

4.10

① Assume that we have a sequence $p_n(x)$ converging uniformly to $\frac{1}{x}$ on $(0,1)$.

Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{x \in (0,1)} |p_n(x) - \frac{1}{x}| = 0$, i.e. given an $\epsilon > 0$,

we can find an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\sup_{x \in (0,1)} |p_n(x) - \frac{1}{x}| < \epsilon$ when $n \geq N$.

But we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} p_n(x) = p_n(0)$, as polynomials are continuous, and

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$. So $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |\frac{1}{x} - p_n(x)| = \infty$, which means that we

can find an $x \in (0, \delta)$ s.t. $|\frac{1}{x} - p_n(x)| > \epsilon$.

And then $\sup_{x \in (0,1)} |p_n(x) - \frac{1}{x}| > \epsilon$, contradicting our earlier claim.

So there cannot exist a sequence of $p_n(x)$ converging uniformly to $\frac{1}{x}$ on $(0,1)$.

② Assume that we have a sequence $p_n(x)$ converging uniformly to e^x on \mathbb{R} . Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |p_n(x) - e^x| = 0$, i.e. given an $\epsilon > 0$,

we can find an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |p_n(x) - e^x| < \epsilon$ when $n \geq N$.

But we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} |p_n(x)| = \infty$, as all polynomials tend to $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ when x tend to $+\infty$ or $-\infty$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x = 0$.

So $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} |p_n(x) - e^x| = \infty$, i.e. we can find a $K \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x < -K$

implies $|p_n(x) - e^x| > \epsilon$. And then $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |p_n(x) - e^x| > \epsilon$, contradicting our earlier statement.

So there cannot exist a sequence $p_n(x)$ converging uniformly to e^x .

③ a) will prove this inductively:

$$n=0: A^{(0)}(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \frac{P_0(x)}{x^{N_0}} \quad \text{with } P_0(x) = 1 \\ N_0 = 0 \\ = e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

Assume ok for $n=k$.

$n=k+1$:

$$\begin{aligned} A^{(k+1)}(x) &= (A^{(k)}(x))' = \left(e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \frac{P_k(x)}{x^{N_k}} \right)' \\ &= \frac{2}{x^3} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \frac{P_k(x)}{x^{N_k}} + e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \left(\frac{P_k'(x) x^{N_k} - N_k x^{N_k-1} P_k(x)}{x^{2N_k}} \right) \\ &= e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \left(\frac{2P_k(x)}{x^{N_k+3}} + \frac{P_k'(x) x^{N_k} - N_k x^{N_k-1} P_k(x)}{x^{2N_k}} \right) \\ &= e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \frac{P_{k+1}(x)}{x^{N_{k+1}}} \end{aligned}$$

where $N_{k+1} = \max(N_k+3, 2N_k)$

and $P_{k+1}(x) = 2P_k(x) x^{N_k-3} + P_k'(x) x^{N_k} - N_k x^{N_k-1} P_k(x)$

if $2N_k \geq N_k+3 \Leftrightarrow N_k \geq 3$

or $P_{k+1}(x) = 2P_k(x) + (P_k'(x) x^{N_k} - N_k x^{N_k-1} P_k(x)) x^{3-N_k}$

if $N_k+3 > 2N_k \Leftrightarrow 3 > N_k$

③ cont.

W) Will again show this inductively.

$n=0$: $A^{(0)}(0) = A(0) = 0$ by definition.

Assume OK for $n=k$:

$$\begin{aligned} n=k+1: \\ A^{(k+1)}(0) &= (A^{(k)})'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A^{(k)}(h) - A^{(k)}(0)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2} P_k(h)}{h^{k+1}} = P_k(0) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^{k+1}} \\ &= P_k(0) \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Why is $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^{k+1}} = 0$? Will use induction (again) on N_k .

$$\begin{aligned} N_k=0: \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^1} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^{-1}}{e^{\frac{1}{2}h^2}} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-h^{-2}}{-\frac{2}{h^3} e^{\frac{1}{2}h^2}} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{2e^{\frac{1}{2}h^2}} = \frac{0}{\infty} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Assume $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^{n+1}} = 0$ for all $n \leq k$. Show $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^{(k+1)+1}} = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^{k+2}} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^{-k-2}}{e^{\frac{1}{2}h^2}} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(k+2)h^{-k-3}}{-\frac{2}{h^3} e^{\frac{1}{2}h^2}} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(k+2)h^{-k}}{2e^{\frac{1}{2}h^2}} = \frac{k+2}{2} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}h^2}}{h^{(k-1)+1}} = \frac{k+2}{2} \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

by induction hypothesis.

