Math 5110 – Real Analysis I– Fall 2024 w/Professor Liu

Paul Carmody Homework #1 – September 9, 2024

I. This problem review continuity for functions on real line.

We say a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is *continuous* at a point $a \in \mathbb{R}$ if for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $|x - a| < \delta$ implies $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$.

(a) Show that $f(x)=x^2$ is continuous at x=2. Given an $\epsilon>0$, when $|f(x)-4|<\epsilon$, $|x^2-4|<\epsilon$. Let $\delta<\sqrt{\epsilon+4}$ If

$$(2+\delta)^2 - 4 < \epsilon$$
$$(2+\delta)^2 < \epsilon + 4$$
$$2+\delta < \sqrt{\epsilon+4}$$
$$\delta < \sqrt{\epsilon+4} - 2$$

(b) Suppose that f is continuous at a and $f(a) \neq 0$. Show that f is nonzero in some open interval containing a. Since f is continuous at a and $f(a) \neq 0$ then for every $\epsilon > 0$ such that when $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$. Without loss of generality, assume f(a) > 0. Choose $\epsilon < f(a)$ then $0 < f(a) - \epsilon < f(a) < f(a) + \epsilon$. Therefore, $f(x) \neq 0$

- II. This problem review derivatives.
 - (a) Let $f(x) = x^n$ for some positive integer n. Using the definition of the derivative, and the binomial theorem, show that $f'(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$.

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$
$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x-h) - f(x)}{h}$$
$$f(x) = x^n$$

thus

$$f'(x^n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(x-h)^n - x^n}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} (-h)^k - x^n}{h}$$

remove the first entry from the summation

$$f'(x^n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{x^n + \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} h^k - x^n}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} h^k}{h}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} h^k}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\binom{n}{1} x^{n-1} h}{h} + \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\binom{n}{2} x^{n-2} h^2}{h} + \dots + \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\binom{n}{n} x^0 h^n}{h}$$

$$= nx^{n-1} + \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\binom{n}{2} x^{n-2} h^2}{h} + \dots + \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\binom{n}{n} x^0 h^n}{h}$$

the $\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{h^k}{h} = \lim_{h\to 0} h^{k-1} = 0$ for all $k \ge 1$ therefore

$$f'(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$$

(b) Is the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & x \le 0, \\ -x^2, & x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

differentiable at x = 0.

$$\lim_{x \to 0^{-}} f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0^{-}} x^{2} = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0^{+}} f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0^{+}} x^{2} = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0^{-}} f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0^{+}} f(x)$$

f(x) is both continuous and differentiable at x=0.

III. This problem reviews sup and inf.

For any subset $A \subset \mathbb{R}$, we say that M is an *upper bound* for A if $x \leq M$ for all $x \in A$. If a set A has a finite upper bound, we say it is *boundared above*. It is a theorem about the set \mathbb{R} that for any set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ that is bounded above, there exists a least (smallest) upper bound for A. This least upper bound is called supermum of A, and denoted sup A. By definition, the number sup A has two properties.

- (i) $x \leq \sup A$ for all $x \in A$ (i.e., $\sup A$ is an upper bound for M).
- (ii) for any M that is an upper bound for A, we have $\sup A \leq M$.

For sets that are not bounded above, we say that $\sup A = +\infty$. we often write things like

$$\sup_{x \in A} f(x),$$

to denote the supremum of the set $\{f(x): x \in A\}$, where f is a some function.

Similarly, any set that is bounded below has a greatest lower bound called the infimum, denoted inf A. It satisfies the same properties as $\sup A$ with the inequalities reversed.

- (a) Find sup A and inf A for $A = (1, 2], A = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\}, \text{ and } A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}.$
 - A = (1, 2], sup A = 2 and inf A = 1
 - $A = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\}, \sup A = 1, \text{ and inf } A = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$
 - $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. $\sup A = \lim_{n \to \infty} = \infty$, and $\inf A = 0$
- (b) Find $\sup_{x \in (0,1)} (1+x^2)^{-1}$

Let $f(x) = (1+x^2)^{-1}$. On the interval (0,1) we can see that it is strictly decreasing, that is $a < b \implies f(a) > f(b)$. Thus, $\sup_{x \in (0,1)} f(x) = f(0) = (1+0^2)^{-1} = 1$.

