

Exam, Real analysis, 1MA226, 2019-01-14

Solutions.

1. Assume that X is finite, say $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Let \mathcal{U} be an open cover of X . Then for each $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ there is at least one set in \mathcal{U} which contains x_j ; choose one such set and call it U_j . Now $\{U_1, \dots, U_n\}$ is a finite subcover of \mathcal{U} . We have thus proved that every open cover of X has a finite subcover; therefore X is compact.

Conversely, assume that (X, d) is a discrete metric space which is compact. Note that the fact that (X, d) is discrete implies that *every* subset of X is open. Hence the family $\mathcal{U} = \{\{x\} : x \in X\}$ is an open cover of X . Now since (X, d) is compact, there exists a finite subcover of \mathcal{U} ; in other words there exists a finite subset $F \subset X$ such that $X = \cup_{x \in F} \{x\}$. But the last relation implies $X = F$; hence X is finite. \square

2. (a). For n even we have $x_n = e^n \rightarrow +\infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = +\infty.$$

For n odd we have $x_n = e^{-n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Note also that $x_n > 0$ for all n ; hence there does not exist any subsequence of (x_n) which converges to a number < 0 . Therefore,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0.$$

(b). For n even we have, using $\sqrt[n]{n} \geq 1$:

$$x_n \geq 0 + \log n + (-1) \rightarrow +\infty \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Hence

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = +\infty.$$

For n odd the situation is more delicate. For all $n \geq 1$ we have $0 \leq n^{-1} \log n < 1$, and therefore by Taylor expansion,

$$\sqrt[n]{n} = e^{n^{-1} \log n} = 1 + \frac{\log n}{n} + O\left(\left(\frac{\log n}{n}\right)^2\right),$$

and so

$$n(\sqrt[n]{n} - 1) = \log n + O\left(\frac{(\log n)^2}{n}\right).$$

It follows that for odd n :

$$\begin{aligned} x_n &= -\left(\log n + O\left(\frac{(\log n)^2}{n}\right)\right) + \log n + \sin \frac{2\pi n}{3} \\ &= O\left(\frac{(\log n)^2}{n}\right) + \sin \frac{2\pi n}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Here the first term, " $O\left(\frac{(\log n)^2}{n}\right)$ ", tends to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. On the other hand the second term, $\sin \frac{2\pi n}{3}$, is periodic with period 3, taking the values $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, 0, -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, 0, -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, \dots$ as n runs through $1, 3, 5, \dots$. Hence:

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

□

3. Let us note that the series defining $F(x)$ is uniformly convergent on any interval $[a, b]$ with $1 < a < b$. Indeed, $|n^{-x} \cos n\pi x| \leq n^{-a}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $x \in [a, b]$, and it is known that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-a}$ is convergent for $a > 1$; hence by Weierstrass' M-test, the series defining $F(x)$ is indeed uniformly convergent on $[a, b]$. Hence it follows that F is well-defined and continuous in the interval $[a, b]$. Since this is true for any $1 < a < b$, it follows that F is well-defined and continuous in the whole interval $(1, \infty)$.

Next assume $2 < a < b$. Note that

$$\frac{d}{dx}(n^{-x} \cos n\pi x) = -(\log n)n^{-x} \cos n\pi x - n^{-x}(n\pi) \sin n\pi x.$$

We claim that the series

$$(1) \quad - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left((\log n)n^{-x} \cos n\pi x + n^{-x}(n\pi) \sin n\pi x \right)$$

is uniformly convergent on $[a, b]$. Note that for all $x \in [a, b]$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, using $0 \leq \log n < n$ we have:

$$\left| (\log n)n^{-x} \cos n\pi x + n^{-x}(n\pi) \sin n\pi x \right| \leq (1 + \pi)n^{1-a},$$

and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{1-a}$ is convergent since $a > 2$. Hence by Weierstrass' M-test, the series in (1) is indeed uniformly convergent on $[a, b]$. Hence by Rudin's Thm. 7.17, we have that $F'(x)$ exists for all $x \in [a, b]$, and

$$F'(x) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left((\log n)n^{-x} \cos n\pi x + n^{-x}(n\pi) \sin n\pi x \right).$$

The uniform convergence pointed out above shows that this function is continuous in $[a, b]$. Hence F is C^1 in $[a, b]$. Since this is true for any $2 < a < b$, we conclude that F is C^1 in the whole interval $(2, \infty)$. \square

4. For any $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and any $\varepsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m})$, we let $P_{m,\varepsilon}$ be the partition of $[0, 1]$ determined by the following numbers:

$$0 < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m} - \varepsilon < 4^{-m} + \varepsilon < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m+1} - \varepsilon < 4^{-m+1} + \varepsilon < \dots < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^0 - \varepsilon < 4^0 = 1.$$

