

Chapitre 2

Linear Maps

Standing assumptions for this chapter

- $\mathbb{K}$ denotes $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$.
- V , W , and G denote vector spaces over $\mathbb{K}$.

2.1 Definitions

Definition 2.1.

A linear map from V to W is a function $T : V \rightarrow W$ with the following properties :

1.

$$T(u + v) = T(u) + T(v) \quad \text{for all } u, v \in V.$$

2.

$$T(\lambda v) = \lambda T(v) \quad \text{for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{K} \text{ and } v \in V.$$

Let's look at some examples of linear maps.

Examples 2.1.

1. *In addition to its other uses, we let the symbol 0 denote the linear map such that $0(x) = 0, \forall x \in V$.*
2. *The identity operator, denoted by I , is the linear map on some vector space that takes each element to itself, $I(x) = x, \forall x \in V$.*

3. Differentiation

Define $D \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}))$ by

$$D(p) = p'.$$

D is a linear map is another way of stating a basic result about differentiation :

4. Integration

Define $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}), \mathbb{R})$ by

$$T(p) = \int_0^1 p.$$

5. Define a linear map $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{R}^2)$ by

$$T(x, y, z) = (2x - y + 3z, 7x + 5y - 6z).$$

Theorem 2.2. Linear Map

Let V and W be two $\mathbb{K}$ -vector spaces, and let $f : V \rightarrow W$ be a function. For f to be a linear map, it is necessary and sufficient that :

$$\forall x, y \in V, \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{K}, \quad f(\lambda x + y) = \lambda f(x) + f(y).$$

Remark 2.3.

1. If a linear map f is injective, we say that f is a monomorphism.
2. If a linear map f is surjective, we say that f is an epimorphism.
3. If a linear map f is bijective, we say that f is an isomorphism of vector spaces and that V and W are isomorphic.
4. A bijective endomorphism is called an automorphism.
5. The set of linear maps from V to W is denoted by $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.
6. The set of linear maps from V to V is denoted by $\mathcal{L}(V)$. In other words,

$$\mathcal{L}(V) = \mathcal{L}(V, V)$$

Theorem 2.4.

Let f be a linear map. We have :

1. $f(0_V) = 0_W$;
2. If A is a subspace of V , then f_A is a linear map on A ;
3. $f(-x) = -f(x)$, for all $x \in V$;
4. $f(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i f(x_i)$.

Lemma 2.5.

Suppose $v_1, \dots, v_n$ is a basis of V and $w_1, \dots, w_n \in W$. Then there exists a unique linear map $T : V \rightarrow W$ such that

$$T(v_k) = w_k,$$

for each $k = 1, \dots, n$.

Proof 2.6.

Suppose $a_1, \dots, a_k$ is a basis of M and $b_1, \dots, b_k \in N$. Then there exists a unique linear map $K : M \rightarrow N$ such that

$$K(a_e) = b_e \quad \text{for each } e = 1, \dots, k.$$

First, we show the existence of a linear map K with the desired property. Define $K : M \rightarrow N$ by

$$K(S_1a_1 + \dots + S_ka_k) = S_1b_1 + \dots + S_kb_k,$$

where $S_1, \dots, S_k$ are arbitrary elements of i . The list $a_1, \dots, a_k$ is a basis of M . Thus, the equation above indeed defines a function K from M to N (because each element of M can be uniquely written in the form $S_1a_1 + \dots + S_ka_k$).

For each e , taking $S_e = 1$ and the other $S_i = 0$ in the equation above shows that $K(a_e) = b_e$.

If $\ell, a \in M$ with $\ell = Q_1a_1 + \dots + Q_ka_k$ and $a = S_1a_1 + \dots + S_ka_k$, then

$$\begin{aligned} K(\ell + a) &= K((Q_1 + S_1)a_1 + \dots + (Q_k + S_k)a_k) \\ &= (Q_1 + S_1)b_1 + \dots + (Q_k + S_k)b_k \\ &= (Q_1b_1 + \dots + Q_kb_k) + (S_1b_1 + \dots + S_kb_k) \\ &= K(\ell) + K(a). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, if $\alpha \in i$ and $a = S_1a_1 + \dots + S_ka_k$, then

$$K(\alpha a) = K(\alpha S_1a_1 + \dots + \alpha S_ka_k) = \alpha S_1b_1 + \dots + \alpha S_kb_k = \alpha(S_1b_1 + \dots + S_kb_k) = \alpha K(a).$$

Thus, K is a linear map from M to N .

