https://github.com/friedeggs

$PMATH_{ANALYSIS}$ 351

Prof: Nico Spronk • Fall 2017 • University of Waterloo

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Abstract

These notes are intended as a resource for myself; past, present, or future students of this course, and anyone interested in the material. The goal is to provide an end-to-end resource that covers all material discussed in the course displayed in an organized manner. If you spot any errors or would like to contribute, please contact me directly.

1 Chains and Zorn's Lemma

Let (X, \leq) be a poset. A <u>chain</u> is any subset $C \subseteq X$ such that (C, \leq) is totally ordered.

Office hours:

- 1. Today 2:30 3:20
- 2. Wednesday next week 2:30 4:30

Or, email nspronk@uwaterloo.ca

2 Cardinal Arithmetic

i. : (

ii.
$$\mathbb{R}\underbrace{\sim}_{f}(-1,1), f(x) = x/|x| + 1$$
 (exercise: exhibit f^{-1})

iii.
$$a < b$$
 in $\mathbb{R}.(0,1)\underbrace{\sim}_{q}(a,b), g(x) = a + x(b-a)$

Notation: $\mathcal{N}_0 = |\mathbb{N}|$ ("aleph naught"), $c = |\mathbb{R}|$ ("continuous")

Arithmetic: Let A, B be sets.

$$\begin{split} |A|+|B|&=|A\sqcup B|\\ |A||B|&=|A\times B|\\ |A|^{|B|}&=|A^B|(B\neq\varnothing,A^B=\{f:B\to A\mid \text{ function }\}) \end{split}$$

 $A \sqcup A$ is two copies of $A, \sim A \times \{1, 2\}$

Properties

- (commutativity) |A| + |B| = |B| + |A|, |A||B| = |B||A|
- (distributivity) |A|(|B| + |C|) = |A||B| + |A||C|

$$A \times (B \sqcup C) \sim (A \times B) \sqcup (A \times C)$$

• (Exponential laws)

 $(B \neq \emptyset \neq C)$

$$|A|^{|B|+|C|} = |A|^{|B|}|A|^{|C|}, |A|^{|B||C|} = (|A|^{|B|})^{|C|}$$

$$A^{B \sqcup C} \sim A^B \times A^C \text{ via } \varphi \longmapsto (\varphi|_B, \varphi|_C)$$
$$A^{B \times C} \sim (A^B)^C \text{ via } \varphi \longmapsto (\varphi(b, \cdot) : C \to A)$$

Now, for sets A, B, define $A \leq B$ if there is an injection $f: A \to B$.

Sometimes write $A \subseteq B$. As above:

(reflexivity)
$$A \underset{\text{id}}{\underbrace{\preceq}} A$$

(transitivity) $A \leq B, B \leq C \Longrightarrow A \leq C$

Seems reasonable to write $|A| \leq |B|$, in this case.

Question: Is \leq in cardinal numbers anti-symmetric?

Theorem 2.1 (Cantor-Bernstein-Schroder Theorem). If, for non-empty set A, B we have $A \leq B, B \leq A$, then $A \sim B$. Ie. if $|A| \leq |B|$ and $|B| \leq |A|$, then |A| = |B|.

Proof. Our assumption is that we have injections $A \underbrace{\preceq}_{B} B$, $B \underbrace{\preceq}_{A} A$.

To avoid triviality, let us suppose that neither φ nor ψ is surjective. Thus $\varphi(A) \subsetneq B$, $\psi \circ \varphi(A) \subsetneq \psi(B) \subsetneq A$. Let $A_0 = A, A_1 = \psi(B), A_2 = \psi \circ \varphi(A)$ and we inductively define $A_{n+2} = g(A_n), g = \psi \circ \varphi$. Then $A_2 \subsetneq A_1 \subsetneq A_0$, so by applying injection g,

$$A_{2} \subsetneq A_{1} \subsetneq A_{0}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A_{n+1} \subsetneq A_{n} \subsetneq A_{n-1}$$

Hence, we may decompose

$$A = A_0 = (A_0 \setminus A_1) \cup A_1$$

$$= (A_0 \setminus A_1) \cup (A_1 \setminus A_2) \cup A_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$= \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (A_{n-1} \setminus A_n) \cup A_{\infty}$$

where $A_{\infty} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=2}^{\infty} A_n$, we likewise observe $A_1 = \bigcup_{n=2}^{\infty} (A_{n-1} \setminus A_n) \cup A_{\infty}$.

Picture:

$$\underbrace{A_0 \setminus A_1 \underbrace{A_1 \setminus A_2 \dots A_\infty}_{A_0}}_{A_0}$$

Using definitions of the sets A_n $(n \ge 2)$, we have $g(A_{n-1} \setminus A_n) = A_{n+1} \setminus A_{n+2}$. Define

$$h: A_0 \to A_1, h(x) = \begin{cases} g(x), & \text{if } x \in A_{n-1} \setminus A_n, n \text{ odd} \\ x, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then h is a bijection. Thus

$$A = A_0 \underbrace{\sim}_h A_1 = \psi(B), B \underbrace{\sim}_{\psi} \psi(B)$$

so we conclude that $A \sim B$.

Examples:

- 1. Let a < b in \mathbb{R} . Then $[a,b) \leq \mathbb{R}$ (obvious) $\mathbb{R} \sim (-1,1) \sim (0,1) \sim (a,b) \leq [a,b)$ Ie. $[a,b) \leq \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{R} \leq [a,b)$ so $\mathbb{R} \sim [a,b)$
- 3 2017-09-18
- 3.1 Last class: C.B.S Theorem

If $A \leq B$ and $B \leq A$ then $A \sim B$. Examples:

(i) $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = c$.

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}, \text{ via } A \longmapsto \chi_A \text{ where } \chi_A(n) \begin{cases} 1 & , n \in A \\ 0 & , n \notin A \end{cases} \text{ ("characteristic indicator")}$$
$$\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \sim \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}), \text{ via } (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \biguplus_{\text{injective}} \chi_A \text{ where } \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{3^k} = 0.x_1x_2x_3\dots \text{ (ternary representation)}$$

$$[0,1) \sim \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}, \ 0.x_1x_2x_3\cdots = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{2^k}$$
 (binary representation) (never allow $0.111\cdots = 1!$) $\longmapsto (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \preceq [0,1) \preceq \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \sim \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$$

so, by C.B.S. Theorem, we have $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = |[0,1)| = c = |\mathbb{R}|$.

(ii)

2nd lecture:

(iii) $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q} \sim \mathbb{N}^2$

$$\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}, \text{ via } \frac{m}{n} \longmapsto (m, n) \text{ (gcd}(m, n) = 1)$$

$$\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N}^2 = \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}, \text{ as } \mathbb{Z} \sim \mathbb{N}$$

$$\mathbb{N}^2 \leq \mathbb{N}, \text{ via } (m, n) \longmapsto 2^m 3^n$$

Hence $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N}^2 \leq \mathbb{N}$ so, by C.B.S. Theorem, $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q} \sim \mathbb{N}^2$.

Notation: We say that a set A is

- countable if $A \prec \mathbb{N}$, i.e. $|A| < \aleph_0$
- denumerable if $A \sim \mathbb{N}$, i.e. $|A| = \aleph_0$

Proposition 3.1 (surjectivity). Suppose X and Y are non-empty sets and there is a surjection $g: X \to Y$. Then $Y \leq X$.

Proof. Let $f: \mathcal{P}(X) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \to X$ be a choice function (AC). For each $y \in Y$, we have $g^{-1}(\{y\}) = \{x \in X : g(x) = y\} \neq \emptyset$, as g is surjective. Define $h: Y \to X$ be given by $h(y) = f(g^{-1}(\{y\}))$ and h is injective, as if $y_1 \neq y_2, \{y_1\} \cap \{y_2\} = \emptyset$, so we see that $g^{-1}(\{y_1\}) \cap g^{-1}(\{y_2\}) = \emptyset$ too.

Theorem 3.1 (Comparison Theorem). Let X, Y be sets. Then either $X \leq Y$ or $Y \leq X$.

Proof. If $X \neq \emptyset$, then $X \leq Y$; likewise if $Y = \emptyset$. Hence assume $X \neq \emptyset \neq Y$. We let

$$\Delta = \{(A, f) : A \in \mathcal{P}(X) \setminus \{\emptyset\}, f \in Y^A \text{ is an injection mapping from } A \text{ to } Y\}$$

We observe that $\Delta \neq \emptyset$. If $x \in A, y \in Y$, then $(\{x\}, x \longmapsto y) \in \Delta$. On Δ let

$$(A, f) \leq (B, g) \iff A \subseteq B \subseteq X, g|_{A} = f$$

Notice that \leq is reflexive, anti-symmetric, and transitive, hence is a partial order on Δ . Let $\Gamma\{(A_i, f_i)\}_{i \in I}$ be a chain in (Δ, \leq) . We let $A = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ and $f \in Y^A$ be given by $f(x) = f_i(x)$ provided $x \in A_i$.

Notice that f is well-defined. Say $x \in A_i$ and $x \in A_j$, then, since Γ is a chain, $A_i \subseteq A_j$, say, and $f_j \mid_{A_i} = f_i$.

Furthermore, if $x_1 \neq x_2$ in A, then $x_1 \in A_{i_1}, x_2 \in A_{i_2}$, and we may suppose $A_{i_1} \subseteq A_{i_2}$. Then $f(x_1) = f_{i_1}(x_1) = f_{i_2}(x_1) \neq f_{i_2}(x_2) = f(x_2)$, so f is an injection. Thus $(A, f) \in \Delta$, and is an upper bound of Γ . Thus, there is a maximal element $(M, g) \in \Delta$, by Zorn's Lemma.

Case #1: M = X. Then $X = M \leq_q Y$.

Case #2: $M \subsetneq X$. We wish to see that g must be surjective. Suppose not, i.e., there is $y_0 \in Y \setminus g(M)$. Since $M \subsetneq X$, there is $x_0 \in X \setminus M$. Define $h: M \cup \{x_0\} \to Y$ by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & x \in M \\ y_0 & x = x_0 \end{cases}$$
 injective!

Then $(M \cup \{x_0\}, h) \in \Delta$, and $(M, g) \not\preceq (M \cup \{x_0\}, h)$, contradicting maximality of (M, g). Thus, we have that that g is surjective. Thus $Y \subseteq X$.

Proposition 3.2. Let A be a set. Then TFAE:

- (i) $n \leq |A|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- (ii) $\aleph_0 \leq |A|$ (A is infinite)
- (iii) there is $B \subsetneq A$ s.t. |B| = |A|
- (iv) 1 + |A| = |A| (Hilbert hotel)
- (v) $\aleph_0 + |A| = |A|$

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) We have that for each n in $\mathbb N$ there is an injection $\varphi_N:\{1,\ldots,n\}\to A$. Inductively, define $f:\mathbb N\to A$ by

$$f(1) = \varphi_1(1)$$

$$f(n+1) = \varphi_{n+1}(k)$$

where $k = \min j \in \{1, \dots, n+1\} : \varphi_{n+1}(j) \notin \{f(1), \dots, f(n)\}.$

Then f is injective by construction.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) We have $\mathbb{N} \leq_f A$. Let $B = A \setminus \{f(1)\}$. Define $g: A \to B$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(n+1) & \text{if } x = f(n), n \in \mathbb{N} \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then $A \sim_g B$, i.e., |A| = |B|.

(iii) \Rightarrow (iv) We suppose there is $x_0 \in A \setminus B$ and $B \sim A$. Thus $A \sim B \leq B \cup \{x_0\} \leq A$ so by C.B.S. Theorem $A \sim B$ and

 $A \sim B \cup \{x_0\} \sim A \sqcup \{1\}$, i.e. |A| = |A| + 1.

(iv) \Rightarrow (i) We have $\{1\} \sqcup A \sim_{\varphi} A$. Then $\varphi(A) \subsetneq A$. Thus $\varphi \circ \varphi(A) \subsetneq \varphi(A) \subsetneq A$, and, by induction,

$$\varphi^{\circ n}(A) \subsetneq \varphi^{\circ n-1}(A) \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq A$$

$$\underbrace{\varphi \circ \cdots \circ \varphi}_{n \text{ times}}$$

Hence $|A| \ge |A \setminus \varphi^{\circ n}(A)| \ge n$ (at each stage above, we gain at least one point).

(ii) \Rightarrow (v) We have $\mathbb{N} \leq_f A$. Let $g : \mathbb{N} \sqcup A \to A$,

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(2n) & \text{if } x = n, n \in \mathbb{N} \\ f(2n+1) & \text{if } x = f(n) \in A, n \in \mathbb{N} \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 $(v) \Rightarrow (ii) \aleph_0 \leq \aleph_0 + |A| = |A|$ by assumption.

Corollary 3.1. If $A \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$, then either A is finite or denumerable.

Proof. Either $n \leq |A|$ for all n, or |A| < n (Comparison lemma).

Theorem 3.2 (Cantor). For any set X, $|X| < |\mathcal{P}(X)|$.

$$Proof.:$$
 (

Cantor's paradox: There is no "set" of all sets.

4 2017-09-22

4.1 Metric Spaces

Example (French railroad / metro metric): Suppose we have a set $X \neq \emptyset$, and a function $f: X \to [0, \infty)$ which satisfies $f^{-1}(\{0\}) = \{p_0\}$. Notice, then, that f(x) > 0 if $x \in X \setminus \{p_0\}$.

$$d_f: X \times X \to [0, \infty), d_f(x, y) = f(x) + f(y)$$

if $x \neq y$, 0 if x = y.

Easy exercise: this is a metric.

(Belongs to family of weighted graph metrics.)

$$||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$x^p = \begin{cases} e^{p \log x} & x > 0\\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Lemma 4.1. Let $\alpha, \beta \geq 0$ in \mathbb{R} , 1 and <math>q is chosen so that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ (ie $q = \frac{p}{p-1}$) then

$$\alpha\beta \le \frac{\alpha^p}{p} + \frac{\beta^q}{q}$$

with equality when $\alpha^p = \beta^q$.

Proof. Consider the graph of $y = x^{p-1}$ (assume $p \ge 2$).

$$x = y^1 p - 1 = y^q p = y^{q-1}$$

Then

$$\alpha\beta \le \underbrace{\int_0^\alpha x^{p-1} dx}_{A_1} + \underbrace{\int_0^\beta y^{q-1} dy}_{A_2}$$

(Equality holds only if $\beta = \alpha^{p-1} \Rightarrow \beta^1 q - 1 \Rightarrow \beta^q = \alpha^p$)

$$= \frac{\alpha^p}{p} + \frac{\beta^q}{q}$$

Holder's Inequality

5 2017-09-25

 $\underline{\text{Lemma:}} \ \alpha, \beta \geq 0 \ \text{in} \ \mathbb{R}, 1$

<u>Holder's Inequality:</u> If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, 1 and q satisfies <math>\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, then

$$|\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} y_{j}| \leq \sum_{\text{1-ineq. of } |\cdot|} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_{j}| |y_{j}| \leq \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_{j}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |y_{j}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} := ||x||_{p} ||y||_{q}$$

Proof. If $||x||_p||y||_q=0$, then x=0 or y=0 and the inequality is trivial. Assume $||x||_p||y||_q\neq 0$. For $j=1,\ldots,n$, let

$$\alpha_j = \frac{|x_j|}{||x||_p}, \quad \beta_j = \frac{|y_j|}{||y||_q}.$$

Then

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{||x||_p||y||_q} \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j||y_j| &= \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \beta_j \\ &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n \left[\frac{\alpha_j^p}{p} + \frac{\beta_j^q}{q} \right] \text{ by lemma} \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j^p + \frac{1}{q} \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^q \\ &= \frac{1}{p||x||_p^p} \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^p + \frac{1}{q||x||_q^q} \sum_{j=1}^n |y_j|^q \\ &= \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \\ &= 1 \end{split}$$

Theorem 5.1 (Minkowski's Inequality). Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and 1 . Then

$$||x+y||_p \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p.$$

6

Proof. If x + y = 0 then this is trivial, so suppose $x + y \neq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} ||x+y||_p^p &= \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^p \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j| |x_j + y_j|^{p-1} \\ &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n (|x_j| + |y_j|) (|x_j + y_j|^{p-1}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j| |x_j + y_j|^{p-1} + \sum_{j=1}^n |y_j| |x_j + y_j|^{p-1} \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} + \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |y_j|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \\ &= (||x||_p + ||y||_p) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \end{aligned}$$

We have

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{q} = 1 - \frac{1}{p} = \frac{p-1}{p} \Longrightarrow p = q(p-1)$$

and thus

$$||x+y||_p^p \le (||x||_p + ||y||_p) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$
$$= (||x||_p + ||y||_p)||x+y||_p^{\frac{p}{q}}$$

Now, divide $||x+y||_p^{\frac{p}{q}} \neq 0$ to get

$$||x+y||_p = ||x+y||_p^{p-\frac{p}{q}}$$

 $\leq ||x||_p + ||y||_p$

(since $p - \frac{p}{q} = p(1 - \frac{1}{q}) = 1$).

Corollary 5.1. Given $1 is a norm on <math>\mathbb{R}^n$.

Proof. Clearly $||\cdot||_p$ is non-negative and non-degenerate. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then

$$||\alpha x||_{p} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |\alpha x_{j}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= |\alpha|\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_{j}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= |\alpha|||x||_{p}$$

Finally, subadditivity is provided by Minkowski's inequality.

$$|x|^p = e^{p\log|x|}$$

5.1 The ℓ_p -spaces

Consider $\mathbb{R}^N = \{x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} : x_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$ which is a \mathbb{R} -vector space:

$$(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} + (y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} = (x_k + y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}, \alpha(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} = (\alpha x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}.$$

We let for $1 \le p < \infty$

$$\ell_p = \{ x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{R}^N : \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^p = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p < \infty \}$$

and

$$\ell_{\infty} = \{x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k| < \infty\}.$$

On ℓ_p we define

$$||x||_p = \begin{cases} (\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} & \text{, if } 1 \le p < \infty \\ \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k| & \text{, if } p = \infty \end{cases}$$

Theorem 5.2. Let $1 \leq p < \infty$. Then ℓ_p is a \mathbb{R} -subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ and $||\cdot||_p$ is a norm.

Proof. We prove these together. Suppose that $x, y \in \ell_p$. Then

$$||x+y||_p = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k + y_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ if } \infty, \text{ treat } \infty^{\frac{1}{p}} = \infty$$

$$= \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k + y_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k + y_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \qquad x \longmapsto x^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ is continuous on } [0, \infty), \text{ if } x \to \infty, x^{\frac{1}{p}} \to \infty$$

$$\leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |y_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ Minkowski applied on each } n$$

$$= \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |y_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ continuity again}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |y_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= ||x||_p + ||y||_p$$

$$< \infty$$

Thus $x + y \in \ell_p$, and we get subadditivity of $||\cdot||_p$.

We note that non-negativity and non-degeneracy of $||\cdot||_p$ are obvious. Likewise, the $|\cdot|$ -homogeneity is straightforward. \square

Theorem 5.3. $(\ell_{\infty}, ||\cdot||_{\infty})$ is a normed vector space.