For this partition we find that:

$$\begin{aligned} U(P_{m,\varepsilon}, f) &= \sum_i M_i \Delta x_i \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m} - \varepsilon \right) + \left(\sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-k} + 2\varepsilon \right) \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^0 + \varepsilon \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - 4^{-m-1}}{1 - 4^{-1}} + 2m\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ (for any fixed m) and then letting $m \rightarrow \infty$, we conclude that

$$\overline{\int_0^1 f(x) dx} \leq \inf \left\{ U(P_{m,\varepsilon}, f) : m \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \varepsilon \in (0, \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m}) \right\} \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3/4} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

On the other hand, for any $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, let \tilde{P}_m be the partition of $[0, 1]$ determined by the following numbers:

$$0 < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m} < 4^{-m} < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m+1} < 4^{-m+1} < \dots < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^0 < 4^0 = 1.$$

For this partition we find that:

$$\begin{aligned} L(\tilde{P}_m, f) &= \sum_i m_i \Delta x_i \\ &= 0 + \left(\sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-k} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - 4^{-m-1}}{1 - 4^{-1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $m \rightarrow \infty$, we conclude that

$$\underline{\int_0^1 f(x) dx} \geq \sup \left\{ L(\tilde{P}_m, f) : m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\} \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3/4} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Hence:

$$\frac{2}{3} \leq \underline{\int_0^1 f(x) dx} \leq \overline{\int_0^1 f(x) dx} \leq \frac{2}{3}, \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \underline{\int_0^1 f(x) dx} = \overline{\int_0^1 f(x) dx} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

This proves that f is Riemann integrable on $[0, 1]$, and that

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \frac{2}{3}. \quad \square$$

5. **NOTE: This problem lies outside the syllabus of the course, since the Stone-Weierstrass Theorem is no longer part of the syllabus (since 2019).**

Substituting $x = -\log u$ gives, for each $n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$:

$$0 = \int_0^1 f(x)e^{-nx} dx = \int_{e^{-1}}^1 \frac{f(-\log u)}{u} u^n du.$$

Let us write

$$g(u) := \frac{f(-\log u)}{u} \quad (u \in [e^{-1}, 1]).$$

Then g is a continuous function from $[e^{-1}, 1]$ to \mathbb{R} and

$$\int_{e^{-1}}^1 g(u) u^n du = 0, \quad \forall n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}.$$

By linearity, this implies that

$$\int_{e^{-1}}^1 g(u)P(u) du = 0$$

for every *polynomial* $P(u)$. By the Stone-Weierstrass Theorem, there is a sequence (P_n) of polynomials which tend to g uniformly on $[e^{-1}, 1]$. Using this sequence we get:

$$(2) \quad \int_{e^{-1}}^1 g(u)^2 du = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{e^{-1}}^1 g(u)P_n(u) du = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0.$$

Now assume that there is some $x \in [0, 1]$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$. Set $u_0 = e^{-x} \in [e^{-1}, 1]$; then $g(u_0) \neq 0$ and therefore $g(u_0)^2 > 0$. Hence, since the function $u \mapsto g(u)^2$ is continuous, there exists some $\delta_1, \delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$g(u)^2 > \delta_1, \quad \forall u \in I := [e^{-1}, 1] \cap [u_0 - \delta_2, u_0 + \delta_2].$$

If $\delta_2 > 1 - e^{-1}$ then we may shrink δ_2 so that $\delta_2 = 1 - e^{-1}$. Then the above interval I has length $\geq \delta_2$. We also have, of course, $g(u)^2 \geq 0$ for *all* $u \in [e^{-1}, 1]$. Hence:

$$\int_{e^{-1}}^1 g(u)^2 du \geq 0 + \int_I \delta_1 du \geq \delta_2 \delta_1 > 0.$$

This is a contradiction against (2)! Hence the assumption that there exists some $x \in [0, 1]$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$ must be *false*. We have thus proved that $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in [0, 1]$. \square

6. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the map

$$F(u, v) = (u + v, e^u + e^v).$$

Note that F is C^1 . We compute:

$$[F'(u, v)] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ e^u & e^v \end{pmatrix}.$$

In particular

$$[F'(0, 1)] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & e \end{pmatrix},$$

which is non-singular. Hence by the *Inverse Function Theorem* there exists an open set $V \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ which contains the point $(0, 1)$, such that $F|_V$ is C^1 , $U := F(V)$ is open, and $G := (F|_V)^{-1} : U \rightarrow V$ is C^1 .

