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\usepackage{amscd}

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\newcommand{\C}{\mathbb{C}}
\newcommand{\A}{\mathcal{A}}
\newcommand{\F}{\textbf{F}}
\newcommand{\G}{G_{\mathcal{A}}}
\newcommand{\D}{\mathfrak{D}}
\newcommand{\B}{\mathcal{B}}
\newcommand{\limit}[2]{\lim_{\#1}\rightarrow\#2}
\newcommand{\abs}[1]{\left|#1\right|}

%%new command for fields

\title{MAT 201A - Analysis}
\author{Kristen Freeman}
\date{Friday, October 9, 2009}
\maketitle

\begin{itemize}
*****
\item[\bf{1.19}] Following the construction of the Cantor set  $C$  by the removal of middle thirds, we define a function  $f$  on the complement of the Cantor set  $[0,1] \setminus C$  as follows. First, we define  $f(x) = 1/2$  for  $1/3 < x < 2/3$ . Then  $f(x) = 1/4$  for  $1/9 < x < 2/9$  and  $f(x) = 3/4$  for  $7/9 < x < 8/9$ , and so on. Prove that  $f$  extends to a unique continuous function  $f: [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Prove that  $f$  is differentiable at every  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus C$  and  $f'(x) = 0$ . This function is called the Cantor function. Its graph is sometimes called the devil's staircase.

\begin{proof}
First we want to show that  $f$  is a continuous function. To do this let us define  $f_n$  as the limit of a sequence of continuous functions,  $f_n(x) = x^n$ ,  $f_1(x) = 1/2$  on the interval  $(1/3, 2/3)$  and is just a linear extension of  $f$  of this interval so that  $f_1$  is continuous and  $f_1(0) = 0$ ,  $f_1(1) = 1$ , and so on

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where for each new f_n we are setting more intervals of length $1/3^n$ to some constant value. It should be clear that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = F$ defined in the problem statement. Then we have a theorem (which can be found in Rudin's, "Principles of Mathematical Analysis") that states when given a sequence of continuous functions if they converge uniformly to some function F then F is continuous. To show that $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly it is enough to show that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an N such that for $n > N$ $\sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x) - F(x)| < \epsilon$.

Both $f_n(x)$ and $F(x)$ are equal to horizontal line segments on certain intervals but otherwise they do not necessarily match up. On $f_n(x)$ the vertical distance between two successive horizontal line segments is $1/2^n$ and so we find that on the intervals of length $1/2^n$ that does not go to a constant, $f_n(x)$ is contained in an open interval of length $1/2^n$. Also let us use the fact that $f_n(x) \rightarrow F(x)$ so for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N such that $n > N \implies |f_n(x) - F(x)| < \epsilon$ on $[0,1]$; so by definition $f_n(x)$ is getting really close to $F(x)$. From this we can sort of see that we want to find N such that $1/2^N < \epsilon$. For any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a degree N such that $2^{-N} < \epsilon$. Let our N be this to show that $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly to F . Therefore F is a continuous function.

Suppose there was another way to define the Cantor function that satisfies the above conditions, $F(x) = 1/2$, etc. Let \tilde{F} , F be two different extensions of this function from $[0,1] \setminus C$ to $[0,1]$. Let $p(x) = F(x) - \tilde{F}(x)$. It follows that $p(x) = 0$ on $[0,1] \setminus C$. Then using the fact that the Cantor function is continuous we have that $p(x) = 0$ on C because $p(x)$ is also continuous (since it is the difference of two continuous functions). Therefore $F(x) = \tilde{F}(x)$ which is a contradiction. So the Cantor function is unique.

Now we want to show that F is differentiable on $[0,1] \setminus C$, which means we must show that the following limit exists and is finite,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$
 If $x \in [0,1] \setminus C$ then there must exist some open interval of length $1/3^n$ which contains x . Let d be the minimum distance between x and the end of that interval; note this distance will always exist because x is in an open interval. Then for $h < d$ we have that $F(x+h) - F(x) = 0$ (since everything on that interval was sent to some constant). Thus our limit is 0, and following our definition that means that $F'(x) = 0$.