Proof. If $x, y \in \ell_{\infty}$ then

$$||x+y||_{\infty} = \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k + y_k|$$

$$\leq \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} (|x_k| + |y_k|)$$

$$\leq \sup_{j,k \in \mathbb{N}} (|x_j| + |y_k|)$$

$$= \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_j| + \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |y_k|$$

$$= ||x||_{\infty} + ||y||_{\infty}$$

Other properties are very easy.

6 2017-09-29

i) $X \neq \emptyset$ s.t. $|X| \geq 2$ discrete metric $d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y \\ 1 & x \neq y \end{cases}$ For $x_0 \in X$,

$$B(x,\varepsilon) = \begin{cases} \{x_0\} & 0 < \varepsilon \le 1 \\ x & \varepsilon > 1 \end{cases}$$
$$B[x,\varepsilon] = \begin{cases} \{x_0\} & 0 < \varepsilon < 1 \\ x & \varepsilon \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

ii) (geometry of balls in $\mathbb{R}^2)$ $1 \leq p \leq \infty, B_p(0,1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2: d_p(0,x) = \|x\|_p < 1\}$

Proposition 6.1. (X, d) a metric space.

- i) X, \emptyset are both open and closed.
- ii) If $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a family of open sets, then $\bigcup_{i\in I} U_i$ is open.
- iii) If $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$ is a finite family of open sets, then $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$ is open.
- iv) If $\{F_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a family of closed sets, then $\bigcap_{i\in I} U_i$ is closed.
- v) If $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$ is a finite family of closed sets, then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n U_i$ is closed.

Proof. i) Let $x \in X$, then $x \in B(x,1) \subseteq X$, so X is open. So $\emptyset = X \setminus X$, $X = X \setminus \emptyset$ are closed.

- ii) Let $x \in U = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$. Then there is some i_0 in I s.t. $x \in U_{i_0}$, which is open, so there is $\varepsilon_x > 0$ s.t. $x \in B(x, \varepsilon_x) \subseteq U_{i_0} \subseteq U$.
- iii) Let $x \in V = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$. Then for each i = 1, ..., n, there is $\varepsilon_i > 0$ s.t. $B(x, \varepsilon_i) \subseteq U_i$. Let $\varepsilon = \min\{\varepsilon_1, ..., \varepsilon_n\} \Longrightarrow B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n B(x, \varepsilon_i) \subseteq V$.
- iv), v) De Morgan's Laws.

Given a metric space (X,d), $A \subseteq X$, we define the boundary of A:

$$\partial A = \{x \in X : \forall \varepsilon > 0, B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset, B(x, \varepsilon) \setminus A \neq \emptyset\}.$$

9

Remark: $\partial A = \partial (X \setminus A)$.

Interior of A:

$$A^{\circ} = \bigcup \{ U \subseteq X : U \subseteq A \text{ and } U \text{ is open} \}.$$

Proposition 6.2 (characterizations of interior). If (X, d), A are as above then

$$A^{\circ} = \{x \in X : \exists \varepsilon_x > 0 \text{ s.t. } B(x, \varepsilon_x) \subseteq A\}$$

= $A \setminus \partial A$.

Proof. Let $x \in A$. Then either:

- for some $\varepsilon_x > 0$, $B(x, \varepsilon_x) \subseteq A \Longrightarrow x \in A^{\circ}$, or
- $\forall \varepsilon > 0, B(x, \varepsilon) \setminus A \neq \emptyset \Longrightarrow \text{since } x \in A \cap B(x, \varepsilon), \ x \in \partial A.$

Since $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$, the proposition holds.

<u>Def:</u> (X,d) a metric space, $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ and $x_0 \in X$. Say $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to x_0 , i.e. $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x_0$ or $x_n \xrightarrow{n\to\infty} x_0$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } n \geq n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow d(x_0,x_n) < \varepsilon$.

<u>Remark:</u> The limit, if it exists, is unique. Suppose $x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n, y_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$, then given $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists n_{\varepsilon}, n_{\varepsilon'}$ in \mathbb{N} s.t.

$$n \ge n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow d(x_0, x_n) < \varepsilon$$

 $n \ge n_{\varepsilon'} \Longrightarrow d(y_0, x_n) < \varepsilon$.

Now if $n \ge \max\{n_{\varepsilon}, n_{\varepsilon'}\}$, then

$$d(x_0, y_0) \le d(x_0, x_n) + d(x_n, y_0) < \varepsilon$$

 $\implies d(x_0, y_0) = 0$, so $x_0 = y_0$.

Example: Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. A subset $\{e_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq V$ is a Schauder basis if for each $x \in V$, \exists a unique sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ s.t. $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k e_k$ in V. In $\ell_p, 1 \le p < \infty$, let $e_n = (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{1}_{n\text{-th place}}, 0, \dots)$.

Let, for (X, d), A as above, the set of accumulation points (cluster points) be given as

$$A' = \{x \in X : \forall \varepsilon > 0, \underbrace{B(x,\varepsilon) \setminus \{x\}}_{\text{punctured ball}} \cap A \neq \varnothing.\}$$

Call elements of $A \setminus A'$ isolated points.

Proposition 6.3. Given (X, d), A as above, we have

$$A' = \{x \in X : x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n, \ (x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x\}.\}$$

Proof. If $x \in A'$, let $x_1 \in (B(x,1) \setminus \{x\}) \setminus A$, and $x_{n+1} \in (B(x,\varepsilon_n) \setminus \{x\}) \setminus A$, where $\varepsilon_n = \min\{\frac{1}{n}, d(x,x_n)\}$. Then $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$ while $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x\}$. Note x_1, x_2, \ldots are distinct. Converse direction: definition of limits.

7 2017-10-02

<u>Def:</u> Given a metric space (X,d) and $A \subseteq X$, define the <u>closure</u> of A by

$$\bar{A} = \bigcap \{ F \subseteq X : A \subseteq F, F \text{ is closed in } X. \}$$

Of course $A^{\circ} \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}$.

Theorem 7.1 (characterization of the closure). Given a metric space $(X,d), A \subseteq X$, the following sets are the same:

$$\bar{A}, A \cup \partial A, A \cup A'$$

("meet" set) $A_M = \{x \in X : \text{ for any } \varepsilon > 0, B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset \}$ ("limit" set) $A_L = \{x \in X : x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n, \text{ where } (x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A\}$ (The notations A_L, A_M will not be used afterwards; we shall use \bar{A} .)

Proof. We have

$$\begin{split} \bar{A} &= \cap \{ F \subseteq X : A \subseteq F, F \text{ closed } \} \\ &= \cap \{ X \subseteq U : U \subseteq X \setminus A, U \text{ open in } X \} \\ &= X \setminus U \{ U : U \subseteq X \setminus A, U \text{ open in } X \} \\ &= X \setminus [(X \setminus A)^o] \text{ complement of interior} \\ &= X \setminus [(X \setminus A) \setminus \partial (X \setminus A)] \text{ characterization of } (X \setminus A)^o \\ &= X \setminus [(X \setminus A) \setminus \partial A] \\ &= A \cup \partial A \end{split}$$

 $(\cap_{i\in I}(X\setminus U_i)=X\setminus \cup_{i\in I}U_i)$

We thus have $\bar{A} = A \cup \partial A$.

Now if $x \in A \cup \partial A$, then for each $\varepsilon > 0$, we have that $B(x,\varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ [i.e. either $x \in A$ so $x \in A \cap B(x,\varepsilon)$, or $x \in \partial A$, so $B(x,\varepsilon)\cap A\neq\varnothing$. Thus $A\cup\partial A\subseteq A_M$. Conversely, if $x\in A_M$, then, either

- there is $\varepsilon > 0$ so $B(x, \varepsilon) \subset A \Longrightarrow x \in A^o \subset A$, or
- for every $\varepsilon > 0$ we have $B(x, \varepsilon) \setminus A \neq \emptyset$ in which case $x \in \partial A$.

Hence, $x \in A_M \Longrightarrow x \in A \cup \partial A$ so $A_M \subseteq A \cup \partial A$.

If $x \in A \cup A'$, then for each $\varepsilon > 0$, we have $B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset$. Indeed, as above, either $x \in A$, so for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $x \in B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A$, or $x \in A'$, so $B(x,\varepsilon) \cap A \supseteq (B(x,\varepsilon) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset$. Hence $A \cup A' \subseteq A_M$.

The definition of the limit of a sequence shows that $A_M = A_L$.

Finally, consider

$$X \setminus (A \cup A') \subseteq \{x \in X : \text{ there exists } \varepsilon_x > 0 \text{ s.t. } B(x, \varepsilon_x) \cap A = \emptyset, B(x, \varepsilon_x) \subseteq X \setminus A\}$$

= $(X \setminus A)^o \Longrightarrow X \setminus [(X \setminus A)^o] \subseteq X \setminus [X \setminus (A \cup A')].$

Hence

$$\bar{A} = X \setminus [(X \setminus A)^o] \subseteq X \setminus [X \setminus (A \cup A')]$$
$$= A \cup A'.$$

Hence $\bar{A} \subseteq A \cup A' \subseteq A_M = \bar{A}$, so $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$.

7.1CONTINUITY

<u>Def.</u> Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces $f: X \to Y$ and $x_0 \in X$. We say that f is continuous at x_0 if given $\varepsilon > 0$, there is $\delta > 0$ s.t. $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta \Longrightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$. (*)

We say that f is continuous on X if it is continuous at each point.

Note:

$$(\star) \iff f(B(x_0, \delta)) \subseteq B(f(x_0), \varepsilon)$$

 $\iff B(x, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$

<u>Notation</u>: In a metric space, a set N is a neighbourhood of a point x_0 if $x_0 \in N^o$ (interior).

Theorem 7.2 (characterization of continuity at a point). If $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y), f : X \to Y, x \in X$ are as above, then TFAE:

- (i) f is continuous at x_0
- (ii) for any neighbourhood N of $f(x_0)$ in (Y, d_Y) , we have $f^{-1}(N)$ is a neighbourhood of x_0 in (X, d_X)
- (iii) if $x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$ in $(X, d_X) \Longrightarrow f(x_0) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n)$ in (Y, d_Y) .

Proof. (i) \Longrightarrow (ii) Given a neighbourhood of $f(x_0)$, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ for which $B(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \subseteq N$. By assumption of continuity, there is $\delta > 0$ s.t.

$$B(x_0, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$$

 $\subseteq f^{-1}(N)$, from above.

Thus $f^{-1}(N)$ is a neighbourhood of x_0 .

(ii) \Longrightarrow (iii) Given $\varepsilon > 0$, $B(f(x_0), \varepsilon)$ is a neighbourhood of $f(x_0)$, so $f^{-1}(B(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$ is a neighbourhood of x_0 and hence there is $\delta > 0$ s.t. $B(x_0, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$, which gives (i).

Now, if $x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$ in (X, d_X) then there is n_δ in \mathbb{N} s.t. if $n \le n_\delta, x_n \in B(x_0, \delta)$. But then for $n \le n_\delta$, we have

$$f(x_n) \in f(B(x,\delta)) \subseteq B(f(x_0),\varepsilon)$$

and hence $f(x_0) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n)$.

(iii) \Longrightarrow (i) (contrapositive) If (i) fails, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. for any $\delta > 0$, $B(x_0, \delta) \not\subset f^{-1}(B(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$. Hence for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we may find $x_n \in B(x_0, \frac{1}{n}) \setminus f^{-1}(B(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$. Given $\varepsilon' > 0$, let $n_{\varepsilon'}$ satisfy $n_{\varepsilon'} \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$, thus $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x_0$. However, each $f(x_n) \notin B(f(x_0), \varepsilon)$, so f(x) does not go to.

8 2017-10-06

Corollary 8.1. A metric space is complete if whenever for any Cauchy sequence, we may find a converging subsequence.

Nested Intervals Theorem, Bolzano-Weierstrauss Theorem

Theorem 8.1. $(\ell_p, \|\cdot\|_p)$ $(1 \le p < \infty)$ is complete as a metric space.

<u>Def:</u> A normed space $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is called a <u>Banach space</u> provided that V is complete w.r.t. metric $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$. $(\ell_p, \|\cdot\|_p)$ is a Banach space.

9 2017-10-16

Theorem 9.1. The space of continuous bounded functions under the uniform metric, $(C_b(f), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, is a Banach space.

Proof. (I) For $x \in X$, $(f_n(x))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy and admits a limit, so this defines $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$. The hard part is showing that f is continuous.

Next, show f is bounded, so $f \in C_b(X)$.

(II)
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} ||f - f_n||_{\infty} = 0$$
, ie. $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n = f$ uniformly in $C_b(X)$.

9.1 Characterizations of Completeness

<u>Def.</u> If (X, d) is a metric space, $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq X$, we let the <u>diameter</u> of A be given by

$$diam(A) = \sum_{x,y \in A} d(x,y) \text{ (may be } \infty)$$

Proposition 9.1. If (X, d), A are as above then $\operatorname{diam}(\bar{A}) = \operatorname{diam}(A)$.

Proof. If $x, y \in \bar{A}, \varepsilon > 0$, then there are x', y' in A s.t. $d(x, x') < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}, d(y, y') < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ (using meet set characterization of \bar{A}). Then

$$d(x,y) \le d(x,x') + d(x',y') + d(y',y)$$

$$\le \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \operatorname{diam}(A) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$= \operatorname{diam}(A) + \varepsilon. \text{ (Assume diam}(A) < \infty).$$

Thus, since $\varepsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, $d(x,y) \leq \operatorname{diam}(A) \Longrightarrow \operatorname{diam}(\bar{A}) = \sup_{x,y \in A} d(x,y) \leq \operatorname{diam}(A)$. Since $A \subseteq \bar{A}$, $\operatorname{diam}(A) \leq \operatorname{diam}(\bar{A})$.

Theorem 9.2 (Nested set characterization of completeness). Let (X,d) be a metric space. Then (X,d) is complete \iff whenever we have closed sets,

- $F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq F_3 \supseteq \cdots$
- diam $F_n \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$

then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. (\Longrightarrow) For each n, choose $x_n \in F_n$. Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose n_{ε} in \mathbb{N} s.t. $n \geq n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{diam}(F_n) < \varepsilon$. Now, if $n, m \geq n_{\varepsilon}$ we have

$$x_n \in F_n \subseteq F_{n_\varepsilon}, x_m \in F_m \subseteq F_{n_\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow d(x_n, x_m) \le \operatorname{diam}(F_{n_\varepsilon}) < \varepsilon$$

so $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy, and has limit $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$. Since each $F_m = \bar{F}_m$ (closed), and we have for $n \ge m, x_n \in F_m, x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_m \in F_m$ for all m. Hence $x \in \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} F_m$ (i.e. $\neq \emptyset$).

(\iff) Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset X$ be Cauchy, let for n in \mathbb{N} , $F_n = \{x_k\}_{k \geq n}$. Then each F_n is closed and $F_n \supseteq F_{n+1}$ for each n. Further, diam $F_n = \text{diam}\{x_k\}_{k \geq n}$ (last proposition). Given $\varepsilon > 0$, there is n_{ε} in \mathbb{N} so $n, m \geq n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$. So for $n \geq n_{\varepsilon}$, we have diam $\{x_k\}_{k \geq n} = \sup_{k, l > n} d(x_k, x_l) < \varepsilon$.

10 2017-10-18

Continuing the proof that $(C_b(f), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is a Banach space from last time:

Theorem 10.1. The space of continuous bounded functions under the uniform metric, $(C_b(f), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, is a Banach space.

Proof. (I) For $x \in X$, $(f_n(x))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy and admits a limit, so this defines $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$. f is continuous: let $x \in X$, and let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $n_{\varepsilon} \in N$ so that

$$n, m \ge n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4} \text{ and } ||f_n - f_m||_{\infty} < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}.$$

Choose $\delta > 0$ so that for $x, y \in X$,

$$d(x,y) < \delta \Longrightarrow |f_{n_{\varepsilon}}(x) - f_{n_{\varepsilon}}(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}.$$

Then, given $y \in B(x, \delta)$, let $n_y \in \mathbb{N}$ so that $n_y \geq n_{\varepsilon}$ and

$$n \ge n_y \Longrightarrow |f_n(y) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}.$$

Then for $n \geq n_y \geq n_\varepsilon$ we have

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le |f(x) - f_{n_{\varepsilon}}(x)| + |f_{n_{\varepsilon}}(x) - f_{n_{\varepsilon}}(y)| + |f_{n_{\varepsilon}}(y) - f_{n}(y)| + |f_{n}(y) - f(y)|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$$

$$= \varepsilon.$$

Also, f is bounded because

$$|f(x)| \le |f(x) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x)|$$

 $\le |f(x) - f_n(x)| + ||f_n||_{\infty}$
 $= o(1) + M.$

(II) Show that this is actually the limit (i.e. $\lim_{n\to\infty} ||f-f_n||_{\infty} = 0$).

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $n_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$ so that $m, n \geq n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow \|f_m - f_n\|_{\infty} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Also, given $x \in X$, choose $n_x \geq n_{\varepsilon}$ so that $n \geq n_x \Longrightarrow |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Then, for $n \geq n_{\varepsilon}$, find $m \geq n_x \geq n_{\varepsilon}$ and observe that

$$|f(x) - f_n(x)| \le |f(x) - f_m(x)| + |f_m(x) - f_n(x)|$$

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

$$= \varepsilon.$$

Example: Consider $(\ell_p, \|\cdot\|_p)$, $1 \le p < \infty$. Let $e_n = (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{1}_{n\text{-th place}}, 0, \dots)$ and let $F_n = \{e_k\}_{k \ge n} \subseteq \ell_p$.

- Each F_n is closed (easy exercise)
- $F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq \cdots$
- diam $F_n = 2^{\frac{1}{p}}$ (easy computation) (Finite diameter is <u>not</u> sufficient for Nested set characterization)

Notice that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n = \emptyset$.

Theorem 10.2 (abstract M-test). Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. Then $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is a Banach space \iff for every $(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset V$ with $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|x_k\| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \|x_k\|$ converging, has that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k$ converges in $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ [ie. V satisfies that "absolute convergence" \implies convergence.]

Proof. (\Longrightarrow) Suppose $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ||x_k||$ converges. Consider $(\sum_{k=1}^n x_k)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset V$. We have for m < n that

$$\left\| \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k - \sum_{k=1}^{m} x_k \right\| \le \sum_{k=m+1}^{n} \|x_k\|$$

and hence $(\sum_{k=1}^n x_k)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in $(V, \|\cdot\|)$, and thus converges.

 (\Leftarrow) Suppose $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy seq in $(V, \|\cdot\|)$. Let n_1 in \mathbb{N} be so $m, n \geq n_1 \Longrightarrow \|x_m - x_n\| < 1$, and, inductively, choose n_{k+1} in \mathbb{N} s.t. $n_{k+1} \ge n_k$ and $m, n \ge n_{k+1} \Longrightarrow ||x_n - x_m|| < \frac{1}{2^k}$.

Let $y_0 = x_{n_1}, \ y_j = x_{n_{j+1}} - x_{n_j}, \ j \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, each $||y_j|| = ||x_{n_{j+1}} - x_{n_j}|| < \frac{1}{2^{j-1}}$, as $n_{j+1} > n_j \ge n$, so

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} ||y_j|| = ||y_0|| + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{j-1}},$$

which converges. (\star)

Now

$$x_{n_k} = x_{n_1} + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} (x_{n_{j+1}} - x_{n_j})$$

$$= y_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} y_j$$

$$\xrightarrow{k \to \infty} y_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_j \text{ (by assumption and } (\star))}$$

In other words, $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converges, hence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges as well.

