MA2108S AY 22/23 Finals

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Question 1(a) Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers. Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent. For a real number $p \geq 1$, show that $\sum a_n^p$ is also absolutely convergent.

Proof 1. We shall first use induction to show that if $a_n \ge 0$ for each n, then $\sum a_n^p \le (\sum a_n)^p$. We shall prove the base case of n = 2. (The statement is trivially true for n = 1.) We can safely assume that $a_1, a_2 > 0$ (if $a_1 = 0$ or $a_2 = 0$, we have the case of n = 1),

$$a_1^p + a_2^p \le (a_1 + a_2)^p$$

$$\iff 1 + \left(\frac{a_2}{a_1}\right)^p \le \left(1 + \frac{a_2}{a_1}\right)^p$$

One can substitute $x = a_2/a_1$ and use differentiation to prove that the last inequality holds. As such, the case of n = 2 has been proven.

Now, suppose the statement holds for some n = k, where k is some positive integer. Then,

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} a_i^p &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^k a_i\right)^p + a_{k+1}^p \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} a_i\right)^p \quad \text{by case of } n=2. \end{split}$$

With this property, we then have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_i|^p \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_i|\right)^p,$$

for all positive integers n. Since $\sum |a_n|$ is convergent, we have $(\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|)^p$ to be a convergent sequence of nonnegative terms i.e. nondecreasing and bounded above. As $\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|^p$ is a sum of nonnegative terms and is bounded above and therefore convergent as desired.

Proof 2. Since $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent, we must have $|a_n| \to 0$. Hence, for some natural number N, we have, for $n \ge N$,

$$|a_n| < 1 \implies |a_n^p| = |a_n|^p \le |a_n|.$$

Since $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent and $|a_n^p| \le |a_n|$ for $n \ge N$, by the comparison test, $\sum a_n^p$ is absolutely convergent.

Question 1(b) Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is convergent, is $\sum a_n^2$ necessarily convergent? If it has to be convergent,

prove the statement. Otherwise, find a counterexample. Proof 1. The statement is false. Let $a_n = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$. It is well known that $\sum a_n^2$ diverges (harmonic series). We shall show that $\sum a_n$ does indeed converge. Let m, n be positive integers n < m. We shall only consider the case where m-n is odd (we can always increase m by one if m-n is even and the inequality below would still hold with minor modifications to the first line). Since m-n is odd, we can pair the terms and have

$$\left| \sum_{i=n}^{m} \frac{(-1)^{i-1}}{\sqrt{i}} \right| = \left| \sum_{i=n}^{(m-n+1)/2} \left[\frac{(-1)^{i-1}}{\sqrt{i}} + \frac{(-1)^{i}}{\sqrt{i+1}} \right] \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{i=n}^{(m-n+1)/2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{i}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{i+1}} \right) \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{i=n}^{(m-n+1)/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{i}\sqrt{i+1}(\sqrt{i}+\sqrt{i+1})} \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \sum_{i=n}^{(m-n+1)/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{i}\sqrt{i}(\sqrt{i}+\sqrt{i})} \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2} \left| \sum_{i=n}^{(m-n+1)/2} \frac{1}{i^{3/2}} \right|$$

As $\sum 1/n^{3/2}$ is known to be convergent, by the Cauchy criterion, for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists positive integers n, m such that

$$\left|\sum_{i=n}^{(m-n+1)/2}\frac{1}{i^{3/2}}\right|<2\varepsilon.$$

This proves that $\sum a_n$ is convergent and the proof is complete.

Proof 2. The statement is false. Let $a_n = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$. Then

$$|a_{n+1}| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = |a_n|$$

and $|a_n| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \to 0$, so by the alternating series test, $\sum a_n$ converges, while $\sum a_n^2 = \sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges.

Question 2 Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function with the following property: For each $\varepsilon > 0$, there is R > 0 such that

$$|f(x)| < \varepsilon$$
 for all $|x| > R$.

