- **4.** Let  $\{f_n\}$  and  $\{g_n\}$  be real-valued functions on a set X. Assume that  $f_n \to f$  and  $g_n \to g$  uniformly on X.
  - (a) If  $\lambda, \mu$  are scalars, show that  $\lambda f_n + \mu g_n \to \lambda f + \mu g$  uniformly on X Solution:

Observe

$$|\lambda f_n(x) + \mu g_n(x) - \lambda f(x) - \mu g(x)| \le |\lambda| |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |\mu| |g_n(x) - g(x)|.$$

For a given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , take n sufficiently large so that  $\sup_X |f_n - f| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|\lambda|}$  and  $\sup_X |g_n - g| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|\mu|}$ . Hence  $\sup_X |\lambda f_n + \mu g_n - \lambda f - \mu g| < \varepsilon$ , where we used the fact that the supremum is an upper bound on the right hand side and is least on the left.

(b) Is it true that  $f_n g_n \to fg$  uniformly on X?

## **Solution:**

This statement is false as it stands. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and consider  $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{n}$  for all x and  $g_n(x) = x$  for all x. It is clear that both  $f_n \to 0$  and  $g_n \to x$  both uniformly. The convergence of  $f_n g_n x n \to 0$  is *not* uniform, however. To see this, let  $\varepsilon = 1$  be fixed and consider  $x_n = n$ . Then

$$|f_n(x_n)| = 1 \ge \varepsilon$$

negating uniform convergence to 0.

(c) If the sequences are uniformly bounded (i.e., there exists M such that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M$  and  $|g_n(x)| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and for all  $x \in X$ ), show that  $f_n g_n \to fg$  uniformly on X.

# **Solution:**

Let  $M_f$  and  $M_g$  be the respective uniform bounds for f and g. Observe

$$|f_n(x)g_n(x) - f(x)g(x)| = |f_n(x)g_n(x) - f_n(x)g(x) + f_n(x)g(x) - f(x)g(x)|$$

$$\leq |f_n(x)||g_n(x) - g(x)| + |g(x)||f_n(x) - f(x)|$$

$$\leq M_f|g_n(x) - g(x)| + (|g(x) - g_n(x)| + |g_n(x)|)|f_n(x) - f(x)|$$

$$\leq M_f|g_n(x) - g(x)| + (|g(x) - g_n(x)| + M_g)|f_n(x) - f(x)|.$$

- $\square$  Now, for a given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , take n sufficiently large so that  $\sup_X |g_n g| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2M_f}$  and  $\sup_X |f_n f| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(\varepsilon + M_g)}$  and the convergence is established arguing as in part (a).
- 5. Define the distance between points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in the plane to be

$$|y_1 - y_2|$$
 if  $x_1 = x_2$ ,  $1 + |y_1 - y_2|$  if  $x_1 \neq x_2$ .

(a) Show that this defines a metric on the plane.

### **Solution:**

Denote points in the plane as  $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$ .

- i) If  $p_1 = p_2$  then  $x_1 = x_2$  and  $|y_1 y_2| = 0$ . On the other hand, if  $p_1 \neq p_2$  then either  $x_1 \neq x_2$  or  $y_1 \neq y_2$ . In the first case,  $d(p_1, p_2) = 1 + |y_1 y_2| > 0$ , and in the other case, both  $|y_1 y_2| > 0$  and  $1 + |y_1 y_2| > 0$ , so  $d(p_1, p_2) > 0$ .
- ii) Symmetry follows from symmetry of, =,  $\neq$ , and the distance metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- iii) Let  $p_1, p_2$  and  $p_3$  be points in the plane. If  $x_1 = x_3$ , then

$$d(x_1, x_3) = |y_1 - y_3| \le |y_1 - y_2| + |y_2 - y_3| \le 1 + |y_1 - y_2| + |y_2 - y_3|.$$

If  $x_1 \neq x_3$ , then it is not the case that  $x_1 = x_2 = x_3$ , thus  $x_1 \neq x_2$  or  $x_2 \neq x_3$  (or both), and in each of these cases

$$d(x_1, x_3) = 1 + |y_1 - y_3| \le 1 + |y_1 - y_2| + |y_2 - y_3| \le 2 + |y_1 - y_2| + |y_2 - y_3|.$$

(b) Show that  $\{0\} \times (-1/2, 1/2)$  is open and that  $\{0\} \times [-1/2, 1/2]$  is compact. Solution:

Let  $p_0 \in \{0\} \times (-1/2, 1/2)$ , then  $p_0 = (0, y_0)$  where  $|y_0| < 1/2$ . A ball of radius r < 1 about  $p_0$  has points  $p = (x, y) \in B(r, p_0)$  satisfying x = 0 since  $1 + |y - y_0| \ge 1$ . Hence,

$$d(p, p_0) = |y - y_0| < r \implies |y| < r + |y_0|,$$

and if we take  $r = \min\{1, 1/2 - |y_0|\}$ , then |y| < 1/2 and thus  $y \in \{0\} \times (-1/2, 1/2)$ . Hence each point  $p_0$  of the set is an interior point, so the set is open.