Application: a continuous nowhere differentiable function on \mathbb{R} .

Facts: $C_b(\mathbb{R})$ is complete; M-test.

Construction: Let $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$

$$\varphi(t) = \begin{cases} t - 2k & 2k \le t < 2k + 1\\ 2k + 2 - t & 2k + 1 \le t < 2k + 2 \end{cases}$$

<u>Picture:</u> sawtooth function with zeros at $\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots$

Then

- (i) φ is continuous and bounded
- (ii) φ is 2-periodic, ie. $\varphi(t+2) = \varphi(t)$ for $t \in \mathbb{R}$
- (iii) $\varphi(2k) = 0, \varphi(2k+1) = 1 \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{Z}$
- (iv) if $k \leq s, t \leq k+1 \ (k \in \mathbb{Z})$, then

$$|\varphi(s) - \varphi(t)| - |s - t|$$

Let for $t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^k \underbrace{\varphi(4^k t)}_{\in [0,1]}$$

However, note that each $\varphi(4^k) \in C_b(\mathbb{R})$, $\|\varphi(4^k)\|_{\infty} = 1$, so by the *M*-test, $f \in C_b(\mathbb{R})$. Fix $t \in \mathbb{R}$. We show that f cannot be differentiable at t. Let $\ell_m = \lfloor 4^m t \rfloor$ $(m \in \mathbb{N})$ so

$$\ell_m \le 4^m t < \ell_m + 1$$

$$\Longrightarrow p_m = \frac{\ell_m}{4^m} \le t < \frac{\ell_m + 1}{4^m} = q_m$$

We compute

$$|f(p_m) - f(q_m)|$$

$$= |\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\frac{3}{4})^k [\varphi(4^k p_m) - \varphi(4^k q_m)]$$

$$= |\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\frac{3}{4})^k [\varphi(4^{k-m} \ell_m) - \varphi(4^{k-m} (\ell_m + 1))]$$

$$= |\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\frac{3}{4})^k [\varphi(4^{k-m} \ell_m) - \varphi(4^{k-m} (\ell_m + 1))], \text{ by (ii) (2-periodicity)}$$

$$(\text{key step}) \ge \frac{3}{4}^m 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{3^k}{4^k} |\underbrace{\varphi(4^{k-m} \ell_m) - \varphi(4^{k-m} (\ell_m + 1))}_{=4^{k-m}, \text{ by (iv)}}|$$

$$= \frac{3^k}{4^k} - \frac{1}{4^m} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} 3^k$$

$$= \frac{1}{4^m} [3^m - \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} 3^k]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4^m} [\frac{2 \cdot 3^m - 3^m + 1}{2}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4^m} (\frac{3^m + 1}{2})$$

Since $|p_m - q_m| = \frac{1}{4^m}$, we have

$$\frac{f(p_m) - f(q_m)}{p_m - q_m} \ge \frac{3^m + 1}{2}.$$
$$\left(p_m = \frac{\lfloor 4^m t \rfloor}{4^m}\right)$$

If $t = \frac{\ell}{4^{m_0}}$ $(\ell \in \mathbb{Z})$, then $t = p_m$ for $m \ge m_0$ and hence for $m \ge m_0$,

$$\left| \frac{f(t) - f(q_m)}{t - q_m} \right| \ge \frac{3^m + 1}{2}$$

while $\lim_{m\to\infty} q_m = t$, so f'(t) does not exist.

$$\frac{f(p_m) - f(q_m)}{p_m - q_m} \le \frac{|f(p_m) - f(t)| + |f(t) - f(q_m)|}{|p_m - q_m|}$$

$$\le \frac{|f(p_m) - f(t)|}{|p_m - t|} + \frac{|f(t) - f(q_m)|}{|t - q_m|}$$

Hence, for some $r_m \in \{p_m, q_m\}$, $\frac{|f(t)-f(r_m)|}{|t-r_m|} \ge \frac{3^m+1}{2\cdot 2}$. We have $|\frac{f(t)-f(r_m)}{t-r_m}| \ge \frac{3^m+1}{4}$ while $r_m \to t$.

11 2017-10-20

Corollary 11.1. $(\ell_{\infty}, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is a Banach space.

Proof. $\ell_{\infty} = C_b(\mathbb{N})$ with usual $|\cdot|$ metric on \mathbb{N} . If $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ is bounded, $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ open, then $f^{-1}(U) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ is open (all subsets of \mathbb{N} are open) $\Longrightarrow f$ is continuous.

If
$$(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \ell_{\infty}$$
, define $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$, $f(n) = x_n$, $f \in C_b(\mathbb{N})$, $||f||_{\infty} = ||(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}||_{\infty}$.

Eg. $(C[0,2],\|\cdot\|_p), \|f\|_p = (\int_0^2 |f|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}, \ 1 \le p < \infty.$ NOT a Banach space!

Let

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ n(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} - t) & \frac{1}{2} < t \le \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n} < t \end{cases}.$$

Then for $m < n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$||f_n - f_m||_p = \left(\int_0^2 |f_n - f_m|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \left(\underbrace{\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} |f_n - f_m|^p}_{0} + \underbrace{\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{m}} \underbrace{|f_n - f_m|}_{\leq \frac{1}{m}}}_{\leq \frac{1}{m}} + \underbrace{\int_{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{m}}^{2} |f_n - f_m|^p}_{0}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{m^{\frac{1}{p}}}.$$

Hence $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in $(C[0,2], \|\cdot\|_p)$. Consider

$$\chi_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} < t \end{cases}.$$

 $\chi_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]}$ is bounded, piecewise continuous, so Riemann integrable.

$$\left\| f_n - \chi_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]} \right\|_p = \left(\int_0^2 |f_n - \chi_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]}|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \le \frac{1}{n^{\frac{1}{p}}}$$

$$\implies \lim_{n \to \infty} \left\| f_n - \chi_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]} \right\|_p = 0.$$

If $g \in C[0,1]$ s.t. $\lim_{n \to \infty} ||f_n - g||_p$, then $||g - \chi_{[0,\frac{1}{2}]}||_p = 0$.

Using Riemann integration theory,

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} < t \end{cases}.$$

Then $\lim_{t\to \frac{1}{2}} g$ does not exist!

11.1 Completeness of Metric Spaces

(X,d) metric space.

Remark: $|d(x,z) - d(y,z)| \le d(x,y)$.

If $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$, $y = \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n$ in (X, d), then $\lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = d(x, y)$. (See solution to A3Q2).

<u>Def.</u> $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$ metric spaces. $i: X \to Y$ is an isometry if $d_Y(i(x), i(y)) = d_X(x, y) \forall x, y \in X$.

Notes: An isometry is injective. Consider $i: X \to i(X) \subseteq Y \Longrightarrow i^{-1}: i(X) \to X$ isometry.

Theorem 11.1. (X, d) metric space.

- i) Existence of completion: there exists a metric space $(\overline{X}, \overline{d})$ s.t.
 - a) $(\overline{X}, \overline{d})$ is complete
 - b) \exists isometry $\overline{i}: X \to \overline{X}$
 - c) $\overline{i(X)} = \overline{X}$; i.e. i(X) is dense in \overline{X}

ii) Uniqueness up to isometry: if $(\widetilde{X}, \widetilde{d})$ is a metric space with map $\widetilde{i}: X \to \widetilde{X}$ s.t. $(\widetilde{X}, \widetilde{d}), \widetilde{i}$ satisfy (a),(b),(c), then \exists a surjective isometry $\varphi: \widetilde{X} \to \overline{X}$ s.t. $\varphi \circ \widetilde{i} = \overline{i}$.

Proof. 1. Fix $x_0 \in X$. For $u \in X$, let $f_u : X \to \mathbb{R}$, $f_u(x) = d(x, u) - d(x, x_0)$

 $\implies f_u$ is continuous and $|f_u(x)| \le d(u, x_0)$

 $\Longrightarrow ||f_u||_{\infty} = \sup_{x \in X} |f_n(x)| \le d(u, x_0) < \infty \Longrightarrow f_u \text{ is bounded}$

 $\Longrightarrow f_u \in C_b(X).$

For $u, v \in X, x \in X$,

$$|f_u(x) - f_v(x)| = |d(x, u) - d(x, v)| \le d(u, v).$$

Thus $||f_u - f_v||_{\infty} \le d(u, v)$. Finally,

$$|f_u(u) - f_v(u)| = |d(u, u) - d(u, x_0) - d(u, v) + d(u, x_0)|$$

= $d(u, v)$.

Thus $||f_u - f_v||_{\infty} \ge d(u, v) \Longrightarrow ||f_u - f_v||_{\infty} = d(u, v)$.

Define $\tau: X \to C_b(X), \tau(u) = f_u, \tau$ isometry.

Let $\overline{X} = \tau(X) = \{f_u : u \in X\} \subseteq C_b(X)$.

By A3Q2(a), $(\overline{X}, \overline{d})$ is complete, where \overline{d} is relativized from the metric on $C_b(X)$.

2. Let $\varphi_0 = \tau \circ \tau^{-1} : \tau(X) \to \tau(X)$. φ_0 an isometry \Longrightarrow uniformly continuous. Hence it admits an extension $\varphi = \overline{\varphi_0} : \widetilde{X} = \overline{\iota(X)} \to \overline{X} = \overline{\tau(X)}$.

Verify φ is an isometry:

If $\widetilde{x}, \widetilde{y} \in \widetilde{X}$, let $\widetilde{x} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \tau(x_n), \widetilde{y} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \tau(y_n), x_n, y_n \in X$. Then

$$\varphi(\tilde{x}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \varphi_0(\tau(x_n)) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \tau(x_n).$$

Hence

$$\begin{split} \overline{d}(\varphi(\widetilde{x}),\varphi(\widetilde{y})) &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \overline{d}(\tau(x_n),\tau(y_n)) \\ &= \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n,y_n) \\ &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \widetilde{d}(\tau(x_n),\tau(y_n)) = \widetilde{d}(\widetilde{x},\widetilde{y}). \end{split}$$

 $\Longrightarrow \varphi$ is an isometry. $\varphi \circ \tau = \tau$ comes for free.

12 2017-10-23

Assignment discussion – the completion vs A4,Q1:

Suppose $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is a non-complete normed vector space, eg. $(C[0,2], \|\cdot\|_p)$ $(1 \le p < \infty)$. Consider the map

$$\tau: V \to C_b(V)$$

$$\tau(v) \in C_b(V), \ \tau(v)(x) = ||x - y|| - ||x||$$

We saw that τ is an isometry, hence we let

$$\overline{V} = \overline{\overline{\tau(V)}}_{\text{complete}} \subseteq C_b(V)$$

<u>Problem:</u> τ is <u>not</u> linear, $\overline{\tau(V)}$ not evidently a subspace of $C_b(V)$.

A4, Q1 shows that an <u>addition</u> and a <u>scalar multiplication</u> may be imposed on $\overline{V} = \overline{\tau(V)}$ which makes it a Banach (complete normed vector) space. These two operations are <u>not the same</u> as addition and scalar multiplication in $C_b(V)$. (The only linear property that τ enjoys seems to be that it takes 0 to 0.)

12.1 Compactness

Let (X,d) be a metric space, and $K\subseteq X$. We say that K is compact if given a family of open sets $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ for which

$$K \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$$
 – we say $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ is an "open cover"

there is a finite subfamily $\{U_{i_1}, \ldots, U_{i_n}\}$ such that

$$K\subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^n U_{i_k}$$
 – we say $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ admits a "finite subcover" .

If X = K itself is compact, we will call (X, d) a compact metric space.

Remark: If $K \subseteq X$ is compact, the relativized metric space (K, d_K) is a compact metric space.

Proposition 12.1. Let (X,d) be a metric space and $K \subseteq X$. If K is compact, then it must be closed.

Proof. Let us suppose, for sake of contradiction that there is $x \in \overline{K} \setminus K$. Then for n in \mathbb{N} ,

$$B(x, \frac{1}{n}) \cap K \neq \emptyset \Longrightarrow B[x, \frac{1}{n}] \cap K \neq \emptyset.$$
 (*)

Further, $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B[x, \frac{1}{n}] = \{x\}$. Let $U_n = X \setminus B[x, \frac{1}{n}]$, which is open.

We have that

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (X \setminus B[x, \frac{1}{n}]) = X \setminus \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B[x, \frac{1}{n}] = X \setminus \{x\} \supseteq K.$$

But, for any finite m we have

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^m U_n = X \setminus \bigcap_{n=1}^m B[x, \frac{1}{n}] = X \setminus B[x, \frac{1}{m}] \not\supseteq K$$

by (\star) . Hence if $\overline{K} \setminus K \neq \emptyset$, K cannot be compact. So we are done.

Proposition 12.2. Let (X,d) be a compact metric space and $C \subseteq X$ is closed. Then C is compact.

Proof. Suppose $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ is an open cover of C. Then $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}\cup\{X\setminus C\}$ is an open cover of X. Hence X admits finite subcover $\{U_{i_1},\ldots,U_{i_n}\}\cup\{X\setminus C\}$, hence, $\{U_{i_1},\ldots,U_{i_n}\}$ is a finite subcover of C.

Theorem 12.1 (continuous image of compact is compact). Let (X, d_X) be a compact metric space, (Y, d_Y) be a metric space, and $f: X \to Y$ be continuous. Then $f(X) = \{f(x) : x \in X\}$ is compact.

Proof. Let $\{V_i\}_{i\in I}$ be an open cover of f(X). Then $U_i = f^{-1}(V_i)$ is open, and $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ is an open cover of X. Hence there is a finite subcover, $X \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^n U_{i_k}$ so $f(X) \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^n f(U_{i_k}) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n V_{i_k}$, so $\{V_{i_1}, \ldots, V_{i_n}\}$ is a finite subcover of f(X).

Corollary 12.1 (Extreme Value Theorem). If (X, d) is a compact metric space, $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then there are $x_{\min}, x_{\max} \in X$ for which

$$f(x_{\min}) < f(x) < f(x_{\max}) \ \forall x \in X.$$

Proof. We have $f(X) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is compact. Hence f(X) is closed. Also $\{(-n,n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ (open intervals), then $f(X) \subseteq \mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (-n,n)$ admits a finite subcover, $\{(-1,1),\ldots,(-n,n)\}$ and hence $f(X) \subseteq (-n,n)$. Thus we have $\inf(f(X)), \sup(f(X))$ exist.

Since f(X) is closed we have

$$\inf(f(X)), \sup(f(X)) \in f(X)$$

(use meet-set of closure). Let x_{\min}, x_{\max} be so $f(x_{\min}) = \inf(f(X)), f(x_{\max}) = \sup(f(X)).$

– Assignment line –

Theorem 12.2 (finite intersection property). Let (X,d) be a metric space. Then (X,d) is compact \iff for any family $\{F_i\}_{i\in I}$ of closed subsets of X for which $\bigcap_{k=1}^n F_{i_k} \neq \emptyset$, $\{i_1,\ldots,i_n\}$ finite in I, we must have $\bigcap_{i\in I} F_i \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. (\Longrightarrow) (contrapositive) Let us suppose that $\{F_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a family of closed subsets with $\bigcap_{i\in I} F_i = \varnothing$. Then if $U_i = X \setminus F_i$, we have that $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ is an open cover (De Morgan's law) and hence admits finite subcover $\{U_{i_1}, \ldots, U_{i_n}\}$. Again, by DeMorgan's law, $\bigcap_{k=1}^n F_{i_k} = \varnothing$. Hence we are done.

$$(\longleftarrow)$$
 Very similar, interchange roles of U_i s and $F_i = X \setminus U_i$.

Example: Let X = B[0,1] in ℓ_p $(1 \le p \le \infty)$. Let $e_n = (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{1}_{n\text{-th place}}, 0, \dots)$ and let $F_n = \{e_k\}_{k \ge n}$ (seen before on Oct 18).

Each F_n is closed. Also

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n = \emptyset$$

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{m} F_n = F_m \neq \emptyset$$

Conclusion: $(B[0,1], d_p)$ $(d_p(x,y) = ||x-y||_p)$ is <u>not</u> compact.

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<u>Def:</u> Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then we say it is

- bounded if there are x_0 in X, and R > 0 such that $X \subseteq B[x_0, R]$ (of course "=" holds) (equivalently, for any $x \in X$, there is $R_x > 0$ such that $X \subseteq B[x, R_x]$; or, equivalently, diam $(X) < \infty$)
- totally bounded if, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there are $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$ such that $X \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^n B[x_k, \varepsilon]$

Totally bounded \Longrightarrow bounded. [with $\varepsilon > 0, x_1, \dots, x_n$ in defin, check that $\bigcup_{k=1}^n B[x_k, \varepsilon] \subseteq B[x_1, \varepsilon + \max_{k=2,\dots,n} d(x_1, x_k)]]$

 $\underline{\underline{\text{Example:}}} \text{ (bounded} \not\Longrightarrow \text{totally bounded)}$

$$\overline{\ln \ell_p \ (1 \le p \le \infty)}, \ e_n = (0, \dots, 0, \underbrace{1}_{n\text{-th place}}, 0, \dots), \ F_n = \{e_k\}_{k \ge n} \subseteq \ell_p,$$

 $F_n \text{ int, } F_n \subseteq B[0,1] \subseteq B[e,2] \text{ so } F_n \text{ is bounded. But } n \neq m, \ d(e_n,e_m) = \begin{cases} 2^{\frac{1}{p}} & 1 \leq p < \infty \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} =: R.$

If $0 < \varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}R$, we see that $F_n \not\subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^n B[e_k, \varepsilon]$ for any n.

Theorem 13.1 (Characterizations of compact metric spaces). Let (X, d) be a metric space. TFAE:

- (i) (X, d) is compact,
- (ii) any sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ admits a subsequence which converges in X
- (iii) (X, d) is complete and totally bounded

Proof. (i) \Longrightarrow (ii): Let $F_n = \overline{\{x_k\}_{k=n}^{\infty}}$. Then each F_n is closed, and $F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq \cdots$, so if $n_1 < n_2 < \cdots n_m$, then $\bigcap_{j=1}^m F_n = F_{n_m} \neq \emptyset$. Thus, by finite intersection property, we have that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \neq \emptyset$. Let $x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$. Now let

 $n_1 = \min\{k : x_k \in B(x,1)\}$ (exists by meet-set closure definition)

and, inductively,

$$n_{m+1} = \min\{k : k > n_m \text{ and } x_k \in B(x, \frac{1}{m+1})\}.$$

Then, as is easy to check, $\lim_{m\to\infty} x_{n_m} = x$.

(ii) \Longrightarrow (iii): If $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ is Cauchy, it admits a converging subsequence (by assumption), and hence itself converges

(earlier proposition). Thus (X, d) is complete.

Let us suppose that (X, d) is <u>not</u> totally bounded.

Thus, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ so no finite collection of closed ε -balls covers X. Let

$$x_1 \in X \setminus B[x_1, \varepsilon], \dots, x_{n+1} \in X \setminus \bigcup_{k=1}^n B[x_k, \varepsilon]$$
 (always possible by assumption).

