

HW #2

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Problem 1

Let (X, d) be a metric space, with $d(x, y) = 1 - \delta_{x,y}$, for all $x, y \in X$. Prove that X is compact if and only if X is a finite set.

“ \implies ”

Let X be compact. Then choose $C = \{B_\epsilon(x) | x \in X\}$ as an open cover of X for any $0 < \epsilon < 1$. Since X is compact, there exists a finite subcover of C , say $\tilde{C} = \{B_\epsilon(x_i) | i = 1 \dots n\}$. However, if $x \in B_\epsilon(x_i)$, then $d(x, x_i) < \epsilon < 1$. This means $d(x, x_i) = 0$, which implies $x = x_i$. Thus $B_\epsilon(x_i) = \{x_i\}$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then $\tilde{C} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Since this covers X , $X \subset \tilde{C}$. But \tilde{C} is finite, and so X is finite.

“ \impliedby ”

Let $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be finite, and let $C = \{C_i | i \in I\}$ (where I is an arbitrary indexing set) be an open cover of X . Then $\forall x \in X$, there is at least one $i \in I$ such that $x \in C_i$. Choose one i for each $x \in X$, say $C_{i(x)}$. Then $X \subset \bigcup_{x \in X} C_{i(x)}$, and $\{C_{i(x)} | x \in X\}$ is a finite open subcover. Thus X is compact. \square

Problem 2

Give an example of a continuous function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that there is a non-empty closed set $F \subset \mathbb{R}$, with $f(F)$ open.

Trivial solution: Let $f(x) = x$ and let $F = \mathbb{R}$. Then F is a non-empty closed set since $F^C = \emptyset$ is open. Then $f(F) = \mathbb{R}$ is open.

Non-trivial solution: Define f as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}x + \frac{2^n - n - 1}{2^n} & , \quad x \in [2n, 2n+1], n = 0, 1, \dots \\ \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} & , \quad x \in [2n+1, 2(n+1)], n = 0, 1, \dots \end{cases}$$

$$f(-x) = -f(x)$$

and let $F = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} ([2n, 2n+1] \cup [-(2n+1), -2n])$. Then f is continuous on \mathbb{R} , F is closed (since its complement is a union of open sets), and $f(F) = (-1, 1)$, which is an open set.

Problem 3

Let (X, d) be a metric space and F and K two non-empty subsets of X . Assume F is closed and K is compact. Define

$$d(K, F) = \inf\{d(x, y) \mid x \in K, y \in F\}. \quad (1)$$

Prove that $d(K, F) > 0$ if and only if $K \cap F = \emptyset$.

“ \implies ”

Let $d(K, F) > 0$. Then $\forall k \in K$ and $f \in F$, $d(k, f) > 0$ which implies, $\forall k \in K$ and $f \in F$, $k \neq f$. Thus $\forall k \in K$, $k \notin F$, and $\forall f \in F$, $f \notin K$. So $K \cap F = \emptyset$.

“ \impliedby ”

Let $d(K, F) \not> 0$. Then, since $d(K, F) \not> 0$, then $d(K, F) = 0$. Then $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists k \in K, f \in F$ such that $d(k, f) < \epsilon$. Now construct sequences $(k_n) \in K$ and $(f_n) \in F$ such that $d(k_n, f_n) < \frac{1}{n}$. Since K is compact, there is a subsequence (k_{n_l}) that converges to some limit $\tilde{k} \in K$. By the triangle inequality,

$$d(f_{n_l}, \tilde{k}) \leq d(f_{n_l}, k_{n_l}) + d(k_{n_l}, \tilde{k})$$

Since $\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} d(f_{n_l}, k_{n_l}) = 0$ and $\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} d(k_{n_l}, \tilde{k}) = 0$, then $\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} d(f_{n_l}, \tilde{k}) = 0$, which shows the subsequence (f_{n_l}) converges to \tilde{k} . However, F is closed, which means every convergent sequence in F converges to a limit in F , and since limits are unique, $\tilde{k} \in F$. Thus $\tilde{k} \in K \cap F \implies K \cap F \neq \emptyset$. \square

Problem 4

Consider the space X of all bounded real-valued functions defined on the interval $[0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$. For all $f, g \in X$, define $d(f, g)$ by

$$d(f, g) = \sup\{|f(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\}. \quad (2)$$

a)

Prove that d is a metric on X .

