$A\ collection\ of\ Real\ Analysis\ exercises$

June 14, 2024

Chapter 1

Metric Spaces

Exercise 1

Let the distances in \mathbb{R}^2 :

1. $d_1(X,Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{2} |y_i - x_i| = |y_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - x_2|;$

2. $d_2(X,Y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^2 |y_i - x_i|^2} = \sqrt{|y_1 - x_1|^2 + |y_2 - x_2|^2};$

3. $d_{\infty}(X,Y) = \max_{i=1,2} |y_i - x_i| = \max\{|y_1 - x_1|, |y_2 - x_2|\}.$

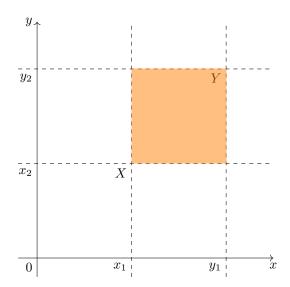
Construct the open balls related to these distances.

Solution

Point 1

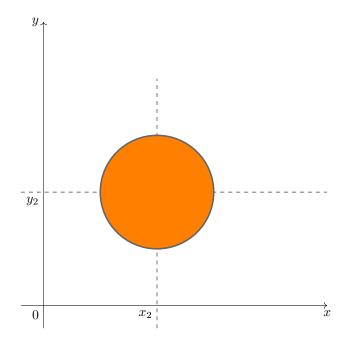
$$d_1(X,Y) < r$$
 iff
$$\sum_{i=1}^2 |y_i - x_i| < r$$
 iff
$$|y_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - x_2| < r$$

Point 2

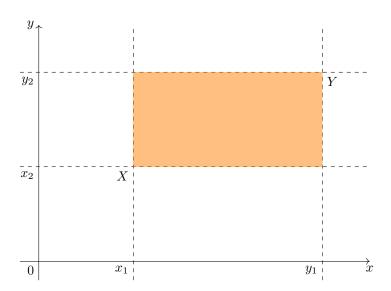


$$d_2(X;Y) < r$$
 iff
$$\sqrt{|y_1 - x_1|^2 + |y_2 - x_2|^2} < r$$
 iff
$$|y_1 - x_1|^2 + |y_2 - x_2|^2 < r^2$$

Point 3



$$d_{\infty}(X,Y) < r$$
 iff
$$\max\{|y_1 - x_1|, |y_2 - x_2|\}$$



Let (X, d) a metric space, $A \subset X$ not empty. Show if the following statements are true or false:

1.
$$A$$
 open $\Longrightarrow \mathring{A} \cap \partial A = \emptyset;$

2. if
$$\mathring{A} \cap \partial A = \emptyset \implies A$$
 closed;

Solution

Point 1

The first statement is always true. It is also true if A is closed or if A is neither open or closed.

$$\partial A = \{x \in X \text{s.t.} x \notin \mathring{A} \text{ and } x \notin \overbrace{X \setminus A}^{\circ} \}$$

$$\implies \mathring{A} \cap \partial A = \emptyset \text{ is true.}$$

Point 2

The second statement is false. Counterexample:

$$A =]0, 1[$$

is an open set with

$$\partial A = \{0, 1\}$$

and we have that $\mathring{A} \cap \partial A = \emptyset \implies A$ is closed is false because A is open.

Let (X,d) a metric space $A \subset X$ closed and $A \neq \emptyset$. Furthermore let

$$f:X\to\mathbb{R}$$

with

$$f(x) = \inf_{a \in A \setminus \{x\}} d(x, a).$$

Tell wether the following statements are true or false.

- 1. $x \in A \implies f(x) = 0$;
- $2. \ f(x) = 0 \implies x \in A;$

Solution

Point 1

This statement is not true $\forall x$. Counterexample:

$$A=[0,1]\cup\{2\}$$

we have that $2 \in A$, but $f(2) \neq 0$ because $f(2) = \inf d(2, a)$ with $a \in [0, 1]$. If $a \in [0, 1]$ the distance of 2 from a is greater(or equal) than the distance of 2 from 1.

If
$$a \in [0, 1]$$

then
$$d(2, a) \ge d(2, 1) = 1$$

so that

if
$$d(2, a) \ge 1 \implies \forall a \in [0, 1]$$
 $d(2, a) \ge 1$.

Then

$$\inf d(2, a) \ge 1$$
 $a \in [0, 1]$

and it can't be equal to zero.