Thus $d(x_n, x_m) > \varepsilon$ for $n \neq m$. Thus, this sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ admits no Cauchy subsequences, hence no subsequences which converge, violating assumption (ii). Thus (ii) \Longrightarrow (X, d) is totally bounded.

(iii) \Longrightarrow (ii): We first use total boundedness. Given n in \mathbb{N} , there exist $y_{n1}, \ldots, y_{nm_n} \in X$ such that the closed balls

$$B_{n1} = B[y_{n1}, \frac{1}{n}], \dots, B_{nm_n} = B[y_{nm_n}, \frac{1}{n}]$$

satisfy that $X \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^{m_n} B_{nk}$. Let

• B_1 be a ball from B_{11}, \ldots, B_{1m_1} such that

$$|\{n \in \mathbb{N} : x_n \in B_1\}| = \aleph_0$$
 (pigeonhole principle)

- :
- B_k be a ball from B_{k1}, \ldots, B_{km_1} such that

$$|\{n \in \mathbb{N} : x_n \in \bigcap_{j=1}^k B_j\}| = \aleph_0$$

(we've covered X by 1-balls, B_1 by $\frac{1}{2}$ -balls, then $B_2 \cap B_1$ covered by $\frac{1}{3}$ -balls, ...)

Now we use completeness. Let $F_n = \bigcap_{k=1}^n B_k$ so each F_n is closed.

- $F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq F_3 \supseteq \cdots$
- diam $(F_n) \leq \text{diam}(B_n) = \frac{2}{n} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$

Thus, by nested sets theorem, $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \neq \emptyset$. Let $n_1 = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} : x_k \in F_1\}$, inductively, $n_{m+1} = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} : k > n_m \text{ and } x_k \in F_k\}$. Then, if $x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$, $d(x, x_m) \leq \operatorname{diam}(F_m) \leq \operatorname{diam}(B_m) = \frac{2}{m} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$ so $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n_m}$.

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Tue 2 - 3:30

Proof. Continuing theorem from last time:

So far we did (i)
$$\Longrightarrow$$
 (ii) \Longrightarrow (iii) \Longrightarrow harder, nested sets thm

(ii) \Longrightarrow (i): Let $\{U_i\}_{i\in I}$ be an open cover of X.

(LN) There exists r > 0 s.t. for any x in X there exists i in I so $B(x,r) \subseteq U_i$.

(This number r is sometimes called the "Lebesgue number" of the covering; its existence is based on (ii).)

Suppose (LN) fails. Then for choice of $r = \frac{1}{n}$, there exists x_n in X s.t. $B(x_n, \frac{1}{n}) \not\subseteq U_i$ for all i in I. Our assumption is that $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ admits a subsequence $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ such that $x_0 = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k}$ exists.

Then $x_0 \in U_{i_0}$ for some i_0 , so there is $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $B(x_0, \varepsilon) \subseteq U_{i_0}$. Now, there is k_{ε} in \mathbb{N} so $k \ge k_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow x_{n_k} \in B(x_0, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$. Hence, let us choose $k \ge k_{\varepsilon}$ and $\frac{1}{n_k} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Thus, if $x \in B(x_{n_k}, \frac{1}{n_k})$, we have

$$d(x, x_0) \le d(x, x_{n_k}) + d(x_{n_k}, x_0) < \frac{1}{n_k} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \varepsilon$$

and hence $B(x_{n_k}, \frac{1}{n_k}) \subseteq B(x_0, \varepsilon) \subseteq U_{i_0}$, contradicting the choice of the elements x_n .

Hence, we must conclude that (LN) holds.

We saw in (ii) \Longrightarrow (iii) above, that our assumption gives total boundedness of (X,d). Hence there are y_1, \ldots, y_m such that $X \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^m B[y_j, \frac{r}{2}] \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^m B(y_j, r)$. Now, for each $j=1,\ldots,m$, (LN) tells us that there is $i_j \in I$ so $B(y_j, r) \subseteq U_{i_j}$. Thus $X \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^m B(y_j, r) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^m U_{i_j}$, so $\{U_{i_1}, \ldots, U_{i_m}\}$ is a finite subcover.

Remark: On \mathbb{R}^n , norms $\|\cdot\|_p$ $(1 \le p \le \infty)$ are equivalent, and from A2, each gives the same open sets, and hence the same compact sets.

Corollary 14.1.

- (i) (Bolzano-Weierstrauss Theorem for \mathbb{R}^n) If $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq [-R, R]^n = B_{\infty}[0, R]$, then it admits a converging subsequence.
- (ii) (Heine-Borel Theorem) A subset $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact $\iff K$ is closed & K is bounded (with respect to any $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$).
- Proof. (i) We consider, first $(x_1^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq [-R, R] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. By Bolzano-Weierstrauss for \mathbb{R} , this admits converging subsequence $(x_1^{(n_k)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Then $(x_2^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq [-R, R] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ admits a converging subsequence $(x_2^{(n_k)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Etc. Hence, after finitely many (n) iterations, we get a subsequence of $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ which converges $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$.
- (ii) If K is compact, then K is closed by a result at the beginning of the section, and totally bounded by last theorem, hence bounded. Conversely, if K is closed and bounded, $K \subseteq [-R, R]^n$ for some R > 0. Let us consider a sequence $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq K$. First, $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ admits a converging subsequence, by (i). Since K is closed, the limit of the subsequence is in K.

Example: $P = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \{0, \frac{1}{2^k}\} \subseteq \ell_1$ is compact in $(\ell_1, \|\cdot\|_1)$.

First soln: The Cantor set C is closed and bounded in \mathbb{R} , so thus compact. And there is a continuous function $f: C \to \ell_1$ with f(C) = P (A4,Q3), so P is compact. [In fact f is a bijection from C to P so $f^{-1}: P \to C$ is also continuous.] Second soln: P is closed (A3). Hence the relativised metric space (P, d_P) is complete. Let us show total boundedness. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, and n be so $\frac{1}{2^n} < \varepsilon$. For $(b_1, \ldots, b_m) \in \{0, 1\}^n$, let $x_{b_1 \ldots b_m} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_k}{2^k} e_k \in P$. If $b = (b_1, b_2, \ldots) \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, then $x_b = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_k}{2^k} e_k \in P$ (generic element of P). Then for $b = (b_1, b_2, \ldots)$ as above,

$$||x_b - x_{b_1...b_n}||_1 = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} b_k \le \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = \frac{1}{2^n} \le \varepsilon.$$

Thus, $P \subseteq \bigcup_{(b_1,\ldots,b_n)\in\{0,1\}^n} B[x_{b_1\ldots b_n},\varepsilon].$

- MIDTERM CUTOFF -

15 2017-10-30

Midterm: Wed evening See info sheet on website

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Office hours:

- 2:30 - 4:30 - 1:30 - 3:30

A5 - will be posted Friday

Theorem 15.1 (sequential characterization of uniform continuity). Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces, $f: X \to Y$. Then

f is uniformly continuous \iff whenever $d_X(x_n, y_n) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0, x_n, y_n \in X$,

we must have
$$d_Y(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$$
.

Proof. (\Longrightarrow) Given $\varepsilon > 0$, there is $\delta > 0$ such that $d_X(x,y) < \delta$ (x,y) in X) $\Longrightarrow d_Y(f(x),f(y)) < \varepsilon$. Now suppose $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}, (y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} d_X(x_n,y_n) = 0$. Then there is n_{ε} in \mathbb{N} such that

$$n \ge n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow d_X(x_n, y_n) < \delta$$

 $\Longrightarrow d_Y(f(x_n), f(y_n)) < \varepsilon.$

I.e. $\lim_{n\to\infty} d_Y(f(x_n), f(y_n)) = 0$.

(\iff) (contrapositive) Suppose f is <u>not</u> uniformly continuous, so there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $\delta > 0$ there are x, y in X with $d_X(x,y) < \delta$ but $d_Y(f(x),f(y)) \ge \varepsilon$. For each choice $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$, let x_n,y_n in X so $d_X(x_n,y_n) < \frac{1}{n}$ for which $d_Y(f(x_n),f(y_n)) \ge \varepsilon$.

Plainly, $\lim_{n\to\infty} d_X(x_n, y_n) = 0$ while $\lim_{n\to\infty} d_Y(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \neq 0$ (if the limit exists).

Ex: Let $f(x) = x^2$ on \mathbb{R} . Let $x_n = n$, $y_n = n + \frac{1}{n}$. Then $|x_n - y_n| = \frac{1}{n} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$, while $|f(x_n) - f(y_n)| = 2 + \frac{1}{n^2} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$. Hence f is not uniformly continuous.

Theorem 15.2 (continuous on compact is uniformly continuous). Let (X, d_X) , (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces, with (X, d_X) compact, and $f: X \to Y$ continuous. Then f is uniformly continuous.

Proof. Let us suppose not. Then there is $\varepsilon > 0$ and $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}, (y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ such that $d_X(x_n, y_n) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$ while $d_Y(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \ge \varepsilon$. Let $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be a converging subsequence. Then let $(y_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence in X, hence admits converging subsequence $(y_{n_{k_\ell}})_{\ell=1}^{\infty}$. Then if $x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k} = \lim_{\ell \to \infty} x_{n_{k_\ell}}$ then

$$d_X(x, y_{n_{k_\ell}}) \le d_X(x, x_{n_{k_\ell}}) + d_X(x_{n_{k_\ell}}, y_{n_{k_\ell}})$$

$$\xrightarrow{\ell \to \infty} 0$$

so $x = \lim_{\ell \to \infty} y_{n_{k_{\ell}}}$. Then we have $f(x) = \lim_{\ell \to \infty} f(y_{n_{k_{\ell}}})$, by continuity, so

$$0 = d_Y(f(x), f(x)) = \lim_{\ell \to \infty} d_Y(f(x_{n_{k_{\ell}}}), f(y_{n_{k_{\ell}}}))$$

contradicts (\star) . Thus, we conclude that f is uniformly continuous.

<u>Definition:</u> A map $f: X \to Y$ $((X, d_X), (Y, d_Y))$ is called Lipschitz if there is $L \ge 0$ such that

$$d_Y(f(x), f(y)) \leq Ld_X(x, y)$$
 for all $x, y \in X$.

Notice that

$$\sup_{x,y\in X,\ x\neq y}\frac{d_Y(f(x),f(y))}{d_X(x,y)}=\inf\{L\geq 0:\ (\text{Lip})\text{ is satisfied }\}$$

so there exists a minimum L satisfying (Lip). We call this the "Lipschitz constant".

Remark: Lipschitz $\stackrel{\text{exercise}}{\Longrightarrow}$ uniform continuity \Longrightarrow continuity Lipschitz ^{assignment}/_≠ uniform continuity ≠ continuity

Theorem 15.3. Any two norms on \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent, i.e. if $\|\cdot\|$, $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^n satisfy $\|\cdot\| \approx \|\cdot\|$, i.e., there are m, M > 0 for which $m||x|| \le |||x||| \le M||x||$.

Proof. Let $\|\cdot\|$ be a norm on \mathbb{R}^n . We will see that $\|\cdot\| \approx \|\cdot\|_1$ ($\|x\|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|$). Since \approx is an equivalence relation, we get $\left\|\cdot\right\|\approx\left\|\cdot\right\|_{1} \text{ so } \left\|\cdot\right\|\approx\left\|\cdot\right\|.$

Let $\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}$ be the standard basis, so if $x\in\mathbb{R}^n,\ x=\sum_{j=1}^n x_je_j$. Then

$$||x|| = \left\| \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} e_{j} \right\| \underbrace{\leq}_{\text{properties of norm } j=1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_{j}| ||e_{j}|| \leq M ||x||_{1} \text{ where } M = \max_{j=1,\dots,n} ||e_{j}||.$$

Notice, then, for x, y in \mathbb{R}^n we have

$$|\|x\|-\|y\|| \underbrace{\leq}_{\text{standard} \leq \text{(shown before completeness of } C_b(X))} \|x-y\| \leq M \|x-y\|_1$$

so $\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is Lipschitz with respect to $d_1(x,y) = \|x-y\|_1$ and thus continuous.

Let $S_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||x||_1 = 1\} = B_1[0,1] \setminus B_1(0,1)$ so S_1 is closed in $B_1[0,1]$. Hence by Heine-Borel Theorem, it is compact.

Hence, by Extreme Value Theorem, there is x_{\min} in S_1 such that

$$||x_{\min}|| = \inf\{||x|| : x \in S_1\}.$$

Let $m = ||x_{\min}|| > 0$ (as $x_{\min} \neq 0$, since $||x_{\min}||_1 = 1 \neq 0$). Now, if $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, then

$$m \le \left\| \underbrace{\frac{1}{\|x\|_1} x} \right\| \Longrightarrow m\|x\|_1 \le \|x\| \qquad (\ddagger)$$

Then (†) and (‡) show that $\|\cdot\| \approx \|\cdot\|_1$.

Corollary 15.1. If $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on \mathbb{R}^n , $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^m and $A:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^m$ is linear. Then A is Lipschitz from $(\mathbb{R}^n,\|\cdot\|)$ to $(\mathbb{R}^m, \|\cdot\|)$, and hence continuous.

Proof. Let $\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}$ be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n , $\{e_1,\ldots,e_m\}$ be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^m . Then there is a matrix $[a_{ij}]$ such that $Ae_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}e_i$. Then for $x = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j e_j$ in \mathbb{R}^m we have

$$Ax = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j A e_j$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} e_j$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_i \right) e_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

so

$$\begin{split} \|Ax\| &\leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{j}| \|e_{i}\|, \qquad M = \max_{j=1,\dots,n} \|e_{i}\| \\ &\leq M \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} |a_{ij}| |x_{j}|, \qquad \|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1,\dots,m,\ j=1,\dots,n} |a_{ij}| \\ &= M \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| |x_{j}| \\ &\leq M \sum_{i=1}^{m} |A|_{\infty} |x|_{1} \\ &= M \|x\|_{1} \leq M \end{split}$$

$$\|x\|_1 \le M\|x\|$$

16 2017-11-01

Proposition 16.1. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$, $(W, \|\cdot\|_W)$ be normed linear spaces, $A: V \to W$ be linear. Then TFAE:

- 1. A is continuous
- $2. \ \ \|A\| := \sup\{\|Ax\|_W : x \in \underbrace{B_V[0,1]}_{\text{closed ball, center 0 in } V}\} < \infty$
- 3. A is Lipschitz map with Lipschitz constant ||A||

Moreover, in the case of (ii) (hence (iii)), above, $||Ax||_W \le ||A|| ||x||_V$ for any x in V.

Proof. (i) \Longrightarrow (ii) A is continuous at 0 in V. Thus, letting $\varepsilon = 1$, there is $\delta > 0$ s.t. $A(B_V(0, \delta)) \subseteq B_W(0, 1)$. Now, if $x \in B_V[0,1]$, then $\frac{\delta}{2}x \in B_V(0,\delta)$, so

$$||Ax||_W = \frac{2}{\delta} \left| \underbrace{A(\frac{\delta}{2}x)}_{\in B(0,1)} \right|_W < \frac{2}{\delta}1 = \frac{2}{\delta} < \infty$$

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{so } \|\!\|A\|\!\| = \sup_{x \in B_V[0,1]} \|Ax\|_W \leq \frac{2}{\delta} < \infty. \\ \text{(ii)} \implies \text{(iii) If } x \in V \setminus \{0\}, \text{ so } \frac{1}{\|x\|_V} x \in B_V[0,1] \text{ and} \end{array}$

$$\|Ax\|_{W} = \|x\|_{V} \underbrace{\left\|A\left(\frac{1}{\|x\|_{V}}x\right)\right\|_{W}}_{<\|A\|} \le \|A\| \|x\|_{V}.$$

Clearly, (\star) holds for x=0 in V. Hence if $x,y\in V$,

$$||Ax - Ay||_W = ||A(x - y)||_W \le ||A|| ||x - y||_V.$$

Thus A is Lipschitz and "Moreover..." holds. Furthermore, by (\star) ,

$$|\!|\!|\!| A |\!|\!| = \sup_{x \in V \backslash \{0\}} \frac{\left\|Ax\right\|_W}{\left\|x\right\|_V} = \sup_{x \neq y \text{ in } V} \frac{\left\|Ax - Ay\right\|_W}{\left\|x - y\right\|_V}$$

which is the definition of the Lipschitz constant.

$$(iii) \Longrightarrow (i)$$
 Obvious.

<u>Remark:</u> Let $B(V, W) = \{A : V \to W \mid A \text{ is linear and continuous}\}$. Notice that (ii) above shows that A must be bounded on $B_V[0, 1]$ and we call A a "bounded linear operator".

B(V, W) is a \mathbb{R} -vector space (pointwise addition and scalar multiplication) and $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on B(V, W), called "bounded operator norm". (Exercise.)

Question: Is continuity automatic for linear operators?

Example: Consider the vector space C[0,1] of continuous \mathbb{R} -valued functions on [0,1]. Let

$$\varphi: C[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}, \ \varphi(f) = f(\frac{1}{2}) \ (\text{evaluation at } \frac{1}{2}).$$

Then φ is linear: let $f, g \in C[0, 1], \ \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\varphi(f + \alpha g) = f(\frac{1}{2}) + \alpha g(\frac{1}{2})$$
$$= \varphi(f) + \alpha \varphi(g)$$

(i) Consider $(C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$. Then

$$|\varphi(f)| = |f(\frac{1}{2})| \le \max_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t)| = ||f||_{\infty}.$$

Thus $\|\varphi\| \le 1$ (easy to show that $\|\varphi\| = 1$), i.e., $\varphi \in B((C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty}), \mathbb{R})$.

(ii) Now consider $(C[0,1],\left\|\cdot\right\|_p)$ (1 $\leq p < \infty). Let$

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t \le \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n^{2p}} \\ n^{2p+1} \left(t - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}}\right) & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n^{2p}} < t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ n^{2p+1} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}} - t\right) & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} < t \le \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}} \\ 0 & t > \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}} \end{cases}$$

[triangular spike at $\left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n^{2p}}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}}\right]$ with peak at $\frac{1}{2}$ having value n.] Notice

$$\varphi(f_n) = f_n(\frac{1}{2}) = n$$

while

$$||f_n||_p = \left(\int_0^1 f_n^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \left(\int_{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n^{2p}}}^{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}}} \underbrace{f_n^p}_{0 \le f_n^p \le n^p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$\le \left(\int_{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n^{2p}}}^{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n^{2p}}} \underbrace{n^p}_{\text{constant}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \left(n^p \frac{2}{n^{2p}}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \frac{2^{\frac{1}{p}}}{n}.$$

Thus

$$\frac{|\varphi(f_n)|}{\|f_n\|_p} = \frac{n}{\frac{2^{\frac{1}{p}}}{n}} = \frac{n^2}{2^{\frac{1}{p}}} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \infty.$$

Hence

$$\varphi \notin B((C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_p), R).$$

Example: (Axiom of choice) If $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is an infinite dimensional normed vector space, then it admits an infinite linearly independent family $\{v_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. There exists a basis $\{w_i\}_{i\in I}$ s.t. $\{v_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}\subseteq \{w_i\}_{i\in I}$.