For such a function, first answer whether the following statement are true or false. If the statement is true, prove it. Otherwise, find a counterexample.

a) The function f must be bounded on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Fix $\varepsilon = 1$. Then, there exists R such that for all |x| > R, |f(x)| < 1. As f is continuous on the compact domain [-R, R], there exists $a, b \in [-R, R]$ such that $f(a) \ge f(x)$ and $f(x) \le f(x)$ for all $x \in [-R, R]$. Thus, $|f(x)| \le \max\{|f(a)|, |f(b)|, 1\}$ and thus bounded.

b) The function f must be uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, then there exists R such that for all |x| > R, $|f(x)| < \varepsilon/2$. As [-R, R] is compact and f is continuous, f is thus uniformly continuous on [-R, R].

Therefore, if $x, y \in [-R, R]$, then there exists $\delta_1 > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon/2$ for $|x - y| < \delta_1$. If $x, y \notin [-R, R]$, then $|f(x) - f(y)| \le |f(x)| + |f(y)| < \varepsilon$. By continuity of f at x = R, there exists $\delta_2 > 0$ such that for all z where $|z - R| < \delta_2$, $|f(z) - f(R)| < \varepsilon/2$. Similarly, if x = -R, there exists δ_3 such that $|f(z) - f(-R)| < \varepsilon/2$ whenever $|z + R| < \delta_3$.

Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3, 2R\}$. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|x - y| < \delta$ and $|x| \le |y|$ wlog. If $x, y \in [-R, R]$, then $|x - y| < \delta_1$ implies $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$. If $x, y \notin [-R, R]$, we are done. Since $|x| \le |y|$, this leaves the case $|x| \le R$, |y| > R.

Suppose $x, y \ge 0$. Then we have $x \le R < y$. Since $|x - y| < \delta_2$, we have $|x - R| < \delta_2$ and $|y - R| < \delta_2$, so that

$$|f(x) - f(R)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2},$$

 $|f(R) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$

Then

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le |f(x) - f(R)| + |f(y) - f(R)|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$- \varepsilon$$

The case of $x, y \le 0$ is similar, and so are the cases $x \ge 0, y \le 0$ and $x \le 0, y \ge 0$. This completes the proof that f is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} .

c) There must be a point $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$f(\bar{x}) \ge f(x)$$
 for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Counterexample. Consider $f(x) = -e^{x^2}$. When $|x| > \sqrt{\ln \varepsilon}$, we have $f(x) < \varepsilon$. Yet, $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f(x) = 0$ and there does not exist \bar{x} such that $f(\bar{x}) = 0$.

Question 3 A function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex if it has the following property: For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $t \in [0, 1]$, we have

$$f(tx + (1 - t)y) \le tf(x) + (1 - t)f(y).$$

a) For a convex function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, if it is differentiable at 0 with f'(0) = 0, show that $f(x) \ge f(0)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Let us consider the case when x > 0 (the case for x < 0 is similar). Let $0 < \varepsilon < x$. Using the definition of convex, we have

$$f(\varepsilon) \le \frac{\varepsilon}{x} f(x) + \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{x}\right) f(0)$$
$$\frac{f(\varepsilon) - f(0)}{\varepsilon} \le \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x}$$

Using the definition of derivatives and taking limits as $\varepsilon \to 0^+$, we have

$$\frac{f(x) - f(0)}{r} \ge 0 \Rightarrow f(x) \ge f(0).$$

b) For a convex function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, suppose that is is twice differentiable on \mathbb{R} with a continuous second derivative f'', show that is derivative f' is monotone.

Proof. We shall use the following result from (*Rudin 3rd Edition: Chapter 5 Q23*):

Let f be convex on (a, b) and a < s < t < u < b, then

$$\frac{f(t) - f(s)}{t - s} \le \frac{f(u) - f(s)}{u - s} \le \frac{f(u) - f(t)}{u - t}.$$

