# Real Analysis Qualifying Exam Solutions

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# 1 Spring 2020

# 1.1 1

Concepts used:

- DCT
- Weierstrass Approximation Theorem

### **Solution**:

• Suppose p is a polynomial, then

$$\begin{split} \lim_{k\longrightarrow\infty} \int_0^1 kx^{k-1} p(x)\,dx &= \lim_{k\longrightarrow\infty} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\,x^k\right) p(x)\,dx \\ &= \lim_{k\longrightarrow\infty} \left[x^k p(x)\Big|_0^1 - \int_0^1 x^k \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\,p(x)\right) dx\right] \quad \text{integrating by parts} \\ &= p(1) - \lim_{k\longrightarrow\infty} \int_0^1 x^k \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\,p(x)\right) dx, \end{split}$$

• Thus it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_0^1 x^k \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} p(x) \right) dx = 0.$$

• Integrating by parts a second time yields

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_0^1 x^k \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} p(x) \right) dx = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} p'(x) \Big|_0^1 - \int_0^1 \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} p(x) \right) dx$$

$$= -\lim_{k \to \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} p(x) \right) dx$$

$$= -\int_0^1 \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} p(x) \right) dx \quad \text{by DCT}$$

$$= -\int_0^1 0 \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} p(x) \right) dx$$

$$= 0.$$

– The DCT can be applied here because f'' is continuous and [0,1] is compact, so f'' is bounded on [0,1] by a constant M and

$$\int_0^1 \left| x^k f''(x) \right| \le \int_0^1 1 \cdot M = M < \infty.$$

- Now use the Weierstrass approximation theorem:
  - If  $f:[a,b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a polynomial  $p_{\varepsilon}(x)$  such that  $||f p_{\varepsilon}||_{\infty} < \varepsilon$ .
- Thus

$$\left| \int_0^1 kx^{k-1} p_{\varepsilon}(x) \, dx - \int_0^1 kx^{k-1} f(x) \, dx \right| = \left| \int_0^1 kx^{k-1} (p_{\varepsilon}(x) - f(x)) \, dx \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \int_0^1 kx^{k-1} || p_{\varepsilon} - f ||_{\infty} \, dx \right|$$

$$= || p_{\varepsilon} - f ||_{\infty} \cdot \left| \int_0^1 kx^{k-1} \, dx \right|$$

$$= || p_{\varepsilon} - f ||_{\infty} \cdot x^k \right|_0^1$$

$$= || p_{\varepsilon} - f ||_{\infty} \stackrel{\varepsilon \longrightarrow 0}{\longrightarrow} 0$$

and the integrals are equal.

• By the first argument,

$$\int_0^1 kx^{k-1} p_{\varepsilon}(x) dx = p_{\varepsilon}(1) \text{ for each } \varepsilon$$

• Since uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence,  $p_{\varepsilon}(1) \stackrel{\varepsilon \longrightarrow 0}{\longrightarrow} f(1)$ .

# 1.2 2

- Definition of outer measure:  $m_*(E) = \inf_{\{Q_j\} \rightrightarrows E} \sum |Q_j|$  where  $\{Q_j\}$  is a countable collection of closed cubes.
- Break  $\mathbb R$  into  $\coprod_{n\in\mathbb Z}[n,n+1),$  each with finite measure.
- Theorem:  $m_*(Q) = |Q|$  for Q a closed cube (i.e. the outer measure equals the volume).

Proof (of Theorem).

Statement: if Q is a closed cube, then  $m_*(Q) = |Q|$ , the usual volume.

- - Since  $Q \subseteq Q$ ,  $Q \rightrightarrows Q$  and  $m_*(Q) \leq |Q|$  since  $m_*$  is an infimum over such coverings.
- $|Q| \le m_*(Q)$ : Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ 

  - Let  $\{Q_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \rightrightarrows Q$  be arbitrary, it suffices to show that

$$|Q| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |Q_i|\right) + \varepsilon.$$

- Pick open cubes  $S_i$  such that  $Q_i \subseteq S_i$  and  $|Q_i| \le |S_i| \le (1+\varepsilon)|Q_i|$ .
- Then  $\{S_i\} \rightrightarrows Q$ , so by compactness of Q pick a finite subcover with N elements.
- Note

$$Q \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} S_i \implies |Q| \le \sum_{i=1}^{N} |S_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^{N} (1+\varepsilon)|Q_j| \le (1+\varepsilon) \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |Q_i|.$$

- Taking an infimum over coverings on the RHS preserves the inequality, so

$$|Q| \le (1+\varepsilon)m_*(Q)$$

- Take  $\varepsilon \longrightarrow 0$  to obtain final inequality.

### 1.2.1 a

- If  $m_*(E) = \infty$ , then take  $B = \mathbb{R}^n$  since  $m(\mathbb{R}^n) = \infty$ .
- Suppose  $N := m_*(E) < \infty$ .
- Since  $m_*(E)$  is an infimum, by definition, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a covering by closed cubes  $\{Q_i(\varepsilon)\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \rightrightarrows E$  depending on  $\varepsilon$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |Q_i(\varepsilon)| < N + \varepsilon.$$

- For each fixed n, set  $\varepsilon_n = \frac{1}{n}$  to produce such a covering  $\{Q_i(\varepsilon_n)\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  and set  $B_n := \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} Q_i(\varepsilon_n)$ .
- The outer measure of cubes is equal to the sum of their volumes, so

$$m_*(B_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |Q_i(\varepsilon_n)| < N + \varepsilon_n = N + \frac{1}{n}.$$

- Now set  $B := \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n$ .
  - Since  $E \subseteq B_n$  for every  $n, E \subseteq B$
  - Since B is a countable intersection of countable unions of closed sets, B is Borel.
  - Since  $B_n \subseteq B$  for every n, we can apply subadditivity to obtain the inequality

$$E \subseteq B \subseteq B_n \implies N \le m_*(B) \le m_*(B_n) < N + \frac{1}{n} \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\ge 1}.$$

• This forces  $m_*(E) = m_*(B)$ .

# 1.2.2 b

Suppose  $m_*(E) < \infty$ .

- By (a), find a Borel set  $B \supseteq E$  such that  $m_*(B) = m_*(E)$
- Note that  $E \subseteq B \implies B \cap E = E$  and  $B \cap E^c = B \setminus E$ .
- By assumption,

$$m_*(B) = m_*(B \cap E) + m_*(B \cap E^c)$$

$$m_*(E) = m_*(E) + m_*(B \setminus E)$$

$$m_*(E) - m_*(E) = m_*(B \setminus E) \quad \text{since } m_*(E) < \infty$$

$$\implies m_*(B \setminus E) = 0.$$

• So take  $N = B \setminus E$ ; this shows  $m_*(N) = 0$  and  $E = B \setminus (B \setminus E) = B \setminus N$ .

If  $m_*(E) = \infty$ :

- Apply result to  $E_R := E \bigcap [R, R+1)^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  for  $R \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so  $E = \coprod_R E_R$
- Obtain  $B_R$ ,  $N_R$  such that  $E_R = B_R \setminus N_R$ ,  $m_*(E_R) = m_*(B_R)$ , and  $m_*(N_R) = 0$ .
- Note that
  - $-B := \bigcup_{R} B_R$  is a union of Borel sets and thus still Borel

$$-E = \bigcup_{R}^{R} E_{R}$$

$$-N := \stackrel{R}{B} \setminus E$$

- $-N' := \bigcup_{R} N_R$  is a union of null sets and thus still null
- Since  $E_R \subset B_R$  for every R, we have  $E \subset B$
- We can compute

$$N = B \setminus E = \left(\bigcup_{R} B_{R}\right) \setminus \left(\bigcup_{R} E_{R}\right) \subseteq \bigcup_{R} \left(B_{R} \setminus E_{R}\right) = \bigcup_{R} N_{R} := N'$$

where  $m_*(N') = 0$  since N' is null, and thus subadditivity forces  $m_*(N) = 0$ .

### 1.3 3

Concepts used:

• Limits

- Cauchy Criterion for Integrals:  $\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges iff for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an  $M_0$  such that  $A, B \geq M_0$  implies  $\left| \int_{A}^{B} f \right| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $\left| \int_{A}^{B} f \right| \stackrel{A \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ .
- Integrals of  $L^1$  functions have vanishing tails:  $\int_N^\infty |f| \stackrel{N \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ .
- Mean Value Theorem for Integrals:  $\int_a^b f(t) dt = (b-a)f(c)$  for some  $c \in [a,b]$ .

### 1.3.1 a

Stated integral equality:

- Let  $\varepsilon > 0$
- $C_c(\mathbb{R}^n) \hookrightarrow L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is dense so choose  $\{f_n\} \longrightarrow f$  with  $||f_n f||_1 \longrightarrow 0$ .
- Since  $\{f_n\}$  are compactly supported, choose  $N_0 \gg 1$  such that  $f_n$  is zero outside of  $B_{N_0}(\mathbf{0})$ .
- Then

$$N \ge N_0 \implies \int_{|x|>N} |f| = \int_{|x|>N} |f - f_n + f_n|$$

$$\le \int_{|x|>N} |f - f_n| + \int_{|x|>N} |f_n|$$

$$= \int_{|x|>N} |f - f_n|$$

$$\le \int_{|x|>N} |f - f_n|$$

$$\le \int_{|x|>N} |f - f_n|$$

$$= ||f_n - f||_1 \left( \int_{|x|>N} 1 \right)$$

$$\stackrel{n \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0 \left( \int_{|x|>N} 1 \right)$$

$$= 0$$

$$\stackrel{N \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$$

To see that this doesn't force  $f(x) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $|x| \longrightarrow \infty$ :

- Take f(x) to be a train of rectangles of height 1 and area  $1/2^{j}$  centered on even integers.
- Then

$$\int_{|x|>N} |f| = \sum_{j=N}^{\infty} 1/2^j \stackrel{N \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$$

as the tail of a convergent sum.

• However f(x) = 1 for infinitely many even integers x > N, so  $f(x) \not\longrightarrow 0$  as  $|x| \longrightarrow \infty$ .

### 1.3.2 b

# Solution 1 ("Trick")

• Since f is decreasing on  $[1, \infty)$ , for any  $t \in [x - n, x]$  we have

$$x - n \le t \le x \implies f(x) \le f(t) \le f(x - n).$$

• Integrate over [x, 2x], using monotonicity of the integral:

$$\int_{x}^{2x} f(x) dt \le \int_{x}^{2x} f(t) dt \le \int_{x}^{2x} f(x-n) dt$$

$$\implies f(x) \int_{x}^{2x} dt \le \int_{x}^{2x} f(t) dt \le f(x-n) \int_{x}^{2x} dt$$

$$\implies x f(x) \le \int_{x}^{2x} f(t) dt \le x f(x-n).$$

- By the Cauchy Criterion for integrals,  $\lim_{x \to \infty} \int_{x}^{2x} f(t) dt = 0$ .
- So the LHS term  $xf(x) \stackrel{x \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ .
- Since x > 1,  $|f(x)| \le |xf(x)|$
- Thus  $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} 0$  as well.

