This is a collection of old real analysis qualifier exam solutions.

## August 2019

## Problem 1

(a) Recall that the Cantor set  $\mathcal{C}$  is defined to consist of all  $x \in [0,1]$  such that x only contains 0 and 2 in the ternary expansion of x. Writing  $a \in [0,2]$  as

$$a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{3^k},$$

where  $a_k \in \{0,1,2\}$ , we may then find  $a_k$  at each ternary expansion slot for k as follows:

- if  $a_k = 0$ , we may find  $b_k, c_k \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $b_k = c_k = 0$
- if  $a_k = 2$ , we may find  $b_k, c_k \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $b_k = 2$  and  $c_k = 0$  or vice versa.
- if  $a_k = 1$ , we may find  $b_k, c_k \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $b_{k+1} = c_{k+1} = 2$ .

Therefore, since every digit of every ternary expansion in [0,2] can be obtained from  $\mathbb{C}$ , we see that  $\mathbb{C} + \mathbb{C} = [0,2]$ .

(b) We may set B to be the union of all integer translates of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and set A =  $\mathbb{C}$ . This yields closed subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  with Lebesgue measure zero that sum to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## Problem 2

Consider the sequence of functions

$$f_n(x) = n \mathbb{1}_{\left[\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n}\right]},$$

defined on [0,1]. This sequence is pointwise convergent everywhere to zero, as  $f_n(0) = 0$  and the Archimedean property give that for any  $x \in (0,1]$ , there is some n large enough that gives  $\frac{1}{n} < x$ . Furthermore, we see that

$$\int f_n d\mu = n \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n+1}$$
$$\to 0.$$

Finally, we see that by taking suprema, we have the integral

$$\int \Phi d\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$\to \infty.$$

## Problem 4

Suppose toward contradiction that both f and 1/f are in  $L_1(\mathbb{R})$ . Then, from Hölder's Inequality, we have

$$\infty = \int 1 d\mu$$

$$\leq \left( \int f d\mu \right)^{1/2} \left( \int \frac{1}{f} d\mu \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leq \infty.$$

which is a contradiction.

#### Problem 5

(a) Let  $f \in L_2([-1,1])$ . We may find  $g \in C([-1,1])$  such that  $\|f-g\|_{L_2} < \epsilon/2$ . Similarly, we may find a polynomial p such that  $\|g-p\|_{\mathfrak{U}} < \epsilon/4$ , meaning that  $|p(x)-g(x)| < \epsilon/4$  for all  $x \in [-1,1]$ . This yields

$$\|p - g\|_{L_2} = \left(\int_{-1}^{1} |p(x) - g(x)|^2 dx\right)^{1/2}$$

$$< \left(\int_{-1}^{1} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{4}\right)^2 dx\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\varepsilon^2}{8}\right)^{1/2}$$

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

so  $\|f - p\|_{L_2} < \varepsilon$ , meaning that the closed linear span of the monomials is dense in L<sub>2</sub>, and the Legendre polynomials form an orthonormal system.

(b) We see that at every step in evaluating the expression

$$L_n(x) = c_n \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left(x^2 - 1\right)^n, \tag{*}$$

the degree of the polynomial increases by 1, so each  $L_n(x)$  has degree n. To verify that the polynomials generated from (\*) are orthogonal to each other, we let n>m without loss of generality, and use integration by parts to obtain

$$\begin{split} \langle L_n, L_m \rangle &= \int_{-1}^1 \left( \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^n \right) \left( \frac{d^m}{dx^m} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^m \right) dx \\ &= \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^n \frac{d^m}{dx^m} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^m \Big|_{-1}^1 - \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^n \frac{d^{m+1}}{dx^{m+1}} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^m dx \\ &\vdots \\ &= (-1)^n \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d^{m+n}}{dx^{m+n}} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^m dx \\ &= (-1)^n \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left( \frac{d^m}{dx^m} \left( x^2 - 1 \right)^m \right) dx \\ &= (-1)^n \int_{-1}^1 \frac{d^n}{dx^n} L_m(x) dx \\ &= 0, \end{split}$$

seeing as we are taking n derivatives of a degree m < n polynomial.

## January 2020

## Problem 1

(a) This is false. If  $A \subseteq [0,1]$  is the "fat Cantor set" constructed similar to the traditional Cantor, but obtained by deleting the middle fourth of each subinterval rather than the middle third, then  $\mu(A) = \frac{1}{2}$ , but A is nowhere dense, meaning that if  $U \subseteq A$  is open, then  $U = \emptyset$ .