Let $x, q, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and x < q < y. We shall now show that

$$f'(x) \le \frac{f(q) - f(x)}{q - x}.$$

Let $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and x < r < q. Using the first result, we have

$$\lim_{r \to x^{+}} \frac{f(r) - f(x)}{r - x} \le \frac{f(q) - f(x)}{q - x}$$

$$\lim_{r \to x^{+}} \frac{f(r) - f(x)}{r - x} \le \frac{f(q) - f(x)}{q - x}$$

$$f'(x) \le \frac{f(q) - f(x)}{q - x}$$

Using a similar argument, we have

$$f'(y) \ge \frac{f(y) - f(q)}{y - q}.$$

By applying the first result once more, we have

$$f'(x) \le \frac{f(q) - f(x)}{q - x} \le \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \le \frac{f(y) - f(q)}{y - q} \le f'(y).$$

Question 4 In this question, let f be a Riemann integrable function on [0, 1] with $\int_0^1 f(x) = 1$. Define F as

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt \text{ for all } x \in [0, 1]$$

a) Can we always find a point $x \in [0,1]$ such that $F(x) = \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2$? Solution. Yes we can. Let

$$g(x) = F(x) - \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2$$
.

Then, note that $g(0) = -\frac{1}{4} < 0$ and $g(1) = \frac{3}{4} > 0$. Since F(x) is continuous on [0, 1] by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we know g(x) is continuous on [0,1], so by the Intermediate Value Theorem (IVT), there exists $x \in (0,1)$ such that g(x) = 0 i.e. $F(x) = \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2$.

b) If f is continuous and $f(x) \neq 0$, show that F is injective (one-to-one) on (0,1). Solution. Since $f(x) \neq 0$ and f is continuous, by IVT, it is clear that either f(x) < 0 or f(x) > 0 for all $x \in [0,1]$. Since $\int_0^1 f(x) \ dx = 1$, we must then have f(x) > 0. We shall now show that f is strictly increasing on [0,1]. Let $x,y \in [0,1]$ and y > x. Then,

$$F(y) - F(x) = \int_0^y f(t) dt - \int_0^x f(t) dt$$
$$= \int_x^y f(t) dt$$
$$> 0$$

This proves that F is strictly increasing on [0,1] and thus injective on [0,1].

c) Under the same assumption in b), show that we can find a function $g:[0,1]\to [0,1]$ that is continuous on [0,1] and differentiable on (0,1) such that g(F(x))=x for all $x\in [0,1]$. Solution. F is injective on [0,1] as shown in (b). As F(0)=0, F(1)=1 and F is continuous, it is clear by IVT that F is surjective with range [0,1]. F is thus invertible and there exists a function $g:[0,1]\to [0,1]$ such that $g(x)=F^{-1}(x)$.

To show that g is continuous, we shall first prove a lemma.

Lemma: Let $h: K \to B$, where K is compact and h is continuous and invertible. Then, h^{-1} is continuous. Proof. Let V be an open set in K. It suffices to show that $(h^{-1})^{-1}(V) = h(V)$ is open in B. To see that, note that $h(V^c \cap K)$ is compact (since V^c is closed, K is compact and h is continuous), thus closed. As h is bijective, $h(V) = [h(V^c)]^c = [h(V^c \cap K)]^c$, thus h(V) is open, and the proof is complete. Since [0,1] is compact, we can use this lemma with h = F to conclude that $g = F^{-1}$ is continuous on [0,1].

To show that g is differentiable on (0,1), let $y \in (0,1)$ and define a sequence $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ such that $y_n \in (0,1)$, $y_n \neq y$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $y_n \to y$ as $n \to \infty$. As F is bijective, it follows that for each n, there is a unique x_n such that $F(x_n) = y_n$, and a unique x such that F(x) = y. Note that since $y_n \to y$ and F^{-1} is continuous, we have $x_n \to x$. Note also that F'(x) > 0 on (0,1) since F is strictly increasing. Now, we will show that

the following limit exists:

$$\lim_{r \to y} \frac{g(r) - g(y)}{r - y} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{g(y_n) - g(y)}{y_n - y} \quad \text{by continuity of } g$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_n - x}{F(x_n) - F(x)}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{F(x_n) - F(x)}{x_n - x}\right)^{-1}$$

$$= \lim_{r \to x} \left(\frac{F(r) - F(x)}{r - x}\right)^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{F'(x)}.$$

This proves that g is differentiable on (0,1).