, suppose

$$x = \sum_{s \in S_1} \alpha_s v_s = \sum_{s \in S_2} \beta_s v_s$$

\*The unique representation of 0 is  $0 = \sum_{i \in \emptyset} \alpha_i b_i$ .

where  $S_2$  is finite,  $\beta_s \in F$ ,  $\beta_s \neq 0$ , and  $v_s \in V$  for each  $s \in S_2$ . Let  $S = S_1 \cup S_2$ , and define

$$\alpha_s = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad s \in S_2 \setminus S_1$$
  
$$\beta_s = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad s \in S_1 \setminus S_2$$

Then

$$0 = x - x$$
  
=  $\sum_{s \in S_1} \alpha_s v_s - \sum_{s \in S_2} \beta_s v_s$   
=  $\sum_{s \in S} \alpha_s v_s - \sum_{s \in S} \beta_s v_s$   
=  $\sum_{s \in S} (\alpha_s - \beta_s) v_s$ 

Since V is linearly independent, we must have  $\alpha_s - \beta_s = 0$ , so  $\alpha_s = \beta_s$ , for all  $s \in S$ .

$$s \in S_1 \Leftrightarrow \alpha_s \neq \mathbf{0} \Leftrightarrow \beta_s \neq \mathbf{0} \Leftrightarrow s \in S_2$$

so  $S_1 = S_2$  and  $\alpha_s = \beta_s$  for  $s \in S_1 = S_2$ , so the representation is unique.

**Theorem 2.** Every vector space has a Hamel basis.

*Proof.* The proof uses the Axiom of Choice. Indeed, the theorem is equivalent to the Axiom of Choice.  $\hfill \Box$ 

A closely related result, from which you can derive the previous result, shows that any linearly independent set V in a vector space X can be extended to a basis of X.

**Theorem 3.** If X is a vector space and  $V \subseteq X$  is linearly independent, then there exists a linearly independent set  $W \subseteq X$  such that

 $V \subseteq W \subseteq \operatorname{span} W = X$ 

**Theorem 4.** Any two Hamel bases of a vector space X have the same cardinality (are numerically equivalent).

*Proof.* The proof depends on the so-called Exchange Lemma, whose idea we sketch. Suppose that  $V = \{v_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  and  $W = \{w_{\gamma} : \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  are Hamel bases of X. Remove one vector  $v_{\lambda_0}$  from V, so that it no longer spans (if it did still span, then  $v_{\lambda_0}$  would be a linear combination of other elements of V, and V would not be linearly independent). If  $w_{\gamma} \in \text{span}(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\})$  for every  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , then since W spans,  $V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\}$  would also span, contradiction. Thus, we can choose  $\gamma_0 \in \Gamma$  such that

$$w_{\gamma_0} \not\in \operatorname{span}\left(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\}\right)$$

Because  $w_{\gamma_0} \in \operatorname{span} V$ , we can write

$$w_{\gamma_0} = \sum_{i=0}^n \alpha_i v_{\lambda_i}$$

where  $\alpha_0$ , the coefficient of  $v_{\lambda_0}$ , is not zero (if it were, then we would have  $w_{\gamma_0} \in \text{span}(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\})$ ). Since  $\alpha_0 \neq 0$ , we can solve for  $v_{\lambda_0}$  as a linear combination of  $w_{\gamma_0}$  and  $v_{\lambda_1}, \ldots, v_{\lambda_n}$ , so

span 
$$\left(\left(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\}\right) \cup \{w_{\gamma_0}\}\right)$$
  
 $\supseteq$  span  $V$   
 $= X$ 

SO

$$\left(\left(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\}\right) \cup \{w_{\gamma_0}\}\right)$$

spans X. From the fact that  $w_{\gamma_0} \not\in \text{span}\left(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\}\right)$  one can

show that

$$\left(\left(V \setminus \{v_{\lambda_0}\}\right) \cup \{w_{\gamma_0}\}\right)$$

is linearly independent, so it is a basis of X. Repeat this process to exchange every element of V with an element of W (when V is uncountable, this is done by a process called transfinite induction). At the end, we obtain a bijection from V to W, so that V and W are numerically equivalent.

## Dimension

**Definition 4.** The dimension of a vector space X, denoted dim X, is the cardinality of any basis of X.

For  $V \subseteq X$ , |V| denotes the cardinality of the set V.

## Dimension

**Example:** The set of all  $m \times n$  real-valued matrices is a vector space over  $\mathbf{R}$ . A basis is given by

$$\{E_{ij}: 1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le n\}$$

where

$$(E_{ij})_{k\ell} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = i \text{ and } \ell = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The dimension of the vector space of  $m \times n$  matrices is mn.

## Dimension and Dependence

**Theorem 5** (Thm. 1.4). Suppose dim  $X = n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $V \subseteq X$  and |V| > n, then V is linearly dependent.