Define $f: V \to \mathbb{R}$

$$f(w_i) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{\|v_n\|} & \text{if } w_i = v_n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and extend uniquely to a linear operator on V.

Check that $f \notin B(V, \mathbb{R})$.

Why isn't B[0,1] in $(C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ compact?

Reason: existence of subsequence with no converging subsequence [similar holds on $(\ell_p, \|\cdot\|_p)$].

<u>Picture:</u> [triangle spike to height $f_n(t) = 1$ on $\left[\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n}\right]$, 0 elsewhere.]

Calculate that if $m \neq n$, $||f_n - f_m||_{\infty} = 1$. Conclude that $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset B[0,1]$ admits no converging subsequence.

17 2017-11-03

Theorem 17.1 (Banach's Contraction Mapping Theorem). Let (X, d) be a complete metric space and let $\Gamma: X \to X$ be a strict contraction, i.e., there is 0 < c < 1 s.t. $d(\Gamma(x), \Gamma(y)) < cd(x, y)$ for x, y in X (Γ is c-Lipschitz). Then

- (i) there is a unique fixed point x_{fix} for Γ , i.e. $\Gamma(x_{\text{fix}}) = x_{\text{fix}}$,
- (ii) given any x_0 in X, if we define a sequence by $x_n = \Gamma(x_{n-1}), n \in \mathbb{N}$, then it satisfies

$$d(x_n, x_{\text{fix}}) \le \frac{c^n}{1 - c} d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0))$$

and hence $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x_{\text{fix}}$.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$. We define $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ as in (ii), above. We note that $d(x_1, x_2) = d(\Gamma(x_0), \Gamma(x_1)) \leq cd(x_0, x_1) = cd(x_0, \Gamma(x_0))$.

Now, if

$$(\star) d(x_n, x_{n+1}) \le c^n d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0)),$$

then

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}) = d(\Gamma(x_n), \Gamma(x_{n+1})) \le cd(x_n, x_{n+1}) \le c^{n+1}d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0))$$

so (\star) holds generally. Thus, if m < n in \mathbb{N} we have

$$d(x_m, x_n) \le \sum_{j=m}^{n-1} d(x_j, x_{j+1})$$

$$\le \sum_{j=m}^{n-1} c^j d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0)), \text{ by } (\star)$$

$$\le \sum_{j=m}^{\infty} c^j d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0)), \text{ by } (\star) = \frac{c^m}{1-c} d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0)).$$

It follows that $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy, and hence $x_{\text{fix}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$ exists. Then

$$x_{\text{fix}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \Gamma(x_n) \underbrace{=}_{\Gamma \text{ Lipschitz}} \Gamma(\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n) = \Gamma(x_{\text{fix}}).$$

Hence x_{fix} is a fixed point. If y_{fix} is any other fixed point then

$$d(x_{\text{fix}}, y_{\text{fix}}) = d(\Gamma(x_{\text{fix}}), \Gamma(y_{\text{fix}}))$$

$$\leq cd(x_{\text{fix}}, y_{\text{fix}})$$

$$< d(x_{\text{fix}}, y_{\text{fix}}), \text{ if } d(x_{\text{fix}}, y_{\text{fix}}) > 0$$

so we must have $d(x_{\text{fix}}, y_{\text{fix}}) = 0$, i.e. $x_{\text{fix}} = y_{\text{fix}}$. Thus (i) holds. Also we have for m, n, as above,

$$d(x_m, x_n) \le \frac{c^m}{1 - c} d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0)) \Longrightarrow d(x_n, x_{\text{fix}}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_m, x_n) \le \frac{c^m}{1 - c} d(x_0, \Gamma(x_0))$$

so (ii) holds.

Application: Some differentiable equations

Let $F: [a,b] \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous, and $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. We consider the following initial value problem: Want $f \in C[a, b]$, with $f(a) = y_0$ and f'(t) = F(t, f(t)) (IVP).

we use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to convert this to an integral equation:

Want $f \in C[a, b], f(t) = y_0 + \int_a^t F(s, (f(s))) ds$ (IE).

Theorem 17.2 (Picard-Lindelof Theorem). Let F, y_0 be as above and suppose that F is Lipschitz in the second variable: for all $t \in [a, b], y, z \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|F(t,y) - F(t,z)| \le L|y-z|$$
, for some $L > 0$.

Then (IVP) admits a unique solution, f_{sol} in C[a, b].

Proof. (I) Let us assume that (b-a)L < 1. Define $\Gamma: C[a,b] \to C[a,b]$ by, for $t \in [a,b]$,

$$\Gamma(F)(t) = y_0 + \int_a^t F(s, f(s)) ds.$$

Then for $f, g \in C[a, b]$, and $t \in [a, b]$, then

$$\begin{split} |\Gamma(f)(t) - \Gamma(g)(t)| &= |\int_a^t [F(s,f(s)) - F(s,g(s))] ds| \\ &\leq \int_a^t \underbrace{|F(s,f(s)) - F(s,g(s))|}_{\leq L|f(s) - g(s)|} ds \\ &\leq L \int_a^t \underbrace{|f(s) - g(s)|}_{\leq \|f - g\|_{\infty}} ds \\ &\leq L \|f - g\|_{\infty} \int_a^t 1 ds \\ &= L \|f - g\|_{\infty} (t - a) \leq (b - a) L \|f - g\|_{\infty}. \end{split}$$

In summary,

$$\|\Gamma(f) - \Gamma(g)\|_{\infty} = \sup_{t \in [a,b]} \|\Gamma(f)(t) - \Gamma(g)(t)\|$$

$$\leq \underbrace{(b-a)L}_{\leq 1} \|f - g\|_{\infty}.$$

Hence, by the Contraction Mapping Theorem, applied to Γ on $(C[a,b],\|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, there is a unique $f_{\rm sol}$ such that $\Gamma(f_{\rm sol})=f_{\rm sol}$. (II) Let

$$a = a_1 < a_2 < b_1 < b_3 < b_2 < \dots < a_n < b_{n-1} < b_n = b$$

so that $(b_j - a_j)L < 1$ for $j = 1, \ldots, n$.

Notice that $[a_j,b_j] \cap [a_{j+1},b_{j+1}] = [a_j,b_{j+1}]$ has non-empty interior. Let $f_1 \in C[a_1,b_1]$ be the unique solution to (IVP) with $f_1(a) = y_0$, by (I).

Then, let f_2 in $C[a_2, b_2]$ satisfy (IVP) with $f_2(a_2) = f_1(a_2)$. Then, let f_3 in $C[a_3, b_3]$ satisfy (IVP) with $f_3(a_3) = f_2(a_3)$. Etc. Let $f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$f(t) = f_j(t)$$
 for $t \in [a_j, b_j], j = 1, \dots, n$.

Check that this is well-defined. Its value is uniquely determined on each $[a_{j+1}, b_j]$, thanks to uniqueness in (I).

18 2017-11-06

Example: (IVP) Want $f \in C[0, 1]$ s.t.

$$f(0) = 1,$$
 $f'(t) = tf(t).$

We convert to

(IE)
$$f(t) = 1 + \int_0^t s f(s) ds$$
.

This fits into Picard-Lindelof Theorem. Let F(t,y)=ty, so $f(t)=1+\int_0^t F(s,f(s))ds$ with $|F(t,y)-F(t,z)|=\underbrace{|t|}_{\leq 1}|y-z|\leq t$

|y-z|. (Case (II) of Picard-Lindelof.) However, let $\Gamma: C[0,1] \to C[0,1]$ by, for $t \in [0,1]$,

$$\Gamma(f)(t) = 1 + \int_0^t s f(s) ds.$$

Let us see that Γ , itself, is a strict contraction. Let $f, g \in C[0, 1], t \in [0, 1]$,

$$\begin{split} |\Gamma(f)(t) - \Gamma(g)(t)| &\leq \int_0^t s \underbrace{|f(s) - g(s)|}_{\leq \|f - g\|_{\infty}} ds \\ &\leq \int_0^t s ds \|f - g\|_{\infty} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{t^2}{2}}_{\leq \frac{1}{2}} \|f - g\|_{\infty} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \|f - g\|_{\infty}. \end{split}$$

$$(\|\Gamma(f) - \Gamma(g)\|_{\infty} \le \frac{1}{2} \|f - g\|_{\infty})$$

Hence, contraction mapping theorem tells us that Γ has a unique fixed point, ie (IE) and (IVP) have a unique solution, f_{sol} . Furthermore, if we choose $f_0 \in C[0,1]$ and let $f_n = \Gamma(f_{n-1})$ $(n \in \mathbb{N})$ then

$$||f_{\text{sol}} - f_n||_{\infty} \le \underbrace{\frac{(\frac{1}{2})^n}{1 - \frac{1}{2}}}_{= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}} ||f_0 - \Gamma(f_0)||_{\infty}.$$

We can compute f_{sol} .

Let $f_0(t) = 0$ (constant zero).

$$f_1(t) = \Gamma(f_0)(t) = 1 + \int_0^t s0ds = 1$$

$$f_2(t) = \Gamma(f_1)(t) = 1 + \int_0^t s1ds = 1 + \frac{t^2}{2}$$

$$f_3(t) = \Gamma(f_2)(t) = 1 + \int_0^t s(1 + \frac{t^2}{2})ds = 1 + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^4}{4 \cdot 2}$$

(Use induction to check)

$$f_n(t) = 1 + \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^4}{4 \cdot 2} + \dots + \frac{t^{2(n-1)}}{[2(n-1)][2(n-2)] \cdot \dots \cdot 2} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{t^{2(k-1)}}{2^{k-1}(k-1)!}.$$

Thus, at any t in [0,1],

$$f_{\text{sol}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{t^{2(k-1)}}{2^{k-1}(k-1)!} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{t^{2(k-1)}}{2^{k-1}(k-1)!}.$$

Furthermore, for each n,

$$||f_{\text{sol}} - f_n||_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [0,1)} |f_{\text{sol}}(t) - f_n(t)|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} ||0 - \underbrace{\Gamma(0)}_{=1}||_{\infty} = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}.$$

Question: Suppose we only knew that

$$d(\Gamma(x), \Gamma(y)) < d(x, y)$$
 for $x \neq y$ in X.

("proper contraction" instead of "strict contraction")

Does Γ necessarily admit a fixed point?

Answer #1: No.

Example: On $X = [1, \infty) \subset R$, let $\Gamma(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$. If x < y, we have there is $x < c_{x,y} < y$ such that

$$|\Gamma(x) - \Gamma(y)| = |\Gamma'(c_{x,y})||x - y| = |1 - \frac{1}{c_{x,y}^2}||x - y| < |x - y|.$$

Notice: if $\Gamma(x) = x$ we'd have $x = x + \frac{1}{x} \Longrightarrow 0 = \frac{1}{x}$. Hence Γ admits no fixed point in $[1, \infty)$.

Answer #2: Yes, provided we limit (X, d).

Theorem 18.1 (Edelstein). Let (X, d) be compact, and $\Gamma: X \to X$ satisfy $d(\Gamma(x), \Gamma(y)) < d(x, y)$ for $x \neq y$ in X. Then

- (i) Γ admits a unique fixed point x_{fix} , and
- (ii) if $x_0 \in X$, and $x_n = \Gamma(x_{n-1})$ $(n \in \mathbb{N})$, then $x_{\text{fix}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$.

Proof. (i) Let $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = d(x, \Gamma(x))$. Since Γ is continuous, f is continuous. [Check that f is 2-Lipschitz.] Hence, by EVT, there is x_{\min} in X so $f(x_{\min}) = \min f(X)$. Suppose $x_{\min} \neq \Gamma(x_{\min})$, then

$$f(\Gamma(x_{\min})) = d(\Gamma(x_{\min}), \Gamma \circ \Gamma(x_{\min}))$$
$$< d(x_{\min}, \Gamma(x_{\min})) = f(x_{\min})$$

violating choice of x_{\min} . Hence $x_{\min} = \Gamma(x_{\min})$, so write $x_{\min} = x_{\text{fix}}$. If, also, $y = \Gamma(y)$ in X, with $y \neq x_{\text{fix}}$, then

$$d(y, x_{\text{fix}}) = d(\Gamma(y), \Gamma(x_{\text{fix}})) < d(y, x_{\text{fix}})$$

which is absurd.

(ii) Let $x_0 \in X$, $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be as above. Notice that

$$0 \le d(x_{\text{fix}}, x_{n+1}) = d(\Gamma(x_{\text{fix}}), \Gamma(x_0)) < d(x_{\text{fix}}, x_0)$$

so $L = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_{\text{fix}}, x_n)$ exists (decreasing, bounded sequence in \mathbb{R}).

Consider any converging subsequence $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$, with $x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k}$. Then $d(x_{\text{fix}}, x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d(x_{\text{fix}}, x_{n_k}) = I$

If $x \neq x_{\text{fix}}$, then

$$L = \lim_{k \to \infty} d(x_{\text{fix}}, x_{n_k+1}) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d(x_{\text{fix}}, \Gamma(x_{n_k}))$$
$$= d(x_{\text{fix}}, \Gamma(x)) < d(x_{\text{fix}}, x) = L$$

which is absurd. Hence the sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has that x_{fix} is the only possible limit of a subsequence. Thus $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x_{\text{fix}}$ (check!).

19 2017-11-08

Office hours:

Today 2:30-3:30 Tomorrow 2:30-4 Friday 2:30-3:30

19.1 Baire Category Theorem

Definition: Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- (i) A subset $N \subset X$ is called <u>nowhere dense</u> if $(\overline{N})^{\circ} = \emptyset$ (ie. the interior of the closure of N is the empty set). [Equivalently, for any $x \in N, \varepsilon > 0, B(x, \varepsilon) \setminus \overline{N} \neq \emptyset$].
- (ii) A set $S \subseteq X$ will be called meager (or is 1st category) if S is a countable union of nowhere dense sets: i.e.

$$S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n$$
, each $(\overline{N}_n)^{\circ} = \varnothing$.

- (ii') $S \subseteq X$ is non-meager (or is 2nd category) provided that it is not meager.
- (iii) A set $R \subseteq X$ is <u>residual</u> if $X \setminus R$ is meager. Remarks:

nowhere dense \implies meager

residual \implies non-meager (provided (X, d) is complete;

consequence of B.C.T, Baire Category Theorem)

If (X, d) is complete, we think of meager = "small", non-meager = "not small" \iff residual.

Examples:

(i) If $x_0 \in X$, $\{x_0\}$ is nowhere dense $\iff x_0$ is an accumulation point.

- (ii) In $(\mathbb{R}^2, \|\cdot\|_2)$, $\mathbb{R} \times \{0\}$ is meager (exercise).
- (iii) In $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$, the Cantor set C is nowhere dense. Indeed, C is closed. If $t = 0.t_1t_2 \cdots \in C$ (ternary representation), then given $\varepsilon > 0$, find k so $\frac{1}{3^k} < \varepsilon$ and then

$$t' = 0.t_1t_2...t_{k-1}1t_{k+1}\cdots \in B(t,\varepsilon) \setminus C.$$

- (iv) $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} \{q\}$ is meager in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ (using (i)).
- (v) $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} \{q\}$ is meager in $(\mathbb{Q}, |\cdot|)$ (using (i)).

Note: if (X, d) is not complete, it may be meager in itself. [meager sets are interesting in complete settings.]

<u>Remark:</u> If (X,d) is a metric space, $U \subseteq X$ is open and $x_0 \in U$, then there is $\varepsilon > 0$, s.t. $B[x,\varepsilon] \subseteq U$ (Indeed, let $\varepsilon' > 0$ be so $B(x, \varepsilon') \subseteq U$, and $\varepsilon \in (0, \varepsilon')$.

Lemma 19.1. Let (X,d) be a metric space, $N \subset X$. Then N is nowhere dense $\iff \overline{X \setminus \overline{N}} = X$.

Proof.

$$N$$
 is nowhere dense \iff for any $x \in \overline{N}, \varepsilon > 0, B(x, \varepsilon) \setminus \overline{N} \neq \emptyset$
 $\iff x \in \overline{X \setminus \overline{N}} \text{ for any } x \in \overline{N} \cup (X \setminus \overline{N}).$

Theorem 19.1 (Baire Category Theorem). Let (X, d) be a complete metric space.

- (i) Suppose $\{U\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of open sets, each dense in X. Then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$ is dense in X.
- (ii) If $M \subset X$ is meager, then $M^{\circ} = \emptyset$.

Proof. (i) Let $x_0 \in X$ and $\varepsilon_0 > 0$. We wish to show that $B(x_0, \varepsilon_0) \cap \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n \neq \emptyset$.

Since $\overline{U_1} = X$, there is $x_1 \in B(x_0, \varepsilon_0) \cap U_1$ (using meet set characterization of closure). Let $\varepsilon_1 > 0$ be chosen so $B[x_1, \varepsilon_1] \subseteq B(x_0, \varepsilon_0) \cap U_1.$

Since $\overline{U_2} = X$, there is $x_2 \in B(x_1, \varepsilon_1) \cap U_2$.

Let $\varepsilon_2 \in (0, \frac{\varepsilon_1}{2}]$ be so $B[x_2, \varepsilon_2] \subseteq B(x_1, \varepsilon_1) \cap U_2$.

Inductively, having chosen x_n, ε_n , we appeal to the fact that $\overline{U_{n+1}} = X$ to find $x_{n+1} \in B(x_n, \varepsilon_n) \cap U_{n+1}$, then choose $\varepsilon_{n+1} \in (0, \frac{\varepsilon_n}{2}]$ and $B[x_{n+1}, \varepsilon_{n+1}] \subseteq B(x_n, \varepsilon_n) \cap U_{n+1}$. Thus, we have $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X, (\varepsilon_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset (0, \infty)$ s.t.

- (a) $B[x_{n+1}, \varepsilon_{n+1}] \subseteq B(x_n, \varepsilon_n) \subseteq B[x_n, \varepsilon_n]$
- (b) diam $B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] = 2\varepsilon_n \le \varepsilon_{n-1} \le \frac{\varepsilon_{n-2}}{2} \le \cdots \le \frac{\varepsilon_1}{2^{n-1}}$.
- (c) $B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] \subseteq U_n \cap B(x_0, \varepsilon_0)$.

Then (a) & (b), with the Nested Sets Theorem, show that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] \neq \emptyset$. Further, (c) shows that $\emptyset \neq \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B[x_n, \varepsilon_n] \subseteq \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n \cap B(x_0, \varepsilon_0)$. Hence, for any $x_0 \in X$, $\varepsilon_0 > 0$, $B(x_0, \varepsilon_0) \cap \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n \neq \emptyset$, so $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n = X$.

(ii) Write $M = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n$, each $(\overline{N_n})^{\circ} = \emptyset$. Then $U_n = X \setminus \overline{N_n}$ is open, and dense in X, by Lemma. We have

$$X \setminus M = X \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n \supseteq X \setminus \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{N_n} \text{ (as each } N_n \subseteq \overline{N_n})$$
$$= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (X \setminus \overline{N_n}) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$$

so $\overline{X\setminus M}=X$. Thus if $x\in M, \varepsilon>0$, we have $B(x,\varepsilon)\setminus M=B(x,\varepsilon)\cap (X\setminus M)\neq\varnothing$. Thus $x\notin M^\circ$, i.e. $M^\circ=\varnothing$.

