

# Homework Sheet 5: Solutions

1. Consider the non-empty set of functions

$$V := \left\{ p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k \text{ for } a_i \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

(a) Define an addition operation  $+$  :  $V \times V \rightarrow V$  and a scalar multiplication operation  $\cdot$  :  $\mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$  such that the triple  $(V, +, \cdot)$  is a real vector space.

We define  $+$  :  $V \times V \rightarrow V$  by  $(p_1 + p_2)(x) = p_1(x) + p_2(x)$ . Then  $p_1(x) + p_2(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a_{1k} + a_{2k})x^k$  where  $p_1(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{1k}x^k$  and  $p_2(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{2k}x^k$ . Therefore,  $p_1 + p_2 \in V$ . This confirms that  $V$  is closed under addition.

Similarly, we define  $\cdot$  :  $\mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$  by  $(\lambda p)(x) = \lambda p(x)$ . Then  $\lambda p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (\lambda a_k)x^k$  where  $p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k$ , so  $\lambda p \in V$ . This confirms that  $V$  is closed under scalar multiplication.

[V1]  $(p_1 + p_2)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a_{1k} + a_{2k})x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a_{2k} + a_{1k})x^k = (p_2 + p_1)(x)$   
Thus  $p_1 + p_2 = p_2 + p_1$  for any  $p_1, p_2 \in V$ .

[V2] For  $p_3$  defined by  $p_3(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{3k}x^k$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (p_1 + (p_2 + p_3))(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{1k}x^k + \left( \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{2k}x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{3k}x^k \right) \\ &= \left( \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{1k}x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{2k}x^k \right) + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{3k}x^k \\ &= ((p_1 + p_2) + p_3)(x) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $p_1 + (p_2 + p_3) = (p_1 + p_2) + p_3$  for any  $p_1, p_2, p_3 \in V$ .

[V3] Define  $0$  by  $0(x) = 0$ . By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, an  $n - 1$  degree polynomial with more than  $n - 1$  roots is identically

zero. Therefore  $0 \in V$  is uniquely defined by  $0(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 0 \cdot x^k$ , and we have

$$(p + 0)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 0 \cdot x^k = p(x)$$

Therefore,  $p + 0 = p$  for any  $p \in V$ .

[V4] We have

$$(p + (-1) \cdot p)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k + (-1) \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k \cdot x^k = 0$$

Therefore,  $p + (-1)p = 0$  for any  $p \in V$ .

[V5] We have

$$(1 \cdot p)(x) = 1 \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k = p(x)$$

Therefore,  $1 \cdot p = p$  for any  $p \in V$ .

[V6] We have

$$c_1(c_2 \cdot p)(x) = c_1(c_2 \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k) = (c_1 c_2) \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k = (c_1 c_2)p(x)$$

Therefore,  $c_1(c_2 \cdot p) = (c_1 c_2)p$  for any  $p \in V$ .

[V7] We have

$$((c_1 + c_2)p)(x) = (c_1 + c_2) \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k = c_1 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k + c_2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k = c_1 p(x) + c_2 p(x)$$

Therefore,  $(c_1 + c_2) \cdot p = c_1 p + c_2 p$  for any  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $p \in V$ .

[V8] We have

$$\begin{aligned} c(p_1 + p_2)(x) &= c\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{1k} x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{2k} x^k\right) \\ &= c \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{1k} x^k + c \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{2k} x^k = c p_1(x) + c p_2(x) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $c \cdot (p_1 + p_2)p = c_1 \cdot p_1 + c \cdot p_2$  for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $p_1, p_2 \in V$ .

(b) *Find a basis for this vector space, and deduce its dimension.*

By the construction of  $V$ , the set of monomials  $b = \{x^k\}_{k=0}^{n-1}$  is a spanning set. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, an  $n - 1$  degree polynomial with more than  $n - 1$  roots is identically zero. Therefore  $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k \cdot x^k = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  if and only if  $a_k = 0$  for  $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$ . Thus,  $b$  is a basis of  $V$ .