③

g) Taylor polynomial of f at 0 :

$$T(f)(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} (x-0)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{0}{n!} x^n = 0$$

So as $f(x) \neq 0$ for $x \neq 0$, we have that Tf does not converge to f except for $x=0$.

④

a) Let $p(x)$ be a polynomial. $p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \int_a^b f(x)p(x) dx &= \int_a^b f(x)(a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0) dx \\ &= a_n \int_a^b f(x) x^n dx + a_{n-1} \int_a^b f(x) x^{n-1} dx + \dots + a_1 \int_a^b f(x) x dx + a_0 \int_a^b f(x) dx \\ &= a_n \cdot 0 + a_{n-1} \cdot 0 + \dots + a_1 \cdot 0 + a_0 \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

b) By Weierstrass' Theorem, there exists polynomials $p_n(x)$ s.t. $p_n(x)$ converges uniformly to $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$.

$$\text{Then } \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx = \int_a^b f(x) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) p_n(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0.$$

As $(f(x))^2 \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, and $(f(x))^2$ continuous, the only way we can have $\int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx = 0$ is if $(f(x))^2 = 0$ on $[a, b] \Rightarrow f(x) = 0$ on $[a, b]$.

5)

a) Choose any point $x \in X$. Need to show that given an $\varepsilon > 0$ we can find an $s \in B(x, \varepsilon)$, $s \in S$.

As T is dense in X , we know that there exists a $t \in B(x, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$, $t \in T$.

As S is dense in T , we know that there exists an $s \in B(t, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$, $s \in S$.

And then $d(x, s) \leq d(x, t) + d(t, s) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$, so $s \in B(x, \varepsilon)$.

b) Let $c = \max\{|a|, |b|\}$, and let $p(x) = a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$

As each $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$, we can find $a_{i,n} \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $|a_i - a_{i,n}| < \frac{1}{nk} c^i$

Let $q_n(x) = a_{k,n} x^k + a_{k-1,n} x^{k-1} + \dots + a_{1,n} x + a_{0,n}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } |p(x) - q_n(x)| &= |(a_k - a_{k,n})x^k + \dots + (a_1 - a_{1,n})x + (a_0 - a_{0,n})| \\ &\leq |a_k - a_{k,n}| |x|^k + \dots + |a_1 - a_{1,n}| |x| + |a_0 - a_{0,n}| \\ &< \frac{1}{nk} c^k + \dots + \frac{1}{nk} c + \frac{1}{nk} \\ &= \frac{k}{nk} = \frac{1}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

So $\rho(p, q_n) \leq \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so q_n converges

uniformly to p . And as all coefficients in q_n are rational numbers, we have what we want.

c) Let S be the set of polynomials with rational coefficients, and T be the set of polynomials.

For each $p \in T$, we have a sequence of $q_n \in S$, $q_n \rightarrow p$ in the ρ -metric.

So S is dense in T . And T is dense in $C([a, b], \mathbb{R})$ by Weierstrass' theorem.

So by a), S is dense in $C([a, b], \mathbb{R})$, as wanted.

(1) cont.

d) Let $Q_0 = \mathbb{Q}$ be the set of all degree-zero polynomials with rational coefficients,

$Q_1 \approx \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$ be the set of all degree-one polynomials with rational coefficients,

\vdots
 $Q_k \approx \mathbb{Q}^{k+1}$ be the set of all degree- k polynomials with rational coefficients.

Then each Q_k is countable, as it is equivalent to a finite product of countable sets.

And then $S = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} Q_k$, the set of all polynomials with rational coefficients must be countable, as it's a countable union of countable sets.

So S is countable, and it's dense in $C([a,b], \mathbb{R})$ by c), and we have a countable dense subset.

5.11

(1) We'll check all three properties:

(i) $\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2} \geq 0$ as it's the root of a sum of non-negative numbers.

If $x=0$, $x_i=0$ for all i , so $\|x\| = \sqrt{0^2 + \dots + 0^2} = \sqrt{0} = 0$, and if

$\|x\|=0$, then $\sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = 0$. Then $x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n = 0$
as all $x_i^2 \geq 0$.

