1. Definition and basic properties of linear spaces

Definition 1.1. A linear space X over a field F is a set whose elements are called *vectors* and where two operations, *addition* and *scalar multiplication*, are defined:

(1) addition, denoted by +, such that to every pair $x, y \in X$ there correspond a vector $x + y \in X$, and

(1.1)
$$x + y = y + x, \quad x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z, \qquad x, y, z \in X;$$

(X, +) is a group, with neutral element denoted by 0 and inverse denoted by -, x + (-x) = x - x = 0.

(2) scalar multiplication of $x \in X$ by elements $k \in F$, denoted by $kx \in X$, and

(1.2)
$$k(ax) = (ka)x, \quad k(x+y) = kx + ky, \quad (k+a)x = kx + ax, \quad x, y \in X, \ k, a \in F.$$

Moreover 1x = x for all $x \in X$, 1 being the unit in F.

It follows from the definition that

$$0x = 0,$$
 $(-1)x = -x.$

Example 1.2. Several spaces of functional analysis have the structure of linear spaces on \mathbb{R} (real vector spaces), \mathbb{C} (complex vector spaces):

- $C(\Omega)$, Ω open set in \mathbb{R}^n .
- $H(\omega)$, holomorphic functions on ω open set of \mathbb{C} .
- all solutions of a linear ODE or linear PDE.
- $X = \{x = (a_1, a_2, \dots), a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

In the linear spaces we can define several construction and concepts, based only on linearity. Given $S, T \subset X$, define

(1.3)
$$S+T = \left\{ x = y + z, \ y \in S, \ z \in T \right\}, \quad -S = \left\{ x = -y, \ y \in S \right\}, \quad kS = \left\{ x = ky, \ y \in S \right\}.$$

If Z, U are linear spaces over the same field, then

(1.4)
$$Z \oplus U = \left\{ (z, u), \ z \in Z, \ u \in U \right\}.$$

A subset $Y \subset X$ is a *linear subspace* of X if Y is a itself a linear space, i.e.

$$aY + bY \subset Y, \quad a, b \in F.$$

If $S \subset X$, the *linear span* of S is the intersection of all linear subspaces Y_{σ} containing S, i.e. it is the smallest linear subspace of X containing S. Given the points x_1, \ldots, x_n , the element

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i, \qquad a_i \in F,$$

is called *linear combination* of $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$.

If X is generated by the linear combination of a finite number of points, we say that it is *finite dimensional*, otherwise it is *infinite dimensional*.

Proposition 1.3. The linear span of S is the the set of all linear combinations of elements of S.

Proof. Clearly the linear span is a vector space which contains S, and it is contained in all subspace Y containing S.

If Y is a linear subspace of X, then

$$(1.5) x_1 \equiv x_2 \text{ if } x_1 - x_2 \in Y$$

is an equivalence relation: in fact

- (1) $x \equiv x$ since $x x = 0 \in Y$;
- (2) $x \equiv y$ implies $x y \in Y$, i.e. $-(x y) = y x \in Y$, i.e. $y \equiv x$;
- (3) $x \equiv y, y \equiv z$ implies $x y \in Y, y z \in Y$, i.e. $(x y) + (y z) = x z \in Y$, i.e. $x \equiv z$.

Proposition 1.4. The quotient set X/Y made of the equivalence classes mod Y is a linear space (quotient space).

Proof. Denote by [x] the equivalent class of x. Define addition + by [x] + [y] = [x + y] and scalar multiplication by k[x] = [kx]. This definition does not depend on the particular representative chosen: in fact, if $x' \equiv x, y' \equiv y$, then

$$\begin{aligned} [x'+y'] &= \left\{ z \colon z - x' - y' \in Y \right\} = \left\{ z \colon z - x - y \in Y + (x'-x) + (y'-y) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ z \colon z - x - y \in Y \right\} = [x+y], \end{aligned}$$

and similarly for the scalar product

$$[kx'] = \left\{z \colon z - kx' \in Y\right\} = \left\{z \colon z - kx \in Y + k(x' - x)\right\} = \left\{z \colon z - kx \in Y\right\} = [kx].$$

Then it is clear that + is commutative and associative, and the inverse of [x] is [-x] = -[x], and the scalar product satisfies (1.2). Moreover 1[x] = [1x] = [x]

For real vector spaces one can define the notion of convexity: if $K \subset X$, K is called convex if

$$(1.6) aK + (1-a)K \subset K, \quad 0 \le a \le 1,$$

or equivalently $ax + (1 - a)y \in K$. An immediate consequence is that if $x_1, \ldots, x_n \subset K$, then all *convex* combinations

(1.7)
$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i, \qquad a_i > 0, \ \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = 1,$$

belong to K.