2. *Suppose  $m, n \geq 1$  are integers.*

(a) *Prove that the set of all maps  $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  of class  $C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  admits the structure of a real vector space with respect to the ‘natural’  $+$  :  $C^1(\mathbb{R}^m) \times C^1(\mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  and  $\cdot$  :  $\mathbb{R} \times C^1(\mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  operations.*

We define  $+$  :  $C^1(\mathbb{R}^m) \times C^1(\mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  by  $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ . Then, the fact that  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable implies that there exists  $f', g' : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  such that for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , we have

$$\lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - f'(a)h}{|h|} = \lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(a+h) - g(a) - g'(a)h}{|h|} = 0$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{(f(a+h) + g(a+h)) - (f(a) + g(a)) - (f'(a) + g'(a))h}{|h|} \\ &= \lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{(f+g)(a+h) - (f+g)(a) - (f'(a) + g'(a))h}{|h|} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, there exists  $(f + g)'$  on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  defined by  $(f + g)'(a) = f'(a) + g'(a)$ . The existence of  $(f + g)'$  implies that  $(f + g)'$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  (Munkres, Theorem 5.2).

Next, let  $D_j(f + g)$  be the  $j$ -th partial derivative of  $(f + g)$ , which by the preceding paragraph is defined by  $D_j(f + g) = D_j f + D_j g$ . The

continuity of  $D_j f + D_j g$  implies that for every  $\epsilon/2 > 0$ , there exists  $\delta = \min(\delta_f, \delta_g)$ , such that

$$\|D_j(f + g)(x) - D_j(f + g)(y)\| = \|D_j f(x) - D_j f(y)\| + \|D_j g(x) - D_j g(y)\| \leq \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$

for  $\|x - y\| \leq \delta$ . This confirms that  $(f + g) \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ , and therefore  $C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  is closed under addition.

Similarly, we define  $\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times C^1(\mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  by  $(\lambda f)(x) = \lambda f(x)$ . Then, the fact that  $f$  is differentiable implies that there exists  $f' : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  such that for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , we have

$$\lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a) - f'(a)h}{|h|} = 0$$

Consequently,

$$\lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{\lambda f(a + h) - \lambda f(a) - \lambda f'(a)h}{|h|} = \lim_{|h| \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\lambda f)(a + h) - (\lambda f)(a) - \lambda f'(a)h}{|h|} = 0$$

Therefore, there exists  $(\lambda f)'$  on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  defined by  $(\lambda f)'(a) = \lambda f'(a)$ . The existence of  $\lambda f'$  implies that  $f'$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

Next, let  $D_j(\lambda f)$  be the  $j$ -th partial derivative of  $f$ , which by the preceding paragraph is defined by  $D_j(\lambda f) = D_j \lambda f$ . The continuity of  $D_j f$  implies that  $D_j \lambda f$  is also continuous (Munkres, Theorem 3.6). This confirms that  $(\lambda f) \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ , and therefore  $C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  is closed under scalar multiplication.

[V1] We have

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

Thus  $f + g = g + f$  for any  $f, g \in V$ .

[V2] For  $h \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}(f + (g + h))(x) &= f(x) + (g(x) + h(x)) \\ &= (f(x) + g(x)) + h(x) = ((f + g) + h)(x)\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f + (g + h) = (f + g) + h$  for any  $f, g, h \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

[V3] Define  $0$  by  $0(x) = 0$ . Trivially  $0' = 0$ , and  $D_j 0 = 0$ , and therefore  $0 \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ . We have,

$$(f + 0)(x) = f(x) + 0 = f(x)$$

Therefore,  $f + 0 = f$  for any  $f \in V$ . Note that if  $0(x) \neq 0$  for any  $x$ , then the above equality will not hold, and therefore,  $0 \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$  is uniquely defined.

