

# Math 118B Solutions

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## Homework Problems

1. Let  $(X_i, d_i)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , be finitely many metric spaces. Construct a metric on the product space  $X = X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$ .

*Proof.* Denote points in  $X$  as  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ . Given  $x, y \in X$  define  $d(x, y) = d_1(x_1, y_1) + \cdots + d_n(x_n, y_n)$ . Then clearly  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  and  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ . Furthermore, if  $d(x, y) = 0$  then each  $d_i(x_i, y_i) = 0$ . That is, each  $x_i = y_i$  and  $x = y$ . Finally, given  $x, y, z \in X$  we have

$$d(x, z) = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x_i, z_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x_i, y_i) + d_i(y_i, z_i) = d(x, y) + d(y, z).$$

Hence  $d$  is a metric on  $X$ . □

2. Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Prove that

$$\delta(x, y) = \frac{d(x, y)}{1 + d(x, y)}; \quad x, y \in X$$

is also a metric on  $X$ .

*Proof.* Clearly we have that  $\delta(x, y) = \delta(y, x)$  and  $\delta(x, y) \geq 0$ . If  $\delta(x, y) = 0$ , then  $d(x, y) = 0$  and  $x = y$ . Finally, given  $x, y, z \in X$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(x, z) &= \frac{d(x, z)}{1 + d(x, z)} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{1 + d(x, z)} \\ &\leq 1 - \frac{1}{1 + d(x, y) + d(y, z)} \\ &= \frac{d(x, y) + d(y, z)}{1 + d(x, y) + d(y, z)} \\ &= \frac{d(x, y)}{1 + d(x, y) + d(y, z)} + \frac{d(y, z)}{1 + d(x, y) + d(y, z)} \\ &\leq \frac{d(x, y)}{1 + d(x, y)} + \frac{d(y, z)}{1 + d(y, z)} \\ &= \delta(x, y) + \delta(y, z). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\delta$  is a metric on  $X$ . □

3. Prove that the space  $\ell_\infty$  of bounded sequences is complete with respect to the  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  distance. Let  $c, c_0$  denote the subspaces of  $\ell_\infty$  of convergent, respectively, convergent to zero, sequences. Prove that  $c, c_0$  are closed subspaces of  $\ell_\infty$ .

*Proof.* This is a bit of a notational challenge. Let  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  be a sequence of points within  $\ell_\infty$ , each of which is *itself a sequence of real numbers*. That is, for each  $i \geq 1$  we have that

$$x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, x_{i3}, \dots).$$

Suppose that the sequence  $(x_i)$  is Cauchy in  $\ell_\infty$ . Then for each  $i, m, n \geq 1$  we have

$$\|x_{im} - x_{in}\| \leq \sup_i |x_{im} - x_{in}| = \|x_m - x_n\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$$

as  $m, n \rightarrow \infty$ . That is, each sequence of real numbers  $x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$ , hence convergent. Let  $y_i = \lim x_{in}$  and consider the sequence  $y = (y_i)$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Find  $N$  (depending only upon  $\epsilon$ ) so that for all  $m, n \geq N$  we have  $\|x_n - x_m\|_\infty < \epsilon/2$ . For each  $k$  this implies that  $|x_{nk} - x_{mk}| < \epsilon/2$ . If we take  $m \rightarrow \infty$  then  $x_{mk} \rightarrow y_k$  and we have that  $|x_{nk} - y_k| \leq \epsilon/2$  for all  $k \geq 1$ . Taking the supremum over  $k$  gives  $\|x_n - y\|_\infty \leq \epsilon/2 < \epsilon$ . This shows that  $\|x_n - y\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We should also verify that  $y \in \ell_\infty$ ; if  $n$  is such that  $\|x_n - y\|_\infty < 1$  then

$$\|y\|_\infty = \|x_n + (x_n - y)\|_\infty < \|x_n\|_\infty + 1 < \infty,$$

so indeed  $y \in \ell_\infty$ .

