

## Sheet 02: Vector Spaces, Euclidean Spaces

### Solution Optional Problem 1: Vector space of real functions [2]

We have to verify that all the axioms for a vector space are satisfied. First,  $(F, \oplus)$  indeed has all the properties of an abelian group:

- (i) Closure holds by definition: adding two functions from  $F$  again yields a function in  $F$ . ✓
- (ii,v) Associativity and commutativity follow trivially from the corresponding properties of  $\mathbb{R}$ . For example associativity:

$$\begin{aligned} [f \oplus [g \oplus h]](x) &= f(x) + [g \oplus h](x) = f(x) + (g(x) + h(x)) \\ &= (f(x) + g(x)) + h(x) = [f \oplus g](x) + h(x) = [[f \oplus g] \oplus h](x). \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

- (iii) The neutral element is the null function, defined by  $f_{\text{null}} : x \mapsto f_{\text{null}}(x) \equiv 0$ , since  $f \oplus f_{\text{null}} : x \mapsto f(x) + f_{\text{null}}(x) = f(x) + 0 = f(x)$ . ✓
- (iv) The additive inverse of  $f$  is  $-f$ , defined by  $-f : x \mapsto (-f)(x) \equiv -f(x)$ , since  $f \oplus (-f) : x \mapsto f(x) + (-f(x)) = 0$ . ✓

Moreover, multiplication of any function with a scalar also has all the properties required for  $(F, \oplus, \cdot)$  to be a vector space. Closure holds per definition. Furthermore:

- (vi) Multiplication of a sum of scalars and a function is distributive:

$$\begin{aligned} [(\gamma + \lambda) \cdot f](x) &= (\gamma + \lambda)f(x) = \gamma f(x) + \lambda f(x) = [\gamma \cdot f](x) + [\lambda \cdot f](x) \\ &= [\gamma \cdot f \oplus \lambda \cdot f](x). \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

- (vii) Multiplication of a scalar and a sum of functions is distributive:

$$\begin{aligned} [\lambda \cdot (f \oplus g)](x) &= \lambda([f \oplus g](x)) = \lambda(f(x) + g(x)) = \lambda f(x) + \lambda g(x) \\ &= [\lambda \cdot f](x) + [\lambda \cdot g](x) = [\lambda \cdot f \oplus \lambda \cdot g](x). \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

- (viii) Multiplication of a product of scalars and a function is associative:

$$[(\gamma\lambda) \cdot f](x) = (\gamma\lambda)f(x) = \gamma(\lambda f(x)) = \gamma[\lambda \cdot f](x) = [\gamma \cdot (\lambda \cdot f)](x). \quad \checkmark$$

- (ix) Neutral element:  $[1 \cdot f](x) = 1f(x) = f(x)$ . ✓

Therefore, the triple  $(F, \oplus, \cdot)$  is an  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space.

### Solution Optional Problem 2: Vector space of polynomials of degree $n$ [3]

(a) The definition of addition of polynomials and the usual addition rule in  $\mathbb{R}$  yield

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\mathbf{a}}(x) + p_{\mathbf{b}}(x) &= a_0x^0 + a_1x^1 + \dots a_nx^n + b_0x^0 + b_1x^1 + \dots b_nx^n \\ &= (a_0 + b_0)x^0 + (a_1 + b_1)x^1 + \dots (a_n + b_n)x^n = p_{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}}(x), \end{aligned}$$

since  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = (a_0 + b_0, \dots, a_n + b_n)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . Therefore  $\boxed{p_{\mathbf{a}} \oplus p_{\mathbf{b}} = p_{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}}}$ .  $\checkmark$

The definition for the multiplication of a polynomial with a scalar and the usual multiplication rule in  $\mathbb{R}$  yield

$$cp_{\mathbf{a}}(x) = c(a_0x^0 + a_1x^1 + \dots a_nx^n) = ca_0x^0 + ca_1x^1 + \dots ca_nx^n = p_{c\mathbf{a}}(x),$$

since  $c\mathbf{a} = (ca_0, \dots, ca_n)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . Therefore  $\boxed{c \cdot p_{\mathbf{a}} = p_{c\mathbf{a}}}$ .  $\checkmark$

(b) We have to verify that all the axioms for a vector space are satisfied. First,  $(P_n, \oplus)$  indeed has all the properties of an abelian group:

(i) Closure: adding two polynomials of degree  $n$  again yields a polynomial of degree at most  $n$ .  $\checkmark$

(ii,v) Associativity and commutativity follow trivially from the corresponding properties of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . For example, consider associativity:

$$p_{\mathbf{a}} \oplus (p_{\mathbf{b}} \oplus p_{\mathbf{c}}) = p_{\mathbf{a}} \oplus p_{\mathbf{b}+\mathbf{c}} = p_{\mathbf{a}+(\mathbf{b}+\mathbf{c})} = p_{(\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b})+\mathbf{c}} = p_{\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}} \oplus p_{\mathbf{c}} = (p_{\mathbf{a}} \oplus p_{\mathbf{b}}) \oplus p_{\mathbf{c}}. \checkmark$$

(iii) The neutral element is the null polynomial  $p_0$ , i.e. the polynomial whose coefficients are all equal to 0.  $\checkmark$

(iv) The additive inverse of  $p_{\mathbf{a}}$  is  $p_{-\mathbf{a}}$ .  $\checkmark$