[V4] We have

$$(f + (-1) \cdot f)(x) = f(x) + (-1)f(x) = 0$$

Therefore,  $f + (-1)f = 0$  for any  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

[V5] We have

$$(1 \cdot f)(x) = f(x)$$

Therefore,  $1 \cdot f = f$  for any  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

[V6] We have

$$c_1(c_2 \cdot f)(x) = c_1(c_2 f(x)) = (c_1 c_2) \cdot f(x) = (c_1 c_2) f(x)$$

Therefore,  $c_1(c_2 \cdot f) = (c_1 c_2) f$  for any  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

[V7] We have

$$((c_1 + c_2)f)(x) = (c_1 + c_2) \cdot f(x) = c_1 f(x) + c_2 f(x) = c_1 f(x) + c_2 f(x)$$

Therefore,  $(c_1 + c_2) \cdot f = c_1 f + c_2 f$  for any  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

[V8] We have

$$c(f_1 + f_2)(x) = c(f_1(x) + f_2(x)) = c f_1(x) + c f_2(x)$$

Therefore,  $c \cdot (f_1 + f_2) = c_1 \cdot f_1 + c \cdot f_2$  for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $f_1, f_2 \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

(b) In the case  $n = m = 1$ , show that this vector space cannot be finite-dimensional.

Assume that  $\{b_i\}_{i=0}^k$  is a basis of  $C^1(\mathbb{R})$ . Since  $(x^i)' = ix^{i-1}$ , each monomial is of class  $C^1(\mathbb{R})$ , and as shown above, the set of monomials is linearly independent. We can have  $l$  linearly independent monomials for any  $l > k$ . This contradicts Theorem 1.1 in Munkres.

3. Let  $V := \mathbb{R}^3$  and consider the set of all 3-tensors  $\mathcal{L}^3(V)$ . Give two examples, say  $f$  and  $g$ , of maps which lie in  $\mathcal{L}^3(V)$ .

Consider  $f(x, y, z) = x_1y_1z_1$  and  $g(x, y, z) = x_1y_1z_1 + x_2y_2z_2$  where  $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3), y = (y_1, y_2, y_3), z = (z_1, z_2, z_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ .

For  $s = (s_1, s_2, s_3)$ , consider  $f(\alpha x + \beta s, y, z) = (\alpha x_1 + \beta s_1)y_1z_1 = \alpha x_1y_1z_1 + \beta s_1y_1z_1 = \alpha f(x, y, z) + \beta f(s, y, z)$  and  $g(\alpha x + \beta s, y, z) = (\alpha x_1 + \beta s_1)y_1z_1 + (\alpha x_2 + \beta s_2)y_2z_2 = \alpha(x_1y_1z_1 + x_2y_2z_2) + \beta(s_1y_1z_1 + s_2y_2z_2) = \alpha g(x, y, z) + \beta g(s, y, z)$ . We can similarly confirm the linearity in the second and third variables.

4. Suppose  $f_1, \dots, f_k \in \mathcal{L}^1(V)$ , the set of all 1-tensors on a real vector space  $V$ . Prove that

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_k) := f_1(x_1) \dots f_k(x_k) \quad \text{for } (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in V^k$$

is a  $k$ -tensor on  $V$ , i.e.  $F \in \mathcal{L}^k(V)$ .

For  $s \in V$ , by linearity of  $f_1$  we have  $F(\alpha x_1 + \beta s, x_2, \dots, x_k) = f_1(\alpha x_1 + \beta s)f_2(x_2) \dots f_k(x_k) = \alpha f_1(x_1)f_2(x_2) \dots f_k(x_k) + \beta f_1(s)f_2(x_2) \dots f_k(x_k) = \alpha F(x_1, \dots, x_k) + \beta F(s, \dots, x_k)$ . We can similarly confirm the linearity in the other variables.