By the definition of $G = (F|_V)^{-1}$ we have $F(G(x, y)) = (x, y)$ for all $(x, y) \in U$. In other words:

$$\begin{cases} G_1(x, y) + G_2(x, y) = x \\ e^{G_1(x, y)} + e^{G_2(x, y)} = y, \end{cases} \quad \forall (x, y) \in U.$$

Also $G(F(0, 1)) = (0, 1)$, i.e. $G(1, e + 1) = (0, 1)$. This means that if we write $u = G_1 : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $v = G_2 : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then the functions u and v have all the properties required in the problem formulation!

By the chain rule we also have $F'(G(x, y)) \cdot G'(x, y) = I$ for all $(x, y) \in U$; thus in particular $F'(0, 1) \cdot G'(1, e + 1) = I$, or in other words:

$$[G'(1, e + 1)] = [F'(0, 1)]^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & e \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{e - 1} \begin{pmatrix} e & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

But we also know

$$[G'] = \begin{pmatrix} D_1 G_1 & D_2 G_1 \\ D_1 G_2 & D_2 G_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} D_1 u & D_2 u \\ D_1 v & D_2 v \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence:

$$[u'(1, e + 1)] = \frac{1}{e - 1}(e, -1) \quad \text{and} \quad [v'(1, e + 1)] = \frac{1}{e - 1}(-1, 1).$$

□

7. (This is very similar to Problem 6.2 in the lecture notes.)
 Consider the map $\phi : \ell^\infty \rightarrow \ell^\infty$ given by

$$\phi((x_n)) = (y_n) \quad \text{with} \quad y_n = \frac{1}{n^2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_m}{n+2^m}.$$

Note that ϕ indeed maps ℓ^∞ to ℓ^∞ , since for any $(x_n) \in \ell^\infty$, if $\phi((x_n)) = (y_n)$ then for each n ,

$$|y_n| \leq \frac{1}{n^2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{|x_m|}{n+2^m} \leq 1 + (\sup_m |x_m|) \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^m} = 1 + \sup_m |x_m|,$$

and thus $\sup_n |y_n| \leq 1 + \sup_m |x_m|$ and in particular $(y_n) \in \ell^\infty$.

Note also that a sequence $(x_n) \in \ell^\infty$ satisfies the equation given in the problem iff (x_n) is a fixed point of ϕ . Hence if we prove that ϕ is a contraction, then the desired statement follows from Theorem 9.23 (the contraction principle, which can be applied since ℓ^∞ is complete).

To prove that ϕ is a contraction, let (x_n) and (x'_n) be arbitrary points in ℓ^∞ , and set $(y_n) = \phi((x_n))$ and $(y'_n) = \phi((x'_n))$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} d((y_n), (y'_n)) &= \sup_n |y_n - y'_n| \\ &= \sup_n \left| \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x_m}{n+2^m} - \frac{x'_m}{n+2^m} \right) \right| \\ &\leq \sup_n \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{|x_m - x'_m|}{n+2^m} \\ &\leq c \cdot d((x_n), (x'_n)), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$c := \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+2^m} < \frac{1}{3} + \sum_{m=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^m} = \frac{5}{6} < 1.$$

Hence ϕ is indeed a contraction of ℓ^∞ . □

8. Given any vector $h \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$, by the Mean Value Theorem applied to the function

$$g(t) := f(th)$$

(which is continuous on $[0, 1]$ and differentiable on $(0, 1)$), it follows that

$$\exists t \in (0, 1) : f(h) - f(0) = g(1) - g(0) = g'(t) = f'(th)h.$$

(The last equality holds by the chain rule; note that $f'(th) \in L(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R})$ and $h \in \mathbb{R}^2$.)

Now let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Take $\delta > 0$ so small that

$$\|f'(x) - A\| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\} \text{ with } |x| < \delta.$$

Now for any fixed $h \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ with $|h| < \delta$, by the above result there exists some $t \in (0, 1)$ such that $f(h) - f(0) = f'(th)h$. Note also that $|th| < |h| < \delta$; hence $\|f'(th) - A\| < \varepsilon$, and thus

$$|f'(th)h - Ah| = |(f'(th) - A)h| \leq \|f'(th) - A\| \cdot |h| < \varepsilon|h|.$$

Hence we have proved:

$$|f(h) - f(0) - Ah| = |f'(th)h - Ah| < \varepsilon|h|,$$

for all $h \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ with $|h| < \delta$. Since such a δ can be found for any given $\varepsilon > 0$, we conclude that

$$\frac{|f(h) - f(0) - Ah|}{|h|} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Hence the differential $f'(0)$ exists, and equals A . □