Dimension and Dependence **Theorem 6** (Thm. 1.5'). *Suppose* dim  $X = n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $V \subseteq X$ , and |V| = n.

- If V is linearly independent, then V spans X, so V is a Hamel basis.
- If V spans X, then V is linearly independent, so V is a Hamel basis.

### Linear Transformations

**Definition 5.** Let X and Y be two vector spaces over the field F. We say  $T: X \rightarrow Y$  is a linear transformation if

 $T(\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2) = \alpha_1 T(x_1) + \alpha_2 T(x_2) \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in X, \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in F$ 

Let L(X, Y) denote the set of all linear transformations from X to Y.

### Linear Transformations

**Theorem 7.** L(X, Y) is a vector space over F.

*Proof.* First, define linear combinations in L(X,Y) as follows. For  $T_1, T_2 \in L(X,Y)$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in F$ , define  $\alpha T_1 + \beta T_2$  by

$$(\alpha T_1 + \beta T_2)(x) = \alpha T_1(x) + \beta T_2(x)$$

We need to show that  $\alpha T_1 + \beta T_2 \in L(X, Y)$ .

$$(\alpha T_{1} + \beta T_{2})(\gamma x_{1} + \delta x_{2}) = \alpha T_{1}(\gamma x_{1} + \delta x_{2}) + \beta T_{2}(\gamma x_{1} + \delta x_{2}) = \alpha (\gamma T_{1}(x_{1}) + \delta T_{1}(x_{2})) + \beta (\gamma T_{2}(x_{1}) + \delta T_{2}(x_{2})) = \gamma (\alpha T_{1}(x_{1}) + \beta T_{2}(x_{1})) + \delta (\alpha T_{1}(x_{2}) + \beta T_{2}(x_{2})) = \gamma (\alpha T_{1} + \beta T_{2}) (x_{1}) + \delta (\alpha T_{1} + \beta T_{2}) (x_{2})$$

so  $\alpha T_1 + \beta T_2 \in L(X,Y)$ .

The rest of the proof involves straightforward checking of the vector space axioms.  $\hfill \square$ 

## Compositions of Linear Transformations

Given  $R \in L(X,Y)$  and  $S \in L(Y,Z)$ ,  $S \circ R : X \to Z$ . We will show that  $S \circ R \in L(X,Z)$ , that is, the composition of two linear transformations is linear.

$$(S \circ R)(\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2) = S(R(\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2))$$
  
=  $S(\alpha R(x_1) + \beta R(x_2))$   
=  $\alpha S(R(x_1)) + \beta S(R(x_2))$   
=  $\alpha (S \circ R)(x_1) + \beta (S \circ R)(x_2)$ 

so  $S \circ R \in L(X, Z)$ .

### Kernel and Rank

**Definition 6.** Let  $T \in L(X, Y)$ .

- The image of T is  $\operatorname{Im} T = T(X)$
- The kernel of T is ker  $T = \{x \in X : T(x) = 0\}$
- The rank of T is  $\operatorname{Rank} T = \operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Im} T)$

### Rank-Nullity Theorem

**Theorem 8** (Thms. 2.9, 2.7, 2.6: The Rank-Nullity Theorem). Let X be a finite-dimensional vector space,  $T \in L(X,Y)$ . Then Im T and ker T are vector subspaces of Y and X respectively, and

 $\dim X = \dim \ker T + \operatorname{Rank} T$ 

#### Kernel and Rank

**Theorem 9** (Thm. 2.13).  $T \in L(X, Y)$  is one-to-one if and only if ker  $T = \{0\}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose T is one-to-one. Suppose  $x \in \ker T$ . Then T(x) = 0. But since T is linear,  $T(0) = T(0 \cdot 0) = 0 \cdot T(0) = 0$ . Since T is one-to-one, x = 0, so  $\ker T = \{0\}$ .

Conversely, suppose that ker  $T = \{0\}$ . Suppose  $T(x_1) = T(x_2)$ . Then

$$T(x_1 - x_2) = T(x_1) - T(x_2)$$
  
= 0

which says  $x_1 - x_2 \in \ker T$ , so  $x_1 - x_2 = 0$ , so  $x_1 = x_2$ . Thus, T is one-to-one.

# Invertible Linear Transformations

**Definition 7.**  $T \in L(X, Y)$  is invertible if there exists a function  $S: Y \to X$  such that

 $S(T(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in X$  $T(S(y)) = y \quad \forall y \in Y$ 

Denote S by  $T^{-1}$ .

Note that T is invertible if and only if it is one-to-one and onto. This is just the condition for the existence of an inverse *function*. The linearity of the inverse follows from the linearity of T.