To prove uniqueness, suppose now that $K \in \mathcal{L}(M, N)$ and that $K(a_e) = b_e$ for each $e = 1, \dots, k$. Let $S_1, \dots, S_k \in i$. Then the homogeneity of K implies that

$$K(S_e a_e) = S_e b_e \quad \text{for each } e = 1, \dots, k.$$

The additivity of K implies that

$$K(S_1 a_1 + \dots + S_k a_k) = S_1 b_1 + \dots + S_k b_k.$$

Thus, K is uniquely determined on $\text{span}(a_1, \dots, a_k)$ by the equation above. Because $a_1, \dots, a_k$ is a basis of M , this implies that K is uniquely determined on M , as desired.

Definition 2.7. Addition and Scalar Multiplication on $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$.

Suppose $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$. The sum $S + T$ and the product λT are the linear maps from V to W defined by

$$(S + T)(v) = Sv + Tv \quad \text{and} \quad (\lambda T)(v) = \lambda(Tv)$$

for all $v \in V$.

Theorem 2.8. $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is a vector space.

With the operations of addition and scalar multiplication as defined above, $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$ is a vector space.

Theorem 2.9.

Let f be a linear map from V to W . Assume that V has a basis $(e_i)_{i \in I}$.

1. f is surjective if and only if $W = \text{Vect}\{f(e_i)\}_{i \in I}$;
2. f is injective if and only if $\{f(e_i)\}_{i \in I}$ is linearly independent;
3. f is bijective if and only if $\{f(e_i)\}_{i \in I}$ is a basis of W .

Examples 2.2.

1. Consider the function :

$$h : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

defined by

$$(x, y) \mapsto (x + y, 2x - y, x + 3y).$$

Let $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ be a basis of $\mathbb{R}^2$. We compute :

$$h((1, 0)) = (1, 2, 1), \quad h((0, 1)) = (1, -1, 3).$$

Since $\{(1, 2, 1), (1, -1, 3)\}$ is linearly independent, h is injective.

2. Now, consider the endomorphism h defined by :

$$h : \mathbb{R}_3[X] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_3[X]$$

such that

$$P \mapsto P + (1 + X)P'.$$

We know that $\{1, X, X^2, X^3\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{R}_3[X]$. We compute :

$$h(1) = 1, \quad h(X) = 1 + X, \quad h(X^2) = 2X + 3X^2, \quad h(X^3) = 3X^2 + 4X^3.$$

Since $\{1, 1 + X, 2X + 3X^2, 3X^2 + 4X^3\}$ is linearly independent and its cardinality is equal to $\dim \mathbb{R}_3[X] = 4$, it forms a basis of $\mathbb{R}_3[X]$. Therefore, h is bijective.

Theorem 2.10.

Let V and W be finite-dimensional $\mathbf{K}$ -vector spaces of the same dimension, and let f be a linear transformation from V to W . Then,

$$f \text{ is bijective} \iff f \text{ is injective} \iff f \text{ is surjective}.$$

2.2 Image and Kernel of a Linear map

Definition 2.11. Let f be a linear transformation from V to W . The set

$$\text{Im}(f) := \{f(x) \mid x \in E\} = f(E)$$

is called the **image** of the linear transformation f .

Example 2.1.

1. Consider the linear transformation :

$$f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$(x, y, z) \mapsto (x + 2y - z, y - z).$$

The image $Im(f)$ is the set of all possible outputs of f . We write it as :

$$Im(f) = \{f(x, y, z) \mid (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}.$$

Substituting f :

$$Im(f) = \{(x + 2y - z, y - z) \mid (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}.$$

This can be expressed as the span of the following vectors :

$$Im(f) = \{x(1, 0) + y(2, 1) + z(-1, -1) \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Thus :

$$Im(f) = Vect\{(1, 0), (2, 1), (-1, -1)\}.$$

Note that the vectors $(1, 0)$ and $(2, 1)$ are linearly independent, while $(-1, -1)$ depends on them. Therefore :

$$Im(f) = Span\{(1, 0), (2, 1)\} = \mathbb{R}^2.$$

2. Consider the linear transformation :

$$g : \mathbb{R}_3[X] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_3[X]$$

$$P \mapsto X \cdot P''.$$

where $\mathbb{R}_3[X]$ is the space of polynomials of degree less than or equal to 3.

