

Graph Rectifiability Summer Research

Daily Report (in reverse chronological order)

Charles Zhang

Summer 2021

Contents

1	May 27	2
1.1	Measures and Mass Distributions(1.3)	2
2	May 26	4
2.1	Exercises and Solutions	4
3	May 25	6
3.1	Basic Set Theory(1.1)	6
3.2	Functions and Limits(1.2)	7

1 May 27

1.1 Measures and Mass Distributions(1.3)

Definition 1.1.1 (Measure) We call μ a measure on \mathbb{R}^n if μ assigns a non-negative number, possibly ∞ , to each subset of \mathbb{R}^n such that

(a) $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$

(b) $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$ if $A \subset B$

(c) if A_1, A_2, \dots is a countable (or finite) sequence of sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$$

with equality in above, that is

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i),$$

if the A_i are disjoint Borel sets.

Condition (a) says that the **empty set has zero measure**, condition (b) says **'the larger the set, the larger the measure'** and condition (c) says that if a set is a union of a countable number of pieces (which may overlap), then the sum of the measure of the pieces is at least equal to the measure of the whole. If **a set is decomposed into a countable number of disjoint Borel sets**, then the **total measure of the pieces equals the measure of the whole**.

Property 1.1.1 (Measure)

1. if $B \subset A$ and A and B are Borel sets with $\mu(B)$ finite,

$$\mu(A \setminus B) = \mu(A) - \mu(B)$$

as $A = B \cup (A \setminus B)$ and using Definition 1.1.1 (c).

2. if $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots$ is an increasing sequence of Borel sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_i).$$

$$\text{as } \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = A_1 \cup (A_2 \setminus A_1) \cup (A_3 \setminus A_2) \cup \dots,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) &= \mu(A_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (\mu(A_{i+1}) - \mu(A_i)) \\ &= \mu(A_1) + \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^k (\mu(A_{i+1}) - \mu(A_i)) \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_k). \end{aligned}$$

3. A simple extension of above is that if, for $\delta > 0$, A_δ are Borel sets that are increasing as δ decreases, that is, $A_{\delta'} \subset A_\delta$ for $0 < \delta < \delta'$, then

$$\mu \left(\bigcup_{\delta > 0} A_\delta \right) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \mu(A_\delta) .$$

Definition 1.1.2 (Support of μ)

spt μ , is the smallest closed set X such that $\mu(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus X) = 0$.

By above, x is in the support if and only if $\forall r > 0, \mu(B(x, r)) > 0$. We say that μ ***is a measure on a set A if A contains the support of μ .***

Definition 1.1.3 (Mass Distributions) *A measure on a bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^n for which $0 < \mu(\mathbb{R}^n) < \infty$ will be called a mass distribution, and we think of $\mu(A)$ as the mass of the set A .*

Definition 1.1.4 (Lebsegue Measure on \mathbb{R})

$$\mathcal{L}^1(A) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (b_i - a_i) : A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} [a_i, b_i] \right\}$$

2 May 26

2.1 Exercises and Solutions

Exercise 1.12 Let $f, g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be Lipschitz functions. Show that the functions defined on $[0, 1]$ by $f(x) + g(x)$ and $f(x)g(x)$ are also Lipschitz.

Solution:

(i) As f, g are Lipschitz function, we have $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c_1|x - y|$ and $|g(x) - g(y)| \leq c_2|x - y|$ where $\forall x, y \in [0, 1]$ and $c_1, c_2 \geq 0$. Then, $|(f(x) + g(x)) - (f(y) + g(y))| = |f(x) - f(y) + g(x) - g(y)| \leq |f(x) - f(y)| + |g(x) - g(y)| \leq (c_1 + c_2) \cdot |x - y|, \forall x, y \in [0, 1]$. Since $(c_1 + c_2) \geq 0$, the condition is satisfied and therefore the functions defined on $[0, 1]$ by $f(x) + g(x)$ is Lipschitz.

