# RUDIN CHAPTER 7 SOLUTIONS

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### 1. Problem 7.2

**Theorem 1.1.** If  $\{f_n\}$  and  $\{g_n\}$  converge uniformly on a set E, prove that  $\{f_n + g_n\}$  converges uniformly on E.

Proof. Since  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to a limit, say f, then we see that for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N_1$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \ge N_1$  and  $x \in E$ . The same is true for  $\{g_n\}$ , namely that for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N_2$  such that  $|g_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \ge N_2$  and  $x \in E$ . Thus, there exists an  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$  such that for every  $n \ge N$  and every  $\epsilon > 0$ , we obtain:

$$|f_n(x) - f(x) + g_n(x) - g(x)| = |(f_n(x) + g_n(x)) - (f(x) + g(x))| < 2\epsilon$$

Therefore, since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary, we see that  $\{f_n + g_n\}$  converges uniformly on E.

**Theorem 1.3.** If, in addition,  $\{f_n\}$  and  $\{g_n\}$  are sequences of bounded functions, prove that  $\{f_ng_n\}$  converges uniformly on E.

*Proof.* Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Again, we know that there exists an  $N_1$  such that for  $n > N_1$ , we obtain  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in E$ . There also exists an  $N_2$  such that for  $n > N_2$  we obtain  $|g_n(x) - g(x)| < \epsilon$ . Both these statements are true because  $\{f_n\} \to f$  and  $\{g_n\} \to g$ . Next, we will prove a lemma:

**Lemma 1.4.** Every uniformly convergent sequence of bounded functions  $\{h_n\}$  is uniformly bounded.

*Proof.* A sequence of bounded functions means that for every n, we have  $|h_n(x)| < M_n$ . Now pick N so that for all n > N,  $|h_n(x) - h(x)| < 1$  for all  $x \in E$ . Therefore, we see:

$$(1.5) |f_n(x)| \le |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f(x) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x)| < 2 + M_N$$

Now pick  $M = \max\{M_1, \dots, M_{N-1}, 2 + M_N\}$ . It is clear that  $|f_n(x)| < M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore, we have shown that  $\{h_n\}$  is uniformly bounded.

Now, we can use the above lemma and say that  $|f_n(x)| < M$  and  $|g_n(x)| < L$ . Therefore, we see that for  $n > N_2$ , we have

$$|g(x)| \le |g(x) - g_n(x)| + |g_n(x)| < \epsilon + L$$

Thus, using the triangle inequality on  $|f_n(x)g_n(x) - f(x)g(x)|$ , we can obtain for  $n > \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ :

$$|f_n(x)g_n(x) - f(x)g(x)| \leq |f_n(x)g_n(x) - f_n(x)g(x)| + |f_n(x)g(x) - f(x)g(x)|$$

$$= |f_n(x)||g_n(x) - g(x)| + |g(x)||f_n(x) - f(x)|$$

Since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary, we see that  $\{f_ng_n\}$  converges uniformly.

#### 2. Problem 7.3

**Theorem 2.1.** Construct sequences  $\{f_n\}, \{g_n\}$  which converge uniformly in some set E but such that  $\{f_ng_n\}$  does not converge uniformly on E.

*Proof.* Consider the two sequences  $f_n(x) = x + \frac{1}{n}$  and  $g_n(x) = x + \frac{1}{n}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then we see that  $f_n(x) \to x$  and  $g_n(x) \to x$  as  $n \to \infty$ . It is easy to see that  $x + \frac{1}{n}$  converges uniformly because  $|x + \frac{1}{n} - x| = |\frac{1}{n}|$ . Therefore, we use the Archimedean principle to pick an N such that for all n > N,  $\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$ . Therefore, both  $\{f_n\}$  and  $\{g_n\}$  converge uniformly.

However, we see that  $\{f_ng_n\}$  does not converge uniformly, even though it converges pointwise to  $x^2$ . We have  $f_n(x)g_n(x)=(x+\frac{1}{n})^2$  for  $x\in\mathbb{R}$ . Next, we can see the following:

(2.2) 
$$\left| \left( x + \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 - x^2 \right| = \left| x^2 + \frac{2x}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} - x^2 \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{2nx+1}{n^2} \right|$$

However, we can pick n = N and set  $\epsilon = 1$ . Since we have  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , we can choose x = N, which gives  $\left|\frac{2N^2+1}{N^2}\right| = \left|2 + \frac{1}{N^2}\right| > \epsilon = 1$ . Therefore, we see that  $\{f_ng_n\}$  does not converge uniformly.