For complex vector spaces, we can extend the definition of $K \subset X$ convex if

(1.8)
$$aK + (1-a)K \subset K, \quad a \in \mathbb{R}, \ 0 \le a \le 1.$$

or one can introduce the notion of *balanced sets*: we define $K \subset X$ balanced if

(1.9)
$$aK \subset K \text{ for all } |a| \le 1.$$

If $S \subset X$, then the *convex hull* of S is the intersection of all convex set containing S. It can be characterized equivalently as the smallest convex set containing S or the set of all convex combination of elements of S.

Proof. Clearly each convex sets containing S must contain its convex hull. Conversely the convex hull is a convex set containing S.

A convex set $E \subset K$, K convex, is called *extreme set* if $E \neq \emptyset$ and if $(y+z)/2 \in E$, then $y, z \in E$. Also in finite dimension one can construct convex sets without extreme points.

2. Linear maps

If X U are two linear spaces, a mapping $\mathbf{M}: X \mapsto U$ is a *linear map* iff

(2.1)
$$\mathbf{M}(x+y) = \mathbf{M}x + \mathbf{M}y, \quad \mathbf{M}(kx) = k\mathbf{M}x.$$

An isomorphism of linear spaces is a map \mathbf{M} which is one to one and onto.

Proposition 2.1. If $\mathbf{M}: X \mapsto U$ linear map, $K \subset U$ convex, $E \subset K$ extreme set, then

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1}(E) = \Big\{ x \in X \colon \mathbf{M} \in E \Big\},\$$

when non empty, is an extreme subset of $\mathbf{M}^{-1}(K)$.

Proof. Clearly $\mathbf{M}^{-1}(K)$ is a convex set: in fact if $\mathbf{M}(x), \mathbf{M}(y) \in K$, then

$$\mathbf{M}(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) = \lambda \mathbf{M}x + (1-\lambda)\mathbf{M}y \in K,$$

since K is convex.

Let $x \in \mathbf{M}^{-1}(E)$, and assume that there exists $y, z \in \mathbf{M}^{-1}(K)$ such that x = (y+z)/2. Then

$$\mathbf{M}x = \mathbf{M}\left(\frac{y+z}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\mathbf{M}y + \mathbf{M}z\right),$$

so that $\mathbf{M}y, \mathbf{M}z \in E$, because E is extremal.

Remark 2.2. In particular, if $U = \mathbb{R}$ and denoting the linear operator by ℓ , if $H \subset X$ convex, then the extreme subset are $H_{\max} = \max_{x \in H} \ell x$, $H_{\min} = \min_{x \in H} \ell x$. Thus if $\ell^{-1}(H_{\max}) \neq \emptyset$, then this is an extreme subset, and the same for $\ell^{-1}H_{\min}$.

One can find examples of maps so that the image of extremal set are not extremal, also in finite dimension.

Since we can define

(2.2)
$$(\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{N})x = \mathbf{M}x + \mathbf{N}x, \qquad (k\mathbf{M})x = k\mathbf{M}x$$

then the set of linear maps of X into U, denoted as L(X,U), is a linear space. If $\mathbf{M} : X \to U$, $\mathbf{N} : U \to W$, the composition $\mathbf{NM} : X \to W$ is

$$\mathbf{NM}x = \mathbf{N}(\mathbf{M}x).$$

This "product" is distributive, i.e. if $\mathbf{P}: X \mapsto U, \mathbf{Q}: Z \mapsto X$ are linear maps,

$$\mathbf{N}(\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{P})x = \mathbf{N}\mathbf{M}x + \mathbf{N}\mathbf{P}x, \quad (\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{P})\mathbf{Q}x = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{Q}x + \mathbf{P}\mathbf{Q}x.$$

If we have a third linear space Z and a linear operator $\mathbf{P}: W \mapsto Z$, then by associativity of composition of maps

$$(\mathbf{PN})\mathbf{M}x = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{NM})x.$$