Now we turn our attention to  $c$  and  $c_0$ ; since convergent sequences are bounded we have that  $c, c_0 \subset \ell_\infty$ . It is clear that  $c, c_0$  are both subspaces, so we'll only show that they are both closed. Suppose that  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $c$  which converges to some point  $y \in \ell_\infty$ . We wish to show that  $y \in c$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and find  $n$  so that  $\|x_n - y\|_\infty < \epsilon/3$ . Now find  $M$  so that for all  $j, k \geq M$  we have  $|x_{nj} - x_{nk}| < \epsilon/3$ . For all such  $j, k$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} |y_j - y_k| &\leq |y_j - x_{nj}| + |x_{nj} - x_{nk}| + |x_{nk} - y_k| \\ &\leq \|y - x_n\|_\infty + |x_{nj} - x_{nk}| + \|y - x_k\|_\infty \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

So  $y$  is a Cauchy sequence of real numbers, hence convergent. That is,  $y \in c$ .

Now suppose that  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $c_0$  which converges to some  $y \in \ell_\infty$ . Since  $c_0 \subset c$ , the above reasoning shows that  $y \in c$ ; we need only show that  $\lim y = 0$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and take  $n$  so that  $\|y - x_n\|_\infty < \epsilon/2$ . Then for each  $k$  we have  $|y_k - x_{nk}| < \epsilon/2$ . Find  $M$  so that for all  $k \geq M$  we have  $|x_{nk}| < \epsilon/2$ ; for all such  $k$  we have

$$|y_k| \leq |y_k - x_{nk}| + |x_{nk}| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

So  $\lim y = 0$  as desired. □

4. Describe the intervals  $[0, a] \subset \mathbb{R}$  such that the function  $f : [0, a] \rightarrow [0, a]$ ,  $f(x) = \sin x$ , is contractive.

*Proof.* Let  $a > 0$ . Suppose there exists a  $c < 1$  so that for all  $x, y \in [0, a]$ ,

$$|\sin x - \sin y| \leq c|x - y|.$$

Let  $x \in (0, a]$  and note that

$$\frac{|\sin x - \sin 0|}{|x - 0|} < c.$$

But if we take  $x \rightarrow 0$ , we have that  $1 \leq c$ , a contradiction. Upon no such interval is the sine function contractive. □

5. Let  $A$  be a bounded subset of  $C[0, 1]$ . Prove that the set of functions

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt, \quad f \in A,$$

is equicontinuous in  $C[0, 1]$ .

*Proof.* For convenience denote

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ \int_0^x f(t) dt : f \in A \right\}.$$

Choose  $M > 0$  so that for each  $f \in A$  we have  $\|f\|_\infty \leq M$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$  set  $\delta = \epsilon/M$ . Whenever  $x, y \in [0, 1]$  are such that  $|x - y| < \delta$  and  $f \in A$ , it follows that

$$\left| \int_0^x f(t) dt - \int_0^y f(t) dt \right| = \left| \int_y^x f(t) dt \right| \leq M|x - y| < M\delta = \epsilon,$$

so we conclude that  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous. □

6. Is the sequence of functions  $\sin(nx)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , equicontinuous in  $C[0, 1]$ ?

*Proof.* Suppose that the sequence is equicontinuous. In particular, there exists a  $\delta$  so that for any  $n$  and  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$ ,

$$|\sin nx - \sin ny| < 1.$$

Let  $n$  be so large that  $\pi/2n < \delta$ . Then  $|\pi/2n - 0| < \delta$ , yet

$$|\sin(n \cdot \pi/2n) - \sin(n \cdot 0)| = 1,$$

a contradiction. The family is not equicontinuous. □

7. Start with  $P_0 = 0$  and define for  $n \geq 0$

$$P_{n+1}(x) = P_n(x) + \frac{x^2 - P_n^2(x)}{2}.$$

Prove that  $P_n(x) \rightarrow |x|$  uniformly on  $[-1, 1]$ .

