

## Exercises in PDE and Functional Analysis

# Exercise Sheet 2

Jendrik Stelzner

### Exercise 1

(i)

If the sequence  $(x^{(k)})_k$  would converge in  $\ell_2$  then it would be a Cauchy sequence. But it holds for all  $l > k$  that

$$\|x^{(l)} - x^{(k)}\|_2 = \sqrt{2},$$

which shows that this is not the case.

(ii)

It holds for all  $l \geq k$  that

$$\|x^{(l)} - x^{(k)}\|_2 = \left( \sum_{i=k+1}^l \frac{1}{i^2} \right)^{1/2} \leq \left( \sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2} \right)^{1/2} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  because the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2}$  converges. This shows that the sequence  $(x^{(k)})_k$  is a Cauchy sequence. It follows from the completeness of  $\ell_2$  the sequence converges.

(iii)

It holds for all  $l > k$  that

$$\begin{aligned} \|x^{(l)} - x^{(k)}\|_2 &= \left( \sum_{i=k}^{l-1} \frac{1}{i} + \sum_{i=2^k+1}^{2^l} \frac{1}{i} \right)^{1/2} \geq \left( \sum_{i=2^k+1}^{2^l} \frac{1}{i} \right)^{1/2} \geq \left( \sum_{i=2^k+1}^{2^{(k+1)}} \frac{1}{i} \right)^{1/2} \\ &\geq \left( 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^{(k+1)}} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2}, \end{aligned}$$

which shows that the sequence  $(x^{(k)})_k$  is not a Cauchy sequence. It is therefore not convergent.

## Exercise 2

(i)

If  $(X, d)$  is complete then every Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_n \subseteq X$  converges in  $X$ ; this holds then in particular for every Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_n \subseteq A$ .

Suppose that every Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_n \subseteq A$  converges in  $X$ , and let  $(y_n)_n \subseteq X$  be a Cauchy sequence. To show that  $(y_n)_n$  converges in  $X$  we may replace  $(y_n)_n$  by any of its subsequences and therefore assume that  $d(y_l, y_k) \geq 1/k$  for all  $l \geq k$ . There exists for every  $n$  some  $x_n \in A$  with  $d(x_n, y_n) < 1/n$ . The sequence  $(x_n)_n$  is again a Cauchy sequence because it holds for all  $l \geq k$  that

$$d(x_l, x_k) = d(x_l, y_l) + d(y_l, y_k) + d(y_k, x_k) < \frac{1}{l} + \frac{1}{l} + \frac{1}{k} < \frac{3}{k}.$$

It follows by assumption that the sequence  $(x_n)_n$  converges in  $X$  to some  $y \in X$ . It follows that

$$d(y_n, y) = d(y_n, x_n) + d(x_n, y) \leq \frac{1}{n} + d(x_n, y) \longrightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , which shows that  $(y_n)_n$  converges in  $X$ .

(ii)

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $A$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces and let  $f: A \rightarrow Y$  be a uniformly continuous map. Let  $(a_n)_n \subseteq X$  be a sequence.*

- 1) *If  $(a_n)_n$  is a Cauchy sequence then the sequence  $(f(a_n))_n \subseteq Y$  is again a Cauchy sequence.*
- 2) *Suppose that  $f(a_n) \rightarrow y$  for some  $y \in Y$ . Let  $(a'_n)_n \subseteq A$  be another sequence, for which  $d(a'_n, a_n) \rightarrow 0$ . Then also  $f(a'_n) \rightarrow y$ .*

*Proof.*

- 1) For every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists some  $\delta > 0$  with  $d(f(a), f(a')) < \varepsilon$  for all  $a, a' \in X$  with  $d(a, a') < \delta$ . There exists some  $k$  with  $d(a_l, a_{l'}) < \delta$  for all  $l, l' \geq k$ , and hence  $d(f(a_l), f(a_{l'})) < \varepsilon$  for all  $l, l' \geq k$ .
- 2) There exists for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  some  $\delta > 0$  with  $d(f(a), f(a')) < \varepsilon/2$  for all  $a, a' \in A$  with  $d(a, a') < \delta$ . There exists some  $N$  with  $d(a_n, a'_n) < \delta$  and  $d(f(a_n), y) < \varepsilon/2$  for all  $n \geq N$ . It follows that

$$d(f(a'_n), y) = d(f(a'_n), f(a_n)) + d(f(a_n), y) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

for all  $n \geq N$ , and hence  $f(a'_n) \rightarrow y$ . □

For  $x \in X$  there exist a sequence  $(a_n)_n \subseteq A$  with  $a_n \rightarrow x$ . It follows from Lemma 1 that the sequence  $(f(a_n))_n$  is again a Cauchy sequence, hence converges by the completeness of  $Y$ . Let  $\tilde{f}(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n)$ .

