# Real Analysis Qualifying Exam Solutions

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## Thursday 16<sup>th</sup> July, 2020

## Contents

1	Spri	ng 2020	3
	1.1	1	3
	1.2	2	4
		1.2.1 a	5
		1.2.2 b	6
	1.3	3	6
		1.3.1 a	7
		1.3.2 b	7
		1.3.3 c	0
	1.4	4	1
	1.5	$5 \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 1$	2
	1.6	6	3
		1.6.1 a	3
2	Fall	2019	4
	2.1	1	4
	2.2	a	4
	2.3	b	5
	2.4	2	6
	2.5	3	9
		2.5.1 a	9
		2.5.2 b	9
		2.5.3 c	9
	2.6	4	0
		2.6.1 a	0
		2.6.2 b	1
	2.7	$5 \ldots \ldots$	1
	2.8	a	2
	2.9	b	2
3	Spri	ng 2019	3
-	3.1	1	_
	- '	3.1.1 a	_
		3.1.2 b	4

3. 3.3 3 3.4 4 3. 3. 3.5 5 3. 3.	.2.2 	 a b			 														•							
3.3 3 3.4 4 3. 3.5 5 3. 3.5 5	.4.1 .4.2 	  a b																								. 2
3.4 4 3. 3.5 5 3. 3.	.4.1 .4.2 	  a b																								. 2
3.4 4 3. 3.5 5 3. 3.	 .4.1 .4.2 	 a b																								
3. 3. 3.5 5 3. 3.	.4.1 .4.2 	a b																								
3. 3.5 5 3.	.4.2  .5.1	b														•			•	•		•	•		•	
3.5 5 3. 3.	 .5.1																									
3. 3.	.5.1																									
3.		а																								
	.5.2																									
- 11 00		b														•			٠	•		•	٠		٠	. 3
	110																									3
Fall 20																										
4.4  4																										
4.5   5																										. 3
4.6 6																										. 3
_																										_
																										3
																							•		•	
5.2   2																										. 3
5.	.2.1	a																								. 3
5.	.2.2	b																								. 3
5.3 3																										. 4
5.4 4																										. 4
5.5 5																										. 4
																										4
3.1 1																										
J.1 1																										. 4
5.2 2																										. 4
6.2 2 6.	 .2.1				 																					. 4
6.2 2 6. 6.	 .2.1	 a b				 											 				 					. 4 . 4 . 4
6.2 2 6. 6. 6.3 3	 .2.1 .2.2	 a b											· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·							•	  					. 4 . 4 . 4
6.2 2 6. 6. 6.3 3 6.4 4	 .2.1 .2.2 	 a b		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·													  				  					<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
6.2 2 6. 6. 6.3 3 6.4 4 6.		a b																		•	· · · · · ·					<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
6.2 2 6. 6. 6.3 3 6.4 4 6. 6.		a b				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·															· · · · · · · ·					<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
6.2 2 6. 6. 6.3 3 6.4 4 6. 6.5 5		a b		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·									· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·							• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			· · · · · · ·			<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
6.2 2 6.6.6.3.3 3 6.4 4 6.6.6.3.5 5 6.		a b a b a b																								<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
3.2 2 6. 6. 3.3 3 3.4 4 6. 6. 3.5 5 6. 6.		a  b  a  b  b  b																								<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
3.2 2 6. 6. 3.3 3 3.4 4 6. 6. 3.5 5 6. 6.		a  b  a  b  b  b																								<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
3.2 2 6. 6. 3.3 3 3.4 4 6. 6. 5.5 5 6. 6. 6. 6.		a																								<ul><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li><li>. 4</li></ul>
6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6		a																		<ul> <li>• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •</li></ul>						. 4 . 4 . 4 . 4 . 4 . 4 . 4 . 4
3.2 2 6. 6. 3.3 3 3.4 4 6. 6. 3.5 5 6. 6. 5.3.6 6		a																								. 44 . 44 . 44 . 44 . 44 . 44
	4 4 4.3 3 4.4 4.5 5 4.6 6 6 6 6 6 6 7 6 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	4.2.1 4.2.2 4.3 3 4.4 4 4.5 5 4.6 6 5.2 2 5.2.1 5.2.2 6.3 3 6.4 4 6.5 5	4.2.1 Indir 4.2.2 Direct 4.3 3 4.4 4 4.5 5 4.6 6  5pring 2018 5.1 1 5.2 2 5.2.1 a 5.2.2 b 5.3 3 5.4 4	4.2.1 Indirect 1 4.2.2 Direct Pr 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Prod 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof . 4.2.2 Direct Proof . 4.3 3 4.4 4 4.5 5 4.6 6  Spring 2018 5.1 1 5.2 2	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3 4.4 4 4.5 5 4.6 6  Spring 2018 5.1 1 5.2 2 5.2.1 a 5.2.2 b 5.3 3 6.4 4 6.5 5	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3 4.4 4 4.5 5 4.6 6  Spring 2018 5.1 1 5.2 2 5.2.1 a 5.2.2 b 5.3 3 6.4 4 6.5 5	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3 3 4.4 4 4.5 5 4.6 6  Spring 2018 5.1 1 5.2 2 5.2.1 a 5.2.2 b 5.3 3 5.4 4 5.5 5	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 4.3.3 4.4.4 4.5.5 5.6.6 6 Spring 2018 6.1.1 6.2.2 6.2.1 6.3.3 6.4.4 6.5.5 6.6 6.6 6.7 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8 6.8	4.2.1 Indirect Proof 4.2.2 Direct Proof 1.3 3 1.4 4 1.5 5 1.6 6 1.7 Spring 2018 1.7 Spring 2018 1.8 Spring 2018 1.9 Spring 2018 1.0 Spring 2018 1.1 Spring 2018 1.1 Spring 2018 1.2 Spring 2018 1.3 Spring 2018 1.4 Spring 2018 1.5 Spring 201					