# Solution 2 (Variation on the Trick)

• Use mean value theorem for integrals:

$$\int_{x}^{2x} f(t) dt = x f(c_x) \quad \text{for some } c_x \in [x, 2x] \text{ depending on } x.$$

• Since f is decreasing,

$$x \le c_x \le 2x \implies f(2x) \le f(c_x) \le f(x)$$

$$\implies 2xf(2x) \le 2xf(c_x) \le 2xf(x)$$

$$\implies 2xf(2x) \le 2x \int_x^{2x} f(t) dt \le 2xf(x)$$

• By Cauchy Criterion,  $\int_{x}^{2x} f \longrightarrow 0$ .

- So  $2xf(2x) \longrightarrow 0$ , which by a change of variables gives  $uf(u) \longrightarrow 0$ .
- Since  $u \ge 1$ ,  $f(u) \le u f(u)$  so  $f(u) \longrightarrow 0$  as well.

# Solution 3 (Contradiction)

Just showing  $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} 0$ :

- Toward a contradiction, suppose not.
- Since f is decreasing, it can not diverge to  $+\infty$

- If  $f(x) \longrightarrow -\infty$ , then  $f \notin L^1(\mathbb{R})$ : choose  $x_0 \gg 1$  so that  $t \geq x_0 \implies f(t) < -1$ , then
- Then  $t \geq x_0 \implies |f(t)| \geq 1$ , so

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} |f| \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} |f(t)| dt \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} 1 = \infty.$$

- Otherwise  $f(x) \longrightarrow L \neq 0$ , some finite limit.
- If L > 0:
  - Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $x_0 \gg 1$  such that  $t \geq x_0 \implies L \varepsilon \leq f(t) \leq L$
  - Then

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} f \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} f \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} (L - \varepsilon) dt = \infty$$

- If L < 0:
  - Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $x_0 \gg 1$  such that  $t \geq x_0 \implies L \leq f(t) \leq L + \varepsilon$ .
  - Then

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} f \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} f \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} (L) dt = \infty$$

Showing  $xf(x) \stackrel{x \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ .

- Toward a contradiction, suppose not.
- (How to show that  $xf(x) \not\longrightarrow +\infty$ ?)
- If  $xf(x) \longrightarrow -\infty$ 
  - Choose a sequence  $\Gamma = \{\hat{x}_i\}$  such that  $x_i \longrightarrow \infty$  and  $x_i f(x_i) \longrightarrow -\infty$ .
  - Choose a subsequence  $\Gamma' = \{x_i\}$  such that  $x_i f(x_i) \leq -1$  for all i and  $x_i \leq x_{i+1}$ .
  - Choose a further subsequence  $S = \{x_i \in \Gamma' \mid 2x_i < x_{i+1}\}.$
  - Then since f is always decreasing, for  $t \ge x_0$ , |f| is increasing, and  $|f(x_i)| \le |f(2x_i)|$ , so

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} |f| \ge \int_{x_0}^{\infty} |f| \ge \sum_{x_i \in S} \int_{x_i}^{2x_i} |f(t)| \, dt \ge \sum_{x_i \in S} \int_{x_i}^{2x_i} |f(x_i)| = \sum_{x_i \in S} x_i f(x_i) \longrightarrow \infty.$$

- If  $xf(x) \longrightarrow L \neq 0$  for  $0 < L < \infty$ :
  - Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose an infinite sequence  $\{x_i\}$  such that  $L \varepsilon \leq x_i f(x_i) \leq L$  for all i.

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} |f| \ge \sum_{S} \int_{x_i}^{2x_i} |f(t)| dt \ge \sum_{S} \int_{x_i}^{2x_i} f(x_i) dt = \sum_{S} x_i f(x_i) \ge \sum_{S} (L - \varepsilon) \longrightarrow \infty.$$

- If  $xf(x) \longrightarrow L \neq 0$  for  $-\infty < L < 0$ :
  - Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose an infinite sequence  $\{x_i\}$  such that  $L \leq x_i f(x_i) \leq L + \varepsilon$  for all i.

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} |f| \ge \sum_{S} \int_{x_i}^{2x_i} |f(t)| dt \ge \sum_{S} \int_{x_i}^{2x_i} f(x_i) dt = \sum_{S} x_i f(x_i) \ge \sum_{S} (L) \longrightarrow \infty.$$

Solution 4 (Akos's Suggestion) For  $x \ge 1$ ,

$$|xf(x)| = \left| \int_x^{2x} f(x) \, dt \right| \le \int_x^{2x} |f(x)| \, dt \le \int_x^{2x} |f(t)| \, dt \le \int_x^{\infty} |f(t)| \, dt \xrightarrow{x \longrightarrow \infty} 0$$

where we've used

- Since f is decreasing and  $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = 0$  from part (a), f is non-negative.
- Since f is positive and decreasing, for every  $t \in [a, b]$  we have  $|f(a)| \le |f(t)|$ .
- By part (a), the last integral goes to zero.

# Solution 5 (Peter's)

• Toward a contradiction, produce a sequence  $x_i \longrightarrow \infty$  with  $x_i f(x_i) \longrightarrow \infty$  and  $x_i f(x_i) > \varepsilon > 0$ , then

$$\int f(x) dx \ge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) dx$$

$$\ge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x_{i+1}) dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(x_{i+1}) \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx$$

$$\ge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (x_{i+1} - x_i) f(x_{i+1})$$

$$\ge \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (x_{i+1} - x_i) \frac{\varepsilon}{x_{i+1}}$$

$$= \varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( 1 - \frac{x_{i-1}}{x_i} \right) \longrightarrow \infty$$

which can be ensured by passing to a subsequence where  $\sum \frac{x_{i-1}}{x_i} < \infty$ .

# 1.3.3 c

- No: take f(x) = 1/(x ln x)
  Then by a u-substitution,

$$\int_0^x f = \ln\left(\ln(x)\right) \stackrel{x \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} \infty$$

is unbounded, so  $f \notin L^1([1,\infty))$ .

• But

$$xf(x) = \frac{1}{\ln(x)} \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} 0.$$

### 1.4 4

Relevant concepts:

- Tonelli: non-negative and measurable yields measurability of slices and equality of iterated integrals
- Fubini:  $f(x,y) \in L^1$  yields integrable slices and equality of iterated integrals
- F/T: apply Tonelli to |f|; if finite,  $f \in L^1$  and apply Fubini to f

$$\begin{split} \|H(x)\|_1 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} |H(x,y)| \, dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) g(x-y) \, dy \right| \, dx \\ &\leq \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y) g(x-y)| \, dy \right) \, dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y) g(x-y)| \, dx \right) \, dy \quad \text{by Tonelli} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y) g(t)| \, dt \right) \, dy \quad \text{setting } t = x - y, \, dt = -dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y)| \cdot |g(t)| \, dt \right) \, dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y)| \cdot \left( \int_{\mathbb{R}} |g(t)| \, dt \right) \, dy \\ &\coloneqq \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y)| \cdot \|g\|_1 \, dy \\ &= \|g\|_1 \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y)| \, dy \\ &\coloneqq \|g\|_1 \|f\|_1 \\ &< \infty \quad \text{by assumption} \quad . \end{split}$$

- H is measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :
  - If we can show  $\tilde{f}(x,y) := f(y)$  and  $\tilde{g}(x,y) := g(x-y)$  are both measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , then  $H = \tilde{f} \cdot \tilde{g}$  is a product of measurable functions and thus measurable.
  - $-f \in L^1$ , and  $L^1$  functions are measurable by definition.
  - The function  $(x,y) \mapsto g(x-y)$  is measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :
    - \* Let g be measurable on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then the cylinder function G(x,y)=g(x) on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is always measurable
    - \* Define a linear transformation T := [1, -1; 0, 1] which sends  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (x y, y)$ , then  $T \in GL(2, \mathbb{R})$  is linear and thus measurable.
    - \* Then  $(G \circ T)(x,y) = G(x-y,y) = \tilde{g}(x-y)$ , so  $\tilde{g}$  is a composition of measurable functions and thus measurable.
- Apply **Tonelli** to |H|
  - -H measurable implies |H| is measurable
  - -|H| is non-negative
  - So the iterated integrals are equal in the extended sense
  - The calculation shows the iterated integral is finite, to  $\int |H|$  is finite and H is thus integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Note: Fubini is not needed, since we're not calculating the actual integral, just showing H is integrable.

# 1.5 5

Concepts used:

- DCT
- Passing limits through products and quotients

Note that

$$\lim_{n} \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^{-(n+1)} = \frac{1}{\lim_{n} \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^1 \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^n}$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 \cdot e^{x^2}}$$
$$= e^{-x^2}.$$

If passing the limit through the integral is justified, we will have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^n \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^{-(n+1)} dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \chi_{[0,n]} \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^{-(n+1)} dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{n \to \infty} \chi_{[0,n]} \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^{-(n+1)} dx \quad \text{by the DCT}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \right)^{-(n+1)} dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2}$$

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

Computing the last integral:

$$\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} dx\right)^2 = \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} dx\right) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-y^2} dx\right)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-(x+y)^2} dx$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta \qquad u = r^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} 1$$

and now use the fact that the function is even so  $\int_0^\infty f = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f$ .

Justifying the DCT:

• Apply Bernoulli's inequality:

$$1 + \frac{x^2}{n}^{n+1} \ge 1 + \frac{x^2}{n} (1 + x^2) \ge 1 + x^2,$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that  $1 + \frac{x^2}{n} \ge 1$ 

# 1.6 6

Concepts used:

- For  $e_n(x) := e^{2\pi i n x}$ , the set  $\{e_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis for  $L^2([0,1])$ .
- For any orthonormal sequence in a Hilbert space, we have Bessel's inequality:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, e_k \rangle|^2 \le ||x||^2.$$

- When  $\{e_n\}$  is a basis, the above is an equality (Parseval)
- Arguing uniform convergence: since  $\{\widehat{f}(n)\}\in \ell^1(\mathbb{Z})$ , we should be able to apply the M test.

### 1.6.1 a

Claim:  $\ell^1(\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq \ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$ .