It suffices to show that the set  $\{0\} \times [-1/2,1/2]$  satisfies sequential compactness since it is a subset of a metric space. Let  $p_n \in \{0\} \times [-1/2,1/2]$  then  $x_n=0$  and  $y_n \in [-1/2,1/2]$ . By compactness of [-1/2,1/2] in  $\mathbb{R}$ , there exists a subsequence  $\{y_{n_k}\}$  and a point y so that  $|y-y_{n_k}| \to 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Choose  $p_{n_k}=(0,y_{n_k})$  and p=(0,y) and note  $d(p,p_{n_k})=|y-y_{n_k}|\to 0$ , hence  $p_{n_k}\to p$  in this space.

(c) Is  $Y = [-1, 1] \times [-1/4, 1/4]$  compact?

### **Solution:**

The set is *not* compact. It suffices to provide a sequence with no converging subsequences. Consider  $p_n = (1/n, 0)$ . Then for any  $n_k$ ,  $d(p_{n_k}, p_{n_j}) = 1$  for  $k \neq j$ , hence any  $p_{n_k}$  is not Cauchy and does not converge.

6.

(a) Show that

$$F_n(x) = \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-x}$$

is bounded above and below by constants independent of n for  $x \in [0, \infty)$ .

## **Solution:**

Note first that that  $F_n(x) > 0$  since both factors are.

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-x} \ge e^{-x} = 1 - e^{-n} \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Now,

$$F_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{x}{n}\right)^k e^{-x}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-k+1)}{k! n^k} x^k e^{-x}$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{x^k}{k!} e^{-x}$$

$$\leq 1.$$

(b) Evaluate, with justifications,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^n \left( 1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n e^{-2x} \, dx$$

# **Solution:**

Since  $|F_n(x)| \leq 1$ , we have

$$\int_0^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-2x} dx \le \int_0^n e^{-x} dx = 1 - e^{-n} \le 1.$$

Recall that  $(1 + x/n)^n \to e^x$  as  $n \to \infty$  for each real x. Moreover, the convergence is monotone increasing since  $F_n(x)$  is monotone increasing and  $F_n(x)e^x = \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given, then

$$\int_0^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-2x} dx = \int_0^n \left[ \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n - e^x \right] e^{-2x} + e^{-x} dx$$

$$= -\int_0^n \left| e^x - \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n \right| e^{-2x} + e^{-x} dx$$

$$> -\varepsilon \int_0^n e^{-2x} dx + \int_0^n e^{-x} dx$$

for sufficiently large n. Since  $\int_0^n e^{-2x} dx \to \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\int_0^n e^{-x} dx \to 1$ , we have

$$\int_0^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-2x} \, dx > \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + 1 \implies \int_0^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-2x} \, dx = 1.$$

- 7. Let (X,d) be a metric space. A function  $f:X\to\mathbb{R}$  is called Lipschitz if there is a constant L such that  $|f(x)-f(y)|\leq Ld(x,y)$ , for all  $x,y\in X$ .
  - (a) Show that the sum of two real-valued Lipschitz functions is Lipschitz.

# Solution:

Let f and g be two Lipschitz functions with respective Lipschitz constants  $L_f$  and  $L_g$ . Observe

$$|f(x)+g(x)-f(y)-g(y)| \le |f(x)+f(y)|+|g(x)-g(y)| \le (L_f+L_g)|x-y|.$$

(b) Prove that the product of two bounded real-valued Lipschitz functions is again Lipschitz.

### **Solution:**

Let  $M_f$  and  $M_g$  be the respective bounds for f and g with Lipschitz constants as above. Observe

$$|f(x)g(x) - f(y)g(y)| \le |f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(y)| + |f(x)g(y) - f(y)g(y)| \le (M_f L_g + M_g L_f)|x - y|.$$

(c) Show that the product of two real-valued Lipschitz functions need not be Lipschitz.

### **Solution:**

Consider f(x) = x on  $\mathbb{R}$  and it is clear that f is Lipschitz. However,  $f^2$  is not. To see this, let L > 0 be given and observe

$$|x^2 - y^2| = |x + y||x - y| > L|x - y|$$

for x > L and y = 0.

**8.** Consider the mapping

$$\omega = J(z) = \frac{1}{2} \left( z + \frac{1}{z} \right).$$

For each r > 0, describe the image of the circle |z| = r under this mapping (e.g., as a certain line, circle, ellipse, etc.).

#### **Solution:**

We can parametrize the circle |z| = r as  $re^{i\theta} = r\cos\theta + ir\sin\theta$  for  $-\pi \le \theta \le \pi$ . Let  $x = \text{Re }\omega$  and  $y = \text{Im }\omega$ , then

$$x = \frac{1}{2} \left( re^{i\theta} + r^{-1}e^{-i\theta} + re^{-i\theta} + r^{-1}e^{i\theta} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta} \right) (r + r^{-1})$$
$$= \cos \theta (r + r^{-1})$$

and

$$y = \frac{1}{2i} \left( re^{i\theta} + r^{-1}e^{-i\theta} - re^{-i\theta} - r^{-1}e^{i\theta} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2i} \left( e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta} \right) (r - r^{-1})$$
$$= \sin \theta (r + r^{-1}).$$

If we let  $a = r + r^{-1}$  and  $b = r - r^{-1}$ , then

$$\frac{x^2}{a} + \frac{y^2}{b} = 1$$

and such points describe an ellipse.