The same is true for $\|z\| = \sqrt{|z_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n|^2}$

(ii) $\|\alpha x\| = \sqrt{(\alpha x_1)^2 + \dots + (\alpha x_n)^2} = \sqrt{\alpha^2 x_1^2 + \dots + \alpha^2 x_n^2} = \sqrt{\alpha^2} \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = |\alpha| \|x\|$.

$\|\alpha z\| = \sqrt{|\alpha z_1|^2 + \dots + |\alpha z_n|^2} = \sqrt{|\alpha|^2 |z_1|^2 + \dots + |\alpha|^2 |z_n|^2} = \sqrt{|\alpha|^2} \sqrt{|z_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n|^2} = |\alpha| \|z\|$.

(iii) The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality on \mathbb{R}^n gives us $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \|x+y\|^2 &= (x_1+y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n+y_n)^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 + y_1^2 + \dots + y_n^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \\ &= \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \leq \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + 2 \|x\| \|y\| \\ &= (\|x\| + \|y\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

So $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$.

For complex norm we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \|z+w\|^2 &= |z_1+w_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n+w_n|^2 \leq (|z_1|+|w_1|)^2 + \dots + (|z_n|+|w_n|)^2 \\ &= |z_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n|^2 + |w_1|^2 + \dots + |w_n|^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n |z_i| |w_i| \\ &\leq \|z\|^2 + \|w\|^2 + 2 \|z\| \|w\| = (\|z\| + \|w\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

② Will check all the properties:

i) $\|f\| = \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\} \geq 0$ as it's the supremum over non-negative numbers.

If $f \equiv 0$, $\sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\} = \sup\{0\} = 0$, and if $\sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\} = 0$, $|f(x)| = 0$ for all $x \Rightarrow f \equiv 0$.

ii) $\|\alpha f\| = \sup\{|\alpha f(x)| : x \in X\} = \sup\{|\alpha| |f(x)| : x \in X\} = |\alpha| \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\} = |\alpha| \|f\|$.

iii) $\|f+g\| = \sup\{|f(x)+g(x)| : x \in X\} \leq \sup\{|f(x)|+|g(x)| : x \in X\} \leq \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\} + \sup\{|g(x)| : x \in X\} = \|f\| + \|g\|$.

③ i) $\|f\|_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx \geq 0$ as it's the integral of a positive function.

If $f \equiv 0$, $\int_a^b 0 dx = 0$, and if $\|f\|_1 = 0$, $\int_a^b |f(x)| dx = 0 \Rightarrow |f(x)| = 0$ for all $x \in [a, b] \Rightarrow f \equiv 0$ on $[a, b]$.

ii) $\|\alpha f\|_1 = \int_a^b |\alpha f(x)| dx = |\alpha| \int_a^b |f(x)| dx = |\alpha| \|f\|_1$.

iii) $\|f+g\|_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)+g(x)| dx \leq \int_a^b |f(x)|+|g(x)| dx = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx + \int_a^b |g(x)| dx = \|f\|_1 + \|g\|_1$.

④ Proof of 9.14.(c), if $\{x_n\} \rightarrow x$, $\{y_n\} \rightarrow y$, then $\{x_n + y_n\} \rightarrow x + y$.

As $x_n \rightarrow x$, can choose $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\|x_n - x\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$, and as $y_n \rightarrow y$, can choose $N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\|y_n - y\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ when $n \geq N_2$.

Then $\|(x+y) - (x_n + y_n)\| = \|(x-x_n) + (y-y_n)\| \leq \|x-x_n\| + \|y-y_n\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$

when $n \geq N = \max(N_1, N_2)$.

⑤ Need to show $\|v\| - \|u\| \leq \|u-v\|$ and $\|u\| - \|v\| \leq \|u-v\|$,
i.e. $\|u\| \leq \|u-v\| + \|v\|$ and $\|v\| \leq \|u-v\| + \|u\|$.

Have: $\|u\| = \|u-v+v\| \leq \|u-v\| + \|v\|$

and: $\|v\| = \|v-u+u\| \leq \|v-u\| + \|u\| = \|u-v\| + \|u\|$, as wanted.

⑥ Choose any vector $x \neq 0$. Assume $d(x,y) = \|x-y\|$ where d is the discrete metric. Then $\|x\| = d(x,0) = 1$, as $x \neq 0$. But $2x \neq x$ and $\|2x\| = 2\|x\| = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$, and $d(2x,0) = 1$, $2 \neq 1$. So cannot have $d(x,y) = \|x-y\|$ for any norm.