Point 2

Remeber that x is an accumulation point for A iff $\inf_{a \in A \setminus \{x\}} d(x, a) = 0$.

$$f(x) = 0 \implies x$$
 is an accumulation point for A

then
$$x \in \overline{A} = A$$
 since A is closed

then the second statement is true.

Let $X = C^0([0,1]), d_{\infty}(f,g) = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |f(t) - g(t)|$ and $d_2(f,g) = \sqrt{\int_0^1 |f(t) - g(t)|^2 dt}$. Show that d_2 and d_{∞} are not equivalent.

Solution

If we choose $f_n(t) = t^n$ $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have that:

$$d_{\infty}(f_n, 0) = \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |f_n(t)| = \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |t^n| = 1.$$

It is a maximum.

$$(d_2(f_n,0))^2 = \int_0^1 |f_n(t)|^2 dt = \int_0^1 (t)^{2n} dt = \left[\frac{t^{2n+1}}{2n+1}\right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2n+1}$$

then

$$d_2(f_n, 0) = \frac{1}{2n+1}$$

for $n \to \infty$, $d_2 \to 0$. So that

$$\forall c \in \mathbb{R} \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$$
 s.t. $d_{\infty}(f_n, 0) > cd_2(f_n, 0)$

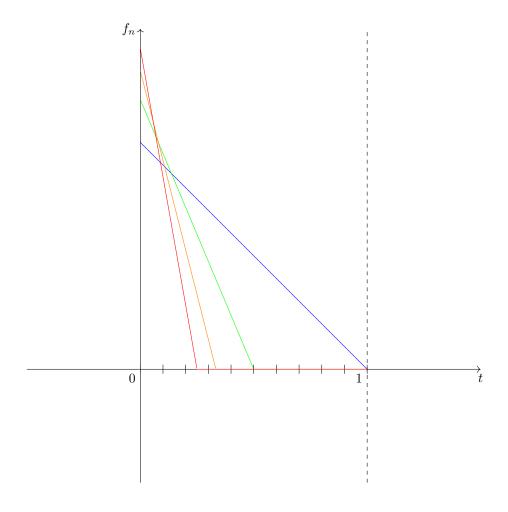
then d_2 and d_{∞} are not equivalent.

Let $X = C^0([0,1])$. Show that the open ball $B_{d_2}(0,1)$ is unbounded with respect to d_{∞} .

Solution

Consider the following sequence of functions:

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} -n^{\frac{5}{4}} (t - \frac{1}{n}) & \text{for} \quad t \in [0, \frac{1}{n}] \\ 0 & \text{for} \quad t \in]\frac{1}{n}, 1] \end{cases}$$



$$d_2(f,g) = \sqrt{\int_0^1 |g(t) - f(t)|^2 dt}$$

$$d_{\infty}(f_n,0) = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} |f_n(t)| = f_n(0) = \sqrt[4]{n} \to \infty$$

$$(d_2(f_n,0))^2 = \int_0^{\frac{1}{n}} -n^{\frac{5}{2}} (t - \frac{1}{n}) dt = \left[-\frac{n^{\frac{5}{2}}}{3} (t - \frac{1}{n})^3 \right]_0^{\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{n^{\frac{5}{2}}}{3} \frac{1}{n^3} = \frac{1}{3\sqrt{n}}$$

$$d_s(f_n,0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3\sqrt{n}}}.$$

then

With respect to d_{∞} the function is unbounded because contains a sequence the goes to infinity.

Say if $[0, +\infty[$ is bounded in (\mathbb{R}, d_0) and in (\mathbb{R}, d) , with

- d_0 the discrete metric;
- d the Euclidean metric;

Solution

The discrete metric is characterized by the fact that the distance between two points is equal to zero or one

$$d_0(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } & x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } & x = y \end{cases}$$

so that

$$diam([0,+\infty[)=\sup_{x,y\in[0,+\infty[}d_0(x,y)\leq 1,$$

then $[0, +\infty[$ is bounded in (\mathbb{R}, d_0) .

If we consider the Euclidean distance

$$diam([0,+\infty[)=\sup_{x,y\in[0,+\infty[}d(x,y)=\sup_{x,y\in[0,+\infty[}|y-x|\geq n \qquad \forall n\in\mathbb{N},$$

then $diam([0, +\infty[) = +\infty)$, so that $[0, +\infty[$ is unbounded with d.

Let (X,d) a metric space, $f:X\to\mathbb{R}$ a continous function and $A\subset X$ bounded. Say if the following statements are true or false.