(ii) Consider that $|f(x) - f(0)| \leq c_1|x| \leq c_1, x \in [0, 1]$, so we have non-negative $c_3 = |f(0)| + c_1 \geq |f(x)|$. Similarly, we have non-negative $c_4 \geq |g(x)|$

$$|f|, |g| < 1, \forall x, y \in [0, 1]$$

$$|f(x)g(x) - f(y)g(y)|$$

$$= |f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(y) + f(x)g(y) - f(y)g(y)|$$

$$= |f(x)(g(x) - g(y)) + g(y)(f(x) - f(y))|$$

$$\leq |g(y)||f(x) - f(y)| + |f(x)||g(x) - g(y)|$$

$$\leq c_1c_4|x - y| + c_2c_3|x - y|$$

$$\leq (c_1c_4 + c_2c_3)|x - y|$$

Since $c_1c_4 + c_2c_3 \geq 0$, the condition is satisfied and therefore the functions defined on $[0, 1]$ by $f(x)g(x)$ is Lipschitz.

Exercise 1.13 Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable with $|f'(x)| \leq c$ for all x . Show, using the mean value theorem, that f is a Lipschitz function.

Solution: $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x \neq y$, by mean-value theorem, $\exists w \in (x, y)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} &= f'(w) \\ \Rightarrow \left| \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \right| &= |f'(w)| \leq c \\ \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| &\leq c|x - y| \quad (x, y \in \mathbb{R}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, f is a Lipschitz function.

Exercise 1.14 Show that every Lipschitz function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.

Solution: See proof wrote for Theorem 3.2.1.

Exercise 1.15 Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $f(x) = x^2 + x$. Find (i) $f^{-1}(2)$, (ii) $f^{-1}(-2)$ and (iii) $f^{-1}([2, 6])$.

Solution: As $f(x) = x^2 + x$, $x = -\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{1+4y}}{2}$

(i) $f^{-1}(2) = \{-2, 1\}$

(ii) $f^{-1}(-2) = \emptyset$

(iii) As $x = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{1+4y}}{2}$ is increasing and $x = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{1+4y}}{2}$ is decreasing while y increasing, $f^{-1}([2, 6]) = [-3, -2] \cup [1, 2]$

Exercise 1.16 Show that $f(x) = x^2$ is Lipschitz on $[0, 2]$, bi-Lipschitz on $[1, 2]$ and not Lipschitz on \mathbb{R} .

Solution:

(i) As $\forall x, y \in [0, 2]$, $|x+y| \leq 4$, we have $|f(x) - f(y)| = |x^2 - y^2| = |x+y||x-y| \leq 4|x-y|$. Thus, f is Lipschitz on $[0, 2]$.

(ii) Apparently, $2|x-y| \leq |f(x) - f(y)| \leq 4|x-y|$ by above. As $f([1, 2]) = [1, 4]$, $\forall x, y \in [1, 4]$, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}} \leq \frac{1}{2}$, we have:

$$|f^{-1}(x) - f^{-1}(y)| = |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{y}| = \left| \frac{x-y}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x-y|$$

\Rightarrow so f^{-1} is Lipschitz on $[1, 4]$.

$\Rightarrow f$ is bi-Lipschitz on $[1, 2]$.

(iii) Let $x = ky, k \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, then $\frac{|f(x) - f(y)|}{|x-y|} = \frac{|k^2y^2 - y^2|}{|ky - y|} = \left| \frac{k^2 - 1}{k - 1} \right| |y|$, which is unbounded on \mathbb{R} . Therefore, the Lipschitz constant does not exist and f is not Lipschitz on \mathbb{R}

3 May 25

3.1 Basic Set Theory(1.1)

Review and summary of some definitions and theorems:

Definition 3.1.1 (Countable) *An infinite set A is countable if its elements can be listed in the form x_1, x_2, \dots with every element appearing at a specific place in the list; otherwise, the set is uncountable*

Definition 3.1.2 (Open) $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open if, $\forall x \in A, \exists B(x, r) \subset A$ where $r > 0$.

Definition 3.1.3 (Closed) $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if, whenever $\{x_k\} \in A, x_k \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then $x \in A$.