⑦ Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy sequence, $\|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon$ whenever $n, m \geq N$.

Let $a_n = \|x_n\|$ and $y_n = \frac{x_n}{a_n}$. Then $\|y_n\| = \left\| \frac{x_n}{a_n} \right\| = \frac{1}{a_n} \cdot \|x_n\| = 1$.

So $y_n \in S$.

Have $|a_n - a_m| = |\|x_n\| - \|x_m\|| \leq \|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon$ whenever $n, m \geq N$

So a_n is a Cauchy-sequence, and therefore bounded, $|a_n| < M$

for some $M \in \mathbb{R}$. Can then make sure that $\|x_n - x_m\| < \frac{M\epsilon}{2}$ when $n, m \geq N'$

and then $\|y_n - y_m\| = \left\| \frac{x_n}{a_n} - \frac{x_m}{a_m} \right\| = \frac{1}{a_n} \left\| x_n - \frac{a_n}{a_m} x_m \right\| \leq \frac{1}{a_n} (\|x_n - x_m\| + \|x_m - \frac{a_n}{a_m} x_m\|)$

$$= \frac{1}{a_n} (\|x_n - x_m\| + |1 - \frac{a_n}{a_m}| \|x_m\|)$$

$$= \frac{1}{a_n} (\|x_n - x_m\| + |a_m - a_n|) \leq \frac{1}{M} \left(\frac{\epsilon M}{2} + \frac{\epsilon M}{2} \right) = \epsilon$$

So both $\{a_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are Cauchy.

⑦ cont.

As $\{a_n\}$ is Cauchy, we have that $a_n \rightarrow a$, as R is complete.

As $\{y_n\}$ is Cauchy, we have that $y_n \rightarrow y$, as S is complete.

And then we have $\{x_n\} = \{a_n y_n\} \rightarrow ay = x$, by Prop. 5.1.4 (c).

⑧

Want to show that $\|\cdot\|_1$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_2$, if we know that $\|\cdot\|_1$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|$, where $\|\cdot\|$ is the euclidean norm.

As $\|\cdot\|_1$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|$, we have M_1 and K_1 s.t.

$$\|x\|_1 \leq M_1 \|x\| \quad \text{and} \quad \|x\| \leq K_1 \|x\|_1 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

As $\|\cdot\|_2$ is equivalent to $\|\cdot\|$, we have M_2 and K_2 s.t.

$$\|x\|_2 \leq M_2 \|x\| \quad \text{and} \quad \|x\| \leq K_2 \|x\|_2$$

Then:

$$\|x\|_1 \leq M_1 \|x\| \leq M_1 K_2 \|x\|_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \|x\|_2 \leq M_2 \|x\| \leq M_2 K_1 \|x\|_1$$

So $\|x\|_1 \leq M \|x\|_2$ and $\|x\|_2 \leq K \|x\|_1$, with $M = M_1 K_2$ and $K = M_2 K_1$, and we have that $\|\cdot\|_1$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$ are equivalent.

⑨ Check that $V = V_1 \times \dots \times V_n$ is a linear space: (Def 5.1.1)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i)} \quad u + v &= (u_1, \dots, u_n) + (v_1, \dots, v_n) = (u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_n + v_n) \\ &= (v_1 + u_1, \dots, v_n + u_n) = (v_1, \dots, v_n) + (u_1, \dots, u_n) = v + u. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ii)} \quad (u+v) + w &= ((u_1, \dots, u_n) + (v_1, \dots, v_n)) + (w_1, \dots, w_n) \\ &= (u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_n + v_n) + (w_1, \dots, w_n) \\ &= ((u_1 + v_1) + w_1, \dots, (u_n + v_n) + w_n) = (u_1 + (v_1 + w_1), \dots, u_n + (v_n + w_n)) \\ &= (u_1, \dots, u_n) + (v_1 + w_1, \dots, v_n + w_n) \\ &= u + ((v_1, \dots, v_n) + (w_1, \dots, w_n)) = u + (v + w) \end{aligned}$$

iii) In each V_i there exists a 0_i s.t. $u_i + 0_i = u_i$.

Choose $0 = (0_1, \dots, 0_n)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } u + 0 &= (u_1, \dots, u_n) + (0_1, \dots, 0_n) = (u_1 + 0_1, \dots, u_n + 0_n) \\ &= (u_1, \dots, u_n) = u. \quad \text{for all } u \in V. \end{aligned}$$

iv) In each V_i , for each u_i there exists a $-u_i$ s.t. $u_i + (-u_i) = 0_i$.