To see that A is nowhere dense, we see that A is closed, so if  $x \in A \subseteq [0,1]$ , and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we may show that the interval  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon)$  is not contained in A. In the recursive construction of A, we may see that there is some step  $\mathfrak{n}_1$  such that  $\frac{1}{4^{\mathfrak{n}_1}} < 2\varepsilon$ , implying that  $(x - \varepsilon, x + \varepsilon)$  is not contained in the recursive construction at  $\mathfrak{n}_1$ . Therefore  $A^{\circ} = \emptyset$ .

(b) This is true. By the definition of the Lebesgue outer measure, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there are  $\{(a_k, b_k)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that

$$\mu(A) + \varepsilon < \mu \left( \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k, b_k) \right),$$

so by setting

$$U = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k, b_k),$$

we have that U is open, meaning that by the definition of infimum, we get

$$\mu(A) = \inf\{U \mid A \subseteq U, U \text{ open}\}.$$

**Remark:** Part (a) can be solved by selecting  $A = \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ .

#### Problem 3

- (a) Consider the algebra of polynomials on [0,1] without a constant term. Then, since linear combinations and multiplications still yield polynomials without constant term, and f(x) = x separates points in [0,1], this algebra satisfies the requirements of the question. Yet, since all elements of this algebra are equal to zero at x = 0, the uniform closure of the algebra yields all the continuous functions on [0,1] with f(0) = 0.
- (b) In order to satisfy the requirements of the Stone–Weierstrass theorem, we need the algebra  $\mathcal A$  to include the constant functions.

### Problem 4

We consider the signed measure on  $\mathcal{F}$  defined by

$$\nu(E) = \int_{E} f d\mu,$$

meaning that  $\nu \ll \mu$ , so the function  $g \coloneqq \frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$ , where  $\frac{d\nu}{d\mu}$  denotes the Radon–Nikodym derivative of  $\nu$  with respect to  $\mu$  (where we restrict  $\mu$  to  $\mathcal F$ ), is  $\mathcal F$ -measurable (by Radon–Nikodym) and in  $L_1(\mathbb R,\mathcal F,\mu)$ . This gives, for all  $E \in \mathcal F$ ,

$$\int_{E} g \ d\mu = \int_{E} \frac{d\nu}{d\mu} \ d\mu$$
$$= \int_{E} d\nu$$
$$= \nu(E)$$
$$= \int_{E} f \ d\mu.$$

## Problem 5

Let  $M = \mu(X)$ .

Let  $(f_n)_n \to f$  in measure, and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . If we let

A = 
$$\{x \mid |f_n(x) - f(x)| > \varepsilon/2M\}$$
  
B =  $\{x \mid |f_n(x) - f(x)| \le \varepsilon/2M\}$ ,

we have

$$\begin{split} \int_X min(1,|f_n-f|) \; d\mu &= \int_A min(1,|f_n-f|) \; d\mu + \int_B min(1,|f_n-f|) \; d\mu \\ &\leqslant \mu(A) + \epsilon/2 \\ &< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \\ &= \epsilon. \end{split}$$

Meanwhile, if

$$\int_X \min(1, |f_n - f|) \, \mathrm{d}\mu \to 0,$$

then by Chebyshev's Inequality, we have, for a fixed  $0 < \varepsilon \le 1$ ,

$$\mu(\lbrace x \mid |f_n - f| \ge \varepsilon\rbrace) = \mu(\lbrace x \mid \min(1, |f_n - f|) \ge \varepsilon\rbrace)$$

$$\le \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_X \min(1, |f_n - f|) d\mu$$

$$\to 0,$$

so  $(f_n)_n \to f$  in measure.

# August 2020

## Problem 1

This is false. To see this, let  $\mathfrak{C}(x)$  denote the Cantor–Lebesgue function, and let

$$h(x) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} \mathfrak{C}(x - n) + n.$$

Then, since  $\mathfrak{C}(x)$  has derivative zero almost everywhere, the sum of a number of translates of  $\mathfrak{C}(x)$  still has derivative zero almost everywhere. Then, setting

$$f(x) = h(x) + x,$$

we get that f(x) has derivative equal to 1 almost everywhere. However, at the same time, f(2) - f(1) = 2.

#### Problem 2

We show the inverse problem, which is that every closed set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is  $G_\delta$ . To do this, we let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  be closed, nonempty, and proper (if  $A = \emptyset$  or  $A = \mathbb{R}^2$  the answer is trivial).