*Proof.* We start by proving that  $0 \leq P_n(x) \leq |x|$  for all  $x \in [-1, 1]$  and  $n \geq 0$ . This is true for  $P_0(x) = 0$ , so assume it true for some  $n \geq 0$ . Then  $x^2 - P_n^2(x) \geq 0$  and  $P_n(x) \geq 0$  implies that  $P_{n+1}(x) \geq 0$ . Further, notice that

$$|x| - P_{n+1}(x) = [|x| - P_n(x)] \left[ 1 - \frac{|x| + P_n(x)}{2} \right]. \quad (1)$$

Each factor on the right is positive since  $P_n \leq |x|$  and  $(|x| + P_n(x))/2 \leq |x| \leq 1$ ; thus  $P_{n+1}(x) \leq |x|$ . By induction  $0 \leq P_n(x) \leq |x|$  for all  $x \in [-1, 1]$  and  $n \geq 0$ .

**FIRST PROOF** Define the functions  $g_n(x) = |x| - P_n(x)$ ; we want to show that  $g_n \rightarrow 0$  uniformly. Notice that

$$g_{n+1}(x) = g_n(x) \left[ 1 - \frac{|x| + P_n(x)}{2} \right] \leq g_n(x) \left[ 1 - \frac{|x|}{2} \right].$$

Since  $g_0(x) = |x|$  we find that

$$g_n(x) \leq |x| \left( 1 - \frac{|x|}{2} \right)^n.$$

We wish to bound the right side from above uniformly in  $x$ . It suffices to consider  $x \geq 0$ ; define  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x) = x \left( 1 - \frac{x}{2} \right)^n.$$

Since  $f$  is continuous on a compact interval, it attains an absolute maximum. To find candidates for the maximum, we need

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{d}{dx} \ln f(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{x} - \frac{n}{2-x} \\ &= \frac{2-x(n+1)}{x(2-x)}. \end{aligned}$$

The only relative maximum of  $f$  occurs at  $x = 2/(n+1)$ . Since  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(1) = 2^{-n}$ , the absolute maximum is at  $x = 2/(n+1)$ . Therefore

$$g_n(x) \leq |x| \left(1 - \frac{|x|}{2}\right)^n \leq f\left(\frac{2}{n+1}\right) = \frac{2}{n+1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^n < \frac{2}{n+1}.$$

Thus  $\|g_n\|_\infty \leq 2/(n+1)$  and  $g_n \rightarrow 0$  uniformly, as desired.

**ALTERNATIVE PROOF** Once we know that  $0 \leq P_n(x) \leq |x|$  we see that

$$P_{n+1}(x) = P_n(x) + \frac{x^2 - P_n^2(x)}{2} \geq P_n(x),$$

so for each  $x$  the sequence  $(P_n(x))$  is monotone and bounded by  $|x|$ , hence pointwise convergent. This limit function must be  $|x|$ ; if we denote  $P_n(x) \rightarrow L$  then

$$L = L + \frac{x^2 - L^2}{2},$$

so  $L = |x|$  because  $L \geq 0$ . Uniform convergence now follows from Dini's theorem:

**Theorem (Dini).** *Let  $X$  be a compact metric space and suppose that*

$$f_1 \geq f_2 \geq f_3 \geq \dots$$

*are continuous real-valued functions which converge pointwise to a continuous function  $f$ . Then the convergence is uniform.*