- Set  $\mathbf{c} = \{c_k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \in \ell^1(\mathbb{Z}).$
- It suffices to show that if  $\sum_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}|c_k|<\infty$  then  $\sum_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}|c_k|^2<\infty$ .
- Let  $S = \{c_k \mid |c_k| \le 1\}$ , then  $c_k \in S \implies |c_k|^2 \le |c_k|$  Claim:  $S^c$  can only contain finitely many elements, all of which are finite. If not, either  $S^c := \{c_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is infinite with every  $|c_j| > 1$ , which forces

$$\sum_{c_k \in S^c} |c_k| = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |c_j| > \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty.$$

- If any  $c_j = \infty$ , then  $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |c_k| \ge c_j = \infty$ .
- So  $S^c$  is a finite set of finite integers, let  $N = \max \left\{ |c_j|^2 \mid c_j \in S^c \right\} < \infty$ .

• Rewrite the sum

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |c_k|^2 = \sum_{c_k \in S} |c_k|^2 + \sum_{c_k \in S^c} |c_k|^2$$

$$\leq \sum_{c_k \in S} |c_k| + \sum_{c_k \in S^c} |c_k|^2$$

$$\leq \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |c_k| + \sum_{c_k \in S^c} |c_k|^2 \quad \text{since the } |c_k| \text{ are all positive}$$

$$= \|\mathbf{c}\|_{\ell^1} + \sum_{c_k \in S^c} |c_k|^2$$

$$\leq \|\mathbf{c}\|_{\ell^1} + |S^c| \cdot N$$

$$< \infty.$$

Claim:  $L^2([0,1]) \subseteq L^1([0,1])$ .

- It suffices to show that  $\int |f|^2 < \infty \implies \int |f| < \infty$ .
- Define  $S = \{x \in [0,1] \mid |f(x)| \le 1\}$ , then  $x \in S^c \implies |f(x)|^2 \ge |f(x)|$ .
- Break up the integral:

$$\begin{split} \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f| &= \int_{S} |f| + \int_{S^{c}} |f| \\ &\leq \int_{S} |f| + \int_{S^{c}} |f|^{2} \\ &\leq \int_{S} |f| + ||f||_{2} \\ &\leq \sup_{x \in S} \{|f(x)|\} \cdot \mu(S) + ||f||_{2} \\ &= 1 \cdot \mu(S) + ||f||_{2} \quad \text{by definition of } S \\ &\leq 1 \cdot \mu([0, 1]) + ||f||_{2} \quad \text{since } S \subseteq [0, 1] \\ &= 1 + ||f||_{2} \\ &< \infty. \end{split}$$

Note: this proof shows  $L^2(X) \subseteq L^1(X)$  whenever  $\mu(X) < \infty$ .

# 2 Fall 2019

# 2.1 1

Cesaro mean/summation. Break series apart into pieces that can be handled separately.

# 2.2 a

Prove a stronger result:

$$a_k \longrightarrow S \implies S_N := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \longrightarrow S.$$

Idea: once N is large enough,  $a_k \approx S$ , and all smaller terms will die off as  $N \longrightarrow \infty$ . See this MSE answer.

• Use convergence  $a_k \longrightarrow S$ : choose M large enough such that

$$k \ge M + 1 \implies |a_k - S| < \varepsilon.$$

Then

$$\left| \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \right) - S \right| = \frac{1}{N} \left| \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \right) - NS \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left| \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k \right) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} S \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left| \sum_{k=1}^{N} (a_k - S) \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} |a_k - S|$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{M} |a_k - S| + \sum_{k=M+1}^{N} |a_k - S|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{M} |a_k - S| + \sum_{k=M+1}^{N} \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{M} |a_k - S| + (N - M) \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$\stackrel{\varepsilon}{\Longrightarrow} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{M} |a_k - S| + 0$$

$$\stackrel{N \longrightarrow \infty}{\Longrightarrow} 0 + 0.$$

Note: M is fixed, so the last sum is some constant c, and  $c/N \longrightarrow 0$  as  $N \longrightarrow \infty$  for any constant. To be more careful, choose M first to get  $\varepsilon/2$  for the tail, then choose N(M) > M for the remaining truncated part of the sum.

# 2.3 b

• Define

$$\Gamma_n := \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{k}.$$

•  $\Gamma_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k}$  is the original series and each  $\Gamma_n$  is a tail of  $\Gamma_1$ , so by assumption  $\Gamma_n \xrightarrow{n \longrightarrow \infty} 0$ .

• Compute

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}a_k=\frac{1}{n}(\Gamma_1+\Gamma_2+\cdots+\Gamma_n-\Gamma_{n+1})$$

• This comes from consider the following summation:

 $\Gamma_1$ :

$$a_1$$

$$+\frac{a_2}{2}$$

$$+\frac{a_3}{3}$$

$$+\cdots$$

 $\Gamma_2$ :

$$\frac{a_2}{2}$$

$$+\frac{a_3}{3}$$

$$\frac{a_2}{2}$$
  $+\frac{a_3}{3}$   $+\cdots$ 

 $\Gamma_3$ :

$$\frac{a_3}{3}$$

$$+\cdots$$

$$a_1$$

$$+a_{2}$$

$$+a$$

$$a_n$$

$$a_1$$
  $+a_2$   $+a_3$   $+\cdots$   $a_n$   $+\frac{a_{n+1}}{n+1}$   $+\cdots$ 

- Use part (a): since  $\Gamma_n \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ , we have  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \Gamma_k \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ .
- Also a minor check:  $\Gamma_n \longrightarrow 0 \implies \frac{1}{n}\Gamma_n \longrightarrow 0$ .
- Then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k = \frac{1}{n} (\Gamma_1 + \Gamma_2 + \dots + \Gamma_n - \Gamma_{n+1})$$
$$= \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \Gamma_k\right) - \left(\frac{1}{n} \Gamma_{n+1}\right)$$
$$\stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

2.4 2

DCT, and bounding in the right place. Don't evaluate the actual integral!

• By induction on the number of limits we can pass through the integral.

• For n=1 we first pass one derivative into the integral: let  $x_n \longrightarrow x$  be any sequence converging to x, then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^1 \cos(tx) dt$$

$$= \lim_{x_n \to x} \frac{1}{x_n - x} \left( \int_0^1 \cos(tx_n) dt - \int_0^1 \cos(tx) dt \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x_n \to x} \left( \int_0^1 \frac{\cos(tx_n) - \cos(tx)}{x_n - x} dt \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x_n \to x} \left( \int_0^1 \left( t \sin(tx) \Big|_{x = \xi_n} \right) dt \right) \quad \text{where} \quad \xi_n \in [x_n, x] \text{ by MVT}, \xi_n \to x$$

$$= \lim_{\xi_n \to x} \left( \int_0^1 t \sin(t\xi_n) dt \right)$$

$$= \int_0^1 t \sin(tx) dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 t \sin(tx) dt$$

• Taking absolute values we obtain an upper bound

$$\left| \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} \right| = \left| \int_0^1 t \sin(tx) dt \right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 |t \sin(tx)| dt$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 1 dt = 1,$$

since  $t \in [0,1] \implies |t| < 1$ , and  $|\sin(xt)| \le 1$  for any x and t.

• Note that this bound also justifies the DCT, since the functions  $f_n(t) = t \sin(t\xi_n)$  are uniformly dominated by g(t) = 1 on  $L^1([0,1])$ .

Note: integrating by parts here yields the actual formula:

$$\int_{0}^{1} t \sin(tx) dt =_{IBP} \left( \frac{-t \cos(tx)}{x} \right) \Big|_{t=0}^{t=1} - \int_{0}^{1} \frac{\cos(tx)}{x} dt$$
$$= \frac{-\cos(x)}{x} - \frac{\sin(x)}{x^{2}}$$
$$= \frac{x \cos(x) - \sin(x)}{x^{2}}.$$

• For the inductive step, we assume that we can pass n-1 limits through the integral and show

we can pass the nth through as well.

$$\frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \int_0^1 \cos(tx) \, dt$$
$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^1 \frac{\partial^{n-1}}{\partial x^{n-1}} \cos(tx) \, dt$$
$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^1 t^{n-1} f_{n-1}(x,t) \, dt$$

- Note that  $f_n(x,t) = \pm \sin(tx)$  when n is odd and  $f_n(x,t) = \pm \cos(tx)$  when n is even, and a constant factor of t is multiplied when each derivative is taken.
- We continue as in the base case:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^1 t^{n-1} f_{n-1}(x,t) dt = \lim_{x_k \to x} \int_0^1 t^{n-1} \left( \frac{f_{n-1}(x_n,t) - f_{n-1}(x,t)}{x_n - x} \right) dt$$

$$=_{\text{IVT}} \lim_{x_k \to x} \int_0^1 t^{n-1} \frac{\partial f_{n-1}}{\partial x} \left( \xi_k, t \right) dt \quad \text{where } \xi_k \in [x_k, x], \, \xi_k \to x$$

$$=_{\text{DCT}} \int_0^1 \lim_{x_k \to x} t^{n-1} \frac{\partial f_{n-1}}{\partial x} \left( \xi_k, t \right) dt$$

$$\coloneqq \int_0^1 \lim_{x_k \to x} t^n f_n(\xi_k, t) dt$$

$$\coloneqq \int_0^1 t^n f_n(x,t) dt.$$

- We've used the fact that  $f_0(x) = \cos(tx)$  is smooth as a function of x, and in particular continuous
- The DCT is justified because the functions  $h_{n,k}(x,t) = t^n f_n(\xi_k,t)$  are again uniformly (in k) bounded by 1 since  $t \le 1 \implies t^n \le 1$  and each  $f_n$  is a sin or cosine.
- Now take absolute values

$$\left| \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} \right| = \left| \int_0^1 -t^n f_n(x,t) \, dt \right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 |t^n f_n(x,t)| \, dt$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 |t^n| |f_n(x,t)| \, dt$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 |t^n| \cdot 1 \, dt$$

$$\leq \int_0^1 t^n \, dt \quad \text{since } t \text{ is positive}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$< \frac{1}{n}.$$

- We've again used the fact that  $f_n(x,t)$  is of the form  $\pm \cos(tx)$  or  $\pm \sin(tx)$ , both of which are bounded by 1.

# 2.5 3

Concepts used: - Borel-Cantelli: for a sequence of sets  $X_n$ ,

$$\lim\sup_{n} X_{n} = \left\{ x \mid x \in X_{n} \text{ for infinitely many } n \right\} = \bigcap_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{n \geq m} X_{n}$$

$$\lim\inf_{n} X_{n} = \left\{ x \mid x \in X_{n} \text{ for all but finitely many } n \right\} = \bigcup_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcap_{n \geq m} X_{n}.$$

• Properties of logs and exponentials:

$$\prod_n e^{x_n} = e^{\sum_n x_n} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_n \log(x_n) = \log\left(\prod_n x_n\right).$$

- Tails of convergent sums vanish.
- Continuity of measure:  $B_n \searrow B$  and  $\mu(B_0) < \infty$  implies  $\lim_n \mu(B_n) = \mu(B)$ , and  $B_n \nearrow B \Longrightarrow \lim_n \mu(B_n) = \mu(B)$ .