If  $(a'_n)_n \subseteq A$  is another sequence with  $a'_n \rightarrow x$  then

$$d(a_n, a'_n) \leq d(a_n, x) + d(x, a'_n) \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and therefore  $f(a'_n) \rightarrow \tilde{f}(x)$  by Lemma 1. This shows that  $\tilde{f}(x)$  is independent of the choice of sequence  $(a_n)_n$ . (We won't actually need this independence, but the author thinks that it is nevertheless important enough to warrant a proof.)

To show that  $\tilde{f}$  is continuous we show that  $f$  is uniformly continuous: So let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and let  $\delta > 0$  with

$$d(f(a), f(a')) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

for all  $a, a' \in A$  with  $d(a, a') < 3\delta$ . For  $x, x' \in X$  with  $d(x, x') < \delta$  we show that  $\tilde{f}(x, x') < \varepsilon$ : We choose sequences  $(a_n)_n, (a'_n)_n \subseteq A$  with  $a_n \rightarrow x$  and  $a'_n \rightarrow x'$ . It then holds that  $f(a_n) \rightarrow x$  and  $f(a'_n) \rightarrow x'$  as seen above. Let  $n$  be large enough so that

$$d(a_n, x), d(a'_n, x') < \delta \quad \text{and} \quad d(f(a_n), \tilde{f}(x)), d(f(a'_n), \tilde{f}(x')) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

It then follows from the inequalities  $d(a_n, x), d(x, x'), d(x', a'_n) < \delta$  that  $d(a_n, a'_n) < 3\delta$ , and hence

$$d(f(a_n), f(a'_n)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$$

by choice of  $\delta$ . We altogether find that

$$\begin{aligned} d(\tilde{f}(x), \tilde{f}(x')) &\leq d(\tilde{f}(x), f(a_n)) + d(f(a_n), f(a'_n)) + d(f(a'_n), \tilde{f}(x')) \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $\tilde{f}$  is indeed uniformly continuous.

We also note that the continuous extension  $\tilde{f}$  is unique because  $A$  is dense in  $X$ .

### (iii)

The isometry  $f$  extends by part (ii) (uniquely) to a continuous map  $\tilde{f}: X \rightarrow Y$ . For all  $x, x' \in X$  there exist sequences  $(a_n)_n, (a'_n)_n \subseteq A$  with  $a_n \rightarrow x$  and  $a'_n \rightarrow x'$ . It then follows from the continuity of  $\tilde{f}$  and the continuity of the metrics  $d_X: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $d_Y: Y \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (with respect to the product topologies on both  $X \times X$  and  $Y \times Y$ )

that

$$\begin{aligned}
d_Y(\tilde{f}(x), \tilde{f}(x')) &= d_Y\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\tilde{f}(a_n), \tilde{f}(a'_n))\right) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Y(\tilde{f}(a_n), \tilde{f}(a'_n)) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Y(f(a_n), f(a'_n)) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_A(a_n, a'_n) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_X(a_n, a'_n) \\
&= d_X\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n, a'_n)\right) \\
&= d_X(x, x').
\end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $\tilde{f}$  is again an isometry.

It follows that when we restrict  $\tilde{f}$  to a map into its image, then  $\tilde{f}$  become a bijective isometry.<sup>1</sup> This shows that the subspace  $\tilde{f}(X) \subseteq Y$  is complete, and thus closed. But the image  $\tilde{f}(X)$  is dense in  $Y$  because it contains  $\tilde{f}(A) = f(A)$ , which is dense in  $Y$ . It follows that already  $\tilde{f}(X) = Y$ . This shows altogether  $\tilde{f}$  is a bijective isometry.

### Exercise 3

We consider only the case that  $\Omega$  is nonempty.

(i)

It follows from  $\alpha < \beta$  and the boundedness of  $\Omega$  that

$$C := \sup_{\substack{x, y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{1}{\|x - y\|^{\alpha - \beta}} = \sup_{\substack{x, y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \|x - y\|^{\beta - \alpha} < \infty$$

with  $C > 0$ . It therefore holds for every function  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  that

$$\begin{aligned}
[f]_\alpha &= \sup_{\substack{x, y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|^\alpha} = \sup_{\substack{x, y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{1}{\|x - y\|^{\alpha - \beta}} \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|^\beta} \\
&\leq \sup_{\substack{x, y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} C \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|^\beta} = C \sup_{\substack{x, y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|^\beta} = C[f]_\beta
\end{aligned}$$

We may replace the constant  $C$  by  $C + 1$  to ensure that  $C \geq 1$ , while still maintaining that  $[f]_\alpha \leq C[f]_\beta$  for every  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . It then further follows that

$$\|f\|_{0, \alpha} = \|f\|_\infty + [f]_\alpha \leq C\|f\|_\infty + C[f]_\beta = C\|f\|_{0, \beta}.$$

It follows in particular for  $f \in C^{0, \beta}$  that  $[f]_\alpha \leq C[f]_\beta < \infty$  and hence  $f \in C^{0, \alpha}$ .