Definition 3.1.4 (Closure) \bar{A} is the intersection of all the closed sets containing a set A .

Definition 3.1.5 (Interior) $\text{int}(A)$ is the union of all open sets contained in A .

Definition 3.1.4 and 3.1.5 shows that The closure of A is thought of as the **smallest closed set** containing A , and the interior as the **largest open set** contained in A .

Definition 3.1.6 (Boundary) $\partial A = \bar{A} \setminus \text{int}(A)$

Theorem 3.1.1 $x \in \partial A \Leftrightarrow \forall r > 0, B(x, r) \cap A \neq \emptyset, B(x, r) \cap A^C \neq \emptyset$

Definition 3.1.7 (Dense) Set B is a dense in A if $A \subset \bar{B}$, that is, if there are points of B arbitrarily close to each point of A .

Definition 3.1.8 (Compact) A is compact if any collection of open sets that covers A has a finite subcollection which also covers A .

Theorem 3.1.2 A compact subset of \mathbb{R}^n is both closed and bounded.

Theorem 3.1.3 The intersection of any collection of compact sets is compact.

Definition 3.1.9 (Connected) $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is connected if there not exists open sets U and V s.t. $A \subset U \cup V$ with disjoint and nonempty $A \cap U$ and $A \cap V$.

Definition 3.1.10 (Connected Component) Connected component of x is the largest connected subset of A containing a point x .

Definition 3.1.11 (Disconnect) The set A is totally disconnected if the connected component of each point consists of just that point.

The definition of disconnect also can be as: \exists open sets U and V s.t. $x \in U, y \in V$ and $A \subset U \cup V$.

Definition 3.1.12 (Borel Set) Borel Sets is the smallest collection of subsets of \mathbb{R}^n with the following properties:

1. Every open set and every closed set is a Borel set.
2. The union of every finite or countable collection of Borel sets is a Borel set, and the intersection of every finite or countable collection of Borel sets is a Borel set.

In short, Any set that can be constructed using a sequence of countable unions or intersections starting with the open sets or closed sets will certainly be Borel.

3.2 Functions and Limits(1.2)

Definition 3.2.1 (Congruence) The transformation $S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is congruence or isometry if it preserves distances i.e. if $|S(x) - S(y)| = |x - y|$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Special cases include *translations*, which are of the form $S(x) = x + a$ and have the effect of shifting points parallel to the vector a , *rotations* which have a centre a such that $|S(x) - a| = |x - a|$ for all x (for convenience, we also regard the identity transformation given by $I(x) = x$ as a rotation) and *reflections*, which maps points to their mirror images in some $(n - 1)$ -dimensional plane. A congruence that may be achieved by a combination of a rotation and a translation, that is, does not involve reflection, is called a *rigid motion* or *direct congruence*. A transformation $S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a *similarity* of ratio or scale $c > 0$ if $|S(x) - S(y)| = c|x - y|$ for all x, y in \mathbb{R}^n . A similarity transforms sets into geometrically similar ones with all lengths multiplied by the factor c .

Definition 3.2.2 (Linear Transformation) A transformation $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is linear if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$ and $T(\lambda x) = \lambda T(x), \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

Such a linear transformation is *non-singular* if $T(x) = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$. If $S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is of the form $S(x) = T(x) + a$, where T is a non-singular linear transformation and a is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , then S is called an *affine transformation* or an *affinity*. An affinity may be thought of as a shearing transformation; its contracting or expanding effect need not be the same in every direction. However, if T is orthonormal, then S is a congruence, and if T is a scalar multiple of an orthonormal transformation, then T is a similarity.

Definition 3.2.3 (Hölder Function) A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called a Hölder function of exponent α if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y|^\alpha \quad (x, y \in X)$$

for some constant $c \geq 0$.

Definition 3.2.4 (Lipschitz Function) The function f is called Lipschitz if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y| \quad (x, y \in X)$$

and bi-Lipschitz if

$$c_1|x - y| \leq |f(x) - f(y)| \leq c_2|x - y| \quad (x, y \in X)$$

for $0 < c_1 \leq c_2 < \infty$, in which case both f and $f^{-1} : f(X) \rightarrow X$ are Lipschitz functions.