A map $\mathbf{M} : X \mapsto U$ is *invertible* if it maps X one to one and onto U, its inverse is denoted by \mathbf{M}^{-1} and

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{M} = I \in L(X, X), \quad \mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^{-1} = I \in L(U, U).$$

The *nullspace* $N_{\mathbf{M}}$ of \mathbf{M} is the set

$$N_{\mathbf{M}} = \Big\{ x \in X \colon \mathbf{M}x = 0 \Big\},\$$

the range $R_{\mathbf{M}}$ is

(2.4)
$$R_{\mathbf{M}} = \left\{ u \in U : \exists x \in X, \mathbf{M}x = u \right\}$$

Clearly both are linear subspaces, and $\mathbf{M} : X \mapsto U$ is invertible iff $N_{\mathbf{M}} = \{0\}, R_{\mathbf{M}} = U$. Moreover, $\mathbf{M} : X/N_{\mathbf{M}} \mapsto R_{\mathbf{M}}$ is one to one and onto.

Composition of invertible maps is invertible, but the opposite is false in general, see exercises.

We now consider maps of X into itself, i.e. $\mathbf{M} \in L(X, X)$. We can define in this case the *j*-th power \mathbf{M}^{j} , with null space $N_{j} = N_{\mathbf{M}^{j}}$. Clearly $N_{j} \subset N_{j+1}$, because if $\mathbf{M}^{j}x = 0$ then

$$\mathbf{M}^{j+1}x = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{M}^j x) = \mathbf{M}0 = 0$$

Let Y be a linear subspace of X, and assume that Y is invariant for \mathbf{M} ,

$$\mathbf{M}Y \subset Y$$

Then the operator $\mathbf{L}: X/Y \mapsto X/Y$ defined by

$$\mathbf{L}[x] = [\mathbf{M}x]$$

is a linear operator. In fact, if $x_1 \equiv x_2$, then $x_2 = x_1 + y$, $y \in Y$, and

 $\mathbf{M}x_1 \equiv \mathbf{M}x_2$

because Y is invariant. The linearity follows easily. Similar definitions can be naturally done in the case

(2.5)
$$\mathbf{L}: X/Y_1 \mapsto X/Y_2, \quad \mathbf{L}[x]_{Y_1} = [\mathbf{M}x]_{Y_2}, \quad [x]_{Y_i} \in X/Y_i,$$

 Y_1, Y_2 linear subspace of X, Y_1 invariant for **M** and $Y_1 \subset Y_2$.

In the following we will denote \mathbf{L} simply as \mathbf{M} . Similarly we denote with \mathbf{M} the restriction of \mathbf{M} from Y to Y.

Given a vector space X, we say that X has *finite dimension* if there is a finite number of elements x_i , i = 1, ..., n, such that X is the linear span of $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$:

(2.6)
$$X = \left\{ \sum_{i} a_{i} x_{i} \colon a_{i} \in F, x_{i} \in X, i = 1, \dots, n \right\}.$$

In this case we define the *dimension* of X, $\dim(X)$, as the minimal number of elements needed so that (2.6) holds.

Proposition 2.3. We have

(2.7)
$$\dim \left(N_j / N_{j-1} \right) \ge \dim \left(N_{j+1} / N_j \right).$$

Note the opposite inequality w.r.t. $N_j \subset N_{j+1}$.

Proof. In fact, if $[z] \in N_{j+1}/N_j$, then $z = x + N_j$, where $\mathbf{M}^{j+1}x = 0$. Thus

$$\mathbf{M}z = \mathbf{M}x + \mathbf{M}N_j \subset y + N_{j-1},$$

where $\mathbf{M}^{j}y = 0$. We have proved that $\mathbf{M}z \in N_{j}/N_{j-1}$.

We prove now that $\mathbf{M} : N_{j+1}/N_j \mapsto N_j/N_{j-1}$ is injective. In fact, if $\mathbf{M}([z_1] - [z_2]) = 0$ in N_j/N_{j-1} , with $[z_1], [z_2] \in N_{j+1}/N_j$, then $\mathbf{M}(z_1 - z_2) \in N_{j-1}$, i.e. $z_1 - z_2 \in N_j$, or $[z_1] = [z_2]$. Thus \mathbf{M} maps N_{j+1}/N_j one to one into N_j/N_{j-1} .