---

<sup>1</sup>We haven't explicitly shown that  $\tilde{f}$  is injective, but isometries are always injective.

**(ii)**

**Lemma 2.** *If  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$  then the map  $[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x \mapsto x^\alpha$  is subadditive, i.e. it holds that*

$$(x + y)^\alpha \leq x^\alpha + y^\alpha$$

for all  $x, y \in [0, \infty)$ .

*Proof.* We fix  $x \in [0, \infty)$ . If  $x = 0$  then the claimed inequality holds, so we may assume that  $x > 0$ . We then consider the two maps

$$f: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad y \mapsto (x + y)^\alpha$$

and

$$g: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad y \mapsto x^\alpha + y^\alpha.$$

It holds that  $f(0) = g(0)$  and both maps are differentiable. It holds for every  $x \in [0, \infty)$  that

$$f'(x) = \alpha(x + y)^{\alpha-1} \leq \alpha y^{\alpha-1} = g'(x)$$

where we use that  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ . It therefore follows from  $f(0) = g(0)$  that  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x \geq 0$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.** *It holds for all  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$  and all  $x, y \geq 0$  that*

$$|x^\alpha - y^\alpha| \leq |x - y|^\alpha.$$

*Proof.* We may assume that  $x \geq y$ . Then

$$x^\alpha = ((x - y) + y)^\alpha \leq (x - y)^\alpha + y^\alpha$$

by Lemma 2 and therefore

$$|x^\alpha - y^\alpha| = x^\alpha - y^\alpha \leq (x - y)^\alpha = |x - y|^\alpha,$$

as desired.  $\square$

We first consider the case  $m = 1$ . Fix a base point  $z \in \Omega$  and consider the continuous function

$$f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad x \mapsto \|x - z\|^\alpha.$$

It holds for all  $x, y \in \Omega$  by Corollary 3 and the reverse triangle inequality for  $\|\cdot\|$  that

$$\begin{aligned} \|f(x) - f(y)\| &= | \|x - z\|^\alpha - \|y - z\|^\alpha | \\ &\leq | \|x - z\| - \|y - z\| |^\alpha \\ &\leq | \| (x - z) - (y - z) \| |^\alpha \\ &\leq \|x - y\|^\alpha. \end{aligned}$$

It then follows that  $f \in C^{0,\alpha}(\Omega)$  because

$$[f]_\alpha = \sup_{\substack{x,y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|^\alpha} \leq \sup_{\substack{x,y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{\|x - y\|^\alpha}{\|x - y\|^\alpha} = 1.$$

But  $f \notin C^{0,\beta}(\Omega)$  because

$$\begin{aligned} [f]_\beta &= \sup_{\substack{x,y \in \Omega \\ x \neq y}} \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|^\beta} \geq \sup_{\substack{y=z \\ x \in \Omega \\ x \neq z}} \frac{\|f(x) - f(z)\|}{\|x - z\|^\beta} = \sup_{\substack{x \in \Omega \\ x \neq z}} \frac{\|x - z\|^\alpha}{\|x - z\|^\beta} \\ &= \sup_{\substack{x \in \Omega \\ x \neq z}} \frac{1}{\|x - z\|^{\beta-\alpha}} = \infty, \end{aligned}$$

where we have used that  $\Omega$  is open and thus contains points arbitrarily close to  $z$  (but distinct to  $z$ ).

For  $m \geq 1$  we can replace  $f$  by the function

$$\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad x \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \|x - z\|^\alpha \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and all of the above calculations stay true.

### (iii)

Every Hölder-continuous function is uniformly continuous, so it suffices to construct a continuous function  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  which is not uniformly continuous. If  $z \in \partial\Omega$  is a boundary point of  $\Omega$  then the function

$$f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad z \mapsto \frac{1}{\|x - z\|}$$

should do the trick, but I currently don't have the time to work out the details.

## Exercise 4

### (i)

Suppose there exists a countable dense subset  $D \subseteq X$ . Then there exists for every  $a \in A$  some  $x_a \in D$  with  $d(x_a, a) < \delta/2$ . It follows from  $D$  being countable but  $A$  being uncountable that there exist  $a_1, a_2 \in A$  with  $a_1 \neq a_2$  but  $x_{a_1} = x_{a_2} =: x$ . It follows that

$$d(a_1, a_2) \leq d(a_1, x) + d(x, a_2) < \frac{\delta}{2} + \frac{\delta}{2} = \delta,$$

which contradicts the choice of  $A$ .