5. Let  $V$  be a real vector space, and  $k \geq 1$  an integer. Show that if  $f, g \in \mathcal{L}^k(V)$  and  $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $cf + dg \in \mathcal{L}^k(V)$ .

For  $s \in V$ , by multilinearity of  $f$  and  $g$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (cf + dg)(\alpha x_1 + \beta s, x_2, \dots, x_k) &= cf(\alpha x_1 + \beta s, x_2, \dots, x_k) + dg(\alpha x_1 + \beta s, x_2, \dots, x_k) \\ &= c(\alpha f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) + \beta f(s, x_2, \dots, x_k)) + d(\alpha g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) + \beta g(s, x_2, \dots, x_k)) \\ &= \alpha[cf(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) + dg(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)] + \beta[cf(s, x_2, \dots, x_k) + dg(s, x_2, \dots, x_k)] \\ &= \alpha(cf + dg)(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) + \beta(cf + dg)(s, x_2, \dots, x_k) \end{aligned}$$

We can similarly confirm the linearity in the other variables.

6. Let  $V := \mathbb{R}^4$ . Which of the following define 2-tensors on  $V$ ?

(a)  $f(x, y) := 3x_1y_2 + 5x_2x_3;$

We have  $f((0, 1, 1, 0) + (0, 1, 1, 0), 0) = 20$  and  $f((0, 1, 1, 0), 0) + f((0, 1, 1, 0), 0) = 10$ . Thus  $f \notin \mathcal{L}^2(V)$ .

(b)  $g(x, y) := x_1y_2 + x_2y_4 + 1;$

We have  $g(0 + 0, 0) = 1$  and  $g(0, 0) + g(0, 0) = 2$ . Thus  $g \notin \mathcal{L}^2(V)$ .

(c)  $h(x, y) := x_1y_1 - 7x_2y_3.$

$$\begin{aligned} h(\alpha x + \beta s, y) &= (\alpha x_1 + \beta s_1)y_1 - 7(\alpha x_2 + \beta s_2)y_3 \\ &= \alpha(x_1y_1 - 7x_2y_3) + \beta(s_1y_1 - 7s_2y_3) \\ &= \alpha h(x, y) + \beta h(s, y) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} h(x, \alpha y + \beta s) &= x_1(\alpha y_1 + \beta s_1) - 7x_2(\alpha y_3 + \beta s_3) \\ &= \alpha(x_1y_1 - 7x_2y_3) + \beta(x_1y_1 - 7x_2s_3) \\ &= \alpha h(x, y) + \beta h(x, s) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $h \in \mathcal{L}^2(V)$ .

7. Let  $V$  be a real vector space with basis  $\{v_k\}_{k=1}^n$ . To begin, for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$  we define the maps  $\phi_i : \{v_k\}_{k=1}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  by

$$\phi_i(v_j) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = i \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

(a) How does  $\phi_i$  extend in a natural way to a linear map  $\tilde{\phi}_i : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  on the whole vector space  $V$ ? Write out  $\tilde{\phi}_i : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  explicitly (that is, write out  $\tilde{\phi}_i(x)$  for any  $x \in V$ ).

Define  $\tilde{\phi}_i : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\tilde{\phi}_i(v) = a_i$  where  $v = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k v_k$ . Observe that  $\tilde{\phi}_i = \phi_i$  on the restricted set  $\{v_k\}_{k=1}^n$ .

(b) How can we use Proposition 8.1 to show that  $\phi_i$  extends to a linear map on the whole vector space  $V$  uniquely?