In particular, if for some j it happens $N_j = N_{j+1}$, then $N_j = N_k$ for all $k \ge j$.

Proposition 2.4. If $\mathbf{M}: Y \mapsto Y$ and $\mathbf{M}: X/Y \mapsto X/Y$ are invertible, then $\mathbf{M}: X \mapsto X$ is invertible.

Proof. We first show that **M** is injective. In fact, if $\mathbf{M}z = 0$, then $\mathbf{M}[z] = 0$, and from $\mathbf{M} : X/Y \mapsto X/Y$ invertible it follows that $z \in Y$, and from $\mathbf{M} : Y \mapsto Y$ invertible it follows z = 0.

Next, to prove surjectivity, we look for $\mathbf{M}x_0 = u_0$. We can solve the above equation modulo Y, i.e. there is $x_1 \in X$ such that $\mathbf{M}x_1 = u_0 + z$, $z \in Y$. From the first condition there is $y \in Y$ such that $\mathbf{M}y = z$, so that $x_0 = x_1 - y$.

Note that in general if **M** is invertible and Y is invariant, $\mathbf{M} : Y \mapsto Y$, $\mathbf{M} : X/Y \mapsto X/Y$ need not to be invertible, see exercises.

3. INDEX OF A LINEAR MAP

A linear map is called *degenerate* if its range is finite dimensional,

 $\dim(R_{\mathbf{M}}) < \infty.$

If $\mathbf{A}: X \mapsto U$ is degenerate, and $\mathbf{L}: Z \mapsto X, \mathbf{R}: U \mapsto V$ are linear maps, then

AL, RA

are degenerate. Moreover the set of degenerate maps from X to U is a linear subspace of L(X, U). For the special case of maps from X into itself, the space of degenerate maps forms an ideal with respect to the composition of maps.

We say that $\mathbf{M}: X \mapsto U, \mathbf{L}: U \mapsto X$ are pseudoinverse iff

$$\mathbf{LM} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G}, \qquad \mathbf{ML} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G},$$

with **G** degenerate (from X to X or $U \mapsto U$, respectively).

Note that if \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{L} are pseudoinverse, then adding degenerate maps we obtain again pseudoinverse maps. In fact, if $\mathbf{A} : X \mapsto U$ is degenerate, then

$$\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G} + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G}',$$

with \mathbf{G}' degenerate. Similarly for \mathbf{L} .

Moreover if \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} are couple of pseudoinverse maps, then the pseudinverse of \mathbf{AM} is \mathbf{LB} : in fact

$$\mathbf{LBAM} = \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G})\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{LM} + \mathbf{G}' = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G}''.$$

We define the codimension of the linear subspace $R \subset U$ by

(3.3) $\operatorname{codim} R = \dim(U/R).$

Proposition 3.1. A linear map $\mathbf{M}: X \mapsto U$ has a pseudoinverse iff

$$\dim N_{\mathbf{M}} < \infty, \qquad codim R_{\mathbf{M}} < \infty.$$

Proof. For the "only if" part, let $\mathbf{L}: U \mapsto X$ be a pseudoinverse of X. If $x \in N_{\mathbf{M}}$, then

$$\mathbf{LM}x = x + \mathbf{G}x = 0$$

i.e. $x \in R_{\mathbf{G}}$ which is finite dimensional. Similarly, if $y \in R_{\mathbf{ML}} = R_{\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{G}}$, then $y \in R_{\mathbf{M}}$, since $R_{\mathbf{L}} \subset X$. This implies that $R_{\mathbf{M}} \supset R_{\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{G}}$. It follows that

 $\operatorname{codim} R_{\mathbf{M}} \leq \operatorname{codim} R_{\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{G}}.$

Since for $x \in N_{\mathbf{G}}$, then $(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G})x = x$, then $N_{\mathbf{G}} \subset R_{\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{G}}$, so that

$$\operatorname{codim} R_{\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{G}} \leq \operatorname{codim} N_{\mathbf{G}}.$$

Since $\mathbf{G}: X/N_{\mathbf{G}} \mapsto R_{\mathbf{G}}$ is one to one, then $\operatorname{codim} N_{\mathbf{G}} = \dim R_{\mathbf{G}}$, in particular is finite dimensional. This concludes the "only if" part.