Question: Let $\{q_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} = \mathbb{Q}$. Let for n in \mathbb{N}

$$U_n = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{(q_k - \frac{1}{2^{kn+1}}, q_k + \frac{1}{2^{kn+1}})}_{\text{length is } \frac{1}{2^{nk}}}$$

 U_n is a union of intervals, sum of lengths is $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2^n)^k} = \frac{\frac{1}{2^n}}{1 - \frac{1}{2^n}}$

Is $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$?

20 2017-11-10

Remark: In particular, a nonempty open subset in a complete metric space is nonmeager. The whole of X is a nonempty open set.

Corollary 20.1. A residual set in a complete metric space is nonmeager.

Proof. Let $R \subset X$ be residual, so $M = X \setminus R$ is meager, so $X \setminus R = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n$, each $(\overline{N_n})^{\circ} = \emptyset$. If we had that R was meager, i.e. $R = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N'_n$, $(\overline{N'_n}^{\circ}) = \emptyset$, then

$$X = R \cup (X \setminus R) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n' \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} N_n$$
 countable union of nowhere dense sets

But $X^{\circ} = X$, so this contradicts B.C.T.

meager = "small", residual = "bigness", "typical elements"

Definition: Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- 1. $G \subseteq X$ is a G_{δ} -set if $G = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$, each U_n open
- 2. $F \subseteq X$ is an F_{σ} -set if $F = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$, each F_n closed

Examples:

- 1. In A4,Q2, we saw that any closed set is G_{δ} (i') Any open set $U \subseteq X$ is F_{σ} (De Morgan's law)
- 2. $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is <u>not</u> F_{σ} .

First, $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} \{q\}$ is F_{σ} . Second, if $F \subset \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is closed, then F is nowhere dense (this just follows density of \mathbb{Q}). Thus if we had an F_{σ} realization $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n, F_n \subset \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ closed, then $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is meager. Thus,

$$\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{Q} \cup (\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}) = \bigcup_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} \{q\} \cup \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n$$

would be meager which violates B.C.T. (Corollary just stated).

(ii') \mathbb{Q} is not G_{δ} (De Morgan, from (ii)).

In particular

$$\mathbb{Q} \not\subseteq \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{(q_k - \frac{1}{2^{kn+1}}, q_k + \frac{1}{2^{kn+1}})}_{U_n}.$$

$$\{q_k\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \mathbb{Q}.$$

Corollary 20.2. In a complete metric space, a dense G_{δ} -subset is residual.

Proof. In complete (X,d), if $G = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$, each U_n open, and $\overline{G} = X$, then each $\overline{U_n} = X$. Thus, by lemma before B.C.T., each $X \setminus U_n$ is nowhere dense hence $X \setminus G = X \setminus \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (X \setminus U_n)$ is meager.

Theorem 20.1 (Uniform Boundedness Principle). Let (X, d) be a complete metric space and $\{f_i\}_{i \in I} \subset C(X)$ (continuous \mathbb{R} -valued functions) which satisfies for each x

$$\sup_{i \in I} |f_i(x)| < \infty \text{ (pointwise boundedness)}.$$

Then there exists an open $\emptyset \neq U \subseteq X$ s.t.

 $\sup_{i \in I} \sup_{x \in U} |f_i(x)| < \infty \text{ (uniform boundedness on } U).$

Proof. For n in \mathbb{N} , let

$$F_n = \{ x \in X : |f_i(x)| \le n \text{ for all } i \in I \}.$$

By our pointwise boundedness assumption,

$$X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n \qquad (\star).$$

Each F_n is closed:

$$F_n = \bigcap_{i \in I}^{\infty} |f_i|^{-1} ((-\infty, n]) = \bigcap_{i \in I}^{\infty} (X \setminus \underbrace{|f_i|^{-1} (n, \infty)}_{\text{open, as } |f_i(\cdot)| \text{ is continuous}})$$

But B.C.T. tells us that our complete X is non-meager, so for some $n_0,\ F_{n_0}^{\circ}\neq\varnothing$. Let $U=F_{n_0}^{\circ},$ and for all $x\in U\subseteq F_n$

$$|f_i(x)| \le n_0 \text{ for all } i \in I$$

$$\Longrightarrow \sup_{x \in U} |f_i(x)| \le n_0 \text{ for all } i \in I$$

$$\Longrightarrow \sup_{i \in I} \sup_{x \in U} |f_i(x)| \le n_0 < \infty.$$

Corollary 20.3 (Banach-Stenhaus Theorem). Let $(V, \|\cdot\|_V)$ be a Banach space, $(W, \|\cdot\|_W)$ a normed vector space, and $\{T_i\}_{i\in I}\subset B(V,W)$ satisfies

$$\sup_{i \in I} ||T_i x||_W < \infty \text{ for each } x \in V.$$

Then

$$\sup_{i\in I} |\!|\!| T_i |\!|\!| < \infty. \text{ [Recall } |\!|\!| T_i |\!|\!| = \sup_{x\in B_V[0,1]} \!|\!| T_i x |\!|\!|_W.]$$

Proof. Let $f_i(x) = ||T_i x||_W$, for $i \in I, x \in V$, so $\{f_i\}_{i \in I} \subset C(V)$. Our assumption on $\{T_i\}_{i \in I}$, gives pointwise boundedness of $\{f_i\}_{i \in I}$, so U.B.P provides $\varnothing \neq U \subset V$ for which

$$M = \sup_{i \in I} \sup_{x \in U} ||T_i x|| < \infty.$$

As U is open, if $x_0 \in U$, there is $\varepsilon > 0, B[x_0, \varepsilon] \subset U$.

Now if $z \in B_V[0,1]$, then we may write

$$z = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon}(-x_0 + \varepsilon z) + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon}(x_0 + \varepsilon z)$$

and, for i in I, we have

$$\begin{split} \|T_i z\|_W & \leq \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \left\| T_i \big(\underbrace{x_0 - \varepsilon z}_{\in B[x,\varepsilon] \subset U} \big) \right\|_W + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \left\| T_i \big(\underbrace{x_0 + \varepsilon z}_{\in B[x,\varepsilon] \subset U} \big) \right\|_W \\ & \leq \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} M + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} M = \frac{M}{\varepsilon}. \\ \Longrightarrow \|T_i\| & = \sup_{z \in B_V[0,1]} \|T_i z\|_W \leq \frac{M}{\varepsilon} < \infty. \end{split}$$

21 2017-11-13

21.1 Baire-1 Functions

<u>Def:</u> Let $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, so (X, d) is a metric space with relativized metric from \mathbb{R} . A function $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ is called Baire-1 if there is a sequence $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset C(X)$ such that for $t \in X$,

$$f(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(t)$$
 (pointwise limit).

Remark: Unlike uniform limits, pointwise limits of continuous functions need not be continuous.

Example: Let $X = [0, 1], f_n(t) = t^n$. Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t \in [0, 1) \\ 1 & t = 1. \end{cases}$$

Question: Let for t in [0,1],

$$f_n(t) = \cos(n!\pi t)^{n!}^{n!}.$$

If $t = \frac{k}{\ell} \in \mathbb{Q}, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$, then $f_n(t) = 1$, if $t \ge \ell + 1$.

Does $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(t) = \chi_{\mathbb{Q}\cap[0,1]}(t)$ for t in [0,1]?

Answer: No. (Probably the limit does not exist.)

The answer will follow from (corollary to) the next theorem and B.C.T.

Theorem 21.1 (Baire). Let a < b, and $f : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a Baire-1 function, then there is t_0 in (a, b) such that f is continuous at t_0 .

$$\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \underbrace{\lim_{m \to \infty} |\cos(n!\pi t)^m|}_{\chi_{\{\frac{k}{n!}, k \in \mathbb{Z}\}}(t)}$$

Baire-2 = pointwise limit of Baire-1 functions.

At no t_0 is χ_Q continuous, thus <u>not</u> Baire-1.

Proof. Let $f(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(t), t \in (a, b), (f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset C(a, b)$.

(I) Given $\varepsilon > 0$, we will show that there are $\alpha < \beta$ in (a, b), and N_{ε} in \mathbb{N} such that for all $n, m \geq N_{\varepsilon}$,

$$|f_n(t) - f_m(t)| < \varepsilon \text{ for } t \in [\alpha, \beta].$$

Let us proceed by contradiction. Hence, there exists t_1 in (a,b), and $n_1, m_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|f_{n_1}(t_1) - f_{m_1}(t_1)| > \varepsilon.$$

Since each f_{n_1}, f_{m_1} is continuous, there is an open interval $I_1 \subset \overline{I_1} \subset (a, b)$ such that

$$|f_{n_1}(t)-f_{m_1}(t)|>\varepsilon$$
 for $t\in I_1$.

 $[t \longmapsto |f_{n_1}(t) - f_{m_1}(t)|$ is continuous.]

Next, by assumption, there is $t_2 \in I_1$ such that there exist $n_2, m_2 > \max\{n_1, m_1\}$ such that

$$|f_{n_2}(t_2) - f_{m_2}(t_2)| > \varepsilon.$$

Again, as f_{n_2}, f_{m_2} are continuous, there is an open interval $I_2 \subset \overline{I_2} \subset I_1$ such that

$$|f_{n_2}(t) - f_{m_2}(t)| > \varepsilon$$
 for $t \in I_2$.

Inductively, we obtain

• a sequence of intervals

$$\overline{I_1} \supset I_1 \supset \overline{I_2} \supset I_2 \supset \cdots \supset \overline{I_n} \supset I_n \supset \cdots$$
, and

• two increasing sequences $(n_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}, (m_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|f_{n_k}(t) - f_{m_k}(t)| > \varepsilon$$
 for $t \in I_k$.

Thus, by Nested Intervals Theorem, there exists

$$t_0 \in \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \overline{I_k} = \bigcap_{k=2}^{\infty} \overline{I_k} \subseteq \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} I_k$$

so $t_0 \in I_k$ for each k, so

$$|f_{n_k}(t) - f_{m_k}(t)| > \varepsilon. \tag{\dagger}$$

But, by pointwise convergence, $f(t_0) = \lim_{k \to \infty} f_k(t_0)$ so $(f_n(t_0))_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is Cauchy. This violates (†). Hence (I) holds. (II) We use (I), with $\varepsilon = 1$, to find $\alpha_1 < \beta_1$ in (a, b) and N_1 in \mathbb{N} so

$$|f_n(t) - f_m(t)| \le 1 \text{ for } t \in [\alpha_1, \beta_1], \text{ if } n, m \ge N_1.$$

We again use (I), with $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, to find $\alpha_2 < \beta_2$ in (a, b) and N_2 in \mathbb{N} so

$$|f_n(t) - f_m(t)| \le \frac{1}{2} \text{ for } t \in [\alpha_2, \beta_2], \text{ if } n, m \ge N_2.$$

Inductively, we obtain

• intervals

$$(a,b)\supset [\alpha_1,\beta_1]\supset (\alpha_1,\beta_1)\supset [\alpha_2,\beta_2]\supset (\alpha_2,\beta_2)\supset\cdots\supset [\alpha_n,\beta_n]\supset (\alpha_n,\beta_n)\supset\cdots$$
, and

• an increasing sequence $(N_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|f_n(t) - f_m(t)| \le \frac{1}{k} \text{ for } t \in [\alpha_k, \beta_k], \text{ if } n, m \ge N_k.$$
 (‡)

By N.I.T. (Nested Intervals Theorem), there exists

$$t_0 \in \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} [\alpha_k, \beta_k] \subseteq \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} (\alpha_k, \beta_k).$$

Now, given $\varepsilon > 0$, let k in \mathbb{N} so $\frac{1}{k} < \varepsilon$, and then let $\delta = \min\{t_0 - \alpha_k, \beta_k - t_0\} > 0$ so $(t_0 - \delta, t_0 + \delta) \subset (\alpha_k, \beta_k) \subset [\alpha_k, \beta_k]$. Hence by (\ddagger) , we have that

$$|f_n(t) - f_m(t)| \le \frac{1}{k} < \varepsilon$$
 whenever $t \in (t_0 - \delta, t_0 + \delta), n, m \ge N_k$.

Hence $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges "uniformly at t_0 " (see Assignment 6), so f is continuous at t_0 (Assignment 6).

Corollary 21.1. Let a < b in \mathbb{R} , $f : (a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a Baire-1 function. The set $G = \{t \in (a,b) : f \text{ is continuous at } t\}$ is a dense G_{δ} -subset of (a,b). [By B.C.T., $G \subset [a,b]$ is residual.]

Proof. If $t_0 \in (a,b)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, then there exists $t \in (t_0 - \varepsilon, t_0 + \varepsilon) \cap (a,b) \cap G$. I.e. $G \cap (t_0 - \varepsilon, t_0 + \varepsilon) \neq \emptyset$, so $\overline{G} = (a,b)$ (relativized topology). Furthermore, the set G is always G_{δ} (Assignment 6).

Example:

$$\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$$

is <u>not</u> Baire-1 on any interval.

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Corollary 22.1. Let $f \in C(a,b)$ $(a < b \text{ in } \mathbb{R})$ be right differentiable on (a,b). Then f'_+ (right derivative) is continuous on a dense G_{δ} -subset of (a,b). [In particular, if f is differentiable, f' is continuous on a dense G_{δ} -subset.]

Proof. Let $h_n(t) = \min\{b-t, \frac{1}{n}\}$ for n in \mathbb{N} , t in (a, b). Then

$$f_n(t) = \frac{f(t + h_n(t)) - f(t)}{h_n(t)}$$

$$\left(= \frac{f(t + \frac{1}{n}) - f(t)}{\frac{1}{n}}, n \text{ large}\right)$$

satisfies that each $f_n \in C(a, b)$ and

$$f'_{+}(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(t)$$
 for each $t \in (a, b)$.

22.1 On the Banach spaces C(X), X compact

First case X = [a, b], compact interval in \mathbb{R} .

Lemma 22.1. For n in N let $q_n(t) = c_n(1-t^2)^n$ where c_n satisfies

$$1 = c_n \int_{-1}^{1} (1 - t^2)^n dt.$$

Then

(q1) $q_n(t) \ge 0$ for $t \in [-1, 1], n$ in \mathbb{N} (non-negative)

$$(q2) \int_{-1}^{1} q_n(t)dt = 1, n \text{ in } \mathbb{N} \text{ (total mass 1)}$$

(q3) if
$$\delta \in (0,1)$$
, then $\left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^{1}\right) q_n(t) dt \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$ (concentration of mass near 0)

Proof. (q1) and (q2) are obvious. Now for $t \in [0,1]$,

$$t^{2} \le t \Longrightarrow 1 - t \le 1 - t^{2}$$
$$\Longrightarrow (1 - t)^{n} \le (1 - t^{2})^{n}$$

and hence

$$\frac{1}{c_n} = \int_{-1}^{1} (1 - t^2)^n dt = 2 \int_{0}^{1} (1 - t^2)^n dt$$

$$\leq 2 \int_{0}^{1} (1 - t)^n dt = \frac{-2}{n+1} (1 - t)^{n+1} \Big|_{0}^{1} = \frac{2}{n+1}$$

so $c_n \leq \frac{n+1}{2}$. Hence, for $|t| \in (\delta, 1)$, we have

$$q_n(t) = c_n (1 - t^2)^n \le c_n (1 - t^2)^n$$

 $\le \frac{n+1}{2} \underbrace{(1 - t^2)^n}_{\le 1} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0.$

Thus

$$\left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^{1}\right) q_n(t)dt \le \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^{1}\right) \frac{n+1}{2} (1-t^2)^n dt$$
$$= (1-\delta)(n+1)(1-\delta^2)^n \xrightarrow{n\to\infty} 0.$$

Theorem 22.1 (Weierstrauss approximation theorem). Given a < b in \mathbb{R} , $f \in C[a, b]$, there exists a sequence $(p_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of polynomial functions such that

(WA)
$$||p_n - f||_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [a,b]} |p_n(t) - f(t)| \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0.$$

Proof. (I) We condition f. Let $\widetilde{f} \in C[0,1]$ be given by

$$\widetilde{f}(t) = f(a + t(b - a)) - [f(b) - f(a)]t - f(a).$$

So

- $\bullet \ \widetilde{f}(0) = f(b) f(a) = 0$
- $\widetilde{f}(1) = f(b) [f(b) f(a)]1 f(a) = 0.$

If we can find a sequence $(\widetilde{p_n})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of polynomials,

$$\left\|\widetilde{p_n} - \widetilde{f}\right\|_{\infty} = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left|\widetilde{p_n}(t) - \widetilde{f}(t)\right| \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$$

we are done. Indeed, if $s \in [a, b]$, then define each $p_n(s) = \widetilde{p_n}(\frac{1}{b-a}(s-a)) + \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}(s-a) + f(a)$; may be easily shown to satisfy (WA).

(II) Let us assume that

$$f \in C[0,1], f(0) = 0 = f(1).$$

We can extend f to \mathbb{R} by letting f(t) = 0 for $t \in (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$, so $f \in C_b(\mathbb{R})$, but $f(t) \neq 0$ only possibly for $t \in [0, 1]$, and f is uniformly continuous [any function in C[0, 1] is uniformly continuous]. Let $(q_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be as in the last lemma, and let for each n in \mathbb{N} and each t in [0, 1],

$$p_n(t) = \int_0^1 q_n(s-t)f(s)ds.$$

Let us compute, for each n, t,

$$\frac{d^{2n+1}}{dt^{2n+1}}p_n(t) = \int_0^1 \frac{\partial^{2n+1}}{\partial t^{2n+1}} \underbrace{q_n(s-t)}_{\text{function is } 2n+2\text{-times continuously differentiable}} f(s)ds$$

$$= 0, \text{ since } \deg q_n(t) = \deg(1-t^2)^n = 2n.$$

 $\implies p_n$ is a polynomial, $\deg p_n(t) \leq 2n$.

By change of variable u = s - t,

$$p_n(t) = \int_0^1 q_n(s-t)f(s)ds$$

$$= \int_{-t}^{1-t} q_n(u)f(u+t)du$$

$$= \int_{-1}^1 q_n(u)f(u+t)du, \text{ since } f(u+t) \ge 0 \text{ possibly only on } [-t, 1-t].$$

Hence for t in [0,1],

$$|p_n(t) - f(t)| = \left| \int_{-1}^1 q_n(u) f(u+t) du - \underbrace{\int_{-1}^1 q_n(u) f(t) du}_{\text{property } (q2)} \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{-1}^1 q_n(u) |f(u+t) - f(t)| du.$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, let $\delta > 0$ be so $|x - y| < \delta(x, y \in \mathbb{R}) \Longrightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and then

$$|p_n(t) - f(t)| \leq \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} q_n(u) \underbrace{|f(u+t) - f(t)|}_{\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \text{ by choice of } \delta} du + \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^{1}\right) q_n(u) \underbrace{|f(u+t) - f(t)|}_{\leq 2||f||_{\infty}} du$$

$$\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} q_n(u) du + \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^{1}\right) q_n(u) 2||f||_{\infty} du \text{ by } (q1) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + 0.$$

(Continued next lecture.)

