

## MATH 750 HW # 1

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**Ex 1-7:** A linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be **norm preserving** if  $|T(x)| = |x|$ , and similarly it is **inner product preserving** if  $\langle Tx, Ty \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ .

- a) Prove that  $T$  is norm preserving iff  $T$  is inner product preserving.
- b) Prove that such a linear transformation  $T$  is 1-1 and that its inverse  $T^{-1}$  is of the same sort.

*Proof.* For part a), let us assume first that  $T$  is norm preserving, so that  $|T(x)| = |x|$  holds. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}\langle Tx, Ty \rangle &= \frac{1}{4}(|Tx + Ty|^2 - |Tx - Ty|^2) && \text{(By the polarization identity)} \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(|T(x+y)|^2 - |T(x-y)|^2) && \text{(By linearity of } T) \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(|x+y|^2 - |x-y|^2) && \text{(Since } T \text{ is norm preserving)} \\ &= \langle x, y \rangle && \text{(By the polarization identity)}\end{aligned}$$

Hence we have shown that  $T$  is inner product preserving.

Now we assume that  $T$  is inner product preserving, so that  $\langle Tx, Ty \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$  holds. By *Theorem 1.2* part (4) on our text, we have that  $|x| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ , which is true because

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, x \rangle &= x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots x_n^2 \\ \implies \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} &= \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots x_n^2} \\ &= |x|.\end{aligned}$$

Using this result then, we have

$$|Tx| = \sqrt{\langle Tx, Tx \rangle} = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = |x|,$$

thus showing that  $T$  is also norm preserving, and we are done.

Now for part **b)**, take two elements  $Tx, Ty \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $Tx = Ty$ , so that  $Tx - Ty = 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle 0, 0 \rangle \\ &= \langle Tx - Ty, Tx - Ty \rangle \\ &= \langle x - y, x - y \rangle \quad (\text{Since } T \text{ is inner product preserving}). \end{aligned}$$

This result implies that  $x = y$ , and thus we have that  $T$  is injective, as desired.

Lastly, since  $T$  is an injective linear operator, it is invertible. Hence  $T^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  exists and, since  $T$  is norm preserving and inner product preserving, for every  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have

$$\|T^{-1}x\| = \|T(T^{-1}x)\| = \|x\|,$$

and

$$\langle T^{-1}x, T^{-1}y \rangle = \langle T(T^{-1}x), T(T^{-1}y) \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

Therefore  $T^{-1}$  is also norm preserving and inner product preserving, and this concludes our proof.  $\square$

**Ex 1-10:** If  $T: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a linear transformation, show that there is a number  $M$  such that  $|T(\mathbf{h})| \leq M|h|$  for  $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

(Hint: Estimate  $|T(\mathbf{h})|$  in terms of  $|\mathbf{h}|$  and the entries in the matrix of  $T$ .)

*Proof.* Let  $A$  be the matrix associated with the linear map  $T$ . That is,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}^1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}^n \end{pmatrix},$$

so that

$$T(\mathbf{h}) = A\mathbf{h} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \mathbf{v}^1, \mathbf{h} \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle \mathbf{v}^n, \mathbf{h} \rangle \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 |T(\mathbf{h})|^2 &= \sum_{j=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}^j, \mathbf{h} \rangle^2 \\
 &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n (|\mathbf{v}^j| \cdot |\mathbf{h}|)^2 && \text{(By Theorem 1-1 part (2))} \\
 &= \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |\mathbf{v}^j|^2 \right) \cdot |\mathbf{h}|^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, letting  $M = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n |\mathbf{v}^j|^2}$ , we have that  $|T(\mathbf{h})| \leq M|h|$ , as desired.  $\square$

**Ex 1-18:** If  $A \subset [0, 1]$  is the union of open intervals  $(a_i, b_i)$  such that each rational number in  $(0, 1)$  is contained in some  $(a_i, b_i)$ , show that  $\partial A = [0, 1] \setminus A$ .

*Proof.* Let  $K = [0, 1]$ . It is clear that  $A$  is open since by hypothesis we have  $A = \cup_i (a_i, b_i)$ , which is a union of open sets (which is open). Hence we must have that  $A^c = K \setminus A$  is closed in  $K$ , which implies that  $\overline{K \setminus A} = K \setminus A$ .