### 3. Problem 7.4

**Theorem 3.1.** Consider  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+n^2x}$ . For what values x does the series converge absolutely?

*Proof.* The series diverges for x=0, simply because the sequence of partial sums of 1 does not converge to 0. Also, the series is not defined for  $x=-\frac{1}{n^2}$ , so it does not converge absolutely. However, for all  $x\in\mathbb{R}$  other than the ones mentioned above, the series converges absolutely. We can use comparison test to show the following:

(3.2) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{1+n^2 x} \right| \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{n^2 x} \right| = |x| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

And since  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges by being a geometric series with p=2, we see that the series on the left converges by comparison test. Therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+n^2x}$  converges absolutely for all x other than x=0 and  $x=-\frac{1}{n^2}$ .

**Theorem 3.3.** The series converges uniformly for all intervals  $[a,b] \in E$  such that a,b are the same sign and there does not exist a number  $-\frac{1}{n^2}$  in the interval.

Proof. If the assumptions are satisfied, then we see that  $\frac{1}{1+n^2x}$  is either monotonically increasing or monotonically decreasing, depending on the sign of x. Therefore, we have either  $\left|\frac{1}{1+n^2x}\right| \leq \left|\frac{1}{1+n^2a}\right|$  or we have  $\frac{1}{1+n^2x} \leq \left|\frac{1}{1+n^2b}\right|$ . Since all of the terms well defined (by our assumption that there do not exist terms of the form  $-\frac{1}{n^2}$ ), we see that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$  for all  $x \in E$ , where  $M_n = \left|\frac{1}{1+n^2a}\right|$  or  $M_n = \left|\frac{1}{1+n^2b}\right|$ . Since we know that  $\sum M_n$  converges for both  $M_n$ , we know that  $\sum f_n$  also converges by a theorem in Rudin.

# **Theorem 3.4.** f is continuous wherever the series converges.

Proof. We see that  $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{1+n^2x}$  is continuous wherever f(x) is defined. Since this corresponds to the intervals where f(x) is uniformly convergent, we see that  $f_n(x)$  is continuous on E, where E is the set of x for which f(x) is uniformly convergent. Therefore, by a theorem in Rudin, since  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of continuous functions on E, and  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on E, then we know that f is continuous on E.

# **Theorem 3.5.** *f* is not bounded.

*Proof.* Suppose by contradiction that f is bounded by some number M so that  $|f(x)| < \frac{M}{2}$  for all  $x \in E$ . Then we can choose  $x = \frac{1}{M^2}$  and see that

(3.6) 
$$f\left(\frac{1}{M^2}\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{n^2}{M^2}}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{M^2}} + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{2^2}{M^2}} + \ldots + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{M^2}{M^2}}$$

$$(3.8) \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \ldots + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{M}{2}$$

Thus, we have found a number x for which  $|f(x)| \ge \frac{M}{2}$  which is a contradiction. Therefore, f is not bounded.

#### 4. Problem 7.6

**Theorem 4.1.** Prove that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^2+n}{n^2}$  converges uniformly in every bounded interval.

*Proof.* We need to show that the sequence  $\{s_i\}$  of partial sums converges uniformly on every closed interval  $x \in [a,b]$ . So let  $s_i = \sum_{n=1}^i (-1)^n \frac{x^2+n}{n^2}$  and fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Now we want to show that there exists some N such that for i,j>N we have  $|s_i(x)-s_j(x)|<\epsilon$  for all  $x\in [a,b]$ . Indeed, expanding this out, and assuming without loss of generality that i>j>N, we obtain the following:

$$(4.2) |s_i(x) - s_j(x)| = \left| \sum_{n=1}^i (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} - \sum_{n=1}^j (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{n=j}^{i} (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right|$$

(4.4) 
$$= \left| \sum_{n=j}^{i} (-1)^n \frac{x^2}{n^2} \right| + \left| \sum_{n=j}^{i} (-1)^n \frac{1}{n} \right|$$