Given $u \in V$, $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, let $-u = (-u_1, \dots, -u_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } u + (-u) &= (u_1, \dots, u_n) + (-u_1, \dots, -u_n) = (u_1 + (-u_1), \dots, u_n + (-u_n)) \\ &= (0_1, \dots, 0_n) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{v)} \quad \alpha(u+v) &= \alpha((u_1, \dots, u_n) + (v_1, \dots, v_n)) = \alpha(u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_n + v_n) \\ &= (\alpha(u_1 + v_1), \dots, \alpha(u_n + v_n)) = (\alpha u_1 + \alpha v_1, \dots, \alpha u_n + \alpha v_n) \\ &= (\alpha u_1, \dots, \alpha u_n) + (\alpha v_1, \dots, \alpha v_n) \\ &= \alpha(u_1, \dots, u_n) + \alpha(v_1, \dots, v_n) = \alpha u + \alpha v \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{vi)} \quad (\alpha + \beta)u &= (\alpha + \beta)(u_1, \dots, u_n) = ((\alpha + \beta)u_1, \dots, (\alpha + \beta)u_n) \\
 &= (\alpha u_1 + \beta u_1, \dots, \alpha u_n + \beta u_n) = (\alpha u_1, \dots, \alpha u_n) + (\beta u_1, \dots, \beta u_n) \\
 &= \alpha(u_1, \dots, u_n) + \beta(u_1, \dots, u_n) = \alpha u + \beta u
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{vii)} \quad \alpha(\beta u) &= \alpha(\beta(u_1, \dots, u_n)) = \alpha(\beta u_1, \dots, \beta u_n) = (\alpha(\beta u_1), \dots, \alpha(\beta u_n)) \\
 &= ((\alpha\beta)u_1, \dots, (\alpha\beta)u_n) = (\alpha\beta)(u_1, \dots, u_n)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{viii)} \quad 1u = 1(u_1, \dots, u_n) = (1u_1, \dots, 1u_n) = (u_1, \dots, u_n) = u$$

So V is a linear space. Now to show that $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm. (Def 5.1.2)

$$\text{i)} \quad \|u\| = \|(u_1, \dots, u_n)\| = \|u_1\|_1 + \|u_2\|_2 + \dots + \|u_n\|_n \geq 0 \text{ as } \|u_i\|_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i.$$

If $\|u\| = 0$, then $\|u_i\|_i = 0$ for all i , so $u_i = 0_i$. Then we have

$$u = (0_1, \dots, 0_n) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ii)} \quad \|\alpha u\| &= \|\alpha(u_1, \dots, u_n)\| = \|(\alpha u_1, \dots, \alpha u_n)\| = \|\alpha u_1\|_1 + \dots + \|\alpha u_n\|_n \\
 &= |\alpha| \|u_1\|_1 + \dots + |\alpha| \|u_n\|_n = |\alpha| (\|u_1\|_1 + \dots + \|u_n\|_n) = |\alpha| \|u\|
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{iii)} \quad \|u+v\| &= \|(u_1, \dots, u_n) + (v_1, \dots, v_n)\| = \|(u_1+v_1, \dots, u_n+v_n)\| \\
 &= \|u_1+v_1\|_1 + \dots + \|u_n+v_n\|_n \leq \|u_1\|_1 + \|v_1\|_1 + \dots + \|u_n\|_n + \|v_n\|_n \\
 &= \|u\|_1 + \dots + \|u_n\|_n + \|v_1\|_1 + \dots + \|v_n\|_n = \|u\| + \|v\|.
 \end{aligned}$$

So $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm, and $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is a normed linear space.

⑩

Choose a Cauchy sequence $\{u^k\}$, $u^k \in V$.

Write each $u^k = (u_1^k, u_2^k, \dots, u_n^k)$.

As $\{u^k\}$ is Cauchy, we have that given an $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$

s.t. $\|u^k - u^l\| < \varepsilon$ whenever $k, l \geq N$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We have } \|u^k - u^l\| &= \|(u_1^k, \dots, u_n^k) - (u_1^l, \dots, u_n^l)\| = \|(u_1^k - u_1^l, \dots, u_n^k - u_n^l)\| \\ &= \|u_1^k - u_1^l\| + \dots + \|u_n^k - u_n^l\| < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

So $\|u_i^k - u_i^l\| < \varepsilon$ whenever $k, l \geq N$, i.e. $\{u_i^k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy,

As $\bigvee_{i=1}^n V_i$ is complete, each $\{u_i^k\}$ must converge to a point in V_i , call it u_i .