*Proof of Dini's theorem.* If we consider  $f_n - f$ , we have a monotone sequence of continuous functions which converge pointwise to 0 (from above); henceforth we'll assume the pointwise limit is 0. If  $f_n$  does not converge uniformly to 0, there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  and a subsequence  $(f_{n_k})$  so that  $\|f_{n_k}\|_\infty \geq 2\epsilon$  for all  $k$ . That is, we can find a sequence of points  $(x_{n_k})$  in  $X$  so that  $f_{n_k}(x_{n_k}) \geq \epsilon$  for all  $k$ . Since  $X$  is compact there is a convergent subsequence of  $(x_{n_k})$ ; for simplicity, we'll not denote a new sequence and instead assume that  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x \in X$ . Here's where we use monotonicity: fix  $j$  and note that for any  $k > j$

$$\epsilon \leq f_{n_k}(x_{n_k}) \leq f_{n_j}(x_{n_k}).$$

If we take  $k \rightarrow \infty$  then  $f_{n_j}(x_{n_k}) \rightarrow f_{n_j}(x)$  by continuity; thus  $f_{n_j}(x) \geq \epsilon$  for arbitrary  $j$ . Taking  $j \rightarrow \infty$  we see that  $f_{n_j}(x) \not\rightarrow 0$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

The continuous functions  $|x| - P_n(x)$  monotonically approach 0 pointwise from above, so the convergence is uniform by Dini's theorem.  $\square$

**Addendum** Here's an even better proof of Dini's theorem!

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and define for each  $n \geq 0$  the set  $U_n = \{x \in X : f_n(x) - f(x) < \epsilon\}$ . Since each  $f_n - f$  is continuous, each  $U_n$  is open. The monotonicity of the sequence  $(f_n)$  implies that the sets  $U_n$  are nested:  $U_1 \subseteq U_2 \subseteq U_3 \subseteq \dots$ . At any  $x \in X$  the sequence  $(f_n(x) - f(x))$  converges to 0, so each  $x$  is in some  $U_n$ . That is, the sets  $U_n$  form an open cover of  $X$ ; by compactness a finite subcover exists:  $U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_N = X$ . But the sets  $U_n$  are nested, so  $U_N = X$  and for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $X = U_N \subseteq U_n \subseteq X$ , whence  $U_n = X$  as well. Translating out of set language, for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $f_n - f < \epsilon$  throughout  $X$ .  $\square$

8. (a) Give an example of a continuous function  $f : [1, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  so that  $\int_1^\infty f$  diverges but  $\sum_1^\infty f$  converges.
- (b) Give an example of a continuous function  $f : [1, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  so that  $\int_1^\infty f$  converges but  $\sum_1^\infty f$  diverges.

*Proof.* (a) Let  $f$  be a sawtooth function with  $f(x) = |x|$  on  $[-1/2, 1/2]$ , extended periodically. Then  $\int f$  is the area of an infinite number of triangles, each of area  $1/4$ . Nevertheless  $f(n) = 0$  for each integer  $n$ , whence  $\sum f$  converges.

(b) Let  $f$  be defined as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2^n(x-n) + 1 & \text{if } n - 2^{-n} \leq x \leq n \\ 2^n(n-x) + 1 & \text{if } n \leq x \leq n + 2^{-n} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

A picture is more illuminating; the graph of  $f$  is a sawtooth which is 1 at each integer, a narrow triangle near each integer, and 0 otherwise. The sum  $\sum f$  diverges, yet each triangle has area  $2^{-n}$ , so

$$\int_1^\infty f(x) dx = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{2^n} = 1.$$

□

9. For which values of  $p, q$  are the integrals

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x^p} dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_0^1 \frac{(\sin x)^q}{x} dx$$

convergent?

*Proof.* Answer:  $p < 2$  and  $q > 0$ . Recall that  $\sin x/x \rightarrow 1$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ; extend  $\sin x/x$  to a positive, continuous function  $f$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ . Let  $m, M$  be the infimum and supremum, respectively, of  $f$  on  $[0, 1]$ . Notice that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x^p} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{f(x)}{x^{p-1}} dx \leq M \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{p-1}} < \infty$$

if  $p < 2$  and that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x^p} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{f(x)}{x^{p-1}} dx \geq m \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{p-1}} = \infty$$

if  $p \geq 2$ . Similarly, notice that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{(\sin x)^q}{x} dx = \int_0^1 x^{q-1} f^q(x) dx \leq M^q \int_0^1 x^{q-1} dx < \infty$$

if  $q > 0$  and that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{(\sin x)^q}{x} dx = \int_0^1 x^{q-1} f^q(x) dx \geq m^q \int_0^1 x^{q-1} dx = \infty$$

if  $q \leq 0$ .