For the if part, we recall first Zorn's Lemma.

Let A be a partially ordered set, i.e. there is an order relation \leq , defined for some pairs of elements $a, b \in A$ which is

 $a \le b, \ b \le c \implies a \le c;$

- transitive:
- reflexive:

 $a \le a \quad \forall a \in A;$

• antisymmetric:

$$a \le b, \ b \le a \implies a = b.$$

A subset B of A is totally ordered if for all $a, b \in B$ either $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$. An element $u \in A$ is an upper bound of a subset $B \subset A$ if $b \leq u$ for all b in the subset B. A element m is maximal if every element a of the set A such that $a \leq m$ or $m \leq a$, satisfies $a \leq m$.

Lemma 3.2 (Zorn's Lemma). If every totally ordered subset of a partially ordered set has an upper bound, then the partially ordered set has a maximal element.

By Zorn's lemma for any subspace N of X there is a complementary (not unique!) subspace such that $X = N \oplus Y$, i.e. every $x \in X$ can be written as

$$= n + y, \qquad n \in N, \ y \in Y.$$

In fact, let A be the set of subspaces Y of X such that $N \cap Y = \{0\}$, ordered by inclusion. The set A is clearly partially ordered, and if $\{Y_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha}$ is a totally ordered subset of A, then $\cup_{\alpha} Y_{\alpha}$ is an upper bound. Thus there is a maximal element Y.

Assume now that there is an $x \notin N + Y$. Then $Y' = Y + \text{span}\{x\}$ is again in $A, Y \subsetneq Y'$, contradicting that Y is maximal. Thus for every x = n + y, and since $Y \cap N = \{0\}$, the decomposition is unique.

We can thus define the projection of x onto N by $\mathbf{P}x = n$. Note that if N has finite codimension then $\dim Y = \operatorname{codim} N$. In fact, the map

$$X/Y \ni [x] = [n+y] = [n] \mapsto n \in N$$

is surjective and injective.

Decompose now

$$X = N_{\mathbf{M}} \oplus Y, \quad U = R_{\mathbf{M}} \oplus V$$

From the fact that $\mathbf{M}: X/N_{\mathbf{M}} \mapsto R_{\mathbf{M}}$ one to one and onto, then $\mathbf{M}: Y \mapsto R_{\mathbf{M}}$ is invertible: one in fact can again use the identification

$$X/N_{\mathbf{N}} \ni [x] = [y] \mapsto y \in Y_{\mathbf{N}}$$

so that

$$z \in R_{\mathbf{M}} \implies \exists ! [x] \in X/N_{\mathbf{M}} \colon \mathbf{M}[x] = z \implies \exists ! y \in Y \colon \mathbf{M}y = z.$$

Denote its inverse by \mathbf{M}^{-1} . Define now $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{P}_{R_{\mathbf{M}}}$. Clearly

$$\mathbf{KM} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{I} & \text{on } Y \\ 0 & \text{on } N_{\mathbf{M}} \end{cases} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_{N_{\mathbf{M}}}, \qquad \mathbf{MK} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{I} & \text{on } R_{\mathbf{M}} \\ 0 & \text{on } V \end{cases} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_{V}.$$

By constructions the projections have finite dimensional range.

We now introduce the *index* of a linear map with pseudoinverse:

(3.5)
$$\operatorname{ind}\mathbf{M} = \dim N_{\mathbf{M}} - \operatorname{codim} R_{\mathbf{M}}.$$

Theorem 3.3 (Stability of the index). If $\mathbf{M} : X \mapsto U$, $\mathbf{L} : U \mapsto W$ are linear maps with pseudoinverse, then

$$(3.6) \qquad \qquad \text{ind}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{M} = \text{ind}\mathbf{L} + \text{ind}\mathbf{M}.$$

Proof. By considering the linear spaces $X/N_{\mathbf{M}}$, $R_{\mathbf{L}}$, we reduce to prove that

 $\operatorname{ind} \mathbf{LM} = \dim N_{\mathbf{L}} - \operatorname{codim} R_{\mathbf{M}},$

with \mathbf{M} one to one and \mathbf{L} onto.