For  $w = \sum_{k=1}^n b_k v_k$ , we have  $\tilde{\phi}_i(\alpha v + \beta w) = \alpha a_i + \beta b_i = \alpha \tilde{\phi}_i(v) + \beta \tilde{\phi}_i(w)$ . This confirms that  $\tilde{\phi}_i \in \mathcal{L}^1(V)$ . This and 7(a) establish the hypothesis of proposition 8.1. Therefore, given any  $\tilde{\phi}'_i \in \mathcal{L}^1(V)$  such that  $\tilde{\phi}'_i = \phi_i = \tilde{\phi}_i$  on the restricted set  $\{v_k\}_{k=1}^n$ , we have  $\tilde{\phi}'_i = \tilde{\phi}_i$  on the whole vector space  $V$ , i.e. the extension given by  $\tilde{\phi}_i$  is unique.

- (c) Suppose  $V := \mathbb{R}^3$  equipped with the canonical basis  $\{e_k\}_{k=1}^3$ . Can you give a ‘geometric’ description of the map  $\phi_1 : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  associated with  $e_1$ ?

$\phi_1$  is a scalar projection of  $v \in V$  on  $e_1$ , i.e.  $\phi_1(v) = \langle e_1, v \rangle$ .

8. Let  $V$  be a real vector space with basis  $\{v_r\}_{r=1}^n$ , and  $k \geq 1$  an integer. For any fixed multi-index  $I = (i(1), \dots, i(k)) \in \{1, \dots, n\}^k$ , we define an associated map  $\phi_I : \underbrace{\{v_r\}_{r=1}^n \times \dots \times \{v_r\}_{r=1}^n}_{k \text{ times}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  by

$$\phi_I(v_{j(1)}, \dots, v_{j(k)}) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (j(1), \dots, j(k)) = I, \\ 0 & \text{if } (j(1), \dots, j(k)) \neq I. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

- (a) How does  $\phi_I$  extend in a natural way to a multilinear map  $\tilde{\phi}_I : V^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  on the whole vector space  $V$ ? Write out  $\tilde{\phi}_I : V^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  explicitly (that is, write out  $\tilde{\phi}_I(x_1, \dots, x_k)$  for any  $(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in V^k$ ).

Define  $\tilde{\phi}_I : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\tilde{\phi}_I(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \prod_{m=1}^k x_{m, i(m)}$  where  $x_m = \sum_{r=1}^n x_{m,r} v_r$ . Observe that  $\tilde{\phi}_I = \phi_I$  on the restricted set  $\underbrace{\{v_r\}_{r=1}^n \times \dots \times \{v_r\}_{r=1}^n}_{k \text{ times}}$ .

- (b) How can we use proposition 8.1. to show that  $\tilde{\phi}_I$  extends to a map on the whole vector space  $V^k$  uniquely?

For  $y = \sum_{r=1}^n y_r v_r$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\phi}_I(\alpha x_1 + \beta y, x_2, \dots, x_k) &= (\alpha x_{1, i(1)} + \beta y_{i(1)}) \prod_{m=2}^k x_{m, i(m)} \\ &= \alpha \tilde{\phi}_I(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) + \beta \tilde{\phi}_I(y, x_2, \dots, x_k) \end{aligned}$$

This confirms that  $\tilde{\phi}_I \in \mathcal{L}^k(V)$ . This and 8(a) establish the hypothesis of proposition 8.1. Therefore, given any other  $\tilde{\phi}'_I \in \mathcal{L}^k(V)$  such that  $\tilde{\phi}'_I = \phi_I = \tilde{\phi}_I$  on the restricted set  $\underbrace{\{v_r\}_{r=1}^n \times \dots \times \{v_r\}_{r=1}^n}_{k \text{ times}}$ , we have  $\tilde{\phi}'_I = \tilde{\phi}_I$

on the whole vector space  $V^k$ , i.e., the extension given by  $\tilde{\phi}_I$  is unique.



9. Let  $V$  be a real vector space and  $k \geq 1$  an integer. Prove that the set of  $n^k$   $k$ -tensors

$$\{\phi_I : I \in \{1, \dots, n\}^k\} \subset \mathcal{L}^k(V)$$

defined in question 8 above is a basis for  $\mathcal{L}^k(V)$ .

See Munkres, Theorem 26.3.