### 2.5.1 a

- The Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra is closed under countable unions/intersections/complements,
- $B = \limsup_{n} B_n$  is an intersection of unions of measurable sets.

# 2.5.2 b

- Tails of convergent sums go to zero, so  $\sum_{n\geq M} \mu(B_n) \xrightarrow{M\longrightarrow\infty} 0$ ,
- $B_M := \bigcap_{m=1}^M \bigcup_{n \ge m} B_n \searrow B$ .

$$\mu(B_M) = \mu\left(\bigcap_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{n \ge m} B_n\right)$$

$$\leq \mu\left(\bigcup_{n \ge m} B_n\right) \quad \text{for all } m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ by countable subadditivity}$$

$$\longrightarrow 0.$$

• The result follows by continuity of measure.

#### 2.5.3 c

• To show  $\mu(B) = 1$ , we'll show  $\mu(B^c) = 0$ .

• Let 
$$B_k = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=m}^{K} B_n$$
. Then

$$\mu(B_K^c) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{n=m}^K B_n^c\right)$$

$$\leq \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \mu\left(\bigcap_{n=m}^K B_n^c\right) \quad \text{by subadditivity}$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \prod_{n=m}^K \left(1 - \mu(B_n)\right) \quad \text{by assumption}$$

$$\leq \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \prod_{n=m}^K e^{-\mu(B_n^c)} \quad \text{by hint}$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\sum_{n=m}^K \mu(B_n^c)\right)$$

$$\stackrel{K \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$$

since 
$$\sum_{n=m}^{K} \mu(B_n^c) \stackrel{K \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} \infty$$
 by assumption

• We can apply continuity of measure since  $B_K^c \xrightarrow{K \longrightarrow \infty} B^c$ .

Proving the hint: ?

2.6 4

Concepts used:

- Bessel's Inequality
- Pythagoras
- Surjectivity of the Riesz map
- Parseval's Identity
- Trick remember to write out finite sum  $S_N$ , and consider  $||x S_N||$ .

2.6.1 a

Claim:

$$0 \le \left\| x - \sum_{n=1}^{N} \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n \right\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^{N} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2$$
$$\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 \le \|x\|^2.$$

2.7 - 5

*Proof:* Let 
$$S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N \langle x, u_n \rangle u_n$$
. Then

$$0 \le \|x - S_N\|^2$$

$$= \langle x - S_n, x - S_N \rangle$$

$$= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2$$

$$\xrightarrow{N \to \infty} \|x\|^2 - \sum_{n=1}^N |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2.$$

### 2.6.2 b

1. Fix  $\{a_n\} \in \ell^2$ , then note that  $\sum |a_n|^2 < \infty \implies$  the tails vanish.

2. Define

$$x := \lim_{N \to \infty} S_N = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^N a_k u_k$$

3.  $\{S_N\}$  Cauchy (by 1) and H complete  $\implies x \in H$ .

4.

$$\langle x, u_n \rangle = \left\langle \sum_k a_k u_k, u_n \right\rangle = \sum_k a_k \langle u_k, u_n \rangle = a_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

since the  $u_k$  are all orthogonal.

5.

$$||x||^2 = \left\| \sum_k a_k u_k \right\|^2 = \sum_k ||a_k u_k||^2 = \sum_k |a_k|^2$$

by Pythagoras since the  $u_k$  are normal.

Bonus: We didn't use completeness here, so the Fourier series may not actually converge to x. If  $\{u_n\}$  is **complete** (so  $x = 0 \iff \langle x, u_n \rangle = 0 \ \forall n$ ) then the Fourier series *does* converge to x and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_n \rangle|^2 = ||x||^2$  for all  $x \in H$ .

# 2.7 5

Continuity in  $L^1$  (recall that DCT won't work! Notes 19.4, prove it for a dense subset first). Lebesgue differentiation in 1-dimensional case. See HW 5.6.

# 2.8 a

Choose  $g \in C_c^0$  such that  $||f - g||_1 \longrightarrow 0$ .

By translation invariance,  $\|\tau_h f - \tau_h g\|_1 \longrightarrow 0$ .

Write

$$\|\tau f - f\|_{1} = \|\tau_{h} f - g + g - \tau_{h} g + \tau_{h} g - f\|_{1}$$

$$\leq \|\tau_{h} f - \tau_{h} g\| + \|g - f\| + \|\tau_{h} g - g\|$$

$$\longrightarrow \|\tau_{h} g - g\|,$$

so it suffices to show that  $\|\tau_h g - g\| \longrightarrow 0$  for  $g \in C_c^0$ .

Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Enlarge the support of g to K such that

$$|h| \le 1$$
 and  $x \in K^c \implies |g(x-h) - g(x)| = 0$ .

By uniform continuity of g, pick  $\delta \leq 1$  small enough such that

$$x \in K, |h| \le \delta \implies |g(x-h) - g(x)| < \varepsilon,$$

then

$$\int_{K} |g(x-h) - g(x)| \le \int_{K} \varepsilon = \varepsilon \cdot m(K) \longrightarrow 0.$$

# 2.9 b

We have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |A_h(f)(x)| \ dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{1}{2h} \int_{x-h}^{x+h} f(y) \ dy \right| \ dx$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{x-h}^{x+h} |f(y)| \ dy \ dx$$

$$=_{FT} \frac{1}{2h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{y-h}^{y+h} |f(y)| \ \mathbf{dx} \ \mathbf{dy}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(y)| \ dy$$

$$= ||f||_{1}.$$

and (rough sketch)

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |A_h(f)(x) - f(x)| \ dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \left( \frac{1}{2h} \int_{B(h,x)} f(y) \ dy \right) - f(x) \right| \ dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \left( \frac{1}{2h} \int_{B(h,x)} f(y) \ dy \right) - \frac{1}{2h} \int_{B(h,x)} f(x) \ dy \right| \ dx$$

$$\leq_{FT} \frac{1}{2h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{B(h,x)} |f(y - x) - f(x)| \ \mathbf{dx} \ \mathbf{dy}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \|\tau_x f - f\|_1 \ dy$$

$$\longrightarrow 0 \quad \text{by (a)}.$$

# 3 Spring 2019

# 3.1 1

### 3.1.1 a

- Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $C(I, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ , so  $\lim_{n} \lim_{m} \|f_m f_n\|_{\infty} = 0$ , we will show it converges to some f in this space.
- For each fixed  $x_0 \in [0,1]$ , the sequence of real numbers  $\{f_n(x_0)\}$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$  since

$$x_0 \in I \implies |f_m(x_0) - f_n(x_0)| \le \sup_{x \in I} |f_m(x) - f_n(x)| := ||f_m - f_n||_{\infty} \xrightarrow{m > n \longrightarrow \infty} 0,$$

- Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete, this sequence converges and we can define  $f(x) := \lim_{k \to \infty} f_n(x)$ .
- Thus  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  pointwise by construction
- Claim:  $||f f_n|| \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$ , so  $f_n$  converges to f in  $C([0, 1], ||\cdot||_{\infty})$ .
  - Proof:
    - \* Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ ; we will show there exists an N such that  $n \geq N \implies ||f_n f|| < \varepsilon$
    - \* Fix an  $x_0 \in I$ . Since  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  pointwise, choose  $N_1$  large enough so that

$$n \ge N_1 \implies |f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon/2.$$

\* Since  $||f_n - f_m||_{\infty} \longrightarrow 0$ , choose and  $N_2$  large enough so that

$$n, m \ge N_2 \implies ||f_n - f_m||_{\infty} < \varepsilon/2.$$

\* Then for  $n, m \ge \max(N_1, N_2)$ , we have

$$|f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| = |f_n(x_0) - f(x_0) + f_m(x_0) - f_m(x_0)|$$

$$= |f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0) + f_m(x_0) - f(x_0)|$$

$$\leq |f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)| + |f_m(x_0) - f(x_0)|$$

$$< |f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)| + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$\leq \sup_{x \in I} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$< ||f_n - f_m||_{\infty} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

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

$$\implies |f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$$

$$\implies \sup_{x \in I} |f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| \leq \sup_{x \in I} \varepsilon \text{ by order limit laws}$$

$$\implies ||f_n - f|| \leq \varepsilon$$

• f is the uniform limit of continuous functions and thus continuous, so  $f \in C([0,1])$ .

# 3.1.2 b

- It suffices to produce a Cauchy sequence that does not converge to a continuous function.
- Take the following sequence of functions:
  - $f_1$  increases linearly from 0 to 1 on [0, 1/2] and is 1 on [1/2, 1]
  - $f_2$  is 0 on [0,1/4] increases linearly from 0 to 1 on [1/4,1/2] and is 1 on [1/2,1]
  - $f_3$  is 0 on [0,3/8] increases linearly from 0 to 1 on [3/8,1/2] and is 1 on [1/2,1]
  - $-f_3$  is 0 on [0, (1/2 3/8)/2] increases linearly from 0 to 1 on [(1/2 3/8)/2, 1/2] and is 1 on [1/2, 1]

Idea: take sequence starting points for the triangles: 
$$0, 0 + \frac{1}{4}, 0 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8}, \cdots$$
 which converges to  $1/2$  since  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = -\frac{1}{2} + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k}$ .



- Then each  $f_n$  is clearly integrable, since its graph is contained in the unit square.
- $\{f_n\}$  is Cauchy: geometrically subtracting areas yields a single triangle whose area tends to 0.
- But  $f_n$  converges to  $\chi_{\left[\frac{1}{n},1\right]}$  which is discontinuous.

Todo: show that  $\int_0^1 |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| dx \longrightarrow 0$  rigorously, show that no  $g \in L^1([0,1])$  can converge to this indicator function.

# 3.2 2

### 3.2.1 a

See Folland p.26

- Lemma 1:  $\mu(\coprod_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \mu(E_k)$ .
- Suppose  $F_0 \supseteq F_1 \supseteq \cdots$ .
- Let  $A_k = F_k \setminus F_{k+1}$ , since the  $F_k$  are nested the  $A_k$  are disjoint
- Set  $A := \coprod_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$  and  $F := \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} F_k$ .
- Note  $X = X \setminus Y \coprod X \cap Y$  for any two sets (just write  $X \setminus Y := X \cap Y^c$ )
- Note that A contains anything that was removed from  $F_0$  when passing from any  $F_j$  to  $F_{j+1}$ , while F contains everything that is never removed at any stage, and these are disjoint possibilities.