Now since

$$\partial A = \bar{A} \cap \overline{K \setminus A} = \bar{A} \cap (K \setminus A),$$

it suffices to show that  $K \setminus A \subseteq \bar{A}$ , which holds if and only if  $\bar{A} = K$ .

Now take any  $x \in K$  and any open neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  in  $K$ . Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense, there exists a rational  $r \in U$ . Since there is some  $i$  such that  $r \in (a_i, b_i)$ , we know that  $U \cap (a_i, b_i) \neq \emptyset$ , which means that  $x \in \bar{A}$ . Hence  $A$  is dense in  $K$  (i.e.  $K = \bar{A}$ ), which implies that  $K \setminus A \subseteq \bar{A}$ , and thus  $\partial A = [0, 1] \setminus A$ , as desired.  $\square$

**Ex 1-21:** a) If  $A$  is closed and  $x \notin A$ , prove that there is a number  $d > 0$  such that  $|y - x| \geq d$  for all  $y \in A$ .

b) If  $A$  is closed,  $B$  is compact, and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , prove that there is  $d > 0$  such that  $|y - x| \geq d$  for all  $y \in A$  and  $x \in B$ . (*Hint:* For each  $b \in B$ , find an open set  $U$  containing  $b$  such that this relation holds for  $x \in U \cap B$ .)

c) Give a counterexample in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  if  $A$  and  $B$  are closed but neither is compact.

*Proof.* a) By hypothesis,  $A^c$  is open, since  $A$  is closed. Since  $x \in A^c$ , there exists an open ball  $\mathcal{B}_d(x)$  with radius  $d > 0$  such that  $x \in \mathcal{B}_d(x) \subset A^c$ . Then we have that  $|y - x| \geq d$  for all  $y \in A$ , as desired.

b) What we need to show is that the distance from  $A$  to  $B$ , which we denote by  $d(A, B)$ , is greater than 0. Since  $A$  is closed and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , for each point  $x \in B$ , there exists  $\delta_x > 0$  so that  $d(x, A) > 3\delta_x$ . Since the union of open balls  $\bigcup_{x \in B} \mathcal{B}_{2\delta_x}(x)$  covers  $B$ , and  $B$  is compact, we may find a subcover, which we denote by  $\bigcup_{j=1}^N \mathcal{B}_{2\delta_j}(x_j)$ . If we let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_N\}$ , then we must have  $d(A, B) \geq \delta > 0$ . Indeed, if  $x \in B$  and  $y \in A$ , then for some  $j$  we have  $|x_j - x| \leq 2\delta_j$ , and by construction  $|y - x_j| \geq 3\delta_j$ . Therefore

$$|y - x| \geq |y - x_j| - |x_j - x| \geq 3\delta_j - 2\delta_j \geq \delta,$$

as desired.

c) Let  $A$  be the  $x$ -axis and  $B$  be the graph of the exponential function. *Figure 1* below shows this counterexample:

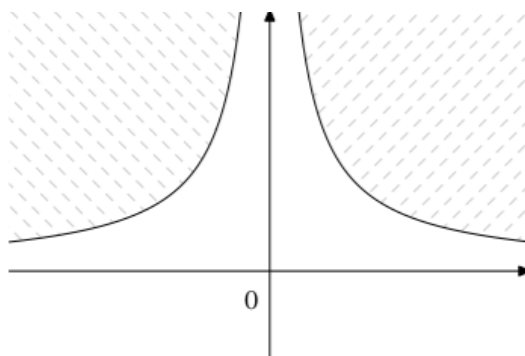


FIGURE 1. Counterexample in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  if  $A$  and  $B$  are closed but neither is compact.  $\square$

**Ex 1-22:** If  $U$  is open and  $C \subset U$  is compact, show that there is a compact set  $D$  such that  $C \subset \text{int}(D)$  and  $D \subset U$ .

