

Assignment 11:
Duality (Section 3F) and other topics
Due Tuesday April 19, 2022

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Problem 1 (real inner product space, Chapter 6) Let V be a vector space over the field \mathbb{R} . A function

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is an **inner product** if the following hold

- (i) $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$ for all $v, w \in V$. In other words, an inner product must be **symmetric**.
- (ii) For each fixed $w \in V$ the function $v \mapsto \langle v, w \rangle$ is a linear function on V . This is called *linearity in the first slot*. In view of the symmetry condition, an inner product must be linear in both slots; that is inner product must be **bilinear**.
- (iii) $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$ for every $v \in V$ with equality if and only if $v = \mathbf{0}$. In other words, an inner product must be **positive definite**.

(a) Show that if U is any subspace of an inner product space V , then

$$U^\perp = \{v \in V : \langle v, u \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } u \in U\}$$

is a subspace of V . The space U^\perp is called the **orthogonal complement** of U or “ U perp” for short.

(b) Show that if V is a finite dimensional inner product space and U is a **proper** subspace of U , in this case meaning $U \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$ and $U \neq V$, then

$$V = U \oplus U^\perp.$$

(c) Show that $U \subset U^{\perp\perp}$ where $U^{\perp\perp} = (U^\perp)^\perp$ is the **double orthogonal complement** of U . Note: This assertions holds even when V (and U) may be infinite dimensional.

(d) Show that if V is finite dimensional, then

$$U^{\perp\perp} = U.$$

Note: This also holds if U is finite dimensional, even if V is infinite dimensional, and more generally, this holds if U is **closed** even if U is infinite dimensional, but we have not talked about what it means for U to be closed.

Problem 2 (real normed space) Let V be a vector space over the field \mathbb{R} . A function

$$\| \cdot \| : V \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

is a **norm** if the following hold

(i) $\|cv\| = |c| \|v\|$ for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $v \in V$. In other words, a norm must be **non-negative homogeneous**.

(ii) $\|v+w\| \leq \|v\| + \|w\|$ for every $v, w \in V$. This is called the **triangle inequality** for the norm.

(iii) $\|v\| = 0$ if and only if $v = \mathbf{0}$. In other words, a norm must be **positive definite**.

(a) Given a real inner product space V , show that V is also a real normed space with

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}.$$

Note: This norm is called the **norm induced by the inner product** or the **induced norm**.

Caution/Hint: Showing (i) and (iii) should be relatively straightforward, but showing the triangle inequality for the norm may be quite difficult for you if you haven't seen it before; you may want to look up the proof in a book or on the internet.

(b) Show that \mathbb{R}^n is a real inner product space (and hence a real normed space) with

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n v_j w_j.$$

This inner product is called the **standard dot product** on \mathbb{R}^n .

(c) Let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n be positive real numbers. Show that

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_* = \sum_{j=1}^n p_j x_j y_j$$

defines an inner product on \mathbb{R}^n .

(d) In the case $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n) \neq (1, 1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the inner product in part (c) is a **non-standard inner product**. Take $n = 2$ and draw the unit circle

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{x}\|_* = 1\}$$

determined by the norm induced by a non-standard inner product.

Problem 3 (generalized bases and dimension) Recall that if V is a finite dimensional vector space, then a basis $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ of V is defined to be a finite subset of V which is **linearly independent** and is a **spanning set**. With this definition, the **dimension** of a finite dimensional vector space is defined to be the number of elements in a basis. These constructions can be generalized as follows:

Given a vector space X , **any** subset $A \subset X$ is

(i) a **spanning set** if every vector $x \in X$ can be written as a (finite) linear combination

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j$$

for some vectors $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in A$.

(ii) **linearly independent** if every (finite) linear combination

$$\sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j$$

for some vectors (distinct) $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in A$ for which

$$\sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j = 0$$

must have $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_k = 0$.

Note: These definitions do not require the set A to be a finite set.

Given a vector space X , **any** subset $B \subset X$ is a **basis** if B is a linearly independent spanning set.

- (a) Show that every generalized basis B for a finite dimensional vector space V is a basis according to the old (finite dimensional) definition of basis.
- (b) Show that every basis $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ of a finite dimensional vector space V is a basis in the generalized sense.
- (c) Show that if B is a (generalized) basis for a vector space X , then every vector $x \in X$ is written **uniquely** as a linear combination

$$x = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j$$

for some (distinct) vectors $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in B$ where the uniqueness holds up to a reordering of the basis vectors. *Hint: Use induction.*

Recall that for a finite dimensional vector space V the dual space V' is isomorphic to V . The objective of the next three problems is to suggest how one would go about showing X' is **not isomorphic** to X when X is infinite dimensional. There are more interesting things in these problems as well.

Problem 4 (polynomial basis) Remember

$$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}(F) = \left\{ \sum_{j=0}^k a_j z^j : k \in \mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} \text{ and } a_j \in F \text{ for } j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k \right\}$$

is the vector space of polynomials with coefficients in a field F .