### Invertible Linear Transformations

**Theorem 10** (Thm. 2.11). If  $T \in L(X,Y)$  is invertible, then  $T^{-1} \in L(Y,X)$ , i.e.  $T^{-1}$  is linear.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\alpha, \beta \in F$  and  $v, w \in Y$ . Since T is invertible, there exist unique  $v', w' \in X$  such that

$$\begin{array}{rcl} T(v') &= v & T^{-1}(v) &= v' \\ T(w') &= w & T^{-1}(w) &= w' \end{array}$$

Then

$$T^{-1}(\alpha v + \beta w) = T^{-1} \left( \alpha T(v') + \beta T(w') \right)$$
  
=  $T^{-1} \left( T(\alpha v' + \beta w') \right)$   
=  $\alpha v' + \beta w'$   
=  $\alpha T^{-1}(v) + \beta T^{-1}(w)$ 

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so 
$$T^{-1} \in L(Y, X)$$
.

### Linear Transformations and Bases

**Theorem 11** (Thm. 3.2). Let X and Y be two vector spaces over the same field F, and let  $V = \{v_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be a basis for X. Then a linear transformation  $T \in L(X,Y)$  is completely determined by its values on V, that is:

1. Given any set  $\{y_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\} \subseteq Y$ ,  $\exists T \in L(X, Y)$  s.t.

$$T(v_{\lambda}) = y_{\lambda} \quad \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$$

2. If  $S, T \in L(X, Y)$  and  $S(v_{\lambda}) = T(v_{\lambda})$  for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ , then S = T.

*Proof.* 1. If  $x \in X$ , x has a unique representation of the form

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_{\lambda_i} \quad \alpha_i \neq 0 \ i = 1, \dots, n$$

(Recall that if x = 0, then n = 0.) Define

$$T(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_{\lambda_i}$$

Then  $T(x) \in Y$ . The verification that T is linear is left as an exercise.

2. Suppose  $S(v_{\lambda}) = T(v_{\lambda})$  for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . Given  $x \in X$ ,

$$S(x) = S\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} v_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} S\left(v_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} T\left(v_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$$
$$= T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} v_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$$
$$= T(x)$$

so S = T.

## Isomorphisms

**Definition 8.** Two vector spaces X and Y over a field F are isomorphic if there is an invertible  $T \in L(X, Y)$ .

 $T \in L(X,Y)$  is an isomorphism if it is invertible (one-to-one and onto).

Isomorphic vector spaces are essentially indistinguishable as vector spaces.

### Isomorphisms

**Theorem 12** (Thm. 3.3). Two vector spaces X and Y over the same field are isomorphic if and only if dim  $X = \dim Y$ .

*Proof.* Suppose X and Y are isomorphic, and let  $T \in L(X, Y)$  be an isomorphism. Let

 $U = \{u_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ 

be a basis of X, and let  $v_{\lambda} = T(u_{\lambda})$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . Set

$$V = \{v_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$$

Since T is one-to-one, U and V have the same cardinality. If

 $y \in Y$ , then there exists  $x \in X$  such that

$$y = T(x)$$
  
=  $T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{\lambda_i} u_{\lambda_i}\right)$   
=  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{\lambda_i} T\left(u_{\lambda_i}\right)$   
=  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{\lambda_i} v_{\lambda_i}$ 

which shows that V spans Y. To see that V is linearly indepen-

dent, suppose

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i v_{\lambda_i}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i T\left(u_{\lambda_i}\right)$$
$$= T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i u_{\lambda_i}\right)$$

Since T is one-to-one, ker  $T = \{0\}$ , so

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i u_{\lambda_i} = 0$$

Since U is a basis, we have  $\beta_1 = \cdots = \beta_m = 0$ , so V is linearly independent. Thus, V is a basis of Y; since U and V are numerically equivalent, dim  $X = \dim Y$ .

Now suppose dim  $X = \dim Y$ . Let

$$U = \{u_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\} \text{ and } V = \{v_{\lambda} : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$$

be bases of X and Y; note we can use the same index set  $\Lambda$  for both because dim  $X = \dim Y$ . By Theorem 3.2, there is a unique

 $T \in L(X,Y)$  such that  $T(u_{\lambda}) = v_{\lambda}$  for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . If T(x) = 0, then

$$0 = T(x)$$
  
=  $T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} u_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$   
=  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} T\left(u_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$   
=  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} v_{\lambda_{i}}$   
 $\Rightarrow \alpha_{1} = \dots = \alpha_{n} = 0$  since V is a basis  
 $\Rightarrow x = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \text{ ker } T = \{0\}$   
 $\Rightarrow T$  is one-to-one

If  $y \in Y$ , write  $y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i v_{\lambda_i}$ . Let

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_i u_{\lambda_i}$$

Then

$$T(x) = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} u_{\lambda_{i}}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} T(u_{\lambda_{i}})$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} v_{\lambda_{i}}$$
$$= y$$

so T is onto, so T is an isomorphism and X, Y are isomorphic.