*Proof.* Because  $C \subset U$ , and  $U$  is open, then for each  $x \in C$  there is an open rectangle  $U_x$  with  $x \in U_x \subset U$ . Now consider the collection of all of these rectangles, one for each point in  $C$ . For each  $x$ , we will minimize  $U_x$  to get a smaller open rectangle  $V_x$  in the following way:

The  $i^{\text{th}}$  side of  $U_x$  should be an interval  $(x_i - \delta_i, x_i + \varepsilon_i)$  containing  $x_i$ . Now we trim off half the distance from  $x_i$  to the boundary on each side, so that the  $i^{\text{th}}$  side of  $V_x$  is  $(x_i - \delta_i/2, x_i + \varepsilon_i/2)$ . Then the closed rectangle  $\overline{V_x}$  is a proper subset of  $U_x \subset U$ .

Now let  $\mathcal{O}$  the open cover for  $C$  consisting of all the  $V_x$ . Since there is one  $V_x$  for each  $x \in C$ , this certainly covers  $C$ . But  $C$  is compact, so we only need finitely many of these rectangles, say  $V_{x_1}, \dots, V_{x_k}$ .

Now let

$$D = \overline{V_{x_1}} \bigcup \cdots \bigcup \overline{V_{x_k}}.$$

Since each  $\overline{V_{x_j}}$  is compact, and there are finitely many of them in the union forming  $D$ , we have that  $D$  must be compact. Moreover,  $C \subset (V_{x_1} \bigcup \cdots \bigcup V_{x_k}) = \text{int}(D)$  and  $D \subset U$ , as we set out to prove.  $\square$

**Ex 1-28:** If  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is not closed, show that there is a continuous function  $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which is not bounded. (*Hint:* If  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$  but  $x \notin \text{int}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus A)$ , let  $f(y) = 1/|y-x|$ .)

*Proof.* Since  $A$  is not closed, we have  $A \cap \partial A \neq \emptyset$ . Now we choose  $x \in \partial A$ , so that  $x \notin A$ , and let  $f(y) = 1/|y-x|$  for all  $y \in A$ . Clearly  $f$  is not bounded, since the closer we pick  $y \in A$  to a point  $x \in \partial A$ , the more this function will blow up to infinity. Thus what's left for us to show is that  $f$  is indeed a continuous function:

Pick an arbitrary  $p \in A$ , and then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  we choose

$$\delta = \min \left\{ \frac{|p-x|}{2}, \frac{\varepsilon|p-x|^2}{2} \right\},$$

so that for any  $y$  with  $0 < |y-p| < \delta$ , we have  $|y-x| \geq |p-x|/2$ .

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(y) - f(p)| &= \left| \frac{1}{|y-x|} - \frac{1}{|p-x|} \right| = \frac{||p-x| - |y-x||}{|y-x||p-x|} \\ &\leq \frac{|p-y|}{|y-x||p-x|} \\ &< \frac{2\delta}{|p-x|^2} \leq \varepsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (\clubsuit)$$

This result proves the continuity of  $f$  that we desire, but before concluding our proof we need to show why it is true that the inequality  $(\clubsuit)$  holds. That is, we need to show that

for any  $x, y$  it is always the case that  $||x|| - ||y|| \leq ||x - y||$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 ||x - y||^2 &= \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - y_j)^2 \\
 &= ||x||^2 + ||y||^2 - 2 \sum_{j=1}^n x_j y_j \\
 &\geq ||x||^2 + ||y||^2 - 2||x|| ||y|| \\
 &= (||x|| - ||y||)^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Taking square roots yields the desired result, and our proof is done.  $\square$

**Ex 1-29:** If  $A$  is compact, prove that every continuous function  $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  takes on a maximum and a minimum value.

*Proof.* Since  $A$  is compact and  $f$  is continuous, *Theorem 1-9* guarantees that  $f(A) \subset \mathbb{R}$  is compact, and hence it is closed and bounded. Let  $m$  and  $M$  be the greatest lower bound and least upper bound, respectively, of  $f(A)$ . Then  $m$  and  $M$  are boundary points of  $f(A)$ , both of which are in  $f(A)$  since this is a closed set. Hence  $m$  and  $M$  are the minimum and maximum values, respectively, attained by any continuous function  $f$  with compact domain  $A$ .  $\square$