□

## Midterm Practice

1. Verify the inclusions  $\ell_1 \subset \ell_2, \ell_\infty$ . Are any of these spaces closed in the bigger one?

*Proof.* Let  $x = (x_n) \in \ell_1$ . That is,  $\sum |x_n| < \infty$ . For each  $k$  we have

$$|x_k| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n| = \|x\|_1,$$

so taking the supremum over  $k$  gives  $\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_1 < \infty$  and we conclude  $x \in \ell_\infty$ . Since the series  $\sum |x_n|$  converges the sequence  $|x_n|$  converges to 0. Hence for some  $N$  and all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|x_n|^2 < |x_n|$ , so

$$\|x\|_2^2 = \sum_1^{\infty} |x_n|^2 \leq \sum_1^{N-1} |x_n|^2 + \sum_N^{\infty} |x_n| \leq \sum_1^{N-1} |x_n|^2 + \|x\|_1 < \infty,$$

and  $x \in \ell_2$  as well. In fact, we have  $\ell_1 \subset \ell_2 \subset \ell_\infty$ .

We will show that  $\ell_1$  is neither closed in  $\ell_2$  nor in  $\ell_\infty$ . For notational convenience (and intuition!) we define the “sequences of compact support” consisting of those sequences which, after a finite number of terms, are identically 0:

$$F = \{x \in \ell_\infty : \exists N \text{ so that } \forall n \geq N, x_n = 0\}.$$

Notice the inclusions  $F \subsetneq \ell_1 \subsetneq \ell_2 \subsetneq c_0 \subsetneq c \subsetneq \ell_\infty$ . We will compute the closure of  $F$  in both the  $\ell_2$  and  $\ell_\infty$  topologies; from there we can make conclusions about  $\ell_1$ .

First we compute the closure of  $F$  in  $\ell_2$ . Let  $x \in \ell_2$  be arbitrary and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\sum |x_n|^2 < \infty$  we can find an  $N$  so that

$$\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} |x_n|^2 < \epsilon.$$

We can define  $y \in F$  as

$$y_n = \begin{cases} x_n & \text{if } n < N \\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq N \end{cases}$$

so that

$$\|x - y\|_2 = \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} |x_n|^2 < \epsilon.$$

Since  $x$  and  $\epsilon$  are arbitrary, we conclude that a point in  $\ell_2$  can be approximated to within any error by an element of  $F$ . That is, any point of  $\ell_2$  is a limit point of  $F$ . This shows that  $\overline{F} \supseteq \ell_2$ , but since we know  $\overline{F} \subseteq \ell_2$  we can conclude  $\overline{F} = \ell_2$ . Now consider the following topological fact: whenever  $A \subseteq B$ , it follows that  $\overline{A} \subseteq \overline{B}$ . Thus we know that

$$\overline{F} \subseteq \overline{\ell_1} \subseteq \overline{\ell_2},$$

where all closures refer to the  $\ell_2$  topology. We've shown that  $\overline{F} = \ell_2$ ; furthermore,  $\ell_2$  is closed in its own metric, so we have

$$\ell_2 \subseteq \overline{\ell_1} \subseteq \ell_2,$$

which implies that  $\overline{\ell_1} = \ell_2$ . Since  $\overline{\ell_1} \neq \ell_1$ , we see that  $\ell_1$  is not closed in  $\ell_2$ .