Non-negativity

$$\forall f \in X, \quad d(f, f) = \sup\{|f(x) - f(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} = \sup\{0\} = 0$$

$$\forall f, g \in X, \quad d(f, g) = \sup\{|f(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} \geq 0 \quad \text{since } |a| \geq 0 \text{ for any } a.$$

Symmetry

Since $|f(x) - g(x)| = |g(x) - f(x)|$,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall f, g \in X, \quad d(f, g) &= \sup\{|f(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} \\ &= \sup\{|g(x) - f(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} = d(g, f) \end{aligned}$$

Triangle Inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \forall f, g, h \in X, \quad d(f, g) &= \sup\{|f(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} \\ &= \sup\{|f(x) - h(x) + h(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} \\ &\leq \sup\{|f(x) - h(x)| + |h(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} \\ &\quad \text{(by the triangle inequality in } \mathbb{R} \text{)} \\ &= \sup\{|f(x) - h(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} + \sup\{|h(x) - g(x)| \mid x \in [0, 1]\} \\ &\quad \text{(by properties of supremum)} \\ &= d(f, h) + d(h, g) \end{aligned}$$

Thus d is a metric on X . □

b)

Prove that the metric space (X, d) is not separable.

Solution 1: Consider the set $A = \{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in [0, 1]}$ where

$$f_\alpha(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & , \quad x \neq \alpha \\ 1 & , \quad x = \alpha \end{cases}$$

Then $\forall \alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ with $\alpha \neq \beta$, $d(f_\alpha, f_\beta) = 1$. Now consider a countable subset $S \subset X$ and assume S is dense. Then $\forall f \in X$, $\exists (s_n)_n \in S$ such that $s_n \rightarrow f$, i.e. $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists s \in S$ such that $d(s, f) < \epsilon$. In particular, $\forall a \in A$, $\exists (s_n)_n \in S$ such that $s_n \rightarrow a$, i.e. $\forall a \in A$, $\exists s \in S$ (dependent on a) such that $d(s, a) < \epsilon$. However, if we pick any $\epsilon < 1/2$, then for each $a \in A$ we must choose a different $s \in S$ to satisfy $d(s, a) < \epsilon$. This implies there is a one-to-one correspondence between A and S , which is a contradiction since A is uncountable. Thus there is no countable dense subset of X , proving X is not separable. □

Problem 5

Let (X, d) be a metric space and, for each $i = 1, \dots, n$, let $K_i \subset X$ be compact.

a)

Prove that $\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_i$ is compact.

Let $(k_n)_n$ be a sequence in $\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_i$. Then $(k_n)_n$ is a sequence in K_i for each $i = 1, \dots, n$. Since each K_i is compact, then each K_i is sequentially compact, and thus there is a subsequence $(k_{n_\ell})_\ell$ that converges to a limit $\tilde{k} \in K_i$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then $\tilde{k} \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n K_i$. Thus any sequence in $\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_i$ has a convergent subsequence that converges to a limit in $\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_i$. Thus $\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_i$ is sequentially compact, and therefore compact. \square

b)

Prove that $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$ is compact.

Since each K_i is compact, each K_i is sequentially compact. Choose any sequence in $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$. There must be infinitely many points in at least one K_i , say K_ℓ . Then choose the subsequence of $(k_{n_m})_m$ such that each $k_{n_m} \in K_\ell$. Since K_ℓ is sequentially compact, there is a convergent subsequence $(k_{n_{m_p}})_p$ in K_ℓ that converges to a limit $\tilde{k} \in K_\ell$. Thus the original sequence $(k_n)_n$ has a convergent subsequence $(k_{n_{m_p}})_p$ that converges to $\tilde{k} \in K_\ell \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$. Thus $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$ is sequentially compact, and therefore compact. \square

c)

Are the union and intersection of an arbitrary family of compact subsets also compact? Why (not)?

The union of an arbitrary family of compact subsets is not necessarily compact. Consider $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $K_i = [-i, i]$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} K_i = \mathbb{R}$, which is not compact. However, the intersection of an arbitrary family of compact subsets is compact. The following is a generalization of the proof given in part a).

Let $(k_n)_n$ be a sequence in $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i$ where I is an indexing set. Then $(k_n)_n$ is a sequence in K_i for every $i \in I$. Since each K_i is compact, then each K_i is sequentially compact, and thus there is a subsequence $(k_{n_\ell})_\ell$ that converges to a limit \tilde{k} , where $\tilde{k} \in K_i$ for every $i \in I$. Then $\tilde{k} \in \bigcap_{i \in I} K_i$. Thus any sequence in $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i$ has a convergent subsequence that converges to a limit in $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i$. Thus $\bigcap_{i \in I} K_i$ is sequentially compact, and therefore compact. \square

Problem 6

Let $f \in C([0, 1])$ be such that $\int_0^1 x^n f(x) dx = 0$ for all integers $n \geq 0$. Prove that $f(x) = 0$, for all $x \in [0, 1]$.