Moreover, multiplication of any polynomial with a scalar also has all the properties required for  $(P_n, \oplus, \cdot)$  to be a vector space. Multiplication with a scalar  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  satisfies closure, since  $c \cdot p_{\mathbf{a}} = p_{c\mathbf{a}}$  again yields a polynomial of degree  $n$ .  $\checkmark$  All the rules for multiplication by scalars follow directly from the corresponding properties of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ .  $\checkmark$

Each element  $p_{\mathbf{a}} \in P_n$  is uniquely identified by the element  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  – this identification is a bijection between  $P_n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , hence  $(P_n, \oplus, \cdot)$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  and has dimension  $n + 1$ .  $\checkmark$

(c) The bijection between  $P_n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  associates the standard basis vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , namely  $\mathbf{e}_k = (0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)^T$  (with a 1 at position  $k$  and  $0 \leq k \leq n$ ), with a basis in the vector space  $(P_n, \oplus, \cdot)$ , namely  $\{p_{\mathbf{e}_0}, \dots, p_{\mathbf{e}_n}\}$ , corresponding to the monomials  $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$ , since  $p_{\mathbf{e}_k}(x) = x^k$ . This statement corresponds to the obvious fact that every polynomial of degree  $n$  can be written as linear combination of monomials of degree  $\leq n$ .

### Solution Optional Problem 3: Unconventional inner products on $\mathbb{R}^2$ [2]

All the defining properties of an inner product are satisfied:

(i) Symmetric:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = x_1y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_2y_1 + 3x_2y_2 = y_1x_1 + y_1x_2 + y_2x_1 + 3y_2x_2 = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle. \checkmark$$

(ii,iii) Linear:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \lambda \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle &= (\lambda x_1 + y_1)z_1 + (\lambda x_1 + y_1)z_2 + (\lambda x_2 + y_2)z_1 + 3(\lambda x_2 + y_2)z_2 \\ &= (\lambda x_1z_1 + \lambda x_1z_2 + \lambda x_2z_1 + 3\lambda x_2z_2) + (y_1z_1 + y_1z_2 + y_2z_1 + 3y_2z_2) \\ &= \lambda \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle. \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

(iii) Positive semi-definite:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = x_1x_1 + x_1x_2 + x_2x_1 + 3x_2x_2 = (x_1 + x_2)^2 + 2x_2^2 \geq 0. \checkmark$$

If  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$ , then  $\mathbf{x} = (0, 0)^T. \checkmark$

#### Solution Optional Problem 4: Inner product and norm for the vector space of continuous functions [3]

(a) All the defining properties of an inner product are satisfied:

(i) Symmetric: 
$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_I dx f(x)g(x) = \int_I dx g(x)f(x) = \langle g, f \rangle. \checkmark$$

(ii,iii) Linear: 
$$\begin{aligned} \langle \lambda \cdot f + g, h \rangle &= \int_I dx (\lambda f(x) + g(x))h(x) \\ &= \lambda \int_I dx f(x)h(x) + \int_I dx g(x)h(x) = \lambda \langle f, h \rangle + \langle g, h \rangle. \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

(iv) Positive semi-definite: 
$$\langle f, f \rangle = \int_I dx f^2(x) \geq 0.$$

Since the integrand is everywhere  $\geq 0$ , the integral is also  $\geq 0. \checkmark$  Moreover, since  $f$  is continuous, the integral can equal 0 if and only if the integrand  $f^2$  vanishes everywhere. Therefore  $f(x) = 0$ , i.e.  $f$  is the zero function.  $\checkmark$

Optional: mathematical justification for the last statement: Suppose  $f \neq 0$ , then there exists an  $x_0 \in I$  such that  $(f(x_0))^2 \neq 0$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,  $(f(x))^2$  is non-zero in some neighbourhood of  $x_0$ , i.e., there exists a  $\delta > 0$ , such that for all  $|x_0 - x| < \delta$ ,  $|(f(x))^2| > \frac{1}{2}|(f(x_0))^2|$ . Thus the integral must be larger than zero; e.g. we can find a lower bound as follows:  $\langle f, f \rangle = \int_I dx (f(x))^2 \geq \int_{x_0-\delta}^{x_0+\delta} dx (f(x))^2 > \int_{x_0-\delta}^{x_0+\delta} dx \frac{1}{2}(f(x_0))^2 = \delta f(x_0)^2 > 0$ . Furthermore, for  $f(x) \equiv 0$ , we have  $\langle f, f \rangle = \int_I dx (f(x))^2 = \int_I dx 0 = 0. \checkmark$

(b) 
$$\langle f_1, f_2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 dx f_1(x)f_2(x) = \int_{-1}^1 dx \sin\left(\frac{x}{\pi}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x}{\pi}\right) = \boxed{0},$$

because the integrand is antisymmetric. Thus the two functions are 'orthogonal' to each other.

Explicitly, the substitution  $u = \sin(x/\pi)$ ,  $du = dx \cos(x/\pi) / \pi$  gives:

$$\int_{-1}^1 dx \sin\left(\frac{x}{\pi}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x}{\pi}\right) = \pi \int_{-\sin(\frac{1}{\pi})}^{\sin(\frac{1}{\pi})} du u = \frac{\pi u^2}{2} \Big|_{-\sin(\frac{1}{\pi})}^{\sin(\frac{1}{\pi})} = 0.$$

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[Total Points for Optional Problems: 10]

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