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We saw p_n is polynomial, i.e. $d^{2n+1}/dt^{2n+1}p_n(t)=0$. Need approx. Using (q2) we saw for $t \in [0,1]$

$$|p_n(t) - f(t)| \le \int_{-1}^1 \underbrace{q_n(u)}_{(q_1)} |f(u+t) - f(t)| du$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, use uniform continuity of f to find $\delta > 0$ s.t. $|x - y| < \delta \Longrightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

$$|p_n(t) - f(t)| \leq \int_{-1}^1 q_n(u)|f(u+t) - f(t)|du$$

$$= \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} q_n(u)|f(u+t) - f(t)|du + \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^1\right) q_n(u) \underbrace{|f(u+t) - f(t)|}_{\leq 2||f||_{\infty}} du$$

$$\leq \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} q_n(u) \frac{\varepsilon}{2} du + \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^1\right) q_n(u) 2||f||_{\infty} du$$

$$\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \underbrace{\int_{-\delta}^{\delta} q_n(u) du}_{=1(q2)} + 2||f||_{\infty} \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^1\right) q_n(u) du.$$

Hence, if n_{ε} is so $n \geq n_{\varepsilon} \Longrightarrow \left(\int_{-1}^{-\delta} + \int_{\delta}^{1} \right) q_{n}(u) du \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(2\|f\|_{\infty} + 1)}$ we have for $n \geq n_{\varepsilon}$,

$$|p_n(t) - f(t)| \le \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

and we thus have

$$||p_n - f||_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [0,1]} |p_n(t) - f(t)| < \varepsilon$$

and we thus see that $\lim_{n\to\infty} p_n = f$ in $(C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$.

Corollary 23.1. If $f \in C^1[a, b]$ (differentiable on [a, b], with continuous derivative). Then, given $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a polynomial p s.t.

$$||p' - f||_{\infty} < \varepsilon$$

$$||p - f||_{\infty} < (b - a)\varepsilon.$$

Proof. By Weierstrauss approximation theorem, find a polynomial q s.t. $||f'-q||_{\infty} < \varepsilon$. Let $p(t) = f(a) + \int_a^t q(s)ds$. Check that this works. (Remember Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.)

Corollary 23.2. $(C[a,b], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is separable.

Proof. Let $f \in C[a,b], \varepsilon > 0$.

By Weierstrauss approximation theorem, find polynomial p s.t.

$$||f - p||_{\infty} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Write $p(t) = a_0 + a_1 t + \dots + a_n t^n$. For $j = 1, \dots, n$ let $q_j \in \mathbb{Q}$ be such that

$$|a_j - q_j| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(n+1)\max\{|a|^j, |b|^j\}}$$

then let $r(t) = q_0 + q_1 t + \cdots + q_n t^n$.

Check that for each t in [a, b],

$$|p(t) - r(t)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

so $\|p - r\|_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [a,b]} |p(t) - r(t)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$, and thus

$$||f - r||_{\infty} \le ||f - p||_{\infty} + ||p - r||_{\infty} < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem 23.1 (nowhere differentiable functions are generic). Let ND[0,1] denote the set of f in C[0,1] which are nowhere differentiable. Then ND[0,1] is residual in C[a,b].

Proof. Recall for $M, \delta > 0$,

$$F_{M,\delta} = \{ f \in C[0,1] : \text{there is } x \text{ in } [0,1] \text{ so } \frac{|f(x) - f(t)|}{|x - t|} \le M$$
 for all $t \in [0,1] \cap [(x - \delta, x) \cup (x, x + \delta)] \}$

(A5,Q1).

(I) Let us see that each $F_{M,\delta}$ is nowhere dense in $(C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$.

To this end, let $f \in F_{M,\delta}, \varepsilon > 0$.

First, use Weierstrauss approximation to get a polynomial p so $||f-p||_{\infty} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. In particular, p' exists everywhere, let $M' = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} ||p'(t)||.$

Let

$$\varphi:[0,\infty)\to[0,1], \varphi(t)=\begin{cases} t-n & t\in[n,n+1], n\in\{0\}\cup\mathbb{N} \text{ is even}\\ n+1-t & t\in[n,n+1], n\in\mathbb{N} \text{ is odd }. \end{cases}$$

For each k in \mathbb{N} let $\varphi_k(t) = \frac{1}{k}\varphi(k^2t)$. For $s, t \in \left[\frac{n-1}{k^2}, \frac{n}{k^2}\right], n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\frac{|\varphi_k(s) - \varphi_k(t)|}{|s - t|} = k \qquad (\dagger).$$

Now let k be so $\frac{1}{k} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $k - M' > M, \frac{1}{k^2} < \delta$.

Let $\psi_k = p + \varphi_k$ and we have for s, t satisfying (\dagger) ,

$$\begin{split} \frac{|\psi_k(s) - \psi_k(t)|}{|s - t|} &= \left| \frac{p(s) - p(t)}{s - t} - \frac{\varphi_k(s) - \varphi_k(t)}{s - t} \right| \\ &\geq \left| \underbrace{\frac{|\psi_k(s) - \psi_k(t)|}{|s - t|}}_{k} - \underbrace{\frac{|p(s) - p(t)|}{|s - t|}}_{\leq M', \text{ by Mean Value Theorem}} \right| \\ &\geq |k - M'| = k - M' > M. \end{split}$$

Hence
$$\psi_k \notin F_{M,\delta}$$
. And $||f - \psi_k||_{\infty} \le ||f - p||_{\infty} + \left\|\underbrace{p - \psi_k}_{-\varphi_k}\right\|_{\infty} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{1}{k} < \varepsilon$.

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Theorem 24.1. $ND[0,1] = \{f \in C[0,1] : f \text{ is nowhere differentiable}\}\$ is a residual set in $(C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$.

Proof. We saw:

Each

$$F_{M,\delta} = \{ f \in C[0,1] : \exists x \text{ in } [0,1], \frac{|f(x) - f(t)|}{|x - t|} \le M \text{ for } t \in [0,1] \cap [(x - \delta, x) \cup (x, x + \delta)] \}$$

is closed (A5), nowhere dense (I).

(II) Let $SD[0,1] = C[0,1] \setminus ND[0,1]$ ("somewhere differentiable"). If $f \in SD[0,1]$, in A5, it was shown that $f \in F_{M,\delta}$ for some $M > 0, \delta > 0$. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, with $n > \max\{M, \frac{1}{\delta}\}$, then $F_{M,\delta} \subseteq F_{n,\frac{1}{n}}$. Then

$$SD[0,1] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_{n,\frac{1}{n}}, \text{ each } F_{n,\frac{1}{n}} \text{ closed, } F_{n,\frac{1}{n}}^{\circ} = \varnothing.$$

Thus SD[0,1] is meager, so $ND[0,1] = C[0,1] \setminus SD[0,1]$ is residual.

Remark: Baire Category Theorem tells us that in the complete metric space $(C[0,1],\|\cdot\|_{\infty})$. residual = "large" = "generic"

TOWARDS STONE-WEIERSTRAUSS THEOREM 24.1

Notation: (lattice structure)

Let X be non-empty, $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$. Define

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{("join")} & f \vee g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f \vee g(x) = \max\{f(x), g(x)\} \\ \text{("meet", min)} & f \wedge g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f \wedge g(x) = \min\{f(x), g(x)\}. \end{array}$$

Proposition 24.1. Let (X,d) be a (compact) metric space, $f,g \in C(X)$. Then $f \vee g, f \wedge g \in C(X)$.

Proof. If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\max\{a, b\} = \frac{1}{2}(a+b) + \frac{1}{2}|a-b|$.

Hence

$$f\vee g=\frac{1}{2}(f+g)+\frac{1}{2}\underbrace{|f-g|}_{f-g\text{ compact with }|\cdot|}\in C(x).$$

Also $\min\{a, b\} = -\max\{-a, -b\}$, so

$$f \wedge g = -(-f) \vee (-g) \in C(X).$$

Notation: A family $\mathcal{L} \subseteq C(X)$ is called a <u>lattice</u> if for each $f, g \in \mathcal{L}, f \vee g, f \wedge g \in \mathcal{L}$. Notice if $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in \mathcal{L}$,

$$f_1 \lor f_2 \in \mathcal{L}$$

$$\Longrightarrow f_1 \lor f_2 \lor f_3 \in \mathcal{L}$$

: (obvious induction)

$$\Longrightarrow f_1 \vee \cdots \vee f_n \in \mathcal{L}.$$

Likewise $f_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge f_n \in \mathcal{L}$.

Theorem 24.2 (Stone). Let (X,d) be a compact metric space and let the lattice $\mathcal{L} \subseteq C(X)$ satisfy

- \mathcal{L} is a \mathbb{R} -space
- $1 \in \mathcal{L}$ (contains constant function)
- \mathcal{L} separates points: if $x \neq y$ in X, there exists $\varphi \in \mathcal{L}$, so $\varphi(x) \neq \varphi(y)$.

Then $\overline{\mathcal{L}} = C(X)$ (\mathcal{L} is uniformly dense in C(X)).

Proof. Suppose $x \neq y$ in X and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Since \mathcal{L} separates points, there is $\varphi \in \mathcal{L}$ with $\varphi(x) \neq \varphi(y)$. Then

$$g = \alpha 1 + \frac{\beta - \alpha}{\varphi(y) - \varphi(x)} [\varphi - \varphi(x)1] \in \mathcal{L} \text{ as } 1 \in \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L} \text{ is a } \mathbb{R}\text{-subspace}$$

with $g(x) = \alpha, g(x) = \beta$.

Fix $f \in C(X), \varepsilon > 0$.

(I) Fix x in X. For each y in X, letting $\alpha = f(x), \beta = f(y)$, if $y \neq x$, we have that there is

$$g_{x,y} \in \mathcal{L} \text{ s.t. } g_{x,y}(x) = f(x), g_{x,y}(y) = f(y).$$

Since each $f, g_{x,y}$ are continuous (near y), there are $\delta_y > 0$ so that

$$d(z,y) < \delta_y \Longrightarrow g_{x,y}(z) < f(z) + \varepsilon$$
 i.e. $g_{x,y} < f + \varepsilon$ on $B(y,\delta_y)$

(i.e.
$$g_{x,y} - f$$
 is 0 at y so $\langle \varepsilon |$ in a neighbourhood of y)

Since $X = \bigcup_{y \in X} B(y, \delta_y)$, by compactness, there are y_1, \ldots, y_m s.t. $X = \bigcup_{j=1}^m B(y_j, \delta_{y_j})$. Let

$$g_x = g_{x,y_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge g_{x,y_m} \in \mathcal{L}$$

and we have $g_x \leq g_{x,y} < f + \varepsilon 1$.

Notice that $g_x(x) = \min\{f_{x,y_1}(x), \dots, f_{x,y_m}(x)\} = f(x).$

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Small goof up:

Then we let $g_x = g_{x,y_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge g_{x,y_m} \in \mathcal{L}$.

Now, if $z \in X$, then $z \in B(y_j, \delta_{y_j})$ for some j = 1, ..., m and then

$$g_x(z) = g_{x,y_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge g_{x,y_n} \leq g_{x,y_i}(z) < f(z) + \varepsilon$$
, property of δ_{y_i} w.r.t. y_j

so we have

$$g_x < f + \varepsilon 1$$
, and $g_x(x) = f(x)$.

(II) For each x in X, we found $g_x \in \mathcal{L}$ s.t. $g_x < f + \varepsilon 1, g_x(x) = f(x)$.

Hence $g_x(x) = f(x) < f(x) + \varepsilon$ at each x, so there is $\delta_x > 0$, s.t.

$$g_x(z) > f(z) - \varepsilon$$
 for $z \in B(x, \delta_x)$.

We have $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} B(x, \delta_x)$ so there are $x_1, \dots, x_n \in X$ so $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B(x_i, \delta_{x_i})$. We then let

$$g = g_{x_1} \vee \cdots \vee g_{x_n} \in \mathcal{L}.$$

For $z \in X$, $z \in B(x_j, \delta_{x_i})$ for some j = 1, ..., n, so

$$g(z) \ge g_{x_i}(z) > \cdots > f(z) - \varepsilon$$

and thus

$$q > f - \varepsilon 1$$
.

Furthermore, each $g_{x_i} < f + \varepsilon 1$, so if $z \in X$, then $g(z) = g_{x_i}(z)$ for some j, so

$$g(z) = g_{x_i}(z) < f(z) + \varepsilon \Longrightarrow g < f + \varepsilon 1$$

i.e. $f - \varepsilon 1 < g < f + \varepsilon 1$, so $g \in B(f, \varepsilon)$ in $(C(X), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$.

In summary, given $f \in C(X), \varepsilon > 0, B(f, \varepsilon) \cap \mathcal{L} \neq \emptyset$. Hence, $\overline{\mathcal{L}} = C(X)$.

Corollary 25.1. (i) Let $\mathcal{L} = \{ f \in C[a, b] : f \text{ is piecewise affine (A5)} \}$. Then $\overline{\mathcal{L}} = C[a, b]$.

(ii) Let C be the Cantor set and $\mathcal{L} = \{ f \in C(C) : |f(C)| < \aleph_0 \}$. Then $\overline{\mathcal{L}} = C(C)$.

<u>Definition</u>: Let (X,d) be a (compact) metric space. A subset $A \subseteq C(X)$ is called an algebra if for $f,g \in A, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$f + \alpha g \in A$$
 (A is a \mathbb{R} -subspace)

 $fq \in A$ (A is closed under pointwise multiplication)

(If $f, g \in C(X)$, then $fg \in C(X)$, too.) If $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in A$, $f_1 \cdots f_n \in A$ too. If $1 \in A$, and $p(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i t^i$, then for $f \in A$,

$$p \circ f = a_0 1 + a_1 f + a_2 f^2 + \dots + a_n f^n \in A.$$

$$(f^k(x) = f(x)^k \text{ for } x \in X.)$$

Theorem 25.1 (Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem). If (X,d) is a compact metric space, $A \subseteq C(X)$ satisfies

- \bullet A is an algebra
- 1 ∈ A
- A separates points: for $x \neq y$ in X, there is $g \in A$ so $g(x) \neq g(y)$

Then $\overline{A} = C(X)$ (uniform closure).

Proof. (I) If $f \in A$, then $|f| \in \overline{A}$. First, since (X,d) is compact, f continuous, $f(X) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact, hence bounded, so there is a > 0 s.t. $f(X) \subseteq [-a,a]$. Now, the Weierstrauss approximation theorem provides $(p_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of polynomials s.t. $||p_n - | \cdot |||_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [-a,a]} |p_n(t) - |t|| \to 0$. Hence $||p_n \circ f - |f|||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in X} |p_n(f(x)) - |f(x)|| \to 0$ Each $p_n \circ f \in A$.

(II) Since A is a \mathbb{R} -subspace, so is \overline{A} (A4 Q1). If $f, g \in \overline{A}$, let $f = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n, g = \lim_{n \to \infty} g_n$ under uniform limits, each $f_n, g_n \in A$. Then

$$f \lor g = \frac{1}{2}(f+g) + \frac{1}{2}|f-g|$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(f_n + g_n)}_{\in A \subseteq \overline{A}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}|f_n - g_n|}_{\in A \text{ by (I)}} \in \overline{A}$$

since \overline{A} is closed.

Also, $f \wedge g = -(-f) \vee (-g) \in \overline{A}$ as well.

 $\Longrightarrow \overline{A}$ is a \mathbb{R} -subspace and a lattice. Also, $1 \in A \subseteq \overline{A}$, and A separates points, hence \overline{A} separates points. Thus \overline{A} is dense in C(X), but is closed, so $\overline{A} = C(X)$.

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Example: Let $I = [a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n]$ be a non-empty compact interval in \mathbb{R}^n . A polynomial on I is any function

$$p(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \sum_{j_1, \dots, j_n = 1}^{N} a_{j_1, \dots, j_n} t_1^{j_1} \cdots t_n^{j_n}$$

where each $a_{j_1,...,j_n} \in \mathbb{R}, N \in \mathbb{N}$. By Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem, the family P(I) of polynomial functions is dense in C(I). Example: Let $(X, d_X), (Y, d_Y)$ be compact metric spaces. Let $\|\cdot\|$ be a norm on \mathbb{R}^2 . Define

$$\rho(X\times Y)\times (X\times Y)\to [0,\infty)$$
 by

$$\rho((x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)) = \|(d_X(x_1, x_2), d_Y(y_1, y_2))\|.$$

It is "obvious" that ρ is a metric on $X \times Y$.

(Usually, $\|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_{\infty}, \|\cdot\|_{1}, \|\cdot\|_{2}$ on \mathbb{R}^{2} .)

Furthermore, $(X \times Y, \rho)$ is compact. Indeed, let $((x_n, y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X \times Y$ be a sequence. Then $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ admits a converging subsequence: let $x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k} \in X$. Then $(y_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq Y$ admits a converging subsequence: let $y = \lim_{\ell \to \infty} y_{n_{k_{\ell}}} \in Y$. Notice that

$$\begin{split} & \rho((x,y),(x_{n_{k_{\ell}}},y_{n_{k_{\ell}}})) \\ & = \left\| (d_X(x,x_{n_{k_{\ell}}}),d_Y(y,y_{n_{k_{\ell}}})) \right\| \\ & \leq d_X(x,x_{n_{k_{\ell}}}) \| (1,0) \| + d_Y(y,y_{n_{k_{\ell}}}) \| (0,1) \| \\ & \xrightarrow{\ell \to \infty} 0. \end{split}$$

Hence $((x_{n_{k_{\ell}}}, y_{n_{k_{\ell}}}))_{\ell=1}^{\infty}$ is a converging subsequence of $((x_n, y_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Suppose that each $A_X \subseteq C(X)$ and $A_Y \subseteq C(Y)$, each satisfy assumptions of Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem. If $f \in A_X, g \in A_Y$,

$$f \otimes g : X \times Y \to \mathbb{R}, f \otimes g(x, y) = f(x)g(y).$$

Let $A_X \otimes A_Y = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}} \{ f \otimes g : f \in A_X, g \in A_Y \}$. Convince yourself that $A_X \otimes A_Y \subseteq C(X \times Y)$ and satisfies assumptions of Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem.

Hence $\overline{A_X \otimes A_Y} = C(X \times Y)$ (uniform closure).

Corollary 26.1 (Stone-Weierstrauss without constant functions). Let (X, d) be a compact metric space, and $A \subseteq C(X)$ satisfy

- A is an algebra
- A separates points
- there is x_0 in X s.t. $f(x_0) = 0$ for f in A.

Then $\overline{A} = C_{x_0}(X) := \{ f \in C(X) : f(x_0) = 0 \}.$

Proof. First, $C_{x_0}(X)$ is closed in C(X). (Let $\varphi: C(X) \to \mathbb{R}$, $\varphi(f) = f(x_0)$, which is linear and continuous: $\|\varphi\| \le 1$ (seen before). Then $C_{x_0}(X) = \varphi^{-1}(\{0\}) = C(X) \setminus \varphi^{-1}(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})$. Since $A \subseteq C_{x_0}(X) \Longrightarrow \overline{A} \subseteq C_{x_0}(X)$.)