Contents 2

		7.2.2 3 7.3.1 7.3.2	 а b	 	 		 •	 	 	  	  		  		 •		  		  		49 49 50
		4 · · · 5 · · ·																			
8	<b>Fall</b> 8.1	<b>2016</b> 1		 	 	•	 •	 		 									 		<b>50</b>
9	Sprii 9.1	n <b>g 201</b> 1	6 	 	 		 •			 			 	•				•	 	•	<b>50</b>
		n <b>g 201</b>		 	 			 		 			 					•	 		<b>50</b>

## 1 Spring 2020

## 1.1 1

Concepts used:

- DCT
- Weierstrass Approximation Theorem

#### **Solution**:

• Suppose p is a polynomial, then

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

• 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

Concepts used:

- 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  $t \ge x_0 \implies |f(t)| \ge 1$ , 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  $xf(x) \xrightarrow{x \to \infty} 0$ .

- 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  $t \geq x_0$ , |f| is increasing, and  $|f(x_i)| \leq |f(2x_i)|$ , 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

$$xf(x) = \frac{1}{\ln(x)} \stackrel{x \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

#### 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

Concepts used:

#### 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

Concepts used:

- 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  $F_{\varepsilon}$ :?
- Claim: E is measurable  $\implies$  there exists an open  $O \supseteq E$  such that  $m(O \setminus E) = 0$ .
  - Since E is measurable, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  choose  $G_n \supseteq E$  such that  $m_*(G_n \setminus E) < \frac{1}{n}$ .

- Set 
$$O_N := \bigcap_{n=1}^N G_n$$
 and  $O := \bigcap_{n=1}^\infty G_n$ .

- Suppose E is bounded.
  - \* Note  $O_N \setminus O$  and  $m_*(O_1) < \infty$  if E is bounded, since in this case

$$m_*(G_n \setminus E) = m_*(G_1) - m_*(E) < 1 \iff m_*(G_1) < m_*(E) + \frac{1}{n} < \infty.$$

- \* Note  $O_N \setminus E \searrow O \setminus E$  since  $O_N \setminus E := O_N \cap E^c \supseteq O_{N+1} \cap E^c$  for all N, and again  $m_*(O_1 \setminus E) < \infty$ .
- \* So it's valid to apply continuity of measure from above:

$$\begin{split} m_*(O \setminus E) &= \lim_{N \to \infty} m_*(O_N \setminus E) \\ &\leq \lim_{N \to \infty} m_*(G_N \setminus E) \\ &= \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} = 0, \end{split}$$

where the inequality uses subadditivity on  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{N} G_n \subseteq G_N$ 