- (c) Assume that $\sup A < \infty$, and show that for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $x \in A$ such that $x > \sup A \epsilon$. Given any $\epsilon > 0$ let $x > \sup A - \epsilon$. If $x \notin A$ then x is an upper bound of A, i.e., $x \in M$ and $x < \sup A$, but that violates proper (ii). Hence, $x \in A$.
- (d) For any two functions $f, g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, and any set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$, show that $\sup_{x \in A} (f(x) + g(x)) \le \sup_{x \in A} f(x) + \sup_{x \in A} g(x)$.

$$\begin{split} f(x) & \leq \sup_{x \in A} f(x) \text{ and } g(x) \leq \sup_{x \in A} g(x), \forall x \in x \in A \\ & \therefore f(x) + g(x) \leq \sup_{x \in A} f(x) + \sup_{x \in A} g(x), \forall x \in A \\ & \text{and } \sup_{x \in A} (f(x) + g(x)) \leq \sup_{x \in A} f(x) + \sup_{x \in A} g(x) \end{split}$$

IV. Section 1.1, Exercise 5, 6, 13.

Exercise 1.1.5. Let $n \geq 1$, and let a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n and b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n be real numbers verify the identity

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2\right), \tag{1.3}$$

and conclude Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_1 b_i \right| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

Then use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to prove the triangle inequality

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i)^2\right)^{1/2} \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right)^{1/2} + \left(\sum_{i=j}^{n} b_j^2\right)^{1/2}$$

Let's start by expanding the center term

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} ((a_i b_j)^2 + (a_j b_i)^2 - (a_i b_j a_j b_i)^2)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j b_j$$

$$= 2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2 \right) - 2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i \right)^2$$

Equation 1.3 then becomes

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2\right)$$
$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i\right)^2 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2\right) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i\right)^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2\right)$$

which is true. Since

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}b_{i}\right)^{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_{i}b_{j} - a_{j}b_{i})^{2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j}^{2}\right)$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}b_{i}\right)^{2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j}^{2}\right) - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_{i}b_{j} - a_{j}b_{i})^{2}$$

$$\therefore \left|\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}b_{i}\right| \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j}^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

Let's start by taking the square of the distance from a + b to zero using the ℓ^2 .

$$d_{\ell^2}(a+b,0)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + b_i)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i^2 + b_i^2 + 2a_ib_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2 + 2\sum_{i=1}^n a_ib_i$$

apply Cauchy-Schwarz and factor.

$$d_{\ell^{2}}(a+b,0)^{2} \leq d_{\ell^{2}}(a,0) + d_{\ell^{2}}(b,0) + 2\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j}^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leq d_{\ell^{2}}(a,0) + d_{\ell^{2}}(b,0) + 2\left(d_{\ell^{2}}(a,0) \cdot d_{\ell^{2}}(b,0)\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leq \left(d_{\ell^{2}}(a,0)^{1/2} + d_{\ell^{2}}(b,0)^{1/2}\right)^{2}$$

Expand the ℓ^2 metrics and take the square root of both sides and

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i)^2\right)^{1/2} \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right)^{1/2} + \left(\sum_{i=j}^{n} b_j^2\right)^{1/2}$$

Exercise 1.1.6 Show that (\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^2}) in Example 1.1.6 is indeed a metric space. (Hint: use Exercise 1.1.5)

Example 1.1.6 (Euclidean spaces). Let $n \ge 1$ be a natural number, and let \mathbb{R}^n be the space of *n*-tupes of real numbers:

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

We define the Euclidean metric (also called the l^2 metric) $d_{l^2}: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$d_{l^{2}}((x_{1},...,x_{n}),(y_{1},...,y_{n})) = \sqrt{(x_{1}-y_{1})^{2} + \dots + (x_{n}-y_{n})^{2}}$$
$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i}-y_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

We must prove that d_{ℓ^2} is symmetric, positive definite and that the triangle inequality holds.

Symmetric: show that $d_{\ell^2}(x,y) = d_{\ell^2}(y,x)$.

$$d_{l^{2}}((x_{1},...,x_{n}),(y_{1},...,y_{n})) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-y_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_{i}-x_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= d_{l^{2}}((y_{1},...,y_{n}),(x_{1},...,x_{n}))$$

Positive Definite: show that $d_{\ell^2}(x,y) \geq 0$ and $d_{\ell^2}(x,y) = 0 \rightarrow x = y$.