Clearly, the series on the right converges uniformly on x because it does not depend on x and it also is an alternating series that converges. The series on the left converges uniformly on some interval [a,b] because we can let  $M = \max\{a,b\}$  and get:

$$\left| (-1)^n \frac{x^2}{n^2} \right| \le \frac{M^2}{n^2}$$

(4.6) 
$$\left| \sum_{n=j}^{i} (-1)^n \frac{x^2}{n^2} \right| \le \sum_{n=j}^{i} \left| (-1)^n \frac{x^2}{n^2} \right| \le \sum_{n=j}^{i} \frac{M^2}{n^2}$$

Since the series  $\sum \frac{M^2}{n^2}$  converges by begin a geometric series with p=2, we see that  $\sum (-1)^n \frac{x^2}{n^2}$  also converges by a theorem in Rudin. Therefore,  $\{s_i\}$  is the sum of two convergent series which, by problem 7.2, shows that  $s_i$  converges uniformly and thus that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^2+n}{n^2}$  converges uniformly on every bounded interval [a, b].

**Theorem 4.7.** The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^2+n}{n^2}$  does not converge absolutely for any value of x.

*Proof.* We must show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right|$  does not converge for any x. Indeed, we see that the following is true:

(4.8) 
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right|$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x^2}{n^2} \right| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

Since the series on the right diverges by begin a geometric series with p=1, we can only hope for convergence if the series on the left is negative. However, we see that it will never be negative, so that the entire series diverges. Therefore,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^2+n}{n^2}$  does not converge absolutely.

## 5. Problem 7.7

**Theorem 5.1.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , put  $f_n(x) = \frac{x}{1+nx^2}$ . Then  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to a function f.

*Proof.* Fix  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Using the Cauchy criterion, all we must do is show that there exists an N such that  $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$  for n, m > N. Suppose n > m without loss of generality. Now, we see that the

following is true:

(5.2) 
$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| = \left| \frac{x}{1 + nx^2} - \frac{x}{1 + mx^2} \right|$$

(5.3) 
$$= \frac{x(1+mx^2) - x(1+nx^2)}{(1+nx^2)(1+mx^2)}$$

$$= \frac{x^3(m-n)}{1+mx^2+nx^2+nmx^4}$$

$$= \frac{x^3(m-n)}{1+mx^2+nx^2+nmx^4}$$

$$\leq \frac{x^3(m-n)}{nmx^4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m}$$

Using the Archimedean principle, it is clear that we can select N large enough with n, m > N such that  $\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} < \epsilon$ . Therefore, we see that the series converges uniformly by the Cauchy criterion for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 5.7.** The equation  $f'(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f'_n(x)$  is correct if  $x \neq 0$  but false for x = 0.

*Proof.* We must show that  $\{f'_n\}$  converges uniformly for all  $x \neq 0$ . Then we can apply a theorem in Rudin because we know that  $\{f\}$  converges uniformly, and thus it converges pointwise at all  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 0$ . Therefore, let us examine  $\{f'_n\}$  using the quotient rule:

$$(5.8) f_n'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{x}{1 + nx^2}$$

(5.9) 
$$= \frac{dx \ 1 + nx^2}{1 + nx^2 - x(2nx)}$$

$$(5.10) = \frac{1 - nx^2}{(1 + nx)^2}$$

Now we must show that  $\{f'_n\}$  converges uniformly for all  $x \neq 0$ . So, pick  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 0$  and fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . We can use Cauchy criterion and obtain for n > m:

$$|f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)| = \left| \frac{1 - nx^2}{(1 + nx)^2} - \frac{1 - mx^2}{(1 + mx)^2} \right|$$

(5.11) 
$$|f'_{n}(x) - f'_{m}(x)| = \left| \frac{1 - nx^{2}}{(1 + nx)^{2}} - \frac{1 - mx^{2}}{(1 + mx)^{2}} \right|$$
(5.12) 
$$\leq \left| \frac{(1 - nx^{2})(1 + mx)^{2} - (1 - mx^{2})(1 + nx)^{2}}{m^{2}n^{2}x^{4}} \right|$$
(5.13) 
$$= \left| \frac{2x(m - n) + x^{2}(m^{2} - n^{2})}{m^{2}n^{2}x^{4}} \right|$$
(5.14) 
$$= \left| \frac{2}{mn^{2}x^{3}} - \frac{2}{m^{2}nx^{3}} \right| + \left| \frac{1}{n^{2}x^{2}} - \frac{1}{m^{2}x^{2}} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{2x(m-n) + x^2(m^2 - n^2)}{m^2 n^2 x^4} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{2}{mn^2x^3} - \frac{2}{m^2nx^3} \right| + \left| \frac{1}{n^2x^2} - \frac{1}{m^2x^2} \right|$$