- (a) Find a basis for the vector space $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}(F)$ of polynomials with coefficients in a field.
- (b) Show the dual space \mathcal{P}' is isomorphic to $F^{\mathbb{N}}$ the vector space of sequences $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ in F .

Problem 5 (ordinals) You are familiar with some numbers and some sets of numbers. For example $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is the set of **natural numbers**, and $\mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is the set of **natural numbers with zero**. $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\}$ is the set of **integers**, $\mathbb{Q} = \{p/q : p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is the set of **rational numbers**, and \mathbb{R} is the set of **real numbers**. Some of the numbers in these sets are **ordinal numbers** (and some are not). There are also other ordinal numbers you may not know about. Here is an introduction:

- (i) Ordinal numbers have to do with **ordering**. In order to talk about ordering, we **reinterpret** numbers as sets and say two ordinal numbers a and b satisfy

$$a < b \quad \text{if} \quad a \subset b.$$

This, of course, seems strange, but it's also rather natural when you get used to it.

- (ii) As a set the number 0 is the first ordinal and it **is** the empty set. You'll notice $0 = \phi \in \mathbb{N}_0 \cap \mathbb{Z}$. Thus, 0 and ϕ are two different names for the same thing: the first ordinal number.
- (iii) The second ordinal number is $1 = \{0\} = \{\phi\}$. Notice that $0 < 1$ (by definition) because $0 = \phi \subset 1 = \{\phi\}$. In fact, $0 = \phi$ is a subset of every ordinal number because there are no elements in 0.
- (iv) As a set/ordinal $2 = \{0, 1\}$, and

$$k + 1 = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, k\}.$$

Thus, all the numbers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ in \mathbb{N}_0 are ordinals and they are ordered in the way you would imagine. These are called the *finite ordinals*.

- (v) Remember that ordering is important for ordinals. Each ordinal is an **ordered set**. This means one can compare every two (distinct) elements a and b in an ordinal ν and either $a < b$ or $b < a$. A bijection $f : \nu \rightarrow \mu$ between ordinals is said to be **order preserving** if $f(a) < f(b)$ whenever $a < b$.
- (a) Prove (or at least try to prove or convince yourself) that there does not exist a bijection between n and m for any (distinct) $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_0$.
- (b) Prove (or at least try to prove or convince yourself) that given any finite set A there exists exactly one $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ for which there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow n$.

- (c) The first ordinal you may not know about is ω . This ordinal is the smallest **infinite ordinal**:

$$\omega = \mathbb{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

with the obvious ordering. Congratulations: You probably just learned how to count higher than you ever have before! Show (or at least try to show or convince yourself) that there does not exist a bijection $f : n \rightarrow \omega$ for any finite ordinal $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. In fact, $n < \omega$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$.

- (d) The next infinite ordinal is $\omega + 1 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{\omega\}$ with the ordering determined by the condition $n < \omega$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that $\omega < \omega + 1$.
- (e) Show there exists a bijection $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega + 1$.
- (f) Show there does **not** exist an order preserving bijection $f : \omega \rightarrow \omega + 1$.

Problem 6 (cardinality and cardinals) You can probably count much higher than you could before the previous problem:

$$0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, \omega, \omega + 1, \omega + 2, \dots$$

with $\omega + k + 1 = [\omega + k] \cup \{\omega + k\}$. It is, of course, possible to count even higher if you know how:

$$2\omega = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} (\omega + k).$$

- (a) If α and β are among the infinite ordinal numbers mentioned above,¹ then there exists a bijection $f : \alpha \rightarrow \beta$.
- (b) Any two sets A and B for which there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$ are said to have the same **cardinality**, or **number of elements**. If this is the case, we write

$$\#A = \#B,$$

and we say $\#A$ is the cardinality of A . Thus, the previous part of this problem asserts that all the infinite ordinal numbers mentioned so far have the same cardinality. Also, part (b) of Problem 5 asserts that every finite set has the cardinality of precisely one finite ordinal. Prove that 2^ω , the set of all functions from ω to $2 = \{0, 1\}$ does not have the cardinality of any ordinal mentioned

¹Just to be clear, there are other infinite ordinals coming, but these have not been mentioned above. The ones “mentioned above” at this point are ω , $\omega + k$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and 2ω .

above. *Hint: Assume there is a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 2^\omega$ so that every function $\phi : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ can be found in a sequence*

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots$$

Then construct some other $\phi : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ which is not in the sequence. Thus, f cannot be surjective.

- (c) *The previous part of this problem suggests that the set 2^ω is rather bigger (in terms of cardinality) than any of the infinite ordinals mentioned above. Are you ready to learn to count higher? Yes, 2^ω is also an ordinal, but it is a rather different kind of ordinal: Let \mathcal{O} denote the ordinal numbers, then*

$$\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{U}$$

where

$$\mathcal{C} \supset \{\omega, \omega + 1, \omega + 2, \dots, 2\omega, 2\omega + 1, \dots\}$$

is the set of all ordinals ν for which there is a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \nu$, and \mathcal{U} is the set of all larger ordinals.