The image $Im(g)$ is the set of all possible outputs of g . We write it as :

$$Im(g) = \{g(P) \mid P \in \mathbb{R}_3[X]\}.$$

Substituting g :

$$Im(g) = \{X \cdot P'' \mid P \in \mathbb{R}_3[X]\}.$$

To compute P'' , we take the second derivative of the polynomial P . Let :

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + a_2X^2 + a_3X^3.$$

Then :

$$P' = a_1 + 2a_2X + 3a_3X^2,$$

$$P'' = 2a_2 + 6a_3X.$$

Thus :

$$X \cdot P'' = X \cdot (2a_2 + 6a_3X) = 2a_2X + 6a_3X^2.$$

Therefore :

$$\text{Im}(g) = \{2a_2X + 6a_3X^2 \mid a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

This means the image is the span of the vectors $2X$ and $6X^2$:

$$\text{Im}(g) = \text{Span}\{2X, 6X^2\}.$$

Theorem 2.12. Image of a Subspace under a Linear Map

Let f be a linear map from E to F .

1. If A is a subspace of E , then $f(A)$ is a subspace of F . In particular, $\text{Im}(f) = f(E)$ is a subspace of F ;
2. f is surjective if and only if $\text{Im}(f) = F$.

Example 2.2.

Let $E = \mathbb{R}^3$ and $F = \mathbb{R}^2$. Consider the linear map $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = (x + 2y, y - z).$$

Let $A = \text{span}(\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0)\})$ be a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$ (which is spanned by the first two standard basis vectors). We compute the image of A under f :

$$f(1, 0, 0) = (1, 0), \quad f(0, 1, 0) = (2, 1).$$

Thus, $f(A) = \text{span}\{(1, 0), (2, 1)\}$. Since $(1, 0)$ and $(2, 1)$ are linearly independent, $f(A)$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^2$.

Now, we compute the image of f for the entire space $\mathbb{R}^3$:

$$f(x, y, z) = (x + 2y, y - z),$$

which is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^2$. Since f can produce all vectors of the form $(x + 2y, y - z)$ for any $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we have $\text{Im}(f) = \mathbb{R}^2$.

Therefore, f is surjective, as $\text{Im}(f) = F = \mathbb{R}^2$.

Theorem 2.13. Image of a Span under a Linear Map

Let f be a linear map from E to F . For any subset X of E :

$$f(\text{Span}(X)) = \text{Span}(f(X)).$$

In particular, if E has a basis $(e_i)_{i \in I}$, then :

$$\text{Im}(f) = \text{Span}(f(e_i))_{i \in I}.$$

Example 2.3.

1. Consider the linear map :

$$f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

defined by

$$(x, y, z) \mapsto (x + 2y - z, z - 3y).$$

Since the set $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$, we have :

$$\text{Im}(f) = \text{Span}\{f(1, 0, 0), f(0, 1, 0), f(0, 0, 1)\} = \text{Span}\{(1, 0), (2, -3), (-1, 1)\}.$$

2. Let g be the linear map defined by :

$$g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_2[X]$$

such that

$$(a, b) \mapsto a + bX + (a - b)X^2.$$

Since the set $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{R}^2$, we have :

$$\text{Im}(g) = \text{Span}\{g(1, 0), g(0, 1)\} = \text{Span}\{1 + X^2, X - X^2\}.$$

Definition 2.14. Kernel of a Linear Map

Let f be a map from E to F . The set :

$$\text{Ker}(f) := f^{-1}(\{0_F\}) = \{x \in E \mid f(x) = 0\}$$

is called the kernel of the linear map f .

Theorem 2.15.

Let f be a linear map from E to F .

1. If B is a subspace of F , then $f^{-1}(B)$ is a subspace of E . In particular, $\text{Ker}(f)$ is a subspace of E ;

2. f is injective on E if and only if $\text{Ker}(f) = \{0_E\}$.

Example 2.4.

The set $B := \{(x, y, z, t) \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid 2x + y - 3t = 0\}$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$ since $B = \text{Ker}(f)$, where f is the linear map defined by :

$$f : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

such that

$$(x, y, z, t) \mapsto 2x + y - 3t.$$

2.3 Rank Theorem

Definition 2.16. Rank of a Linear Map

Let f be a map from E to F . We say that f has finite rank if $\text{Im}(f)$ has finite dimension, and infinite rank otherwise. If f has finite rank, we call the rank of f , denoted $\text{rank}(f)$, the dimension of $\text{Im}(f)$.

Theorem 2.17. Rank Inequalities

Let f be a linear transformation from E to F .

(i) If F is finite-dimensional, then f has finite rank, and $\text{rank}(f) \leq \dim F$.

Moreover, f is surjective if and only if $\text{rank}(f) = \dim F$.

(ii) If E is finite-dimensional, then f has finite rank, and $\text{rank}(f) \leq \dim E$.

Moreover, f is injective if and only if $\text{rank}(f) = \dim E$.

Theorem 2.18. Rank Theorem Let f be a linear transformation from E to F .

If E is finite-dimensional, then :

$$\dim E = \dim \text{Ker}(f) + \text{rank}(f).$$