Thus, we can choose an N with n, m > N so that  $|f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)| < \epsilon$ . To see this, we note that the term on the right can be made arbitrarily small using the archimedean principle, say to less than  $\epsilon/2$ . Next, the term on the left can be made arbitrarily small as well. We see that  $\frac{2}{x^3}$  is divided either  $mn^2$  or  $m^2n$ , and even if x is negative, we can choose m, n large enough so that the term becomes arbitrarily small using the archimedean principle. Therefore,  $|f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)| < \epsilon$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 0$  implying uniform convergence on the same set.

This means we can apply the theorem in Rudin which states that for  $\{f_n\}$  differentiable on [a,b], if  $f_n(x_0)$ converges for some point  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  and if  $\{f'_n\}$  converges unformly on [a, b], then  $f'(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f'_n(x)$ . Thus, the first part of the problem is completed. We are left to show that this is false for x = 0.

This can be easily seen because  $f'_n(0) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . However, first we will show that f(0) = 0. It is clear that  $f_n(0) = 0$ . Therefore, we have  $|f_n(0) - f(0)| = |0 - 0| = 0$ . Moreover,  $0 < \epsilon$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$ . Therefore, we see that f(0) = 0 by the uniform convergence we proved earlier. Moreover, f'(0) = 0. However, as we have seen,  $f'_n(0) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , which shows that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f'_n(0) = 1 \neq 0 = f'(0)$ .

### 6. Problem 7.10

**Theorem 6.1.** Letting (x) denote the fractional part of the real number x, consider the function f(x) = $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(nx)}{n^2}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Find all the discontinuities of f and show that they form a countable dense set.

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*Proof.* First, we will show that f converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $f_k(x) = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{(nx)}{n^2}$  be the partial sum of f(x). We must show that the sequence  $\{f_k\}$  converges uniformly for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . We observe that (nx) < 1for all numbers  $nx \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore, we have the following:

$$\left| \frac{(nx)}{n^2} \right| \le \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Since we know that  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges by being geometric with p=2, we see that by a theorem in Rudin, f(x) converges uniformly for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Next, we will note that g(x) = (x) is discontinuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Now, let  $g_n(x) = (nx)$ . We see that  $g_n(x)$  is discontinuous for all  $nx \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In other words,  $g_n(x)$  is discontinuous for  $x = \frac{m}{n}$  where  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This means that  $g_n(x)$  is discontinuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Now, we will show that f(x) is discontinuous for  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ . If  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ , we see the following:

(6.3) 
$$f_k(x) = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{(nx)}{n^2} = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{g_n(x)}{n^2}$$

Moreover, we see that  $\lim_{t\to x^-} g_n(t) = 1$  and  $\lim_{t\to x^+} g_n(t) = 0$ . This holds for all x and n, so that:

$$\lim_{t \to x^{-}} g_n(t) \ge \lim_{t \to x^{+}} g_n(t)$$

Thus, we can take the limit that of  $f_k(t)$  as  $t \to x^-$  and  $t \to x^+$ :

(6.5) 
$$\lim_{t \to x^+} f_k(t) = \lim_{t \to x^+} \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{g_n(t)}{n^2} = \sum_{n=1}^k \lim_{t \to x^+} g_n(t) \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$$

(6.6) 
$$\lim_{t \to x^{-}} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{t \to x^{-}} \sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{g_{n}(t)}{n^{2}} = \sum_{n=1}^{k} \lim_{t \to x^{-}} g_{n}(t) \frac{1}{n^{2}} = \sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n^{2}}$$

Since we know that  $f_k(x) \to f(x)$  uniformly, a theorem in Rudin says that we can swap limits in the following way:

(6.7) 
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lim_{t \to x^+} f_k(t) = \lim_{t \to x^+} \lim_{k \to \infty} f_k(t) = \lim_{t \to x^+} f(t)$$

