

Exercise 1

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i) } (1-P)^2 &= (1-P) \circ (1-P) = (1-P) \circ 1 - (1-P) \circ P \\ &= 1-P - P + P^2 = 1-P \quad \text{since } P^2 = P. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $1-P$ is also a projection.

In addition, $(1-P)P = P - P^2 = 0$ and $P(1-P) = P - P^2 = 0$.

ii) Observe that from $P(1-P) = 0$, one infers that $\text{Ran}(1-P) \subset \text{Ker}(P)$. On the other hand, if $x \in \text{Ker}(P)$ it follows that $x = 1x + 0 = (1-P)x$, which implies that $x \in \text{Ran}(1-P)$. One thus infers that $\text{Ker}(P) \subset \text{Ran}(1-P)$, and then $\text{Ker}(P) = \text{Ran}(1-P)$.

As a consequence, for any $y \in V$ one has

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (1-P + P)y = (1-P)y + Py \in \text{Ran}(1-P) + \text{Ran}(P) \\ &= \text{Ker}(P) + \text{Ran}(P). \end{aligned}$$

In other words, any element y of V is the sum of an element of $\text{Ker}(P)$ and an element of $\text{Ran}(P)$.

iii) Assume $x \in \text{Ker}(P) \cap \text{Ran}(P)$. Since $x \in \text{Ran}(P)$, $\exists y \in V$ such that $x = Py$. One thus infers that

$$0 = Px = P(Py) = P^2y = Py = x$$

\uparrow because $x \in \text{Ker}(P)$ \uparrow because P is a projection

and thus $x = 0$. It means that the only element in $\text{Ker}(P) \cap \text{Ran}(P)$ is 0 .

Exercise 2

1) One has $L = L_A$ with $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \in M_2(\mathbb{R})$.

For finding the inverse of A , one has

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \sim \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 \end{array} \right) \sim \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right) \sim \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & -1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right).$$

Thus, the inverse of L is given by $L_{A^{-1}}$ with

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

2) By the same method one finds that $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

and $A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Thus, L is invertible,

with $L^{-1} = L_{A^{-1}}$.

Exercise 3

One easily observes that $(G \circ F) \circ (F^{-1} \circ G^{-1}) = G \circ \mathbb{1} \circ G^{-1} = \mathbb{1}$ and that $(F^{-1} \circ G^{-1}) \circ (G \circ F) = F^{-1} \circ \mathbb{1} \circ F = \mathbb{1}$.

Since the inverse of a linear map is unique (if it exists), one infers that $G \circ F$ is invertible, with

$$\underline{(G \circ F)^{-1} = F^{-1} \circ G^{-1}}.$$

Exercise 4

Let $\mathcal{V} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis of V and let $\mathcal{V}' = \{v'_1, \dots, v'_n\}$ be a second basis of V (V can be \mathbb{R}^n , but the same proof holds for arbitrary vector spaces of finite dimension).

Since \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{V}' are basis, there B and C belonging to $M_n(\mathbb{F})$ (\mathbb{F} can be \mathbb{R} but can be a more general field) such that $X = BX'$ and $X' = CX$, with $X^{(i)}$ the coordinate vector of any X with respect to the basis $\mathcal{V}^{(i)}$, cf. Lecture notes.

It follows that $X = BX' = BCX$ and $X' = CX = CBX'$, from which one deduces that $BC = \mathbb{1}$ and $CB = \mathbb{1}$.

This means that B is invertible, with inverse C , or equivalently C is invertible, with inverse B .

Exercice 5

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{i) } F((x_1, x_2, \dots) + (x'_1, x'_2, \dots)) & \\
 &= F(x_1 + x'_1, x_2 + x'_2, \dots) \\
 &= (0, x_1 + x'_1, x_2 + x'_2, \dots) \\
 &= (0, x_1, x_2, \dots) + (0, x'_1, x'_2, \dots) \\
 &= F(x_1, x_2, \dots) + F(x'_1, x'_2, \dots).
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Similarly, } F(\lambda(x_1, x_2, \dots)) &= F(\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots) \\
 &= (0, \lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots) = \lambda(0, x_1, x_2, \dots) = \lambda F(x_1, x_2, \dots).
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus F is a linear map.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ii) Observe that } F(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (0, 0, \dots) &\Leftrightarrow \\
 (0, x_1, x_2, \dots) = (0, 0, \dots) &\Leftrightarrow x_1 = 0 = x_2 = x_3 \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\text{Ker}(F) = (0, 0, \dots)$, and F is injective.

iii) F is not surjective since $(c, 0, 0, \dots) \notin \text{Ran}(F)$ for any $c \neq 0$.

$$\text{iv) Let us set } G: V \rightarrow V, G(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (x_2, x_3, \dots).$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{It is easy to check that } G \text{ is linear, and one has} \\
 (G \circ F)(x_1, x_2, \dots) = G(F(x_1, x_2, \dots)) &= G(0, x_1, x_2, \dots) \\
 = (x_1, x_2, \dots) &\Rightarrow G \circ F = 1.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{v) On the other hand } (F \circ G)(x_1, x_2, \dots) &= F(G(x_1, x_2, \dots)) \\
 = F(x_2, x_3, \dots) &= (0, x_2, x_3, \dots) \neq (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)
 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow F \circ G \neq 1$. The information on x_1 is lost by $F \circ G$.

vi) When V is of finite dimension, we know that F injective $\Leftrightarrow F$ bijective $\Leftrightarrow F$ invertible.

⚠ If V is of infinite dimension, F injective $\not\Rightarrow F$ invertible.