By the linearity of integrals, $\int_0^1 p(x)f(x)dx = 0$ for any polynomial $p(x)$. The set of polynomials is dense in $C([0, 1])$ by the Weierstrauss Approximation Theorem, and thus there is some sequence of polynomials $\{p_n\}$ such that $p_n \rightarrow f$.

$$\int_0^1 f^2(x)dx = \int_0^1 f(x)f(x) = \int_0^1 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x)f(x)dx$$

We can pull the limit out of the integral since f and p are continuous, and so their product is continuous. Since $p(x)f(x)$ is continuous on a compact set, $p(x)f(x)$ is uniformly continuous. Thus,

$$\int_0^1 f^2(x)dx = \int_0^1 f(x)f(x) = \int_0^1 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x)f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 p_n(x)f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$$

Since $f^2 \geq 0$ for $x \in [0, 1]$ and $\int_0^1 f^2(x)dx = 0$, then $f^2(x) = 0$ for all $x \in [0, 1]$. Thus, $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in [0, 1]$. \square

Problem 7

Let (p_n) be a sequence of real-valued polynomial functions defined on the interval $[0, 1]$ with bounded degree, i.e., there exists $0 \leq D \in \mathbb{Z}$, and sequences of real numbers $(a_n(k))_{n=1}^\infty$, $k = 0, \dots, D$, such that

$$p_n(x) = a_n(0) + a_n(1)x + \dots + a_n(D)x^D, \quad x \in [0, 1]. \quad (3)$$

a)

Prove that if $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{0 \leq k \leq D} a_n(k) = 0$ (Hint: try induction on D).

Base Case: Let $\{p_n\}$ be a sequence of polynomials of degree 0, i.e. each polynomial is a constant function, or $p_n(x) = a_n(0)$. Assume $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$. Then $\|a_n(0)\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$. But $\|a_n(0)\|_\infty = a_n(0) = \max_{0 \leq k \leq 0} a_n(k)$. Thus $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{0 \leq k \leq 0} a_n(k) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|a_n(0)\|_\infty = 0$.

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that if $\{p_n\}_n$ is a sequence of degree D polynomials such that $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{0 \leq k \leq D} a_n(k) = 0$.

Inductive Step: Now let $\{p_n\}_n$ be a sequence of degree $D + 1$ polynomials, i.e. $p_n(x) = a_n(0) + a_n(1)x + \dots + a_n(D + 1)x^{D+1}$. Assume $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$. Since every polynomial in the sequence has degree $D + 1$, then $\|p'_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0' = 0$ (note that in general, $\|f_n - f\|_\infty \rightarrow 0 \not\Rightarrow \|f'_n - f'\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$. However, if f_n is a sequence of polynomials of uniformly bounded degree, then the implication does hold). But $\{p'_n\}$ is a sequence of degree D polynomials, and thus the Induction Hypothesis implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{1 \leq k \leq D+1} a_n(k) = 0$. This is equivalent to each $a_n(i) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $i = 1, \dots, D + 1$. Thus $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0 \implies \|a_n(0)\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$. Clearly, this implies $a_n(0) \rightarrow 0$. Thus each $a_n(i) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $i = 0, \dots, D + 1$, which is equivalent to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{0 \leq k \leq D+1} a_n(k) = 0$. \square

b)

Show that the assumption of a uniform bound on the degree of p_n is essential for the implication in part a) to hold. Specifically, find a sequence of polynomials $p_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{D_n} a_n(k)x^k$, such that $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$ and

$$\overline{\lim}_n \max_{0 \leq k \leq D_n} |a_n(k)| = 1 \quad (4)$$

Let $\{q_i\}_i \in (0, 1) \cap \mathbb{Q}$ be an enumeration of the rational numbers between 0 and 1. Then define the sequence $\{q_n\}_n$ as

$$\begin{aligned} q_n(x) &= x(x-1) \prod_{i=1}^n (x - q_i) \\ &= b_n(0) + b_n(1)x + \cdots + b_n(n+2)x^{n+2} \end{aligned}$$

For ease, denote $B_n = \max_{0 \leq k \leq n+2} |b_n(k)|$. We know $b_n(n+2) = 1 \forall n \geq 1$. Thus $B_n \geq 1 \forall n \geq 1$. Then define the sequence $\{p_n\}$ as

$$\begin{aligned} p_n(x) &= \frac{q_n(x)}{B_n} \\ &= a_n(0) + a_n(1)x + \cdots + a_n(n+2)x^{n+2} \end{aligned}$$

For ease, denote $A_n = \max_{0 \leq k \leq n+2} |a_n(k)|$. Then $A_n = 1 \forall n \geq 1$, which shows equation (4) holds.

Let x_n be the value at which $|p_n|$ attains its maximum, i.e. $x_n \in [0, 1]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x \in [0, 1]} |p_n| &= |p_n(x_n)| \\ &= \left| \frac{x_n(x_n - 1) \prod_{i=1}^n (x_n - q_i)}{A_n} \right| \\ &= \frac{|x_n| |x_n - 1| \prod_{i=1}^n |x_n - q_i|}{A_n} \end{aligned}$$

Note that $|x_n| \leq 1$, $|x_n - 1| \leq 1$, and $|x_n - q_i| < 1$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then their product $q_n(x_n) < 1$. Moreover, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the product eventually approaches 0 since each $x_n - q_i < 1$. Then since $\max_{x \in [0, 1]} |p_n| = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |p_n| = \|p_n\|_\infty$, then $\|p_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$.