(6.7) 
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lim_{t \to x^{+}} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{t \to x^{+}} \lim_{k \to \infty} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{t \to x^{+}} f(t)$$
(6.8) 
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lim_{t \to x^{-}} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{t \to x^{-}} \lim_{k \to \infty} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{t \to x^{-}} f(t)$$

Moreover, we already know the expressions for the term on the left:

(6.9) 
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lim_{t \to \infty} f_k(t) = \lim_{k \to \infty} 0 = 0$$

(6.9) 
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lim_{t \to x^{+}} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{k \to \infty} 0 = 0$$

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lim_{t \to x^{-}} f_{k}(t) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{k} \frac{1}{n^{2}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}}$$

Thus, we have obtained expressions for the left and right limits of the function f at  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ :

(6.11) 
$$\lim_{t \to x^{+}} f(t) = 0 \qquad \lim_{t \to x^{-}} f(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}}$$

Therefore, we see that the left and right limits of f(x) are not equal, so that the function is discontinuous at  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Now we need only show that f(x) is continuous at all  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$ . Well, we know by problem 4.16 in a previous problem set that (x) is continuous at all  $x \notin \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore, we see that  $f_k(x)$  is continuous at all  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$ . Since  $f_k(x) \to f(x)$  uniformly, we see that f(x) is continuous for all  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$  by a theorem in Rudin. Therefore, we have shown that the only points of discontinuity are  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

We know that  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a countable dense subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Therefore, we have shown that the points of discontinuities of f(x) are a countable dense set, which completes the proof.

**Theorem 6.12.** Show that f is nevertheless Riemann-integrable on every bounded interval [a, b].

*Proof.* We know that on any bounded interval [a, b], we have only finitely many discontinuity points. In fact, we will have n(b-a)+1 number of discontinuity points. Since  $\alpha=x$  is continuous at every point in [a,b], we see that  $\alpha = x$  is continuous at every point for which  $f_k(x) = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{(nx)}{n^2}$  is discontinuous. Therefore, we can apply a theorem in Rudin and see that  $f_k \in \mathcal{R}$ .

Next, since we know that  $f_k \to f$  uniformly and that  $f_k \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b], we also know that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b]by a theorem in Rudin. This completes the proof.

#### 7. Problem 7.12

**Theorem 7.1.** Suppose g and  $f_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  are defined on  $(0,\infty)$  and are Riemann-integrable on [t,T] whenever  $0 < t < T < \infty$ ,  $|f_n| \le g_n$ ,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on every compact subset of  $(0,\infty)$ , and  $\int_0^\infty g(x)dx < \infty$ . Prove that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_0^\infty f_n(x)dx = \int_0^\infty f(x)dx$ .

Proof. First, we will show that f is integrable on  $[0,\infty)$ . We do this by noting that  $f_n \to f$  uniformly and each  $f_n \in \mathscr{R}$ , which implies by a theorem in Rudin that  $f \in \mathscr{R}$ . Moreover, we can show that  $\int_0^\infty$  is finite because we know that each  $|f_n| \leq g$ . Therefore, since  $f_n$  is uniformly convergent, which implies pointwise convergence, we see that  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$  for all  $x \in [0,\infty)$ . Thus, for  $n > m \in [0,\infty)$ , we must have  $|\int_m^n f(x) dx| \leq \int_n^m |f(x)| dx \leq \int_n^m g(x) dx$ . Since we have  $\int_0^\infty g(x) dx < \infty$ , we know that there exists an J such that for all j > J, we have

Since we have  $\int_0^\infty g(x)dx < \infty$ , we know that there exists an J such that for all j > J, we have  $\int_j^\infty g(x)dx < \epsilon$ . To see why this is the case, we can assume the contrary. Then  $\int_c^\infty g(x) > \epsilon$  for all  $c \in [0, \infty)$ . Thus, we would have:

(7.2) 
$$\lim_{d \to \infty} \int_0^d g(x) dx = \int_0^c g(x) dx + \lim_{d \to \infty} \int_c^d g(x) dx$$

$$\leq \int_0^c g(x) dx + \lim_{d \to \infty} (d - c)\epsilon$$

Since the integral term on the left is finite for a finite c, and the term on the right diverges, this would imply that  $\int_0^\infty g(x)dx \not< \infty$ , which is a contradiction of our assumption. Hence, there must exist a J such that for j > J, we have  $\int_j^\infty g(x)dx < \epsilon$ .