• Thus  $F_0 = F \prod A$ , so

$$\mu(F_0) = \mu(F) + \mu(A)$$

$$= \mu(F) + \mu(\coprod_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k)$$

$$= \mu(F) + \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \mu(A_k) \text{ by countable additivity}$$

$$= \mu(F) + \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \mu(F_k) - \mu(F_{k+1})$$

$$= \mu(F) + \lim_{n \to \infty} (\mu(F_1) - \mu(F_n)) \text{ (Telescoping)}$$

$$= \mu(F) + \mu(F_1) - \lim_{N \to \infty} \mu(F_n),$$

• Since  $\mu$  is a finite measure,  $\mu(F_1) < \infty$  and can be subtracted, yielding

$$\mu(F_1) = \mu(F) + \mu(F_1) - \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(F_n)$$

$$\implies \mu(F) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(F_n)$$

$$\implies \mu\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} F_k\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \mu(F_n).$$

### 3.2.2 b

- Toward a contradiction, negate the implication: suppose there exists an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that for all  $\delta$ , we have  $m(E) < \delta$  but  $\mu(E) > \varepsilon$ .
- The sequence  $\left\{\delta_n \coloneqq \frac{1}{2^n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  and produce sets  $A_n \in \mathcal{B}$  such  $m(A_n) < \frac{1}{2^n}$  but  $\mu(A_n) > \varepsilon$ .
- Define

$$F_n := \bigcup_{j \ge n} A_j$$

$$C_m := \bigcap_{k=1}^m F_k$$

$$A := C_\infty := \bigcap_{k=1}^\infty F_k.$$

- Note that  $F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq \cdots$ , since each increase in index unions fewer sets.
- By continuity for the Lebesgue measure,

$$m(A) = m\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} F_k\right) = \lim_{k \to \infty} m(F_k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} m\left(\bigcup_{j \ge k} A_j\right) \le \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{j \ge k} m(A_j) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{j \ge k} \frac{1}{2^n} = 0,$$

which follows because this is the tail of a convergent sum

• Thus m(A) = 0 and by assumption, this implies  $\mu(A) = 0$ .

• However, by part (a),

$$\mu(A) = \lim_{n} \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k\right) \ge \lim_{n} \mu(A_n) = \lim_{n} \varepsilon = \varepsilon > 0.$$

All messed u

### 3.3 3

Concepts used:

- Definition of  $L^+$ : space of measurable function  $X \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$ .
- Fatou: For any sequence of  $L^+$  functions,  $\int \liminf f_n \leq \liminf \int f_n$ .
- Egorov's Theorem: If  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is measurable, m(E) > 0,  $f_k : E \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  a sequence of measurable functions where  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x)$  exists and is finite a.e., then  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  almost uniformly: for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a closed subset  $F_{\varepsilon} \subseteq E$  with  $m(E \setminus F) < \varepsilon$  and  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  uniformly on F.

 $L^2$  bound:

- Since  $f_k \longrightarrow f$  almost everywhere,  $\liminf_n f_n(x) = f(x)$  a.e.
- $||f_n||_2 < \infty$  implies each  $f_n$  is measurable and thus  $|f_n|^2 \in L^+$ , so we can apply Fatou:

$$||f||_2^2 = \int |f(x)|^2$$

$$= \int \liminf_n |f_n(x)|^2$$

$$\leq \liminf_n \int |f_n(x)|^2$$

$$\leq \liminf_n M$$

$$= M$$

• Thus  $||f||_2 \le \sqrt{M} < \infty$  implying  $f \in L^2$ .

Equality of Integrals: \_\_\_\_

What is the "right" proof here that uses the first part?

- Take the sequence  $\varepsilon_n = \frac{1}{n}$
- Apply Egorov's theorem: obtain a set  $F_{\varepsilon}$  such that  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  uniformly on  $F_{\varepsilon}$  and  $m(I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}) < \varepsilon$ .

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \int_0^1 f_n - f \right| \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 |f_n - f|$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \int_{F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f| + \int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f| \right)$$

$$= \int_{F_{\varepsilon}} \lim_{n \to \infty} |f_n - f| + \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f| \quad \text{by uniform convergence}$$

$$= 0 + \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f|,$$

so it suffices to show  $\int_{I\setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f| \stackrel{n\longrightarrow\infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$ 

• We can obtain a bound using Holder's inequality with p = q = 2:

$$\int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f| \leq \left( \int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f|^2 \right) \left( \int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |1|^2 \right) 
= \left( \int_{I \setminus F_{\varepsilon}} |f_n - f|^2 \right) \mu(F_{\varepsilon}) 
\leq \|f_n - f\|_2 \mu(F_{\varepsilon}) 
\leq (\|f_n\|_2 + \|f\|_2) \mu(F_{\varepsilon}) 
\leq 2M \cdot \mu(F_{\varepsilon})$$

where M is now a constant not depending on  $\varepsilon$  or n.

• Now take a nested sequence of sets  $F_{\varepsilon}$  with  $\mu(F_{\varepsilon}) \longrightarrow 0$  and applying continuity of measure yields the desired statement.

# 3.4 4

See S&S p.82.

#### 3.4.1 a

 $\Longrightarrow$ :

- Suppose f is a measurable function.
- Note that  $\mathcal{A} = \{f(x) t \ge 0\} \cap \{t \ge 0\}.$
- Define F(x,t) = f(x), G(x,t) = t, which are cylinders on measurable functions and thus measurable.
- Define H(x,y) = F(x,t) G(x,t), which are linear combinations of measurable functions and thus measurable.
- Then  $\mathcal{A} = \{H \geq 0\} \bigcap \{G \geq 0\}$  as a countable intersection of measurable sets, which is again measurable.

⇐=:

- Suppose A is a measurable set.
- Then FT on  $\chi_{\mathcal{A}}$  implies that for almost every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the x-slices  $\mathcal{A}_x$  are measurable and \$

$$\mathcal{A}_x := \left\{ t \in \mathbb{R} \mid (x, t) \in \mathcal{A} \right\} = [0, f(x)] \implies m(\mathcal{A}_x) = f(x) - 0 = f(x)$$

• But  $x \mapsto m(A_x)$  is a measurable function, and is exactly the function  $x \mapsto f(x)$ , so f is measurable.

#### 3.4.2 b

• Note

$$\mathcal{A} = \left\{ (x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \le t \le f(x) \right\}$$
$$\mathcal{A}_t = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid t \le f(x) \right\}.$$

• Then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \ dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \int_0^{f(x)} 1 \ dt \ dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \int_0^{\infty} \chi_{\mathcal{A}} \ dt \ dx$$

$$\stackrel{F.T.}{=} \int_0^{\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \chi_{\mathcal{A}} \ dx \ dt$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} m(\mathcal{A}_t) \ dt,$$

where we just use that  $\int \int \chi_{\mathcal{A}} = m(\mathcal{A})$ 

• By F.T., all of these integrals are equal.

Why is FT justi-

# 3.5 5

Concepts used:

- Holders' inequality:  $\|fg\|_1 \leq \|f\|_p \|f\|_q$  Riesz Representation for  $L^2$ : If  $\Lambda \in (L^2)^\vee$  then there exists a unique  $g \in L^2$  such that  $\Lambda(f) = \int fg.$
- $\|f\|_{L^{\infty}(X)} := \inf \{ t \geq 0 \mid |f(x)| \leq t \text{ almost everywhere} \}.$  Lemma:  $m(X) < \infty \implies L^p(X) \subset L^2(X).$

*Proof:* Write Holder's inequality as  $||fg||_1 \le ||f||_a ||g||_b$  where  $\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} = 1$ , then

$$||f||_p^p = |||f|^p||_1 \le |||f|^p||_a ||1||_b.$$

Now take  $a = \frac{2}{n}$  and this reduces to

$$\begin{split} & \|f\|_p^p \le \|f\|_2^p \ m(X)^{\frac{1}{b}} \\ \Longrightarrow & \|f\|_p \le \|f\|_2 \cdot O(m(X)) < \infty. \end{split}$$

### 3.5.1 a

- Note  $X = [0, 1] \implies m(X) = 1$ .
- By Holder's inequality with p = q = 2,

$$||f||_1 = ||f \cdot 1||_1 \le ||f||_2 \cdot ||1||_2 = ||f||_2 \cdot m(X)^{\frac{1}{2}} = ||f||_2,$$

- Thus  $L^2(X) \subseteq L^1(X)$
- Since they share a common dense subset (simple functions)  $L^2$  is dense in  $L^1$

#### 3.5.2 b

Let  $\Lambda \in L^1(X)^{\vee}$  be arbitrary.

# (i): Existence of g Representing $\Lambda$ .

- Let  $f \in L^2 \subseteq L^1$  be arbitrary
- Claim:  $\Lambda \in L^1(X)^{\vee} \implies \Lambda \in L^2(X)^{\vee}$ .
  - Suffices to show that  $\|\Gamma\|_{L^2(X)^{\vee}} := \sup_{\|f\|_2=1} |\Gamma(f)| < \infty$ , since bounded implies continuous.
  - By the lemma,  $||f||_1 \le C||f||_2$  for some constant  $C \approx m(X)$ .
  - Note

$$\|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^\vee} \coloneqq \sup_{\|f\|_1 = 1} |\Lambda(f)|$$

- Define  $\widehat{f} = \frac{f}{\|f\|_1}$  so  $\|\widehat{f}\|_1 = 1$
- Since  $\|\Lambda\|_{1^{\vee}}$  is a supremum over all  $f \in L^1(X)$  with  $\|f\|_1 = 1$ ,

$$\left|\Lambda(\widehat{f})\right| \leq \|\Lambda\|_{(L^1(X))^\vee},$$

- Then

$$\begin{split} \frac{|\Lambda(f)|}{\|f\|_1} &= \left|\Lambda(\widehat{f})\right| \leq \|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^\vee} \\ \Longrightarrow & |\Lambda(f)| \leq \|\Lambda\|_{1^\vee} \cdot \|f\|_1 \\ &\leq \|\Lambda\|_{1^\vee} \cdot C\|f\|_2 < \infty \quad \text{by assumption,} \end{split}$$

- So  $\Lambda \in (L^2)^{\vee}$ .
- Now apply Riesz Representation for  $L^2$ : there is a  $g \in L^2$  such that

$$f \in L^2 \implies \Lambda(f) = \langle f, \ g \rangle \coloneqq \int_0^1 f(x) \overline{g(x)} \, dx.$$

# (ii): g is in $L^{\infty}$

- It suffices to show  $||g||_{L^{\infty}(X)} < \infty$ .
- Since we're assuming  $\|\Gamma\|_{L^1(X)^\vee} < \infty$ , it suffices to show the stated equality.

Is this assumed..?
Or did we show

- Claim:  $\|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^{\vee}} = \|g\|_{L^{\infty}(X)}$ 
  - The result follows because  $\Lambda$  was assumed to be in  $L^1(X)^{\vee}$ , so  $\|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^{\vee}} < \infty$ .