Second, note that $\mathbb{R}1 + A = \{\alpha 1 + f : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, f \in A\}$ satisfies $\overline{\mathbb{R}1 + A} = C(X)$. If $g \in \mathbb{R}1 + A$, write $g = \alpha 1 + h$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $h \in A$, and $g(x_0) = \alpha + h(x_0) = \alpha$ so $g = g(x_0)1 + h$.

Now, if $f \in C_{x_0}(X)$, there exists $(g_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{R}1 + A$ s.t. $||f - g||_{\infty} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$ (Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem). Write each $g_n = g_n(x_0)1 + h_n$ where $h_n \in A$. Notice that $0 = f(x_0) = \lim_{n \to \infty} g_n(x_0)$. Hence

$$||f - h_n||_{\infty} \le ||f - (g_n(x_0)1 + h_0)||_{\infty} + ||g_n(x_0)||_{\infty}$$

$$= ||f - g_n||_{\infty} + |g_n(x_0)| \qquad (||1||_{\infty} = 1)$$

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

Thus $C_{x_0}(X) \subseteq \overline{A}$.

 $\underline{\mathrm{Def:}} \ \mathrm{Let} \ C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) = \{ \overline{f} \in C(\mathbb{R}) : \lim_{|t| \to \infty} f(t) = 0 \}. \ \mathrm{Then} \ C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \underbrace{\subseteq}_{\mathrm{exercise}} C_b(\mathbb{R}) \ \mathrm{and} \ \mathrm{is} \ \mathrm{a} \ \mathrm{closed} \ \mathrm{subspace.} \ (L_{\pm} : C_b(\mathbb{R}) \to 0) \}$

 $\mathbb{R}, L_{\pm}(f) = \lim_{t \to \pm \infty} f(t)$, then L_{+}, L_{-} are linear and with $\|L_{\pm}\| \le 1$. Then $C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) = L_{+}^{-1}(\{0\}) \cap L_{-}^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed.)

Corollary 26.2. Let $A \subseteq C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ satisfy that

- A is an algebra
- A separates points
- for each t of \mathbb{R} , there is $f \in A$ s.t. $f(t) \neq 0$.

Then $\overline{A} = C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ (uniform closure).

Proof. (Sketch of proof) $\psi : \mathbb{R} \to (-1,1), \psi(t) = \frac{t}{|t|+1}$, then ψ is continuous and bijective with $\psi^{-1}(-1,1) \to \mathbb{R}$ continuous. Let $S = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$.

$$\varphi(-1,1) \to S \setminus \{(-1,0)\}$$

 $\varphi(s) = (\cos(\pi s), \sin(\pi s))$

so φ is a continuous bijection with continuous inverse. Hence, $\varphi \circ \psi : \mathbb{R} \to S \setminus \{(-1,0)\}$ is a <u>homeomorphism</u>, i.e. continuous bijection with continuous inverse. Define

$$\Psi: C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R}) \to C_{(-1,0)}(S) \Psi(f)(x,y) = f(\psi^{-1} \circ \varphi^{-1}(x,y)).$$

Check that Ψ is a surjective isometry, between $(C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R}), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ and $(C_{(-1,0)}(S), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, and hence has isometric inverse. We have $\Psi(A) \subseteq C_{(-1,0)}(S)$ satisfies assumptions of last corollary, so $\overline{\Psi(A)} = C_{(-1,0)}(S)$ but it follows that $\overline{A} = \Psi^{-1}(\overline{\Psi(A)}) = C_{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$.

27 2017-11-27

Today's subject: towards Arzela-Ascoli Theorem (by guest lecturer)

<u>Def:</u> Let (X, d) be a complete metric space. Let $F \subseteq X$ be a subset. We say F is <u>relatively compact</u> if \overline{F} is compact. (Here \overline{F} means the closure of F.)

Proposition 27.1 (Properties of relatively compact subsets). Let (X, d) be a metric space, $F \subseteq X$. TFAE:

- 1. F is relatively compact
- 2. Every sequence (x_n) admits a Cauchy subsequence (x_{n_k})
- 3. F is totally bounded

Proof. (i) \Longrightarrow (ii) Let (x_n) be a sequence in F. Since (x_n) is in \overline{F} and \overline{F} is compact, (x_n) has a Cauchy subsequence (x_{n_k}) (that may converge to a point in $\overline{F} \setminus F$).

(ii) \Longrightarrow (i) Let (x_n) be a sequence in \overline{F} . We want to show there is a subsequence (x_{n_k}) converging to a point in \overline{F} (note this is nonempty by characterization of the closure).

Now, by (ii), there is a Cauchy subsequence (y_{n_k}) .

<u>Claim:</u> (x_{n_k}) is Cauchy.

For $k, \ell \geq 1$,

$$d(x_{n_k}, x_{n_\ell}) \le d(x_{n_k}, y_{n_k}) + d(y_{n_k}, y_{n_\ell}) + d(x_{n_\ell}, y_{n_\ell})$$

$$\le \frac{1}{n_k} + d(y_{n_k}, y_{n_\ell}) + \frac{1}{n_\ell} \xrightarrow{k, \ell \to \infty} 0.$$

(i) \Longrightarrow (iii) \overline{F} is totally bounded since it is compact. So for $\frac{\varepsilon}{2} > 0$, there are $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \overline{F}$ s.t. $B(x, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$ covers \overline{F} (i.e. $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B(x_i, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \supseteq \overline{F}$.)

For each i, choose $y_i \in B(x_i, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \cap F$. Then $B(y_1, \varepsilon) \supseteq B(x_i, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$ so y_1, \ldots, y_n is an ε -net for F.

(iii) \Longrightarrow (i) Since F is totally bounded, there is an ε -net $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in F$. So

$$F \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B(y_{i}, \varepsilon)$$

$$\Longrightarrow \overline{F} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \overline{B(y_{i}, \varepsilon)}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B(y_{i}, 2\varepsilon).$$

So \overline{F} is totally bounded.

<u>Def:</u> [Equicontinuity] Let (X, d) be a (compact) metric space. A subset $F \subseteq C(X)$ is equicontinuous if for $\varepsilon > 0$ and $x \in X$ there is $\delta > 0$ s.t. if $d(x, y) < \delta$ then $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon \forall f \in F$ (holds for all f simultaneously).

Lemma 27.1. If (X,d) is compact and $F \subseteq C(X)$ then F is equicontinuous \iff F is uniformly equicontinuous meaning for $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $\delta > 0$ s.t. if $x, y \in X$ and $d(x, y) < \delta$ then $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon \forall f \in F$.

Proof. If F is uniformly equicontinuous it is clearly equicontinuous.

For the other direction, fix $\varepsilon > 0$. For each x there is δ_x s.t. if $d(x,y) < \delta_x$ then $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon/2 \forall f \in F$. Then $(B(x,\delta_x))_{x \in X}$ is an open cover. Let $\delta > 0$ be the corresponding Lebesgue covering number. So for any $y \in X$, $B(y, \delta) \subseteq B(x, \delta_x)$ for some $x \in X$. So if $y, z \in X$ with $d(y, z) < \delta$, choose $x \in X$ s.t. $B(y, \delta) \subseteq B(x, \delta_x)$, then

$$|f(y) - f(z)| \le |f(y) - f(x)| + |f(x) - f(z)| \qquad (z \in B(x, \delta_x))$$

$$< \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$$

Ex: Let F be a set of differentiable functions from [0,1] to \mathbb{R} s.t. $|f'(x)| \leq M \forall f \in F, x \in [0,1]$ for some M. By the MVT, for $x, y \in [0, 1]$ there is $z \in [0, 1]$ s.t. $M \ge |f'(z)| = \frac{|f(y) - f(x)|}{|y - x|}$.

$$|f(y) - f(x)| \le M|y - x| \forall y, x \in [0, 1], \forall f \in F.$$

Now take $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{M}$. Then if $|x - y| < \delta$ then

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le M|x - y|$$

 $< M\frac{\delta}{M} = \delta.$

28 2017-11-29

Office Hours: Today: 2:30-4:30 Tomorrow: 2-4 pm

Last time:

In complete (X, d), TFAE:

- (i) relative compactness
- (ii) every sequence admits a Cauchy subsequence
- (iii) total boundedness

Discussed for $F \subset C(X)$:

- equicontinuity \Longrightarrow uniform equicontinuity if (X, d) compact
- pointwise boundedness

Theorem 28.1 (Arzela-Ascoli Theorem). Let (X,d) be a compact metric space, $F \subset C(X)$. Then

F is relatively compact in $(C(X), \|\cdot\|_{\infty}) \iff F$ is both equicontinuous and pointwise bounded.

Proof. (\Longrightarrow) F is totally bounded. In particular, F is bounded: $\sup_{f \in F} ||f||_{\infty} < \infty$ (totally bounded \Longrightarrow bounded). Hence for x in X, $\sup_{f \in F} |f(x)| < \sup_{f \in F} \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)| = \sup_{f \in F} |f|_{\infty} < \infty$. Given $\varepsilon > 0$, let $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in F$ s.t. $F \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^n B[f_j, \frac{\varepsilon}{3}]$. Let for $j = 1, \ldots, n$, $\delta_j > 0$ be so for x, y in X, $d(x, y) < \delta_j \Longrightarrow |f_j(x) - f_j(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ (uniform continuity of f_j). Then let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_n\}$ and then for x, y in X, $d(x, y) < \delta$, we have for

f in F, then $f \in B[f_j, \frac{\varepsilon}{3}]$ for some j. Then

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le |f(x) - f_j(x)| + |f_j(x) - f_j(y)| + |f_j(y) - f(y)| < ||f - f_j||_{\infty} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + ||f - f_j||_{\infty} < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon.$$

Hence, F is (uniformly) equicontinuous, thus equicontinuous. (\Leftarrow) Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset X$ satisfy that there are $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \cdots$ for which

$$X = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{j=1}^{n_k} B[x_j, \frac{1}{k}] \qquad (\dagger)$$

(assignment 5, (X, d) compact $\Longrightarrow (X, d)$ separable).

Now, let $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq F$. We wish to extract a uniformly Cauchy subsequence, hence showing F is relatively compact.

(I) Let us extract a candidate Cauchy subsequence. This technique is a variant of "Cantor's diagonalization argument". First, $(f_n(x_1))_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is bounded (pointwise bounded assumption) so by Bolzano-Weierstrauss admits a Cauchy subsequence $(f_{n_k}(x_1))_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{R}$. Let $f_{1,k} = f_{n_k}$ for each k. Second, $(f_{1,n}(x_2))_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is bounded, and again admits a Cauchy subsequence $(f_{1,n_k}(x_2))_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{R}$. Let $f_{2,k} = f_{1,n_k}$.

Inductively, we continue. We build sequences $(f_{1,k})_{k=1}^{\infty}, (f_{2,k})_{k=1}^{\infty}, \dots, (f_{n,k})_{k=1}^{\infty}, \dots \subseteq F$ which satisfy

- m < n, $(f_{n,k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a subsequence of $(f_{m,k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$
- $(f_{n,k}(x_n))_{k=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is Cauchy.

We now let

$$g_n = f_{n,n}$$
.

Then $(g_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$ is a subsequence of $(f_{m,n})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ so $(g_n(x_m))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in \mathbb{R} , (being a subsequence of $(f_{m,n}(x_m))_{n=1}^{\infty}$). Thus $(g_n(x_m))_{m=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy for each m in \mathbb{N} , and $(g_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a subsequence of $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

(II) Let us show that $(g_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in $(C(X), \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, i.e., Cauchy in $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$.

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, our set F, being equicontinuous on compact (X, d), is uniformly equicontinuous (lemma Monday), so there is $\delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ whenever $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) < \delta$ and $f \in F$.

Now, let k in \mathbb{N} satisfy $\frac{1}{k} < \delta$, and we have from (\dagger) that $X = \bigcup_{j=1}^{n_k} B[x_j, \delta]$. Now, for $j = 1, \ldots, n_k$, let N_j in \mathbb{N} be s.t. $m, n \ge N_j \Longrightarrow |g_m(x_j) - g_n(x_j)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ (i.e. $(g_n(x_j))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy). Let $N = \max\{N_1, \dots, N_{n_k}\}$. If $x \in X$, so $x \in B[x_j, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}]$ for some $j = 1, \dots, n_k$, and we have for $m, n \geq N$ that

$$\begin{split} |g_m(x)-g_n(x)| &\leq |g_m(x)-g_m(x_j)| + |g_m(x_j)-g_n(x_j)| + |g_n(x_j)-g_n(x)| \\ &< \underbrace{\frac{\varepsilon}{3}}_{\text{thanks to uniform equicontinuity of } F; g_n \in F}_{\text{thanks to uniform equicontinuity of } F; g_n \in F \\ &+ \underbrace{\frac{\varepsilon}{3}}_{\text{3}}_{\text{thanks to uniform equicontinuity of } F; g_n \in F \end{split}$$

Hence $||g_m - g_n||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in X} |g_m(x) - g_n(x)| < \varepsilon$.

– END OF FINAL LINE (except Assignment 7) –

29 2017-12-01

Theorem 29.1 (Peano's Theorem). Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be open and $F: D \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous, and $(t_0, y_0) \in D$. Then there are a < b in \mathbb{R} so $t_0 \in (a, b)$ for which

(IVP)
$$f'(t) = F(t, f(t)), f(t_0) = y_0, t \in (a, b)$$

admits a solution.

(This is stronger than Picard-Lindelof, which required a Lipschitz condition on the second variable of a two variable function.) The solution here may not be unique.

Proof. (Most of proof):

(I) (Get a < b.) Let $R = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2] \subset D$ (compact interval) so $(t_0, y_0) \in R^{\circ}$ (interior), and let $M = \max_{(t, y) \in R} |F(t, y)|$.

We let

$$W = \{(t, y) \in D : |y - y_0| \le M|t - t_0|\}$$

and a < b in \mathbb{R} so

$$([a,b]\times\mathbb{R})\cap W\subset R.$$

(II) (Work on $[t_0, b]$, find a particular family of piecewise affine functions.) Given $\varepsilon > 0$, the uniform continuity of F on R provides $\delta > 0$ such that

$$(s,x),(t,y) \in R \text{ with } \max\{|s-t|,|x-y|\} = \|(s,x)-(t,y)\|_{\infty} < \delta$$

 $\Longrightarrow |F(s,x)-F(t,y)| < \varepsilon.$

We partition $[t_0, b], t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$, so $\max_{j=1,\dots,n} (t_j - t_{j-1}) < \frac{\delta}{M+1}$ (let M = 0). We define $f_{\varepsilon} : [t_0, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ inductively by

$$f_{\varepsilon}(t) = \begin{cases} y_0 + F(t_0, y_0)(t - t_0) & t \in [t_0, t_1] \\ f_{\varepsilon}(t_1) + F(t_1, f_{\varepsilon}(t_1))(t - t_1) & t \in (t_1, t_2] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ f_{\varepsilon}(t_{n-1}) + F(t_{n-1}, f_{\varepsilon}(t_{n-1}))(t - t_{n-1}) & t \in (t_{n-1}, t_n] \end{cases}$$

Two nice properties (exercise):

- graph of f_{ε} on $[t_0, b]$ is in R, so $\max_{t \in [t_0, b]} |f_{\varepsilon}(t)| \leq \max\{|a_2|, |b_2|\}$
- if s < t in $[t_0, b]$, then $|f_{\varepsilon}(t) f_{\varepsilon}(s)| \le M|t s|$ (†).

These estimates are independent of ε . I.e. if we form $K = \{f_{\varepsilon}\}_{{\varepsilon} \in (0,\infty)}$ it is

• pointwise bounded & equi-Lipschitz \implies (uniformly) equicontinuous.

Hence K is relatively compact.

(III) (Relate $K = \{f_{\varepsilon}\}_{{\varepsilon} \in (0,\infty)}$ to the (IVP).) Fix f_{ε} , ${\varepsilon}$ and ${\delta}$ as in $({\varepsilon} - {\delta})$ above. If $t \in (t_j, t_{j+1}), j = 0, \ldots, n-1$ then

$$f_{\varepsilon}'(t) = F(t_i, f_{\varepsilon}(t_i)).$$
 (*)

Also, for such t as above, then $|t - t_j| < \frac{\delta}{M+1}$ so by (†)

$$|f_{\varepsilon}(t) - f_{\varepsilon}(t_j)| \le M|t - t_j| \le \delta \frac{M}{M+1} < \delta$$

so, by choice of δ ,

$$|F(t, f_{\varepsilon}(t)) - F(t_{j}, f_{\varepsilon}(t_{j}))| < \varepsilon$$

$$(\text{using } (\star)) \implies |F(t, f_{\varepsilon}(t)) - f'_{\varepsilon}(t)| < \varepsilon \quad (\star\star).$$

Thus for $t \in [t_0, b]$ we have

$$f_{\varepsilon}(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f'_{\varepsilon}(s)ds$$
 (piecing together F.T. of C., as $f'_{\varepsilon}(t)$ exists except at t_1, \dots, t_{n-1})
$$= y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t F(s, f_{\varepsilon}(s))ds + \int_{t_0}^t [f'_{\varepsilon}(s) - F(s, f_{\varepsilon}(s))]ds$$

Let $\widetilde{f}_{\varepsilon}(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t F(s, f_{\varepsilon}(s)) ds$, and we have for $t \in [t_0, b]$

$$|f_{\varepsilon}(t) - \widetilde{f}_{\varepsilon}(t)| \le \int_{t_0}^{t} |\underbrace{f'_{\varepsilon}(s) - F(s, f_{\varepsilon}(s))}_{<\varepsilon}| ds$$

$$(\star \star \star) \le (t - t_0)\varepsilon \le (b - t_0)\varepsilon.$$

We now consider a sequence $(f_{\frac{1}{n}})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq K$. By relative compactness, we get a uniformly Cauchy, hence uniformly converging subsequence $(f_{\frac{1}{n_k}})_{k=1}^{\infty}, f = \lim_{k \to \infty} f_{\frac{1}{n_k}}$ (uniform limit). Let $\widetilde{f}(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t F(s, f(s)) ds$. We have

$$\left\|f-\widetilde{f}\right\|_{\infty} \leq \left\|f-f_{\frac{1}{n_k}}\right\|_{\infty} + \left\|f_{\frac{1}{n_k}}-\widetilde{f}_{\frac{1}{n_k}}\right\|_{\infty} + \left\|\widetilde{f}_{\frac{1}{n_k}}-\widetilde{f}\right\|_{\infty}$$

We have $\lim_{k\to\infty} f_{\frac{1}{n_k}}(s) = f(s)$ uniformly for $s\in [t_0,b]$, so, by uniform continuity $\lim_{k\to\infty} |F(s,f_{\frac{1}{n_k}}(s)) - F(s,f(s))| = 0$ uniformly for s in $[t_0,b]$, and thus $(\ddagger) \xrightarrow{k\to\infty} 0$. In conclusion

$$\left\| f - \widetilde{f} \right\|_{\infty} \le \left\| \widetilde{f}_{\frac{1}{n_k}} \right\| + (b - t_0) \frac{1}{n_k} + (\ddagger)$$

$$\Longrightarrow f(t) = \widetilde{f}(t) = y_0 + \int_{t_0}^t F(s,f(s))ds$$
, i.e. f satisfies (IE) \Longrightarrow (IVP).