Moreover, since  $f_n \to f$  uniformly, we can choose an N such that for all n > N and all  $x \in [0, \infty)$ , we have  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ . Therefore, we obtain the following:

(7.4) 
$$\left| \int_0^\infty f_n(x) - \int_0^\infty f(x) \right| = \int_0^j |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx + \int_j^\infty |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx$$

$$(7.5) \leq \int_0^j |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx + \int_i^\infty 2g(x) dx$$

$$(7.6) \leq \epsilon(j-0) + 2\epsilon$$

$$(7.7) \leq \epsilon(j+2)$$

Since  $\epsilon > 0$  was arbitrary and j is a constant, we see that  $\int_0^\infty f_n(x) \to \int_0^\infty f(x)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

# 8. Problem 7.14

**Theorem 8.1.** Let f be a continuous real function on  $\mathbb{R}^1$  with the following properties:  $0 \le f(t) \le 1$ , f(t+2) = f(t) for every t, and

(8.2) 
$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & (0 \le t \le \frac{1}{3}) \\ 1 & (\frac{2}{3} \le t \le 1) \end{cases}$$

Put  $\Phi(t) = (x(t), y(t))$  where  $x(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} f(3^{2n-1}t)$  and  $y(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} f(3^{2n}t)$ . Prove that  $\Phi$  is continuous and that  $\Phi$  maps I = [0, 1] onto the unit square  $I^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . In fact, show that  $\Phi$  maps the Cantor set onto  $I^2$ .

*Proof.* First, we will show that  $\Phi$  is continuous. To do this, it is enough to show that x(t) and y(t) are continuous. First, we know that f is a continuous function by assumption of the real line. Moreover, we see that  $x_i(t)$  and  $y_i(t)$  are bounded:

(8.3) 
$$x_i(t) = \sum_{n=1}^i 2^{-n} f(3^{2n-1}t) \le \sum_{n=1}^i |2^{-n} f(3^{2n-1}t)| \le \sum_{n=1}^i 2^{-n}$$

(8.4) 
$$y_i(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{i} 2^{-n} f(3^{2n}t) \le \sum_{n=1}^{i} |2^{-n} f(3^{2n}t)| \le \sum_{n=1}^{i} 2^{-n}$$

Since  $\sum 2^{-n}$  converges, we see that  $x_i \to x$  and  $y_i \to y$  uniformly. Moreover, since each  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  is continuous, as it is a sum of multiples of a continuous function f, we see that x and y are continuous due to uniform convergence. Thus, we have shown that  $\Phi$  is also continuous.

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Now we must show that  $\Phi$  maps the Cantor set onto  $I^2$ . It is clear that we must have each  $(x_0, y_0) \in I^2$  of the form

(8.5) 
$$x_0 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} a_{2n-1}, \qquad y_0 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} a_{2n}$$

Where each  $a_i$  is either 0 or 1. It is clear then that  $t_0 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 3^{-i-1}(2a_i)$  converges, since it is a geometric series, and moreover, it converges to a number in the range [0,1] since  $a_i$  can be either 0 or 1. Therefore, we can compute  $3^k t_0$  in the following manner:

$$3^k t_0 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 3^{k-i-1} (2a_i)$$

$$= 2\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} 3^{k-1-i}(a_i) + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1}(2a_{k+j})$$

$$= 2N + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} (2a_{k+j})$$

Here, N is an integer. Since f(x+2) = f(x), we see that f(2N+x) = f(x) so that we obtain the following expression:

(8.9) 
$$f(3^k t_0) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} (2a_{k+j})$$

Now there are two options for  $a_k$ . We can either have  $a_k = 0$ , in which case we see that the first term with j = 0 is 0, so we get:

(8.10) 
$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} (2a_{j+k}) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} 2a_{j+k}$$

We can obtain a lower bound by assuming  $a_i = 0$  for all i > k and an upper bound by assuming  $a_i = 1$  for all i > k. We see that the first series converges to 0. The second series converges as follows:

(8.11) 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} (2a_{j+k}) = \frac{2}{3} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^j}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Therefore, when  $a_k = 0$ , we see:

(8.13) 
$$0 \le \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} (2a_{j+k}) \le \frac{1}{3} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(3^k t_0) = 0 = a_k$$

We can perform similar bounds for when  $a_k=1$ . There, we see that the first term when j=0 is equal to  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Since we have already found the bounds for  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} 2a_{j+k}$ , we can just add them to  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Thus, we see that when  $a_k=1$ , we have:

(8.14) 
$$\frac{2}{3} \le \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j-1} (2a_{j+k}) \le 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(3^k t_0) = 1 = a_k$$

By the definition of x(t) and y(t), we see that  $\Phi(t_0) = (x_0, y_0)$ , which implies that  $\Phi$  is surjective. Moreover, the points  $t_0$  are clearly the points appearing in the Cantor set. Thus, we have completed the proof.

## 9. Problem 7.15

**Theorem 9.1.** Suppose f is a real continuous function on  $\mathbb{R}^1$ ,  $f_n(t) = f(nt)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $\{f_n\}$  is equicontinuous on [0,1]. Then f is constant on  $[0,\infty)$ .

*Proof.* Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . The equicontinuity condition implies that there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f_n(y)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|x - y| < \delta$  for all  $x, y \in [0, 1]$  and  $f_n \in \{f_n\}$ . Therefore, let us pick any t > 0 and a corresponding n such that  $n > \frac{t}{\delta}$ . Then we have  $\delta > \frac{t}{n}$ . Thus, we have the following expression:

$$(9.2) \left| f(t) - f(0) \right| = \left| f\left(t\frac{n}{n}\right) - f(0) \right| = \left| f_n\left(\frac{t}{n}\right) - f(0) \right| < \epsilon$$

Where the last inequality comes from the equicontinuity condition. Therefore, we see that for any arbitrary t, we have  $|f(t) - f(0)| < \epsilon$ . Moreover, since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary to begin with, we see that f(t) = f(0) for all t > 0. We obtain t > 0 because we have shown it possible to choose n such that  $\delta > \frac{t}{n}$ , which means we can extend the notion of equicontinuity from [0,1] to show that f is constant on  $[0,\infty)$ .

## 10. Problem 7.16

**Theorem 10.1.** Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is an equicontinuous sequence of functions on a compact set K, and  $\{f_n\}$  converges pointwise on K. Prove that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on K.

*Proof.* First, we will show that f is uniformly continuous. Since  $\{f_n\}$  converges pointwise on K, say to some function f, we can fix  $\epsilon > 0$  and use the definition of pointwise convergence. We see that for all  $x, y \in K$ , there exists an  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$  such that for n > N, we have  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  and also  $|f_n(y) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ . Moreover, equicontinuity implies that there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f_n(y)| < \epsilon$  if  $|x - y| < \delta$ . This implies:

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le |f(x) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x) - f_n(y)| + |f_n(y) - f(y)| < 3\epsilon$$

For  $x, y \in K$  and  $|x - y| < \delta$ . Therefore, we see that f satisfies the conditions of uniformly continuity. Next, we will fix an  $a \in K$  so that we may obtain the following inequality:

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| \le |f_n(x) - f_n(a)| + |f_n(a) - f(a)| + |f(a) - f(x)|$$

First, we know that for each a there exists an  $M_a \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $n > M_a$ , we have  $|f_n(a) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  by the pointwise convergence of  $\{f_n\}$ . Next, since we have already fixed  $\delta > 0$ , we know that  $|f_n(x) - f_n(a)| < \epsilon$  for  $x \in N_\delta(a)$  by equicontinuity. Finally, we have  $|f(a) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  if  $x \in N_\delta(a)$  by the uniform continuity of f. Therefore,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < 3\epsilon$  if  $x \in N_\delta(a)$  and  $n > M_a$ .

Now, we can use compactness of K to find finitely many points  $a_1, \ldots, a_m$  such that  $K \subset N_\delta(a_1) \cup \ldots \cup N_\delta(a_m)$ . This can be done because every open cover has a finite cover in a compact set. Next define  $M = \max\{M_{a_1}, \ldots M_{a_m}\}$ . Therefore, we can combine the inequalities we found for each a, and we see that  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in K$  and all n > M. Since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary, we see that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly in K. This completes the proof.