- 1. f(A) is connected;
- 2. f(A) is compact;
- 3. f(A) is open;

Solution

Point 1

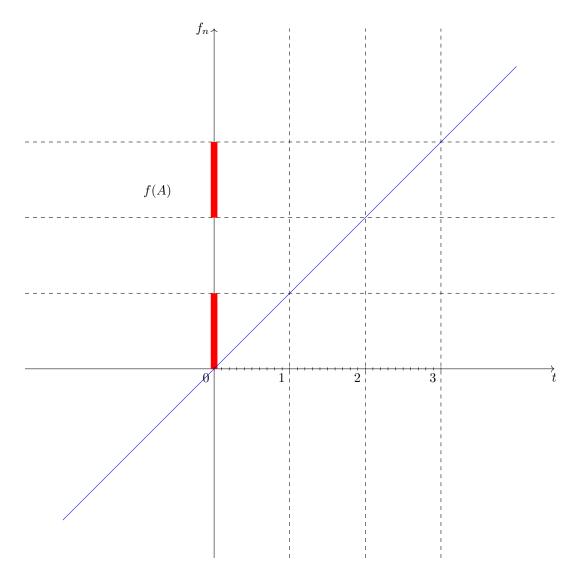
Consider $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$f(x) = x$$

and consider $A = [0, 1] \cup [2, 3]$, there is no request on A, so that

$$f(A) = [0,1] \cup [2,3]$$

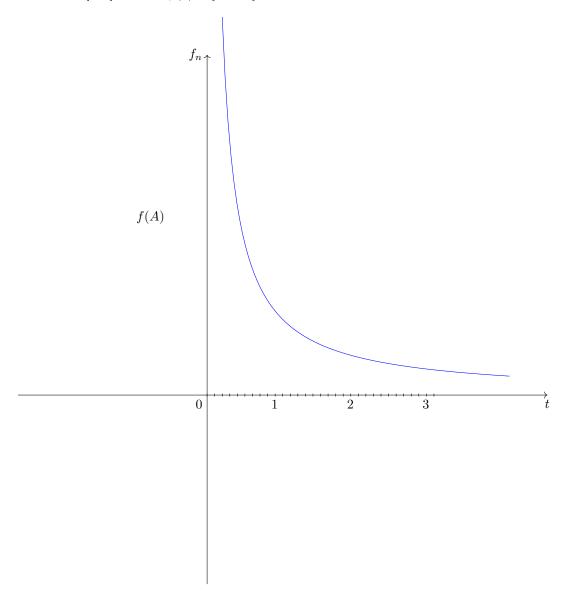
is not connected. Point 2



Consider $f:]0, +\infty[\to \mathbb{R}$, given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

If we choose A =]0,1] we have $f(a) = [1, +\infty[$ that is not compact because it is not bounded.



Point 3

If we consider $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ with f(x) = 1,

$$A=[0,1]$$

$$f(A) = \{1\}$$
 that is closed.

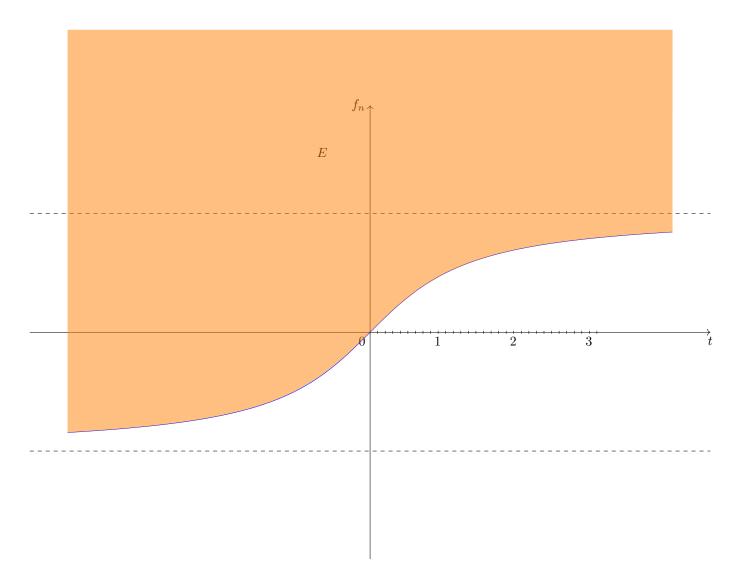
Then all the three statements are false.

Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ with the Euclidean distance. Say if the set

$$E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad y \ge \arctan x\}$$

is complete and if it is compact.