 $- \le$ :

$$\begin{split} \|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^\vee} &= \sup_{\|f\|_1 = 1} |\Lambda(f)| \\ &= \sup_{\|f\|_1 = 1} \left| \int_X f \bar{g} \right| \quad \text{by (i)} \\ &= \sup_{\|f\|_1 = 1} \int_X |f \bar{g}| \\ &\coloneqq \sup_{\|f\|_1 = 1} \|fg\|_1 \\ &\leq \sup_{\|f\|_1 = 1} \|f\|_1 \|g\|_\infty \quad \text{by Holder with } p = 1, q = \infty \\ &= \|g\|_\infty, \end{split}$$

 $- \geq$ :

- \* Suppose toward a contradiction that  $\|g\|_{\infty} > \|\Lambda\|_{1^{\vee}}$ .
- \* Then there exists some  $E \subseteq X$  with m(E) > 0 such that

$$x \in E \implies |g(x)| > ||\Lambda||_{L^1(X)^{\vee}}.$$

\* Define

$$h = \frac{1}{m(E)} \frac{\overline{g}}{|g|} \chi_E.$$

- \* Note  $||h||_{L^1(X)} = 1$ .
- \* Then

$$\begin{split} \Lambda(h) &= \int_X hg \\ &\coloneqq \int_X \frac{1}{m(E)} \frac{g\overline{g}}{|g|} \chi_E \\ &= \frac{1}{m(E)} \int_E |g| \\ &\ge \frac{1}{m(E)} \|g\|_\infty m(E) \\ &= \|g\|_\infty \\ &> \|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^\vee}, \end{split}$$

a contradiction since  $\|\Lambda\|_{L^1(X)^{\vee}}$  is the supremum over all  $h_{\alpha}$  with  $\|h_{\alpha}\|_{L^1(X)} = 1$ .

# 4 Fall 2018

# 4.1 1

#### 4.22

• Uniform continuity.

Show a stronger statement:  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is uniformly continuous on any interval of the form  $(c, \infty)$ where c > 0.

• Note that

$$|x|, |y| > c > 0 \implies |xy| = |x||y| > c^2 \implies \frac{1}{|xy|} < \frac{1}{c^2}.$$

- Letting  $\varepsilon$  be arbitrary, choose  $\delta < \varepsilon c^2$ .
- Note that  $\delta$  does not depend on x, y.
- Then

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = \left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y} \right|$$

$$= \frac{|x - y|}{xy}$$

$$\leq \frac{\delta}{xy}$$

$$< \frac{\delta}{c^2}$$

$$< \varepsilon,$$

which shows uniform continuity.

To see that f is not uniformly continuous when c = 0:

Note: negating uniform continuity says  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall \delta(\varepsilon)$  there exist x, y such that  $|x - y| < \delta \text{ and } |f(x) - f(y)| > \varepsilon.$ 

- Let  $\varepsilon < 1$ . Let  $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$  for  $n \ge 1$ .
- Choose n large enough such that  $|x_n x_{n+1}| = \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n+1} < \delta$ .
  - Why this can be done: by the archimedean property of  $\mathbb{R}$ , choose n such that  $\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$ .
  - Then

$$\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \le \frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon \quad \text{since } n+1 > 1.$$

• Note  $f(x_n) = n$  and thus

$$|f(x_n) - f(x_{n+1})| = n - (n+1) = 1 > \varepsilon.$$

# 4.2 2

- Definition of measurability: there exists an open  $O \supset E$  such that  $m_*(O \setminus E) < \varepsilon$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- Theorem: E is Lebesgue measurable iff there exists a closed set  $F \subseteq E$  such that  $m_*(E \setminus F) < \varepsilon$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- Every  $F_{\sigma}, G_{\delta}$  is Borel.
- Claim: E is measurable  $\iff$  for every  $\varepsilon$  there exist  $F_{\varepsilon} \subset E \subset G_{\varepsilon}$  with  $F_{\varepsilon}$  closed and  $G_{\varepsilon}$  open and  $m(G_{\varepsilon} \setminus E) < \varepsilon$  and  $m(E \setminus F_{\varepsilon}) < \varepsilon$ .
  - Proof: existence of  $G_{\varepsilon}$  is the definition of measurability.
  - Existence of  $F_{\varepsilon}$ :?

### 4.2.1 Indirect Proof

- Claim: since E is measurable,  $E^c$  is measurable
  - Proof: It suffices to write  $E^c$  as the union of two measurable sets,  $E^c = S \bigcup (E^c S)$ , where S is to be determined.
  - We'll produce an S such that  $m_*(E^c S) = 0$  and use the fact that any subset of a null set is measurable.
  - Since E is measurable, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an open  $\mathcal{O}_{\varepsilon} \supseteq E$  such that  $m_*(\mathcal{O}_{\varepsilon} \setminus E) < \varepsilon$ .
  - Take the sequence  $\left\{ \varepsilon_n \coloneqq \frac{1}{n} \right\}$  to produce a sequence of sets  $\mathcal{O}_n$ .
  - Note that each  $\mathcal{O}_n^c$  is closed and

$$\mathcal{O}_n \supseteq E \iff \mathcal{O}_n^c \subseteq E^c$$
.

- Set  $S := \bigcup \mathcal{O}_n$ , which is a union of closed sets, thus an  $F_{\sigma}$  set, thus Borel, thus measurable.
- Note that  $S \subseteq E^c$  since each  $\mathcal{O}_n \subseteq E^c$ .
- Note that

$$m_*(E^c \setminus S)$$
.

- Then  $m_*()$
- Thus there exists an open  $O \supseteq E^c$  such that  $m_*(O \setminus E_c) < \varepsilon$ .
- Set  $F = O^c$ , then  $m_*(E \setminus F) = m_*(E \setminus O^c) = m_*(O \setminus E^c) < \varepsilon$

### 4.2.2 Direct Proof

?

Try to construct the set.

### 4.3 3

- Mean Value Theorem
- DCT

4.4 4

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \cos(xt) dx$$

$$\stackrel{DCT}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \cos(xt) dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) \cos(xt) dx,$$

so it only remains to justify the DCT.

- Fix t, then let  $t_n \longrightarrow t$  be arbitrary.
- Define

$$h_n(x,t) = f(x) \left( \frac{\cos(tx) - \cos(t_n x)}{t_n - t} \right) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( f(x) \cos(xt) \right)$$

where the convergence occurs because  $\cos(tx)$  is differentiable in t.

• Note that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \cos(tx) := \lim_{t_n \to t} \frac{\cos(tx) - \cos(t_n x)}{t_n - t}$$

$$\stackrel{MVT}{=} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \cos(tx) \Big|_{t = \xi_n} \qquad \text{for some } \xi_n \in [t, t_n] \text{ or } [t_n, t]$$

$$= x \sin(\xi_n x)$$

where  $\xi_n \stackrel{n \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} t$  since wlog  $t_n \le \xi_n \le t$  and  $t_n \nearrow t$ .

• We then have

$$|h_n(x)| = |f(x)x\sin(\xi_n x)| \le |xf(x)|$$
 since  $|\sin(\xi_n x)| \le 1$ 

for every x and every n.

• Since  $xf(x) \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  by assumption, the DCT can be applied.

# 4.4 4

???

Apparently "easy" part: let  $f(x) = \chi_{[0,\pi]}$ , then  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)|\sin(nx)| = \int_0^{\pi} |\sin(nx)| = 2$ , and so  $\int_0^1 |\sin(nx)| = \frac{2}{\pi}$ , none of which depend on n.

Now approximate f by step functions.

### 4.5 5

???

# **5 Spring 2018**

# 5.1 1

We'll show that  $m(E) \cap [n, n+1] = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ; then the result will follow from that fact that

$$m(E) = m\left(\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} E \bigcap [n, n+1]\right) \le \sum m(E \bigcap [n, n+1]) = 0$$

By translation invariance of measure, it suffices to show  $m(E \cap [0,1]) = 0$ .

Define

$$E_j := \left\{ x \in [0, 1] \mid \exists p \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0} \text{ s.t. } \left| x - \frac{p}{i} \right| < \frac{1}{i^3} \right\}.$$

Note that we can write  $E_j$  is a union of intervals

$$E_{j} = (1, \frac{1}{j^{3}})$$

$$\coprod B_{\frac{1}{j^{3}}} \left(\frac{1}{j}\right) \coprod B_{\frac{1}{j^{3}}} \left(\frac{2}{j}\right) \coprod \cdots \coprod B_{\frac{1}{j^{3}}} \left(\frac{j-1}{j}\right)$$

$$\coprod (1 - \frac{1}{j^{3}}, 1),$$

from which we can conclude that  $E_j$  is Borel and thus Lebesgue measurable, and that for each j, there are exactly j+1 possible choices for a numerator (corresponding to the j+1 sets appearing above.)

The first and last intervals are length  $\frac{1}{j^3}$  and the remaining (j+1)-2=j-1 intervals are length  $\frac{2}{j^3}$ , so we find that

$$m(E_j) = 2\left(\frac{1}{j^3}\right) + (j-1)\left(\frac{2}{j^3}\right) = \frac{2}{j^2}$$

We can then note that

$$\sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} m(E_j) \le 2 \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{1}{j^2} < \infty,$$

which converges by the p-test for sums.

Since  $\{E_j\}$  is a countable collection of measurable sets such that  $\sum_j m(E_j) < \infty$ , Borel-Cantelli applies and  $m(\limsup_j E_j) = 0$ , where we can just note that  $\limsup_j E_j = E \cap [0,1]$ .

### 5.2 2

### 5.2.1 a

Since  $x < 1 \implies x^n \longrightarrow 0$  and  $x > 1 \implies x^n \longrightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$f_n(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^n} \xrightarrow{n \longrightarrow \infty} f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0 \\ x, & x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}, & x = 1 \\ 0, & x > 0 \end{cases}.$$

If  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  uniformly on  $[0, \infty)$ , it would converge uniformly on every subset.

Butach  $f_n(x)$  is clearly continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ , and if the convergence was uniform then f would be continuous. However f has a clear discontinuity at x = 1.

### 5.2.2 b

If the DCT applies, we can interchange the limit and integral, and the value would be the area under the graph of f which is  $\int_0^1 x \, dx = \frac{1}{2}$ .

To justify the DCT, write

$$\int_0^\infty f_n(x) = \int_0^1 f_n(x) + \int_1^\infty f_n(x).$$

Then

$$x \in [0,1] \implies \frac{x}{1+x^n} < \frac{1}{1+x^n} < 1$$

and 
$$\int_0^1 1 \ dx = 1 < \infty$$
.