Decompose $U = R_{\mathbf{M}} + Y$, $\mathbb{R}_{\mathbf{M}} \cap Y = \{0\}$ such that

$$(3.7) N_{\mathbf{L}} = (N_{\mathbf{L}} \cap R_{\mathbf{M}}) + (N_{\mathbf{L}} \cap Y).$$

This can be done using again Zorn's Lemma, or just by finite dimensional arguments. In fact, we consider $N_{\mathbf{L}} \cap R_{\mathbf{M}} \subset N_{\mathbf{L}}$. Then, we decompose first (we are in finite dimension)

 $N_{\mathbf{L}} = (N_{\mathbf{L}} \cap R_{\mathbf{M}}) + \tilde{Y}, \quad R_{\mathbf{M}} \cap \tilde{Y} = \{0\}.$

Then we find a maximal subspace Y containing \tilde{Y} and such that $R_{\mathbf{M}} \cap Y = \{0\}$. As in the proof of Proposition 3.1 one concludes that $U = R_{\mathbf{M}} + Y$, and (3.7) holds.

Since \mathbf{L} is surjective, then the only points which are not mapped by \mathbf{L} are the points in Y, or

$$W = (\mathbf{L}Y) + R_{\mathbf{L}\mathbf{M}}.$$

The number of different points in Y which are mapped by **L** are exactly $Y/(Y \cap N_{\mathbf{L}})$.

Since **M** is injective, then N_{LM} are the points of X which are mapped by **M** into N_L , i.e. $N_L \cap R_M$. We conclude

$$\dim N_{\mathbf{LM}} - \operatorname{codim} R_{\mathbf{LM}} = \dim(N_{\mathbf{L}} \cap R_{\mathbf{M}}) - \dim(Y/(Y \cap N_{\mathbf{L}}))$$
$$= \dim(N_{\mathbf{L}} \cap R_{\mathbf{M}}) - \operatorname{codim}(R_{\mathbf{M}}) + \dim(Y \cap N_{\mathbf{L}})$$
$$= \dim(N_{\mathbf{L}}) - \operatorname{codim}(R_{\mathbf{M}}).$$

4. Exercises

- (1) On the one dimensional vector space \mathbb{C} , consider the convex set $C = \{z = t, t \in [0, 1]\}$ and the point $\bar{z} = i/2$. Clearly there are not linear map $\mathbf{M}(z) = \alpha z$ such that $\sup_C |\mathbf{M}(z)| \leq |\mathbf{M}(\bar{z})|$. Show that instead this happens when \mathbb{C} is considered with the linear structure of the real vector space \mathbb{R}^2 .
- (2) Prove by means that the axioms on linear spaces that:
 - every intersection and union of balanced sets is balanced;
 - every intersection of convex sets is convex;
 - A is convex iff sA + tA = (s+t)A for all s, t > 0.

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(3) Consider the linear space

$$X = \left\{ x = (a_1, a_2, \dots), a_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

Define the linear maps \mathbf{R} , \mathbf{L} (right and left shift respectively) as

$$\mathbf{R}(a_1, a_2, \dots) = (0, a_1, a_2, \dots), \quad \mathbf{L}(a_1, a_2, \dots) = (a_2, a_3, \dots).$$

- Prove that **LR** is invertible, but **RL** not.
- Show that are pseudoinverse of each other.
- Compute the null spaces, ranges and index and verify the index theorem.
- (4) Prove that if \mathbf{L}_1 , \mathbf{L}_2 are pseudinverse of \mathbf{M} , then $\mathbf{L}_1 \mathbf{L}_2$ is degenerate.
- (5) Consider X as the space of bounded function on \mathbb{R} , and let $\mathbf{S}x(t) = x(t-1)$ (right shift of 1). Let Y be the subspace of functions which vanishes on x < 0.
 - Prove that Y is invariant, but **S** is not invertible on either Y or X/Y.
 - Compute the null space on X/Y.
- (6) In the vector space $C([0,1],\mathbb{R})$ find the extremal subsets of

$$B = \left\{ u \in C([0,1],\mathbb{R}) : |u(x)| \le 1 \right\}$$

(7) Let $\mathbf{M} \in L(X, Y)$ be a linear map. Show that

$$\dim(X/N_{\mathbf{M}}) = \dim R_{\mathbf{M}}.$$

In particular, if $Y = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} , then $\dim(X/N_{\mathbf{M}}) = 1$.