So to recap, $F(x)$ is a unique continuous map on $[0,1]$ and it is differentiable on $[0,1] \setminus C$, and $F'(x) = 0$.

 \item[\bf{1.20}] Let X be a normed linear space. A series $\sum x_n$ in X is absolutely convergent if $\sum \|x_n\|$ converges to a finite value in \mathbb{R} . Prove that X is a Banach space if and only if every absolutely convergent series converges.

\begin{proof}
 (\rightarrow) Assume X is a Banach space. Let $\{x_n\}$ be an absolutely convergent series, then we have that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|x_n\| < M < \infty$$
 We want to show that $\{x_n\}$ converges. Let $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$ be our sequence of partial sums. For $N > M$ we have that $S_N - S_M = \sum_{n=M+1}^N x_n$ and $\|S_N - S_M\| = \|\sum_{n=M+1}^N x_n\|$. Since this sum is finite we can use the triangle inequality and so $\|S_N - S_M\| \leq \sum_{n=M+1}^N \|x_n\|$ which goes to zero since $\{x_n\}$ is absolutely convergent. Therefore S_n is Cauchy and since we are in a Banach space that means that S_n converges and so $\{x_n\}$ is a convergent series.

(\Leftarrow) Assume every absolutely convergent series converges. We are given X is a normed linear space. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy sequence. We want to show that $\{x_n\}$ converges. For it is equivalent to show that $\{x_n\}$ is absolutely convergent by our above assumption.
 Let's look at a subsequence x_{n_i} of x_n such that $\|x_{n_i} - x_{n_{i+1}}\| < 1/2^i$. So for $i=1$, choose $n_1 > n_1$ where $n_{1,m} > n_1 \implies \|x_{n_1} - x_{n_m}\| < 1/2$ and for general i chose $n_i > n_i \geq n_{i-1}$ where $n_{i,m} > n_i \implies \|x_{n_i} - x_{n_m}\| < 1/2^i$. It is clear that

$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \|x_{n_i} - x_{n_{i+1}}\| < \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i}$ converges. Then by our assumption $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{n_i} - x_{n_{i+1}})$ converges to some $x \in X$. Then using telescoping sums this expression is equivalent to the following,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (x_{n_1} - x_{n_{N+1}}) &= x \\ x_{n_1} - \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_{N+1}} &= x \\ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_{N+1}} &= x_{n_1} - x \end{aligned}$$

and so our subsequence converges. Then since $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy it follows that $\{x_n\}$ must also converge. \square

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1.21 Suppose that X is a Banach space, and (x_{mn}) is a doubly indexed sequence in X such that

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \|x_{mn}\| < \infty.$$

Prove that

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{mn} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} x_{mn} \right).$$

\square

By the previous exercise (1.20) we know that $\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{mn} \right)$ converges to some $x \in X$. We want to show that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=1}^N \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} \right) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{mn} \right).$$

To do this we must show that for a given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N such that $N > N'$ implies

$$\left| \sum_{m=1}^N \sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} - \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_{mn} \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\iff \left| \sum_{m=N+1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} \right| < \epsilon.$$

Let us rewrite this sum as a sequence of partial sums,

$$\sum_{m=N+1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} = \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=N+1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn}.$$

We know that $\sum_{n=1}^N \|x_{mn}\| = L_m < \infty$ for any given m since it must be absolutely convergent. We can use the triangle inequality on this finite sum,

$$\left| \sum_{m=N+1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} \right| \leq \sum_{m=N+1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_{mn}\|$$

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=N+1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N \|x_{mn}\| \leq \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} L_m = 0.$$

And since this last sum converges in \mathbb{R} we know that for a given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists some N' such that the tail of our sum after N' is less than ϵ .

Thus, if we let $N' = N''$ then we have shown that the limit from the beginning of the proof is true. Since each of the sums for $\sum_{m=1}^N \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} \right)$

are finite then we can rearrange it and using the same proof can show that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=1}^N \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_{mn} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} x_{mn} \right).$$

Therefore, it follows that we can interchange the summands of our series when we are working in a Banach space. \square

(Note: I'm not actually sure this proof is correct because I may have made some invalid assumptions, particularly when I was evaluating the double sum of the tails of the sums.)