Now choose $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n) \in V$. Want to show that $\{u^k\}$ converges to u .

As each $\{u_i^k\}$ converges to u_i , we can for any $\varepsilon > 0$ find an N_i

s.t. $\|u_i^k - u_i\| < \frac{\varepsilon}{n}$ whenever $k \geq N_i$. Choose $M = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{N_i\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \|u^k - u\| &= \|(u_1^k, \dots, u_n^k) - (u_1, \dots, u_n)\| = \|(u_1^k - u_1, \dots, u_n^k - u_n)\| \\ &= \|u_1^k - u_1\| + \dots + \|u_n^k - u_n\| < \frac{\varepsilon}{n} + \dots + \frac{\varepsilon}{n} = \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

whenever $k \geq M$, so u^k converges to u , and V must be complete.

ii)

a) T is linear $\Leftrightarrow T(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \alpha T(X) + \beta T(Y)$

Let $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $Y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$. Then $\alpha X + \beta Y = (\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1, \dots, \alpha x_n + \beta y_n)$.

and $T(\alpha X + \beta Y) = T(\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1, \dots, \alpha x_n + \beta y_n)$

$$= (\alpha x_1 + \beta y_1) e_1 + \dots + (\alpha x_n + \beta y_n) e_n$$

$$= \alpha x_1 e_1 + \beta y_1 e_1 + \dots + \alpha x_n e_n + \beta y_n e_n$$

$$= \alpha (x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \dots + x_n e_n) + \beta (y_1 e_1 + \dots + y_n e_n)$$

$$= \alpha T(x_1, \dots, x_n) + \beta T(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \alpha T(X) + \beta T(Y)$$

T is bijective:

T is surjective:

Let v be any vector in V . We can then write

$$v = a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_n e_n \text{ by the definition of a basis.}$$

Then $v = T(a_1, \dots, a_n)$, so T must be surjective.

T is injective:

Let X, Y be two different vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , and assume $T(X) = T(Y)$.

$$\text{Then } x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \dots + x_n e_n = y_1 e_1 + y_2 e_2 + \dots + y_n e_n,$$

but by the definition of a basis, we must have $x_1 = y_1, x_2 = y_2, \dots, x_n = y_n$.

So we have $X = Y$, a contradiction, and T must be injective.

b) Must check definition of norm:

i) $\|x\|_1 = \|T(x)\| \geq 0$ as $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm.

If $\|x\|_1 = 0$, then $\|T(x)\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow T(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n = 0$

By definition of a basis, this implies $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \dots = x_n = 0$, so $x = 0$.

ii) $\|\alpha x\|_1 = \|T(\alpha x)\| = \|\alpha T(x)\| = |\alpha| \|T(x)\| = |\alpha| \|x\|_1$, where we used that T was linear.

iii) $\|x+y\|_1 = \|T(x+y)\| = \|T(x) + T(y)\| \leq \|T(x)\| + \|T(y)\| = \|x\|_1 + \|y\|_1$, where

we used that T was linear.

① cont.

c) As T is bijective, the inverse function $T^{-1}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ exists.

From b) we have that if v is a vector in V , we have that

$$\|v\| = \|T^{-1}(v)\|_1, \text{ for a norm } \|\cdot\| \text{ on } V.$$

Now choose another norm on V , $\|\hat{\cdot}\|$, and construct the corresponding norm on \mathbb{R}^n , $\|\cdot\|_2$ by $\|\hat{v}\| = \|T^{-1}(v)\|_2$. As all norms on \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent, there exists M, K , s.t. $\|x\|_1 \leq M\|x\|_2$ and $\|x\|_2 \leq K\|x\|_1$.

But then we have

$$\|v\| = \|T^{-1}(v)\|_1 \leq M\|T^{-1}(v)\|_2 = M\|\hat{v}\|$$

and $\|\hat{v}\| = \|T^{-1}(v)\|_2 \leq K\|T^{-1}(v)\|_1 = K\|v\|$, so $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\hat{\cdot}\|$ must be equivalent.

This is true for any two norms, so all norms must be equivalent.