Definition 1 *A set A for which there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow n$ for some ordinal $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ is said to have **finite cardinality** or just simply to be a finite set. A set A for which A is a finite set **or** there exists a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$, i.e., A has the same cardinality as any of the*

$$\omega, \omega + 1, \omega + 2, \dots, 2\omega, 2\omega + 1, \dots \in \mathcal{C}$$

*is said to be **countable**. An ordinal in \mathcal{U} , like 2^ω , $2^\omega + 1$, $2^{\omega+1}$ or 3^ω , is said to be **uncountable**.*

Which is the bigger ordinal $2^{\omega+1}$ or 3^ω (or are they the same)?

- (d) *Here is something interesting:*

$$\Omega = \bigcap_{\nu \in \mathcal{U}} \nu$$

*is an uncountable ordinal called the **first uncountable ordinal** or the smallest uncountable ordinal. We can also choose a specific given set, say an ordinal, to **represent the cardinality** of any set. Of course, this requires one to be able to count the elements in an arbitrary set, which is quite an impressive thing*

to be able to do. These representative ordinals are called **cardinal numbers**. The cardinal numbers only take account of cardinality but not ordering. We can (and must) take $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ as cardinals for the finite sets. We can choose any element of \mathcal{C} to represent the cardinality of \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{N}_0 and ω . We usually take $\omega = \aleph_0$, but whatever set one chooses this cardinality (as a cardinal number) is denoted \aleph_0 .

\aleph_0 is representative of the cardinality of every infinite countable ordinal (and set).

While cardinal numbers do not take account of ordering by nature, there is also an ordering on the cardinal numbers themselves: We say the cardinal numbers γ and η satisfy $\gamma < \eta$ if there is an injection $f : \gamma \rightarrow \eta$ but no injection $g : \eta \rightarrow \gamma$. There is also **cardinal arithmetic** rather like the **ordinal arithmetic** one uses to count.

The cardinality of the first uncountable ordinal Ω is called \aleph_1 . This cardinality is **not** representative of the cardinalities of every uncountable ordinal in \mathcal{U} . Show $\aleph_1 \leq \#\mathbb{R} = 2^{\aleph_0}$. Hint: Binary decimal representation.

It turns out that one has a strange choice at this point: One can either assume

$$\aleph_1 < \#\mathbb{R} = 2^{\aleph_0} \quad \text{or} \quad \aleph_1 = \#\mathbb{R} = 2^{\aleph_0}.$$

The latter assumption is called the **continuum hypothesis**. The continuum hypothesis was stated as a conjecture by Georg Cantor in 1878. Paul Cohen received the fields medal in 1966 for his 1963 proof that either assumption is possible/consistent. Cohen's result is called the **independence of the continuum hypothesis**.

Note: We have not established the assertion above that there are uncountable ordinals with cardinality greater than \aleph_1 . Of course, we can choose for this to be the case (according to Paul Cohen). It can also be proved that $\aleph_1 < 2^{\aleph_1}$, which is rather easier than reading Cohen's proof.

Problem 7 (infinite dimensions) Let X be a vector space with a (generalized) basis B . The **dimension** of X is then defined to be $\#B$, the cardinality of B .

(a) Prove that if X is a vector space with a basis B , then every basis for X has the same cardinality as B . This means the notion of dimension is well-defined.

(b) Prove that the dual space \mathcal{P}' of the vector space of polynomials \mathcal{P} considered in Problem 4 above is **not isomorphic** to \mathcal{P} .

Problem 8 (Axler 3F30) If V is a finite dimensional vector space and $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_k\}$ is a linear independent set in the dual space V' , then show

$$\dim(\cap_{j=1}^k \mathcal{N}(\phi_j)) = \dim V - k.$$

Note: The dual vectors $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_k$ are not intended to be any particular “standard” dual basis vectors.

Problem 9 (Axler 4.5) If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k are distinct field elements and b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k are any field elements, then prove there exists a unique polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}_m(F)$ for which

$$p(a_j) = b_j \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

Problem 10 (Axler 5A1-3) Let $L : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear function (what Axler calls an **operator**). A subspace $U \subset V$ is called **invariant** if the restriction

$$M = L|_U : U \rightarrow V$$

has image

$$\text{Im}\left(L|_U\right)$$

satisfying

$$\text{Im}\left(L|_U\right) \subset U.$$

In this case, we can consider the restriction $M : U \rightarrow U$ as an operator on U .

- (a) Show any subspace of $\mathcal{N}(L)$ is invariant.
- (b) Show that if U is a subspace for which $\text{Im}(L) \subset U$, then U is invariant.
- (c) Show that if $S, T \in \mathcal{L}(V \rightarrow V)$ with $ST = TS$, then $\mathcal{N}(S)$ and $\text{Im}(S)$ are invariant subspaces for T .
- (d) Define what it means for $v \in V$ to be an **eigenvector** of L , and prove that if U is a one-dimensional subspace of V , then there exists an eigenvector for L .