Solution



We can see that E is not bounded so it is not compact. Now we see if it is complete. Consider

$$f(x,y) = y - \arctan(x),$$

we have

$$E = f^{-1}([0, +\infty[).$$

It is a contraimage of a closed set, then E is closed. We know that a closed subset of a complete metric space is complete. Since \mathbb{R}^2 is complete, then E is complete.

Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ with the Euclidean distance and let

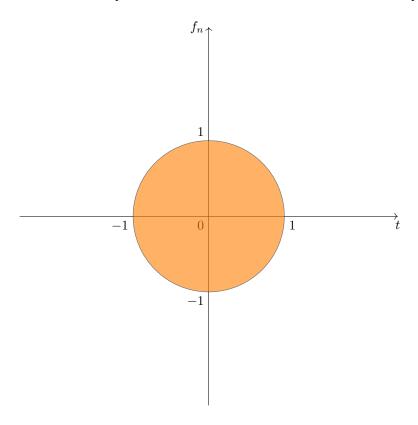
$$A = [0,1] \times [0,+\infty[$$

$$B = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \quad \text{with} \quad x^2 + y^2 < 1\}.$$

Say if A and B with the Euclidean distance are complete.

Solution

A is closed and $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ that is complete with the Euclidean diastance. Then A is complete. B is open,



we need to find a Cauchy sequence in B that doesn't converge in B. Consider

$$x_n = (1 - \frac{1}{n}, 0)$$
 $x_n \in B$ $\forall n$.

We have that

$$x_n \to (1,0)$$
 in \mathbb{R}^2 ,

but $(1,0) \notin B$. We have a sequence that converge in the space, that is a Cauchy sequence, but that doesn't converge in B. Then B is not complete.

Let (X, d) a metric space and x_n a sequence of elements of X. Say if the following statements are true or false.

- 1. $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0 \implies x_n$ bounded
- 2. x_n convergent $\Longrightarrow \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0;$
- 3. x_n Cauchy $\Longrightarrow \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0$.

Solution

Point 1

The fact that $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n,x_{n+1})=0$ doesn't imply that x_n is bounded. Counterexample:

$$x_n = \log n$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} |\log n + 1 - \log n| = \lim_{n \to \infty} |\log \frac{n+1}{n}| = 0.$$

The distances between two consecutive elements become shorter but x_n is not bounded.

$$\sup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\{\log n, \qquad n\in\mathbb{N}\}=+\infty.$$

Then the first statement is false.

Point 2

If x_n is convergent then there exists $x_\infty \in X$ s.t. :

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x_{\infty}.$$

Then

$$0 \le d(x_n, x_{n+1}) \le d(x_n, x_\infty) + d(x_\infty, x_{n+1}),$$

since $d(x_n, x_\infty) \to 0$, $d(x_\infty, x_{n+1}) \to 0$, then by "the two carabinieri theorem" we have that $d(x_n, x_{n+1}) \to 0$

Point 3

 x_n is a Cauchy sequence iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \nu \in \mathbb{N} \text{s.t.} \forall n, m \geq \nu \in \mathbb{N} \implies d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon.$$

If we fix n, then m can be very far, so is stronger the Cauchy condition with respect to (x_n, x_{n+1}) , so that:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \nu \in \mathbb{N} \text{s.t.} \forall n > \nu d(x_n, x_{n+1}) < \epsilon \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0.$$

Determine as α varies the limit in (\mathbb{R}^2, d_2) of the sequence:

$$x_n = (\frac{1}{n}, (-1)^n \frac{n^{\alpha} - 1}{n^2}.$$

If the limit doesn't exists find eventual convergent subsequences.

Solution

A sequence in \mathbb{R}^2 is like having two sequences in \mathbb{R} :

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} \to 0$$

$$b_n = (-1)^n \frac{n^{\alpha} - 1}{n^2} = (-1)^n n^{\alpha - 2} + \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} \to 0.$$

- If $\alpha 2 < 0$ then $b_n \to 0$;
- if $\alpha = 2$ then $b_n \to \nexists$;
- if $\alpha 2 > 0$ then $b_n \to \nexists$.

Then if $\alpha < 2$ then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = (0, 0)$$

if $\alpha \geq 2$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \nexists.$$

If we consider $\alpha > 2$ since $|b_n \to +\infty$ there aren't convergent subsequences. If $\alpha = 2$ we the subsequence of even indices

$$x_n = (\frac{1}{n}; \frac{n^2 + 1}{n^2}) \to (0, 1),$$

the subsequence of odd indices:

$$x_n = (\frac{1}{n}; -\frac{n^2+1}{n^2} = \to (0, -1).$$

Let (X,d) a metric space, $A \subseteq X$, $A \neq \emptyset$, x_n a sequence in A that converges to $x_\infty \in X$. Say if the following statements are false or true.