On the other hand,

$$x \in (1, \infty) \implies \frac{x}{1 + x^n} \approx O\left(\frac{1}{x^{n-1}}\right),$$

and so for n > 2 the integral will converge by the p-test.

### 5.3 3

Since  $|f(x)| \leq ||f||_{\infty}$  almost everywhere, we have

$$||f||_p^p = \int_X |f(x)|^p dx \le \int_X ||f||_\infty^p dx = ||f||_\infty^p \cdot m(X) = ||f||_\infty^p,$$

so  $\|f\|_p \leq \|f\|_{\infty}$  for all p and taking  $\lim_{p \longrightarrow \infty}$  preserves this inequality.

Conversely, let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Define

$$S_{\varepsilon} := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid |f(x)| \ge ||f||_{\infty} - \varepsilon \right\}.$$

Then

$$||f||_{p}^{p} = \int_{X} |f(x)|^{p} dx$$

$$\geq \int_{S_{\varepsilon}} |f(x)|^{p} dx$$

$$\geq \int_{S_{\varepsilon}} |||f||_{\infty} - \varepsilon|^{p} dx$$

$$= |||f||_{\infty} - \varepsilon|^{p} \cdot m(S_{\varepsilon})$$

$$\implies ||f||_{p} \geq |||f||_{\infty} - \varepsilon| \cdot m(S_{\varepsilon})^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$\stackrel{p \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} |||f||_{\infty} - \varepsilon|$$

$$\stackrel{\varepsilon \to 0}{\longrightarrow} ||f||_{\infty}.$$

So  $||f||_p \ge ||f||_{\infty}$ .

5.4 4

Fix  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $e^{2\pi i kx}$  is continuous on the compact interval [0,1], it is uniformly continuous, and is thus there is a sequence of polynomials  $P_{\ell}$  such that

$$P_{\ell,k} \stackrel{\ell \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} e^{2\pi i k x}$$
 uniformly on [0, 1].

Note that by linearity,

$$\int f(x)x^n = 0 \ \forall n \implies \int f(x)P_{\ell,k}(x) = 0 \quad \forall \ell \in \mathbb{N}$$

But then the kth Fourier coefficient of f is given by

$$\begin{split} \langle f,\ e_k \rangle &= \int_0^1 f(x) e^{-2\pi i k x}\ dx \\ &= \int_0^1 f(x) \lim_{\ell \longrightarrow \infty} P_\ell(x) \\ &= \lim_{\ell \longrightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f(x) P_\ell(x) \qquad \text{by uniform convergence} \\ &= \lim_{\ell \longrightarrow \infty} 0 \\ &= 0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}, \end{split}$$

so  $\hat{f}$  is the zero function, and  $\hat{f} = 0 \iff f = 0$  almost everywhere.

# 5.5 5

Moral: 
$$\int |f_n - f| \longrightarrow \iff \int f_n = \int f$$
.

Since if  $\int |f_n| \longrightarrow \int |f|$  then we can define

$$h_n = |f_n - f|$$
  $\longrightarrow 0 \ a.e.$   
 $g_n = |f_n| + |f|$   $\longrightarrow 2|f| \ a.e.$ 

$$\int 2|f| = \int \liminf (g_n - h_n)$$

$$= \int \liminf g_n - \int \liminf h_n$$

$$= \int 2|f| - \int \liminf h_n$$

$$\stackrel{Fatou}{\leq} \int 2|f| + \limsup \int h_n,$$

which forces  $\int h_n = \int |f_n - f| \longrightarrow 0$ .

But then

$$\left| \int f_n - \int f \right| = \left| \int f_n - f \right| \le \int |f_n - f| \longrightarrow 0,$$

so 
$$\int f_n \longrightarrow \int f$$
.

# 6 Fall 2017

# 6.1 1

Note that  $f(x) = e^x$  is entire and thus equal to its power series. So  $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} x^j$ .

Letting  $f_N(x) = \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{1}{j!} x^j$ , we have  $f_N(x) \longrightarrow f(x)$  pointwise on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

For any compact interval [-M, M], we have

$$||f_N(x) - f(x)||_{\infty} = \sup_{-M \le x \le M} \left| \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} x^j \right|$$

$$\le \sup_{-M \le x \le M} \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} |x|^j$$

$$\le \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} M^j$$

$$\le \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} M^j$$

$$= e^M$$

$$< \infty,$$

so  $f_N \longrightarrow f$  uniformly on [-M, M] by the M-test. Thus it converges on any bounded interval. It does not converge on  $\mathbb{R}$ , since  $x^N$  is unbounded.

# 6.2 2

### 6.2.1 a

It suffices to consider the bounded case, i.e.  $E \subseteq B_M(0)$  for some M. Then write  $E_n = B_n(0) \cap E$  and apply the theorem to  $E_n$ , and by subadditivity,  $m^*(E) = m^*(\bigcup_n E_n) \le \sum_n m^*(E_n) = 0$ .

**Lemma:**  $f(x) = x^2, f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt{x}$  are Lipschitz on any compact subset of  $[0, \infty)$ .

*Proof:* Let g = f or  $f^{-1}$ . Then  $g \in C^1([0, M])$  for any M, so g is differentiable and g' is continuous. Since g' is continuous on a compact interval, it is bounded, so  $|g'(x)| \leq L$  for all x. Applying the MVT,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = f'(c)|x - y| \le L|x - y|.$$

**Lemma:** If g is Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $m(E) = 0 \implies m(g(E)) = 0$ .

*Proof:* If g is Lipschitz, then

$$g(B_r(x)) \subseteq B_{Lr}(x),$$

which is a dilated ball/cube, and so

$$m^*(B_{Lr}(x)) \le L^n \cdot m^*(B_r(x)).$$

Now choose  $\{Q_j\} \rightrightarrows E$ ; then  $\{g(Q_j)\} \rightrightarrows g(E)$ .

By the above observation.

$$|g(Q_i)| \leq L^n |Q_i|,$$

and so

$$m^*(g(E)) \le \sum_j |g(Q_j)| \le \sum_j L^n |Q_j| = L^n \sum_j |Q_j| \longrightarrow 0.$$

Now just take  $g(x) = x^2$  for one direction, and  $g(x) = f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt{x}$  for the other.

### 6.2.2 b

Lemma: E is measurable iff  $E = K \coprod N$  for some K compact, N null.

Write  $E = K \coprod N$  where K is compact and N is null.

Then 
$$\varphi^{-1}(E) = \varphi^{-1}(K \coprod N) = \varphi^{-1}(K) \coprod \varphi^{-1}(N)$$
.

Since  $\varphi^{-1}(N)$  is null by part (a) and  $\varphi^{-1}(K)$  is the preimage of a compact set under a continuous map and thus compact,  $\varphi^{-1}(E) = K' \coprod N'$  where K' is compact and N' is null, so  $\varphi^{-1}(E)$  is measurable.

So  $\varphi$  is a measurable function, and thus yields a well-defined map  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}) \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R})$  since it preserves measurable sets. Restricting to  $[0, \infty)$ , f is bijection, and thus so is  $\varphi$ .

6.3 3

From homework: E is Lebesgue measurable iff there exists a finite union of closed cubes A such that  $m(E\Delta A)<\varepsilon$ .

It suffices to show that S is dense in simple functions, and since simple functions are *finite* linear combinations of characteristic functions, it suffices to show this for  $\chi_A$  for A a measurable set.

Let  $s = \chi_A$ . By regularity of the Lebesgue measure, choose an open set  $O \supseteq A$  such that  $m(O \setminus A) < \varepsilon$ .

O is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , and thus  $O = \coprod_{j \in \mathbb{N}} I_j$  is a disjoint union of countably many open intervals.

Now choose N large enough such that  $m(O\Delta I_{N,n}) < \varepsilon = \frac{1}{n}$  where we define  $I_{N,n} := \coprod_{j=1}^{N} I_j$ .

Now define  $f_n = \chi_{I_{N,n}}$ , then

$$\|s - f_n\|_1 = \int |\chi_A - \chi_{I_{N,n}}| = m(A\Delta I_{N,n}) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0.$$

Since any simple function is a finite linear combination of  $\chi_{A_i}$ , we can do this for each i to extend this result to all simple functions. But simple functions are dense in  $L^1$ , so S is dense in  $L^1$ .

# 6.4 4

# 6.4.1 a

Let  $G(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx(1-x)^n$ . Applying the ratio test, we have

$$\left| \frac{(n+1)x(1-x)^{n+1}}{nx(1-x)^n} \right| = \frac{n+1}{n} |1-x| \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} |1-x| < 1 \iff 0 \le x \le 2,$$

and in particular, this series converges on [0,2]. Thus its terms go to zero, and  $nx(1-x)^n \longrightarrow 0$  on  $[0,1] \subset [0,2]$ .

To see that the convergence is not uniform, let  $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$  and  $\varepsilon > \frac{1}{e}$ , then

$$\sup_{x \in [0,1]} |nx(1-x)^n - 0| \ge |nx_n(1-x_n)^n| = \left| \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \right| \stackrel{n \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} e^{-1} > \varepsilon.$$

# 6.4.2 b

Note: could use the first part with  $\sin(x) \leq x$ , but then integral ends up more complicated.

Noting that  $sin(x) \leq 1$ , we have We have

$$\left| \int_0^1 n(1-x)^n \sin(x) \right| \le \int_0^1 |n(1-x)^n \sin(x)|$$

$$\le \int_0^1 |n(1-x)^n|$$

$$= n \int_0^1 (1-x)^n$$

$$= -\frac{n(1-x)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

$$\xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0.$$

# 6.5 5

### 6.5.1 a

**Lemma:** If  $\varphi \in C_c^1$ , then  $(f * \varphi)' = f * \varphi'$  almost everywhere.

Silly Proof:

$$\mathcal{F}((f * \varphi)') = 2\pi i \xi \ \mathcal{F}(f * \varphi)$$

$$= 2\pi i \xi \ \mathcal{F}(f) \ \mathcal{F}(\varphi)$$

$$= \mathcal{F}(f) \cdot (2\pi i \xi \ \mathcal{F}(\varphi))$$

$$= \mathcal{F}(f) \cdot \mathcal{F}(\varphi')$$

$$= \mathcal{F}(f * \varphi').$$

Actual proof:

$$(f * \varphi)'(x) = (\varphi * f)'(x)$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(\varphi * f)'(x+h) - (\varphi * f)'(x)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \int \frac{\varphi(x+h-y) - \varphi(x-y)}{h} f(y)$$

$$\stackrel{DCT}{=} \int \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\varphi(x+h-y) - \varphi(x-y)}{h} f(y)$$

$$= \int \varphi'(x-y) f(y)$$

$$= (\varphi' * f)(x)$$

$$= (f * \varphi')(x).$$

To see that the DCT is justified, we can apply the MVT on the interval [0, h] to obtain

$$\frac{\varphi(x+h-y)-\varphi(x-y)}{h}=\varphi'(c)\quad c\in[0,h],$$

and since  $\varphi'$  is continuous and compactly supported,  $\varphi'$  is bounded by some  $M<\infty$  by the extreme value theorem and thus

$$\int \left| \frac{\varphi(x+h-y) - \varphi(x-y)}{h} f(y) \right| = \int \left| \varphi'(c) f(y) \right|$$

$$\leq \int |M| |f|$$

$$= |M| \int |f| < \infty,$$

since  $f \in L^1$  by assumption, so we can take g := |M||f| as the dominating function.