- Suppose E is unbounded.
  - \* Write  $E^k = E \bigcap [k, k+1]^d \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  as the intersection of E with an annulus, and note that  $E = \coprod_{k \in \mathbb{N}} E_k$ .
  - \* Each  $E_k$  is bounded, so apply the previous case to obtain  $O_k \supseteq E_k$  with  $m(O_k \setminus E_k) = 0$ .
  - \* So write  $O_k = E_k \prod N_k$  where  $N_k := O_k \setminus E_k$  is a null set.
  - \* Define  $O = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} O_k$ , note that  $E \subseteq O$ .
  - \* Now note

$$O \setminus E = \left(\coprod_{k} O_{k}\right) \setminus \left(\coprod_{K} E_{k}\right)$$

$$\subseteq \coprod_{k} (O_{k} \setminus E_{k})$$

$$\implies m_{*}(O \setminus E) \le m_{*}\left(\coprod (O_{k} \setminus E_{k})\right) = 0,$$

since any countable union of null sets is again null.

- So  $O \supseteq E$  with  $m(O \setminus E) = 0$ .
- Theorem: 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  $S := \bigcup \mathcal{O}_n^c$ , 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

$$E^{c} \setminus S := E^{c} \setminus \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_{n}^{c}\right)$$

$$:= E^{c} \cap \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_{n}^{c}\right)^{c} \quad \text{definition of set minus}$$

$$= E^{c} \cap \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_{n}\right)^{c} \quad \text{De Morgan's law}$$

$$= E^{c} \cup \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_{n}\right)$$

$$:= \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{O}_{n}\right) \setminus E$$

$$\subseteq \mathcal{O}_{N} \setminus E \quad \text{for every } N \in \mathbb{N}.$$

- Then by subadditivity,

$$m_*(E^c \setminus S) \le m_*(\mathcal{O}_N \setminus E) \le \frac{1}{N} \quad \forall N \implies m_*(E^c \setminus S) = 0.$$

– Thus  $E^c \setminus S$  is measurable.

#### 4.2.1 Indirect Proof

- Since E is measurable,  $E^c$  is measurable.
- Since  $E^c$  is measurable exists an open  $O \supseteq E^c$  such that  $m(O \setminus E^c) = 0$ .
- Set  $B := O^c$ , then  $O \supset E^c \iff \mathcal{O}^c \subseteq E \iff B \subseteq E$ .
- Computing measures yields

$$E \setminus B := E \setminus \mathcal{O}^c := E \bigcap (\mathcal{O}^c)^c = E \bigcap \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O} \bigcap (E^c)^c := \mathcal{O} \setminus E^c,$$

thus  $m(E \setminus B) = m(\mathcal{O} \setminus E^c) = 0$ .

• Since  $\mathcal{O}$  is open, B is closed and thus Borel.

#### 4.2.2 Direct Proof

?

Try to construct the set.

### 4.3 3

Concepts used:

- Mean Value Theorem
- DCT

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

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

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

so it only remains to justify the DCT.

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

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

since  $\cos(tx)$  is differentiable in t and this is the limit definition of differentiability.

• 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 applies.

## 4.4 4

Case of characteristic function

• First suppose  $f(x) = \chi_{[0,1]}(x)$ .

- Note that  $\sin(nx)$  has a period of  $2\pi/n$ , and thus  $\left|\frac{n}{2\pi}\right|$  full periods in [0,1].
- Taking the absolute value yields a new function with half the period, so a period of  $\pi/n$  and  $\lfloor \pi/n \rfloor$  full periods in [0,1].
- We can compute the integral over one full period (which is independent of which period is chosen), and since  $\sin(x)$  is positive and agrees with  $|\sin(nx)|$  on the first period, we have

$$\int_{\text{One Period}} |\sin(nx)| \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/n} \sin(nx) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{\pi} \sin(u) \, du \quad u = nx$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} - \cos(u) \Big|_0^{\pi}$$

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

• Then break the integral up into integrals over periods  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_N$  where  $N := \lfloor n/\pi \rfloor$ :

$$\int_{0}^{1} |\sin(nx)| dx = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N} \int_{P_{j}} |\sin(nx)| dx\right) + \int_{N\lfloor \pi/n \rfloor}^{1} |\sin(nx)| dx$$

$$= \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{2}{n}\right) + \int_{N\lfloor \pi/n \rfloor}^{1} |\sin(nx)| dx$$

$$= N\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) + \int_{N\lfloor \pi/n \rfloor}^{1} |\sin(nx)| dx$$

$$\coloneqq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{\pi} \right\rfloor \frac{2}{n} + \int_{N\lfloor \pi/n \rfloor}^{1} |\sin(nx)| dx$$

$$= \frac{2}{\pi} + \int_{N\lfloor \pi/n \rfloor}^{1} |\sin(nx)| dx$$

$$\coloneqq \frac{2}{\pi} + R(n)$$

so it suffices to show that  $R(n) \stackrel{n \longrightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$ .