- 1. x_{∞} is an accumulation point for A;
- $2. \ x_{\infty} \in \overline{A};$
- 3. $x_{\infty} \in \mathring{A}$;
- 4. $x_{\infty} \in \partial A$.

Solution

Point 1

The first statement is false. Counterexample:

$$A = [0, 1] \cup \{2\}$$

$$x_n = 2 \quad \text{constant}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x_\infty = 2$$

that is not an accumulation point since 2 is an isolated point for A.

Point 2

If x_{∞} is an isolated point the statement follows by the point 1, if x_{∞} is not an isolated point it will be an accumulation point then the statement trivially follows. So the statement 2 is true.

Point 3

 $x_{\infty} \in \mathring{A}$ is false. Counterexample:

$$A =]0, 1]$$

$$x_n = \frac{1}{n} \implies x_\infty \to 0 \notin \mathring{A}.$$

Point 4

 $x_{\infty} \in \partial A$ is false. Counterexample:

$$A =]0,1[$$

$$x_n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$x_n \to \frac{1}{2}$$

that is not in ∂A .

Show that the metric space $(C^0([0,1]), d_\infty)$ is not compact.

Solution

Consider

$$f_n(t) = t^n \qquad t \in [0, 1]$$

suppose that there is a subsequence that converges to $f \in C^0([0,1])$:

$$f_{nk} \to f$$
,

that is

$$d_{\infty}(f_{nk}, f) \to 0, \quad \forall t \in [0, 1].$$

$$|f_{nk}(t) - f_n(t)| \le d_{\infty}(f_{nk}, f) \to 0.$$

If this holds then

$$f_{nk}(t) \to f_n(t) \qquad \forall t \in [0, 1]$$

$$f_n(t) \to g(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t \in [0, 1[1]] \\ 1 & \text{if } t = 1 \end{cases}$$

If the sequence converge to g(t) then also the subsequences tends to g(t), but f_n can't have convergent subsequences because they must to converge to $g(t) \notin C^0([0,1])$ because g(t) is not continuous. Then $C^0([0,1])$ is not compact.

Consider the sequence

$$f_n(t) = \sqrt{\frac{1 + n^2 t^2}{n}}$$
 for $t \in [-1, 1]$.

Show that $f_n \to f$ with f(t) = |t| with the distance d_{∞} . Furthermore deduce that the space $C^1([-1,1],d_{\infty})$ is not complete.

Solution

$$|f_n(t) - f(t)| = \left| \frac{\sqrt{1 + n^2 t^2}}{n} - |t| \right| = \left| \frac{1}{n\sqrt{1 + n^2 t^2} + n|t|} \right| \le \frac{1}{n}$$

Since the denominator is greater or equal to n we have that the fraction is lower or equal to $\frac{1}{n}$ $\forall t \in [-1,1]$. Then

$$0 \le d_{\infty}(f_n, f) \le \frac{1}{n} \to 0.$$

Then $f_n \to f$ is a Cauchy sequence, but $f \notin C^1([-1,1])$. Then the squence doesn't converge in $(C^1[-1,1],d_\infty)$ and so it is not complete.

Let $X = C^0([0,1])$ with the distance d_2 . Show that the sequence

$$f_n(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if} & t \in [0, \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}[\\ \sqrt{2nt + 2 - n} & \text{if} & t \in [\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{2}\\ \sqrt{-2nt + 2 + n} & \text{if} & t \in [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n}[\\ 0 & \text{if} & t \in [\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{n}, 1] \end{cases}$$

- 1. converges to the null function in x = 2:
- 2. does not converge to the null function in the metric space (X, d_{∞}) ;
- 3. admits limit in (X, d_{∞}) .

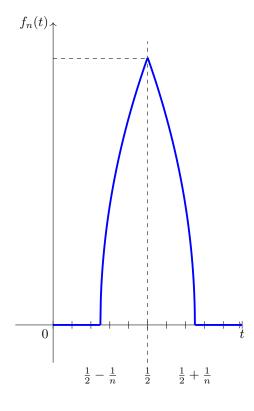
Solution

Point 1

We need to verify that $d_2(f_n, 0) \to 0$ where

$$d_2(f_n, 0) = \sqrt{\int_0^1 |f_n(t)|^2 dt}$$

We have that



$$(d_2(f_n,0))^2 \le \frac{2}{n} \to 0.$$

Point 2

$$d_{\infty}(f_n, 0) = \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} |f_n(t)| = f_n(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{2}.$$

It doesn't tend to zero then it doesn't tend to the null function with the distance d_{∞} . Point 3

We suppose that the sequence admits a limit and that

$$\exists g \in X$$
 s.t. $d_{\infty}(f,g) \to 0$.