Applying this theorem infinitely many times shows that  $f * \varphi$  is smooth.

To see that  $f * \varphi$  is compactly supported, approximate f by a *continuous* compactly supported function h, so  $||h - f||_1 \xrightarrow{L^1} 0$ .

Now let  $g_x(y) = \varphi(x-y)$ , and note that  $\operatorname{supp}(g) = x - \operatorname{supp}(\varphi)$  which is still compact.

But since supp(h) is bounded, there is some N such that

$$|x| > N \implies A_x := \operatorname{supp}(h) \bigcap \operatorname{supp}(g_x) = \emptyset$$

and thus

$$(h * \varphi)(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(x - y)h(y) \ dy$$
$$= \int_{A_x} g_x(y)h(y)$$
$$= 0$$

so  $\{x \mid f * g(x) = 0\}$  is open, and its complement is closed and bounded and thus compact.

### 6.5.2 b

$$||f * K_{j} - f||_{1} = \int \left| \int f(x - y)K_{j}(y) dy - f(x) \right| dx$$

$$= \int \left| \int f(x - y)K_{j}(y) dy - \int f(x)K_{j}(y) dy \right| dx$$

$$= \int \left| \int (f(x - y) - f(x))K_{j}(y) dy \right| dx$$

$$\leq \int \int \left| (f(x - y) - f(x)) \right| \cdot |K_{j}(y)| dy dx$$

$$\stackrel{FT}{=} \int \int \left| (f(x - y) - f(x)) \right| \cdot |K_{j}(y)| dx dy$$

$$= \int |K_{j}(y)| \left( \int \left| (f(x - y) - f(x)) \right| dx \right) dy$$

$$= \int |K_{j}(y)| \cdot ||f - \tau_{y}f||_{1} dy.$$

We now split the integral up into pieces.

- 1. Chose  $\delta$  small enough such that  $|y| < \delta \implies ||f \tau_y f||_1 < \varepsilon$  by continuity of translation in  $L^1$ , and
- 2. Since  $\varphi$  is compactly supported, choose J large enough such that

$$j > J \implies \int_{|y| > \delta} |K_j(y)| \ dy = \int_{|y| > \delta} |j\varphi(jy)| = 0$$

Then

$$||f * K_{j} - f||_{1} \leq \int |K_{j}(y)| \cdot ||f - \tau_{y}f||_{1} dy$$

$$= \int_{|y| < \delta} |K_{j}(y)| \cdot ||f - \tau_{y}f||_{1} dy + \int_{|y| \ge \delta} |K_{j}(y)| \cdot ||f - \tau_{y}f||_{1} dy$$

$$= \varepsilon \int_{|y| \ge \delta} |K_{j}(y)| + 0$$

$$\leq \varepsilon(1) \longrightarrow 0.$$

# 6.6 6

Should be supremum maybe..?

Let  $\{f_k\}$  be a Cauchy sequence, so  $||f_k|| < \infty$  for all k. Then for a fixed x, the sequence  $f_k(x)$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$  and thus converges to some f(x), so define f by  $f(x) := \lim_{k \to \infty} f_k(x)$ .

Then  $||f_k - f|| = \max_{x \in X} |f_k(x) - f(x)| \stackrel{k \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ , and thus  $f_k \longrightarrow f$  uniformly and thus f is continuous. It just remains to show that f has bounded norm.

Choose N large enough so that  $||f - f_N|| < \varepsilon$ , and write  $||f_N|| := M < \infty$ 

$$||f|| \le ||f - f_N|| + ||f_N|| < \varepsilon + M < \infty.$$

# 7 Spring 2017

### 7.1 1

A is nowhere dense  $\iff$  every interval I contains a subinterval  $S \subseteq A^c$ .

### K is compact:

It suffices to show that  $K^c := [0,1] \setminus K$  is open; then K will be a closed and bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  and thus compact by Heine-Borel.

We can identify  $K^c$  as the set of real numbers in [0,1] whose decimal expansion **does** use a 4. Let  $x \in K^c$ , and suppose a 4 occurs as the kth digit and write

$$x = 0.d_1 d_2 \cdots d_{k-1} \ 4 \ d_{k+1} \cdots = \sum_{j=1}^k d_j 10^{-j} + 4 \cdot 10^{-k} + \sum_{j=k+1}^\infty d_j 10^{-j}.$$

Then if we set  $r < 10^{-k}$  and pick any  $y \in [0,1]$  such that  $y \in B_r(x)$ , then  $|x-y| < 10^{-k}$ . If we write  $y = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j 10^{-j}$ , this means that for all  $j \le k$  we have  $d_j = c_j$ , and in particular  $d_k = 4 = c_k$ , so y has a 4 in its decimal expansion.

But then  $K^c = \bigcup_x B_r(x)$  is a union of open sets and thus open.

### K is nowhere dense and m(K) = 0:

Since K is closed, we'll show that K can not properly contain any interval, so  $(\overline{K})^{\circ} = \emptyset$ .

As in the construction of the Cantor set, let

- $K_1$  denote [0,1] with 1 interval [0.4,0.5] of length  $\frac{1}{10}$  deleted
- $K_2$  denote  $K_1$  with 9 intervals [0.04, 0.05], [0.14, 0.15],  $\cdots [0.94, 0.95]$  length  $\frac{1}{100}$  deleted
- $K_n$  denote  $K_{n-1}$  with  $9^{n-1}$  such intervals of length  $10^{-n}$  deleted.

Then  $K = \bigcap K_n$ , and

$$m(K) = 1 - m(K^c) = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{9^i}{10^{n+1}} = 1 - \frac{1}{10} \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{9}{10}} \right) = 0,$$

and since any interval has strictly positive measure, K can not contain any interval.

### K has no isolated points:

A point  $x \in K$  is isolated iff there there is an open ball  $B_r(x)$  containing x such that  $B_r(x) \cap K = \emptyset$ , so every point in this ball has a 4 in its decimal expansion.

Note that  $m(K_n) = \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n \longrightarrow 0$  and that the endpoints of intervals are never removed and are thus elements of K. Then for every  $\varepsilon$ , we can choose n such that  $\left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n < \varepsilon$ ; then there is an endpoint of a removed interval  $e_n$  satisfying  $|x - e_n| \le \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n < \varepsilon$ .

So every ball containing x contains some endpoint of a removed interval, and thus an element of K.

# 7.2 2

$$\lambda \ll \mu \iff E \in \mathcal{M}, \mu(E) = 0 \implies \lambda(E) = 0.$$

# 7.2.1 a

By Radon-Nikodym, if  $\lambda \ll \mu$  then  $d\lambda = f d\mu$ , which would yield

$$\int g \ d\lambda = \int g f \ d\mu.$$

So let E be measurable and suppose  $\mu(E) = 0$ . Then

$$\lambda(E) \coloneqq \int_E f \ d\mu = \lim_n \left\{ \varphi_n \coloneqq \sum_j c_j \mu(E_j) \right\},$$

where we take a sequence of simple functions increasing to f.

But since each  $E_j \subseteq E$ , we must have  $\mu(E_j) = 0$  for any such  $E_j$ , so every such  $\varphi_n$  must be zero and thus  $\lambda(E) = 0$ .

### 7.2.2 b

By Radon-Nikodym, there exists a positive f such that

$$\int g \ dm = \int g f \ d\mu,$$

where we can take  $g(x) = x^2$ , then the LHS is zero by assumption and thus so is the RHS.

Note that qf is positive.

Define  $A_k = \left\{ x \in X \mid gf\chi_E > \frac{1}{k} \right\}$ , then by Chebyshev

$$\mu(A_k) \le k \int_E gf \ d\mu = 0,$$

which holds for every k.

Then noting that  $A_k \searrow A := \{x \in E \mid x^2 > 0\}$ , and gf is positive, we have

$$x \in E \iff gf\chi_E(x) > 0 \iff x \in A,$$

so E = A and  $\mu(E) = \mu(A)$ .

But since  $m \ll \mu$  by construction, we can conclude that m(E) = 0.

# 7.3 3

# 7.3.1 a

Letting  $x_n := \frac{1}{n}$ , we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |f_k(x)| \ge |f_n(x_n)| = \left| ae^{-ax} - be^{-bx} \right| := M.$$

In particular,  $\sup_{x} |f_n(x)| \not\longrightarrow 0$ , so the terms do not go to zero and the sum can not converge.

# 7.3.2 b

?

### 7.4 4

Switching to polar coordinates and integrating over a half-circle contained in  $I^2$ , we have

$$\int_{I^2} f \ge \int_0^\pi \int_0^1 \frac{\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta)}{r^2} \ dr \ d\theta = \infty,$$

so f is not integrable.

# 7.5 5

See https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/507263/prove-that-c1a-b-with-the-c1-norm-is-a-banach-space

This is clearly a norm, which we'll write  $\|\cdot\|_u$ 

Let  $f_n$  be a Cauchy sequence and define a candidate limit  $f(x) = \lim_{n} f_n(x)$ .

Then noting that  $||f_n||_{\infty}$ ,  $||f'_n||_{\infty} \le ||f_n||_u < \infty$ , both  $f_n$ ,  $f_n$  are Cauchy sequences in  $C^0([a, b], ||\cdot||_{\infty})$ , which is a Banach space.

So  $f_n \longrightarrow f$  uniformly, and  $f'_n \longrightarrow g$  uniformly for some g, and moreover  $f, g \in C^0([a, b])$ .

We thus have

$$f_n(x) - f_n(a) \xrightarrow{u} f(x) - f(a)$$

$$\int_a^x f'_n \xrightarrow{u} \int_a^x g,$$

and by the FTC, the left-hand sides are equal, and by uniqueness of limits so are the right-hand sides, so f' = g.

Since  $f, f' \in C^0([a, b])$ , they are bounded, and so  $||f||_u < \infty$ . This means that  $||f_n - f||_u \longrightarrow 0$ , so  $f_n$  converges to f, which is in the same space.

- 8 Fall 2016
- 8.1 1
- 9 Spring 2016
- 9.1 1
- 10 Spring 2014
- 10.1 1

10 SPRING 2014