• Showing this: ??????????

General case

#### 4.5 5

Concepts used:

• Claim: If  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^a \times \mathbb{R}^b$  is a measurable set, then for almost every  $y \in \mathbb{R}^b$ , the slice  $E^y$  is measurable and

$$m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^b} m(E^y) \, dy.$$

– Set  $g = \chi_E$ , which is non-negative and measurable, so apply Tonelli.

Need to justify removing floor function and cancella-

No clue how to show this.

Not sure. Approximate f by simple functions...?

- Conclude that 
$$g^y = \chi_{E^y}$$
 is measurable, the function  $y \mapsto \int g^y(x) dx$  is measurable, and  $\int \int g^y(x) dx dy = \int g$ .  
- But  $\int g = m(E)$  and  $\int \int g^y(x) dx dy = \int m(E^y) dy$ .

#### Solution

Note: f is a function  $\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  in the original problem, but here I've assumed  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

• Since  $f \ge 0$ , set

$$E := \left\{ (x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) > t \right\} = \left\{ (x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \le t < f(x) \right\}.$$

- Claim: since f is measurable, E is measurable and thus m(E) makes sense.
  - Since f is measurable, F(x,t) := t f(x) is measurable on  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$ .
  - Then write  $E = \{F < 0\} \cap \{t \ge 0\}$  as an intersection of measurable sets.
- We have slices

$$E^{t} := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid (x, t) \in E \right\} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid 0 \le t < f(x) \right\}$$
$$E^{x} := \left\{ t \in \mathbb{R} \mid (x, t) \in E \right\} = \left\{ t \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \le t \le f(x) \right\} = [0, f(x)].$$

- $-E_t$  is precisely the set that appears in the original RHS integrand.
- $-m(E^x) = f(x).$
- Claim:  $\chi_E$  satisfies the conditions of Tonelli, and thus  $m(E) = \int \chi_E$  is equal to any iterated integral.
  - Non-negative: clear since  $0 \le \chi_E \le 1$
  - Measurable: characteristic functions of measurable sets are measurable.
- Conclude:
  - 1. For almost every x,  $E^x$  is a measurable set,  $x \mapsto m(E^x)$  is a measurable function, and  $m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} m(E^x) dx$
  - 2. For almost every t,  $E^t$  is a measurable set,  $t \mapsto m(E^t)$  is a measurable function, and  $m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} m(E^t) dt$
- On one hand,

$$m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n+1}} \chi_E(x,t)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \chi_E(x,t) dt dx \quad \text{by Tonelli}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} m(E^x) dx \quad \text{first conclusion}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) dx.$$

• On the other hand,

$$\begin{split} m(E) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n+1}} \chi_E(x,t) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \chi_E(x,t) \, dx \, dt \quad \text{by Tonelli} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} m(E^t) \, dt \quad \text{second conclusion.} \end{split}$$

• Thus

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \, dx = m(E) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} m(E^t) \, dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} m\left(\left\{x \mid f(x) > t\right\}\right).$$

4.6 6

Note that x<sup>1/n</sup> n→∞ 1 for any 0 < x < ∞.</li>
Thus the integrand converges to 1/e<sup>x</sup>, which is integrable on (0,∞) and integrates to 1.

• Break the integrand up:

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n x^{\frac{1}{n}}} \, dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n x^{\frac{1}{n}}} \, dx = \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n x^{\frac{1}{n}}} \, dx.$$

# **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

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

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

Define

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

Note that we can write  $E_i$  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  $\limsup_j E_j = E \bigcap [0,1]$ .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 5.4 4

Fix  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $e^{2\pi ikx}$  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

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

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

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

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

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

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  $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} x^i$ .

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,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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  $||f_k - f|| = \max_{x \in X} |f_k(x) - f(x)| \xrightarrow{k \longrightarrow \infty} 0$ , 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  $||f_N|| := M < \infty$ 

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

# 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

$$x = 0.d_1d_2 \cdots d_{k-1} \ 4 \ d_{k+1} \cdots = \sum_{j=1}^k d_j 10^{-j} + 4 \cdot 10^{-k} + \sum_{j=k+1}^\infty d_j 10^{-j}.$$

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

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

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 gf 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