Then, there is some  $x \in A^c$ , and specifically there is  $x \in A^c$  with rational coordinates (else, select  $y \in \mathbb{Q}^2$  within the ball of radius  $\varepsilon$  that allows  $A^c$  to be open). Furthermore, since  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a metric space,  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is regular, so there are open  $U_x$  and  $V_x$  such that  $A \subseteq U_x$ ,  $x \in V_x$ , and  $U_x \cap V_x = \emptyset$ .

Therefore, we get

$$A = \bigcap \{ U_x \mid x \in \mathbb{Q}^2 \setminus A \},\,$$

meaning that A is  $G_{\delta}$ . Taking complements, we thus get that every open set is  $F_{\sigma}$ .

#### Problem 3

(a) We see that

$$\begin{split} \left\langle \mathsf{Pf_i}, \mathsf{f_j} \right\rangle &= \delta_{i+1,j} \\ &= \delta_{i,j-1} \\ &= \left\langle \mathsf{f_i}, \mathsf{f_{j-1}} \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \mathsf{f_i}, \mathsf{P}^* \mathsf{f_j} \right\rangle, \end{split}$$

so that  $Pf_n = f_{n-1}$  if n > 1. Else, if n = 1, then  $P^*f_n = 0$ .

(b) We see that, acting on the orthonormal basis  $(f_n)_n$ ,  $P^*P(f_n) = f_n$ , and

$$PP^*(f_n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 1 \\ 1 & else, \end{cases}$$

so that  $P^*P = I$  and  $PP^*$  is as above.

## Problem 4

We see that

$$\mu(\{x \mid f_n(x) > t\}) = \mu(X) - \mu(\{x \mid f_n(x) \le t\}),$$

so by taking limits, we find that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mu(\{x\mid f_n(x)>t\}) = \begin{cases} 1 & t<0\\ 0 & t\geqslant 0 \end{cases}.$$

So, if  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then

$$\begin{split} \mu(\{x \mid |f_{n}(x)| > \epsilon\}) &= \mu(\{x \mid f_{n}(x) < -\epsilon\}) + \mu(\{x \mid f_{n}(x) > \epsilon\}) \\ &\leq \mu(\{x \mid f_{n}(x) \leq -\epsilon\}) + \mu(\{x \mid f_{n}(x) > \epsilon\}) \\ &\to 0. \end{split}$$

## August 2022

#### Problem 1

We note that

$$\left| \frac{n \sin(x/n)}{x(1+x^2)} \right| \le \left| \frac{n(x/n)}{x(1+x^2)} \right|$$
$$= \frac{1}{1+x^2},$$

and since  $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$  is integrable, we may use Dominated Convergence to switch limit and integral, giving

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^\infty \frac{n \sin(x/n)}{x(1+x^2)} dx = \int_0^\infty \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n \sin(x/n)}{x(1+x^2)} dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \lim_{n \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{h} \sin(hx)}{x(1+x^2)} dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{x}{x(1+x^2)} dx$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

## Problem 2

(a) Let f be Lipschitz, and let M denote the Lipschitz constant — i.e.,  $|f(x) - f(y)| \le |x - y|$  for all  $x, y \in [a, b]$ . Set  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{M}$ . Then, if  $\{(\alpha_j, b_j)\}_{j=1}^k$  is a partition such that  $\sum_{j=1}^k |b_j - a_j| < \delta$ , we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k} |f(b_j) - f(a_j)| \le M \sum_{j=1}^{k} |b_j - a_j|$$

$$< \varepsilon$$

Thus, f is absolutely continuous. Now, if  $x, x + h \in [a, b]$ , we have that

$$\left|\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}\right|\leqslant M,$$

meaning that

$$|f'(x)| = \lim_{h \to 0} \left| \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \right|$$
  
 $\leq M,$ 

and since f'(x) exists for a.e.  $x \in [a,b]$ , we have that  $\operatorname{ess\,sup}_{x \in [a,b]} |f'(x)| \leq M$ , so  $f' \in L_{\infty}([a,b])$ .

Let f be absolutely continuous with bounded derivative. Then, if M is the essential supremum of the f', the fundamental theorem of calculus gives

$$|f(y) - f(x)| = \left| \int_{x}^{y} f'(t) dt \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{x}^{y} |f'(t)| dt$$

$$\leq \int_{x}^{y} M dx$$

$$= M|y - x|,$$

so f is Lipschitz.