 $\quad \text{Then} \quad$

$$\forall t \in [0,1] \qquad 0 \le |f_n(t) - g(t)| \le d_{\infty}(f_n, g)$$

since the "due carabinieri" theorem

$$\forall t \in [0,1] \qquad f_n(t) \to g(t).$$

If
$$t \neq \frac{1}{2}$$
 we have that $f_n(t) \to 0 \implies g(t) = 0$.
If $t = \frac{1}{2}$ $f_n(t) = \sqrt{2} \implies g(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{2} \implies g \notin X$. Then the limit with d_{∞} doesn't exist.

Let $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$, 2π -periodic, such that its Fourier series is of the form

$$\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \alpha_n \sin(nx)$$

. Let the Fourier series associated to f^3 of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx).$$

Which of the following statements is certainly true?

- 1. $b_n = \alpha_n^3 \quad \forall n;$
- $2. \ a_n = 0 \qquad \forall n.$

Solution

Trivially we can see that f is an odd function, then f^3 is also an odd function, so that $a_n = 0$ $\forall n$ is certainly true. Then

$$\mathcal{F}_{f^3(x)} = \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} b_n \sin(nx).$$

If we consider

$$\alpha_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx$$

$$h = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^3(x) \sin(nx) dx$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^3(x) \sin(nx) dx.$$

Generally is not true that $b_n = \alpha_n^3$. Counterexample:

$$f(x) = \sin(x)$$

$$\alpha_3 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_n = 0 \quad \forall n \neq 3.$$

All the terms such as $\sin(4x)$, $\sin(5x)$, \cdots $\sin(1000x)$ have null coefficients.

$$f^{3}(x) = \sin^{3}(3x)$$

$$\alpha_{3} = 1$$

$$b_{3} = 1^{3}??$$

$$b_{3} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^{3}(x)\sin(3x)dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^{4}(3x)dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^{2}(3x)(1 - \cos^{2}(3x)dx) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \sin^{2}(3x)dx - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^{2}(3x)\cos^{2}(3x)dx = \star$$

using the duplication and bisection formulas

$$\sin^{2}(3x) = \frac{1 - \cos(6x)}{2}$$

$$\sin^{2}(3x)\cos^{2}(3x) = \frac{\sin^{2}(6x)}{4} = \frac{1 - \cos(12x)}{8}$$

$$\star = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1 - \cos(6x)}{2} dx - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1 - \cos(12x)}{8} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} [x]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{12\pi} [\sin(nx)]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{8\pi} [x]_{-\pi}^{\pi} + \frac{1}{96\pi} [\sin(12x)]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

$$\alpha_{3} = 1 \qquad b_{3} = \frac{3}{4} \neq 1^{3}.$$

Then

Let $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R})^2$ such that f(3,6) = (0,0). In a neighborhood of (3,1), which of the following statements are certainly true?

- 1. $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x \mapsto x + \alpha f(x)$ satisfies the hypotheses of the Implicit Function Theorem.
- 2. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ $x \mapsto x + \alpha f(x)$ satisfies the hypotheses of the Inverse Function Theorem.

Solution

Point 1

We need to show that the derivative of f in (3,1) is an invertible matrix. Counterexample: let $\alpha = 0$ and consider a function $g(x) = x \mapsto x$. Let

$$g(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, x_2)$$

$$Dg(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \end{bmatrix}$$

The determinant det $Dg = 1 \neq 0$. Then the gradient matrix is invertible and since it is constant it is also invertible in (3,1). So the first statement is true.

Point 2

Counterexample. We need to find a function f with two variables such that Df = 0, starting from a function g not invertible. Consider

$$g(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\alpha = 1$, we have

$$Dg(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The gradient matrix Dg is not invertible and it doesn't satisfy the Inverse Function Theorem hypotheses.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + f_1(x) \\ y + f_2(y) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f_1(x,y) = 3 - x$$

$$f_2(x,y) = 1 - y$$

$$f(3,1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the second statement is false.

Let $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R})$ such that f(1,2) = 0 and consider a neighborhood of (1,2). Which of the following statements are certainly true?