%%%

1.24 Let $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function on a set X . The $\text{epi} f$ is the subset $X \times \mathbb{R}$ consisting of points that lie above the graph of f :

$$\text{epi} f = \{ (x, t) \in X \times \mathbb{R} \mid t \geq f(x) \}.$$

Prove that a function is lower semicontinuous if and only if its epigraph is a closed set.

\square

First, we want to show that if a function, f , is lower semicontinuous then its epigraph, denoted $\text{epi} f$, is a closed set by doing the contrapositive. We are given that f

(X, d) is a metric space, thus $X \times \mathbb{R}$ is also a metric space using the metric from exercise 1.4. Assume that $\text{epi}f$ is not closed. Then by Proposition 1.41, there exists a sequence $\{(a_n, b_n)\}$ in $\text{epi}f$ such that $\{(a_n, b_n)\} \rightarrow (a, b)$ in $(X \times \mathbb{R})$ but $(a, b) \notin \text{epi}f$. Since $(a, b) \notin \text{epi}f$ but $(a, b) \in (X \times \mathbb{R})$ it follows that $b < f(a)$. Using this sequence in $\text{epi}f$ we have a sequence in X , $\{a_n\} \rightarrow a$. Also, we know by definition of epigraph that $f(a_n) \leq b_n$ for all n .

Therefore,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = b < f(a).$$
But this means that by definition f is not lower semicontinuous. Thus, if a function f is lower semicontinuous then its epigraph is a closed set.

Now let us consider the case where $\text{epi}f$ is closed and we want to show that f is lower semicontinuous.

There are two methods we can use here, either straightforward or proving the contrapositive. If we want to show the contrapositive then we need to show that if f is not lower semicontinuous there exists a sequence in $\text{epi}f$ that does not converge to something in $\text{epi}f$.

Let us show the contrapositive. Suppose f is not lower semicontinuous. Then there exists a sequence $\{x_n\} \rightarrow x$ in X such that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) < f(x)$. In other words $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\inf\{f(x_k) \mid k \geq n\}] < f(x)$ so there exists a sequence in \mathbb{R} such that $y_n = \inf\{f(x_k) \mid k \geq n\}$ and this is monotonically increasing. We know that $y_n = f(x_k)$ for some $x_k \in \{x_n\}$. Let us consider the sequence $t_n = (x_k, f(x_k))$ where $f(x_k) = y_n$. The first coordinate is a subsequence of $\{x_n\}$ and so it must converge to x and we know $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n$ exists and is less than $f(x)$. Therefore we have found a sequence of $\text{epi}f$ that converges to $(x, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\inf\{f(x_k) \mid k \geq n\}]) \notin \text{epi}f$. Thus, $\text{epi}f$ is not closed.

\end{proof}

1.26 Let $p: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a polynomial function of two real variables. Suppose that $p(x, y) \geq 0$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Does every such function attain its infimum? Prove or disprove.

Claim: Every such function does not attain its infimum.

\begin{proof}
Consider the function $p(x, y) = (xy-1)^2 + y^2$ and the sequence $(x_n, y_n) = (n^2 + n, 1/n^2)$ (this example was found by Brian Alger). It should be clear that $p(x, y) \geq 0$. The limit of the sequence $p(x_n, y_n)$ as n goes to infinity is zero, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(x_n, y_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2+1}{n^4} = 0$. This function is a sum of continuous functions so $p(x, y)$ is continuous and therefore it is also sequentially continuous. Since $p(x, y)$ is sequentially continuous we know that for $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N such that $n > N$ implies $|p(x_n, y_n) - 0| < \epsilon$. Therefore our function gets very close to 0, and since $p(x, y) \geq 0$, it follows that zero is our infimum. However there does not exist (x, y) such that $p(x, y) = 0$ because we would need $xy = 1$ and $y = 0$ which isn't possible since zero multiplied by any number in \mathbb{R} is zero.
 \end{proof}