Definition 3.2.5 (Lower Limit)

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) \equiv \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} (\inf \{f(x) : 0 < x < r\})$$

Note: $\inf \{f(x) : 0 < x < r\}$ is either $-\infty$ for all positive r or else increases as r decreases, $\liminf_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ always exists.

Definition 3.2.6 (Upper Limit)

$$\overline{\lim}_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) \equiv \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} (\sup\{f(x) : 0 < x < r\})$$

Note: The lower and upper limits exist as real numbers or $-\infty$ or ∞ for every function f and are indicative of the variation of f for x close to 0, shown in Figure 1.

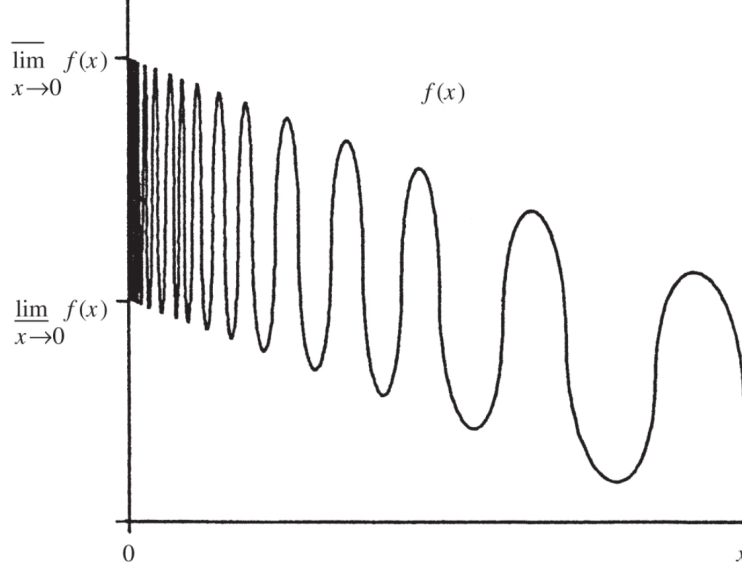


Figure 1: The upper and lower limits of a function.

We write $f(x) \sim g(x)$ to mean that $f(x)/g(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow 0$.

Theorem 3.2.1 (Lipschitz functions are continuous)

Proof: Assume that the function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a Lipschitz function s.t. $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y|$ ($x, y \in X$) for some constant $c \geq 0$. Then, $\forall \epsilon > 0$, let $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{c}$, and we have $\forall x, y \in X, |x - y| < \delta \Rightarrow |x - y| < \frac{\epsilon}{c} \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y| \leq c \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{c} = \epsilon \Rightarrow$ Lipschitz functions are continuous.

Definition 3.2.7 (Homeomorphism) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous bijection with continuous inverse $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$, then f is called a homeomorphism, and X and Y are termed homeomorphic sets.

Corollary 3.2.1 Congruences, similarities and affine transformations on \mathbb{R}^n are examples of homeomorphisms.

Definition 3.2.8 (Differentiable) If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, we say that f is differentiable at x and has derivative given by the linear mapping $f'(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(x+h) - f(x) - f'(x)h|}{|h|} = 0.$$

Definition 3.2.9 (Pointwise Convergence) For a sequence of functions: $f_k : X \rightarrow Y$ where X and Y are subsets of Euclidean spaces. f_k converge pointwise to a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ if $f_k(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Definition 3.2.10 (Uniform Convergence) For a sequence of functions: $f_k : X \rightarrow Y$ where X and Y are subsets of Euclidean spaces. f_k converge uniformly to a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ if $\sup_{x \in X} |f_k(x) - f(x)| \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Note: Uniform convergence is a stronger property than pointwise convergence i.e. Uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence, but not the other way around

Theorem 3.2.2 If the functions f_k are continuous and converge uniformly to f , then f is continuous.

proof: TODO

Theorem 3.2.3 (Logarithms) Apparently, $a^c = b^{c \log a / \log b}$