- 1. $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ $x + \alpha f(x, y) + y 3 = 0$ satisfies the Implicit Function Theorem hypotheses;
- 2. $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x + \alpha f(x, y) + y 3 = 0$ satisfies the Implicit Function Theorem hypotheses.

Solution

$$g(x,y) = x + \alpha f(x,y) + y - 3$$

$$g(1,2) = 0$$

$$f \in C^2 \implies g \in C^2$$

We need to verify if

$$\frac{g}{y}(1,2) \neq 0?$$

$$\frac{g}{x}(1,2) \neq 0?$$

Point 2

We take $\alpha = 0$ so that g(x, y) = x + y - 3. Then

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial y}(1,2) = 1 \neq 0.$$

Then the first statement is true.

Point 1

We need a counterexample, starting from a function $g(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$ we can consider:

$$g(x,y) = (x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2$$

so that

$$\nabla g(1,2) = [0,0].$$

We have

$$x + \alpha f(x, y) + y - 3 = (x - 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2$$
.

We take $\alpha = 1$.

$$x + f(x,y) + y - 3 = (x - 1)^{2} + (y - 2)^{2}$$
$$f(x,y) = (x - 1)^{2} + (y - 2)^{2} - x - y + 3$$
$$f(1,2) = (0,0)$$

and $f \in C^2$, but

$$\nabla f(1,2) = [0,0]$$

so that f is not invertible. Then the second statement is not true.

Let $f_{\alpha}: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ given by:

$$f_{\alpha}(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{|x|^{\alpha}y^{2}}{\sqrt{4x^{2}+3y^{2}}} & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Studying with respect to $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ the differentiability and continuity of f_{α} .

Solution

First: continuity

We have problems in all the points of the y-axis. First we consider the points (0, b) with $b \neq 0$ that is a generic point of the y axis.

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,b)} \frac{|x|^{\alpha}y^{2}}{\sqrt{4x^{2}+3y^{2}}} = \frac{b^{2}}{\sqrt{3b^{2}}} \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,b)} |x|^{\alpha} = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{if } & \alpha < 0\\ \frac{b^{2}}{\sqrt{3b^{2}}} & \text{if } & \alpha = 0\\ 0 & \text{if } & \alpha > 0. \end{cases}$$

Then f is continuous in (0,b) with $b \neq 0$ $\forall \alpha > 0$. Now we consider the point (0,0).

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{|x|^{\alpha}y^2}{\sqrt{4x^2+3y^2}}$$

in polar coordinates

$$\lim_{\rho \to 0} \frac{\rho^{\alpha} |\cos \theta|^{\alpha} \rho^{2} (\sin^{2} \theta)}{\rho \sqrt{4 \cos^{2} \theta + 3 \sin^{2} \theta}}$$

making some additions

$$|\rho^{\alpha+1} \frac{|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}(\sin^{2}\theta)}{\sqrt{4\cos^{2}\theta + 3\sin^{2}\theta}}| \leq \rho^{\alpha+1} \frac{|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}|\sin^{2}\theta|}{\sqrt{3}|\sin\theta|} = \frac{\rho^{\alpha+1}}{\sqrt{3}}|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}|\sin\theta| \leq \frac{\rho^{\alpha+1}}{\sqrt{3}}$$

uniformly in θ .

If $\alpha > 0$ then L = 0 uniformly in θ .

If $\alpha \leq -1$ then $L = \mathbb{Z}$.

Remains the case $-1 < \alpha < 0$.

$$\lim_{\rho \to 0} \frac{\rho^{\alpha+1} |\cos \theta|^{\alpha} \sin^2 \theta}{\sqrt{4\cos^2 \theta + 3\sin^2 \theta}} = 0$$

this limit is equivalent to

$$\lim_{\rho \to 0} \rho^{\alpha+1} h(z) = 0 \qquad \forall \theta \neq \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \frac{3\pi}{2}$$

but the limit is not uniform since it is not possible to increase the function. Then for $-1 < \alpha < 0$ the limit goes to $+\infty$. The local boundedness theorem is violated.

Then f is continuous for $\alpha \geq 0$, f is continuous in (0,b) for $\alpha \geq 0$.

Second: differentiability

We consider the points (0, b) with $b \neq 0$ and with $\alpha > 0$.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,b) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,b) + f(0,b)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{|t|^{\alpha}b^{2}}{\sqrt{4t^{2} + 3b^{2}}} \frac{1}{t} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } \alpha < 1\\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } \alpha = 1\\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,b) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,b+t) - f(0,b)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0}{t} = 0.$$

Now we consider the case $\alpha > 1$ and show if f is differentiable. For $\alpha > 1$, $\nabla f(0,0) = [0,0]$.