The square root is taken as a positive value. $d_{l^2}((x_1,\ldots,x_n),(y_1,\ldots,y_n))=0$ implies that each $x_i-y_i=0$ therefore x=y.

Triangle Inequality: show that $d_{\ell^2}(x,z) \leq d_{\ell^2}(x,y) + d_{\ell^2}(y,z)$

Excercise 1.1.5 proves the triangulate inequality replacing $a_i = x_i$ and $b_i = y_i$.

Exercise 1.1.13 Prove Proposition 1.1.19.

Proposition 1.1.19 (Convergence in a the discrete metric). Let X be any set, and let d_{disc} be the discrete metric on X. Let $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of points in X, and let x be a point in X. Then $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ convergent to x with respect to the discrete metric d_{disc} if and only if there exists $N \ge m$ such that $x^{(n)} = x$ for all $n \ge N$.

Remember that:

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

- (\Longrightarrow) assume that $x^{(n)} \to x$ under d_{disc} . Then, for any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x^{(n)} x < \epsilon$. Clearly, $x^{(n)} x$ can be equal to either 1 or 0. Thus, $x^{(n)} x = 0$ or $x^{(n)} = x$ and hence true for all n > N.
- (\iff) assume that $\exists N > m$ such that when $n > N, x^{(n)} = x$. Given any $\epsilon > 0$ and n > N we can see that $x^{(n)} x = 0 < \epsilon$. Therefore $x^{(n)} \to x$.

V. For this problem only, you do not need to give proofs. Just write the answers.

For each set, identify the boundary, interior, and closure of A, and say whether A is open, closed, both or neither. We are working in \mathbb{R}^2 with standard distance. Unless othewise noted, the ambient space is \mathbb{R}^2 .

- (a) $A = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 < 1\}.$ Boundary: $\partial A = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 = 1\}$ Interior: $A^o = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 < 1\}$ Closure: $\overline{A} = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 \leq 1\}$ A is open.
- (b) $A = \{(1/n, 2/n) : n = 1, 2, 3, ...\}$ (Note: (1/n, 2/n) is a vector in \mathbb{R}^2 , not an open interval in \mathbb{R} .) Boundary: $\partial A = A$ Interior: $\underline{A}^o = \emptyset$ Closure: $\overline{A} = A$
- (c) $A = \{x = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 > 0, d(x, 0) \leq 1\}$, in the relative topology with respect to $Y = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 > 0\}$. Boundary: $\partial_Y A = \{x = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 = 0, d(x, 0) = 1\}$ the right semi-circle combined with the y-axis

from 1 to -1. Interior: $A^o = \{x = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 > 0, d(x, 0) < 1\}$ Closure: $\overline{A} = \{x = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 \geq 0, d(x, 0) \leq 1\}$

A is closed relative to Y.

VI. Let (X, d) be a metric space.

A is closed.

- (a) For a given point $x_0 \in X$, show the singleton set $\{x_0\}$ is closed. let $E = \{x_0\}^c = X \setminus \{x_0\}$. Given any $x \in E$ and $0 < \epsilon < |x_0 - x|$ we can easily see that there exists a ball $B = B_d(x, \epsilon)$ such that $B \cap \{x_0\} = \emptyset$. Further, $\partial E = \{x_0\}$ and $\{x_0\} \notin E$ thus E is open. This implies that $E^c = \{x_0\}$ is closed.
- (b) Let $x_0 \in X$ and r > 0. Show that the ball

$$B(x_0, r) = \{x \in X : d(x, x_0) < r\}$$

is open.

Let $E = B(x_0, r), x \in E$ and $0 < \epsilon_x < r - d(x_0, x)$. Then, for any $y \in B(x, \epsilon_x)$ we can see that $d(x_0, y) < d(x_0, x) + \epsilon_x < y$ therefore $y \in E$ and the open ball $B(x, \epsilon_x) \subset E$.

$$\bigcup_{x \in E} x = E$$
then $B(x, \epsilon_x) \subset E, \forall x \in E$

$$\bigcup_{x \in E} B(x, \epsilon_x) = E$$

thus $B(x_0, r)$ is the union of open balls.