(b) If f is such that f'(x) exists, then for  $x, x + h \in [a, b]$ , we have

$$\left| \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \right| \le \|f\|_{\text{Lip'}}$$

so by taking limits, we have

$$|f'(x)| \leqslant \|f\|_{Lip}.$$

Thus, this ordering must respect essential suprema, meaning

$$\|f'\|_{L_{\infty}} \leqslant \|f\|_{\operatorname{Lip}}.$$

Furthermore, if  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there are  $x, y \in [a, b]$  with x < y such that

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_{\operatorname{Lip}} - \varepsilon &< \left| \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{|y - x|} \left| \int_{x}^{y} f'(t) \, dt \right| \\ &\leqslant \frac{1}{|y - x|} \int_{x}^{y} |f'(t)| \, dt \\ &\leqslant \frac{1}{|y - x|} \int_{x}^{y} \|f'\|_{L_{\infty}} \, dt \\ &= \|f'\|_{L_{\infty'}} \end{aligned}$$

and since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, we have  $\|f\|_{Lip} \le \|f'\|_{L_{\infty}}$ .

## January 2023

## Problem 1

By using Fatou's Lemma, and assuming WLOG that  $(f_n)_n \to f$  pointwise everywhere, we get

$$\int_{X} |f|^{p} d\mu = \int_{X} \liminf_{n \to \infty} |f_{n}|^{p} d\mu$$

$$\leq \liminf_{n \to \infty} \int_{X} |f_{n}|^{p} d\mu$$

$$\leq 1.$$

so  $\|f\|_{L_p} \le 1$ .

## Problem 2

Let

$$f(t) = \mu(E \cap (-\infty, t)),$$

and for any sequence  $(t_n)_n$ , define

$$E_n = E \cap (-\infty, t_n).$$

We will show that f is left- and right-continuous, hence continuous. To start, if  $(t_n)_n \searrow t$ , then

$$\bigcap_{n\in\mathbb{N}} E_n = E \cap (-\infty, t],$$

so

$$\begin{split} f(t) &= \mu \Biggl(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \setminus \{t\} \Biggr) \\ &= \mu \Biggl(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \Biggr) - \mu (\{t\}). \end{split}$$

Since  $\mu$  is atomless, we see that  $\mu(\{t\}) = 0$ , so since  $\mu(E) < \infty$ ,

$$f(t) = \mu \left( \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \right)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(E_n)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} f(t_n).$$

Thus, f is right-continuous. Similarly, if f is left-continuous, and  $(t_n)_n \nearrow t$ , then

$$\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\mathsf{E}_n=\mathsf{E}\cap(-\infty,\mathsf{t}),$$

so by continuity from below,

$$f(t) = \mu \left( \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} E_n \right)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(E_n)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} f(t_n).$$

Therefore, f is continuous. Since

$$\lim_{t \to -\infty} f(t) = 0$$
$$\lim_{t \to \infty} f(t) = \mu(E)$$
$$> 0,$$

the intermediate value theorem gives some  $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\begin{split} f(t_0) &= \mu(E \cap (-\infty, t_0)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mu(E). \end{split}$$

## Problem 4

Let  $(f_n)_n$  be Cauchy in  $W_p([0,1])$ . Then, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $m, n \ge N$ ,

$$\|f_n - f_m\|_{W_p} = |f_n(0) - f_m(0)| + \|f'_n - f'_m\|_{L_p}$$
  
<  $\varepsilon$ ,

meaning that both

$$\begin{split} |f_n(0) - f_m(0)| &< \epsilon \\ \|f_n' - f_m'\|_{L_p} &< \epsilon. \end{split}$$

Since  $\mathbb C$  and  $L_p([0,1])$  are complete, there is  $c\in\mathbb C$  and  $g\in L_p([0,1])$  such that

$$f_n(0) \to c$$
  
 $f'_n \to g$ .

Define

$$f(x) = c + \int_0^x g(t) dt.$$

Then, we note that by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f'(x) = g(x)$$

$$\in L_p([0,1]),$$

so  $f \in W_p([0,1])$ . Finally, we see that

$$\begin{split} \|f_n - f\|_{W_p([0,1])} &= |f_n(0) - f(0)| + \|f'_n - f'\|_{L_p} \\ &= |f_n(0) - c| + \|f'_n - g\|_{L_p} \\ &\to 0, \end{split}$$

so  $(f_n)_n \to f$  in  $W_p$ , meaning  $W_p$  is complete.