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)} \frac{f(h,b+k) - f(0,b) - \nabla f(0,b) \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix}}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}} = \lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)} \frac{|h|^{\alpha} (b+k)^2}{\sqrt{4h^2 + 3(b+k)^2} \sqrt{h^2 + k^2}}$$

$$= \lim_{\rho \to 0} \frac{\rho^{\alpha - 1} |\cos \theta|^{\alpha} (b + \rho \sin \theta)^2}{\sqrt{4\rho^2 \cos^2 \theta + 3(b + \rho \sin \theta)^2}} = 0 \qquad \forall \theta.$$

Now we show if it is uniformly.

$$|\frac{\rho^{\alpha-1}|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}(b+\rho\sin\theta)^{2}}{\sqrt{4\rho^{2}\cos^{2}\theta+3(b+\rho\sin\theta)^{2}}}|\leq\rho^{\alpha-1}\frac{|b+\rho\sin\theta|}{\sqrt{3}}\leq\rho^{\alpha-1}\frac{|b|+\rho}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

The right term doesn't depend on theta so the limit is uniform in θ . If $\alpha > 1$ f is differentiable in (0, b) with $b \neq 0$. Now we consider the case $\alpha \geq 0$ in (0, 0).

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0}{t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{t} = 0$$

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)}\frac{f(h,k)-f(0,0)-\nabla f(0,0)\left[\frac{h}{k}\right]}{\sqrt{h^2+k^2}}=\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)}\frac{f(h,k)}{\sqrt{h^2+k^2}}=\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)}\frac{|h|^\alpha k^2}{\sqrt{4h^2+3k^2}\sqrt{h^2+k^2}}$$

if $\alpha = 0$ the limit is

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)} \frac{k^2}{\sqrt{4h^2 + 3k^2}\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}} = \nexists.$$

If $\alpha > 0$ in polar coordinates:

$$\lim_{\rho \to 0} \frac{\rho^{\alpha} |\cos \theta|^{\alpha} \rho^{2} (\sin^{2} \theta)}{\rho \rho \sqrt{4 \cos^{2} \theta + 3 \sin^{2} \theta}} = 0 \qquad \forall \theta.$$

Now we show if it is uniform in θ .

$$\left|\frac{\rho^{\alpha}|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}\sin^{2}\theta}{\sqrt{4\cos^{2}\theta+3\sin^{2}\theta}}\right| \leq \rho^{\alpha}\frac{|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}\sin^{2}\theta}{\sqrt{3}\sin^{2}\theta} = \frac{\rho^{\alpha}|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}|\sin^{2}\theta|}{\sqrt{3}\sin\theta} = \rho^{2}\frac{|\cos\theta|^{\alpha}|\sin\theta|}{\sqrt{3}} \leq \frac{\rho^{2}}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

It is uniform in θ . Then L = 0 uniformly in θ .

Then f is differentiable in the origin for $\alpha > 0$.

Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open and $f: A \to \mathbb{R}^m$ differentiable on A. Show that:

- 1. if A is convex and $||Df(x)|| \le L$ $\forall xin A$ then f is Lip;
- 2. if f is Lip with constant L then $||Df(x)|| \le L$ $\forall x \in A$

Solution

Point 1

We apply the Finite Accretion Theorem. If A is convex, then

$$\forall x'', x' \in A$$
 $||f(x'') - f(x')|| \le \sup_{\xi \in A} ||Df(\xi)|| ||x'' - x'|| \le \star$

since $||Df(x)|| \le L$ then also the sup $\le L$, then

$$\star \le L \|x'' - x'\|$$

then f is Lip.

Point 2

Let $x \in A$, $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$||f(x+tv) - f(x)|| \le L ||tv|| = L|t| ||v||$$

$$\frac{||f(x+tv) - f(x)||}{t} \le L ||v||.$$

Since f is differentiable and derivable, the limit exists, so passing to the limit for $t \to 0$ we obtain:

$$||Df(x) \cdot v|| \le L ||v||.$$

Now we take all the vectors for norm equal to 1:

$$w \in \mathbb{R}^n \qquad ||w|| = 1$$

then

$$||Df(x) \cdot w|| \le L,$$

if it is valid for all the previous vectors we obtain

$$\sup_{w\in\mathbb{R}^n,}\sup_{\|w\|=1}\|Df(x)w\|\leq L$$

then

$$||Df(x)|| \le L.$$