**(ii)**

For every subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$  there exists a continuous bounded function  $f_S: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with

$$f_S(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in S, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(One can take for every  $n \in S$  a small hat of height 1 with peak at the point  $n$  and support in  $[n - 1/2, n + 1/2]$ , and then connects these hats by the zero function.) It then holds for any two distinct subsets  $S, T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$  that some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  is contained in precisely one of the sets  $S$  and  $T$ ; it then follows that  $|f_S(n) - f_T(n)| = 1$ . This shows that  $\|f_S - f_T\| \geq 1$  for all  $S, T \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z})$  with  $S \neq T$  (where  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z})$  denotes the power set of  $\mathbb{Z}$ ). It follows from the uncountability of the power set  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z})$  and part (i) of the exercise that  $C_b^0(\mathbb{R})$  is not separable.

**(iii)**

If  $f_1, f_2: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are functions for which the limits  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_1(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_2(x)$  exist, then it holds for every  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  that the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\alpha f_1 + f_2)(x)$  also exists, and is given by

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\alpha f_1 + f_2)(x) = \alpha \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_1(x) \right) + \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f_2(x) \right).$$

The analogous statement for  $x \rightarrow -\infty$  also holds. It follows that for all functions  $f_1, f_2: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$  and all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , the function  $\alpha f_1 + f_2$  again satisfies  $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} (\alpha f_1 + f_2)(x) = 0$ . It also holds that  $0 \in C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$ . This shows altogether that  $C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$  is a linear subspace of  $C_b^0(\mathbb{R})$ .

Let  $f \in C_b^0(\mathbb{R})$  be in the closure of  $C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$ . Then there exist for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  some  $g \in C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$  with  $\|f - g\| < \varepsilon$ , and hence

$$|f(x)| \leq |g(x)| + |f(x) - g(x)| \leq |g(x)| + \varepsilon$$

for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . It follows that

$$\limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} |f(x)| \leq \varepsilon.$$

This shows that  $\limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} |f(x)| = 0$ , which in turn shows that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ . It can be shown in the same way that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = 0$ . This shows together that  $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , and hence that  $C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$  is closed in  $C_b^0(\mathbb{R})$ .

It remains to show that  $C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$  is separable. We know from the lecture that  $C^0([-n, n])$  is separable for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (see Theorem 2.5 in the lecture notes). Let  $B_n \subseteq C^0([-n, n])$  be a countable dense subset. We extend every  $g \in B_n$  to a function  $\hat{g} \in C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$  by letting  $\hat{g}$  tend linearly to 0 on the intervals  $[-n-1, -n]$  and  $[n, n+1]$  and setting  $\hat{g} \equiv 0$

outside of  $[-n-1, n+1]$ . This means explicitly that

$$\hat{g}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq -n-1, \\ g(-n) \cdot (x+n+1) & \text{if } -n-1 \leq x \leq -n, \\ g(x) & \text{if } -n \leq x \leq n, \\ g(n) \cdot (n+1-x) & \text{if } n \leq x \leq n+1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \geq n+1. \end{cases}.$$

Let  $\hat{B}_n := \{\hat{g} \mid g \in B_n\}$  and set  $\hat{B} := \bigcup_{n \geq 0} \hat{B}_n$ . Then  $\hat{B}$  is a countable subset of  $C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$ , and we claim that it is dense:

Let  $f \in C_0^0(\mathbb{R})$  and let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . There exist some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $|f(x)| \leq \varepsilon$  whenever  $|x| \geq n$ . It holds in particular that

$$|f(n)|, |f(-n)| \leq \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

There exist by choice of  $B_n$  some  $g \in B_n$  with  $\|f - g\|_{C^0([-n, n])} \leq \varepsilon$ . It follows in particular that  $|f(x) - g(x)| \leq \varepsilon$  for  $x = n, -n$ , and hence

$$|g(n)|, |g(-n)| \leq 2\varepsilon$$

by (1). It then follows from the construction of the extension  $\hat{g}$  that  $|g(x)| \leq 2\varepsilon$  for all  $|x| \geq n$ . It follows from the triangle inequality that

$$|f(x) - g(x)| \leq |f(x)| + |g(x)| \leq 2\varepsilon + \varepsilon = 3\varepsilon$$

for all  $|x| \geq n$ . Together with  $\|f - g\|_{C^0([-n, n])} \leq \varepsilon$  this shows that  $\|f - g\|_{C_0^0(\mathbb{R})} \leq 3\varepsilon$ .