$\end{itemize}$
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\renewcommand{\proof}{\noindent \smallskip \textsc{Proof: }}
\newcommand{\soln}{\noindent \smallskip \textsc{Soln: }}

\title{MAT 201A - Analysis}
\author{Kristen Freeman}
\date{Friday, October 16, 2009}

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\maketitle

%2.2, 2.3, 2.5, 2.5, 2.6

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\textbf{Ex. 2.2} \textit{ Let $f_n \in C([a,b])$ be a sequence of functions converging uniformly to a function f . Show that

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$ \}

Give a counterexample to show that the pointwise convergence of continuous functions f_n to a continuous function f does not imply the convergence of the corresponding integrals.

}}

\vspace{.5cm}

\proof

First by Theorem 2.3 f is continuous. Next it is important to note that we can take the integrals of these functions because $[a,b]$ is a compact metric space and so by Theorem 1.68 these functions attain their maximum and minimum so their integrals will be defined.

Now, the limit above is equivalent to showing that for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N such that $n > N$ implies

$|\int_a^b f_n(x) dx - \int_a^b f(x) dx| < \epsilon.$ \}

By basic rules of integrals (and Riemann Sum definitions),

$|\int_a^b f_n(x) dx - \int_a^b f(x) dx| = |\int_a^b (f_n(x) - f(x)) dx| \leq \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx.$ \}

Now using the fact that $f_n(x)$ converges to $f(x)$ uniformly, for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N such that $n > N$ implies $\sup_{a \leq x \leq b} |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/(b-a)$. Then for $n > N$ we have

$\int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx < \int_a^b \frac{\epsilon}{(b-a)} dx = \frac{\epsilon}{(b-a)}(b-a) = \epsilon.$ \} Thus the limit of the integral of the sequence of functions is the integral of the limit of the sequence of functions.

\qed\}

\textit{Counterexample:} Consider the following sequence of functions:

$f_n(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4n^2(x-a), \quad \text{if } a \leq x \leq a + \frac{1}{2n} \\ -4n^2(x-a) + 4n, \quad \text{if } a + \frac{1}{2n} < x \leq a + \frac{1}{n} \\ 0, \quad \text{otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$

\begin{array}{l} 4n^2(x-a), \quad \& \quad \text{if } a \leq x \leq (a + \frac{1}{2n}) \\ -4n^2(x-a) + 4n, \quad \& \quad \text{if } (a + \frac{1}{2n}) < x \leq (a + \frac{1}{n}) \\ 0, \quad \& \quad \text{otherwise.} \end{array}

0, & \quad \text{if } a \leq x \leq (a + \frac{1}{2n})

0, & \quad \text{if } (a + \frac{1}{2n}) < x \leq (a + \frac{1}{n})

0, & \quad \text{otherwise.} \}

\end{array} \right.

\}

Graphically $f_n(x)$ is a triangle with area 1 whose base is getting smaller and height is getting proportionally bigger for each n and is equal to zero otherwise.

First, it is clear this sequence is in $C([a,b])$ as long as $b > a + \frac{1}{n}$.

This sequence converges pointwise to the function $f(x) = 0$, because for any $x \in [a,b]$ and $\epsilon > 0$ we can find N such that $f_n(x) = 0 < \epsilon$ for all $n > N$. However, the corresponding integrals do not converge since $\int_a^b f_n(x) dx = 1$ for all n but $\int_a^b 0 dx = 0$.

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\textbf{Ex. 2.3} \textit{ Suppose that $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a uniformly continuous function defined on an open subset G of a metric space X . Prove that f has a unique extension to a continuous function $\overline{f}: \overline{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on the closure \overline{G} of G . Show that such an extension need not exist if f is continuous but not uniformly continuous on G .

\vspace{.5cm}

\proof \textbf{(Part A)}

Let $\overline{f}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n)$ where $x_n \rightarrow x$ in \overline{G} . We need to show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n)$ exists and that this function is well-defined. Since $\overline{f}(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in G$, and we already know f