Now we compute the closure of  $F$  in  $\ell_\infty$ . From a previous homework problem we know that  $c_0$  is closed; since  $F \subseteq c_0$  we know  $\overline{F} \subseteq c_0$  (now we use the closure symbol with respect to the  $\ell_\infty$  topology). Let  $x \in c_0$  be arbitrary and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $x$  converges to 0 we can find  $N$  so that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|x_n| < \epsilon$ . We can define  $y \in F$  as

$$y_n = \begin{cases} x_n & \text{if } n < N \\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq N \end{cases}$$

so that

$$|x_n - y_n| = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n < N \\ |x_n| & \text{if } n \geq N \end{cases}$$

For all  $n$  we have  $|x_n - y_n| < \epsilon$  and hence  $\|x - y\|_\infty < \epsilon$ . Since  $x$  and  $\epsilon$  are arbitrary, we see that points in  $c_0$  can be approximated to within any error by points in  $F$ ; that is,  $\overline{F} \supseteq c_0$ . Hence  $\overline{F} = c_0$  and from  $F \subset \ell_1 \subset c_0$  we conclude—as with  $\ell_2$  above—that  $\overline{\ell_1} = c_0$ . Once again the closure of  $\ell_1$  is not itself, so  $\ell_1$  is not closed in  $\ell_\infty$ .  $\square$

2. Let  $C(0,1)$  denote the space of continuous functions on the open interval  $(0,1)$ . For  $f, g \in C(0,1)$  define

$$U(f, g) = \{t \in (0, 1) : f(t) \neq g(t)\}.$$

By continuity  $U(f, g)$  is an open set, hence a disjoint union of intervals. Define  $d(f, g) = \text{length}(U(f, g))$ . Prove that  $(C(0,1), d)$  is a metric space.

*Proof.* Note that  $d \geq 0$  by definition and that  $d(f, g) = d(g, f)$  trivially. Suppose that  $d(f, g) = 0$ . Then  $U(f, g) = \emptyset$  and  $f = g$ . Finally, given  $f, g, h \in C[0, 1]$  we have that

$$\begin{aligned} [0, 1] \setminus U(f, h) &= \{t \in [0, 1] : f(t) = h(t)\} \\ &\supseteq \{t \in [0, 1] : f(t) = g(t) \text{ and } h(t) = g(t)\} \\ &= \{t \in [0, 1] : f(t) = g(t)\} \cap \{t \in [0, 1] : h(t) = g(t)\} \\ &= ([0, 1] \setminus U(f, g)) \cap ([0, 1] \setminus U(g, h)) \\ &= [0, 1] \setminus (U(f, g) \cup U(g, h)) \end{aligned}$$

So that  $U(f, h) \subseteq U(f, g) \cup U(g, h)$ . Length is both monotonic and subadditive (a fact from measure theory which is intuitively clear in this context), so that

$$\begin{aligned} d(f, h) &= \text{length}(U(f, h)) \\ &\leq \text{length}(U(f, g) \cup U(g, h)) \\ &\leq \text{length}(U(f, g)) + \text{length}(U(g, h)) \\ &= d(f, g) + d(g, h). \end{aligned}$$

The triangle inequality holds, so  $d$  is in fact a metric for  $C[0, 1]$ . □

3. Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be separately continuous. Prove that if each function  $x \mapsto f(x, y_0)$  and  $y \mapsto f(x_0, y)$  is uniformly continuous with respect to  $x_0$  and  $y_0$ , then the function  $f$  is continuous.

*Proof.* For simplicity we show that  $f$  is continuous at  $(0, 0)$ ; the same argument shows that the function is continuous at any point in the plane. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and find  $\delta_1$  so that for any  $x, y$  with  $|x| < \delta_1$  we have  $|f(x, y) - f(0, y)| < \epsilon/2$ . Similarly find  $\delta_2$  so that for any  $x, y$  with  $|y| < \delta_2$  we have  $|f(x, y) - f(x, 0)| < \epsilon/2$ . Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ . If  $\|(x, y)\| < \delta$  then both  $|x| < \delta_1$  and  $|y| < \delta_2$  so we find

$$|f(x, y) - f(0, 0)| \leq |f(x, y) - f(x, 0)| + |f(x, 0) - f(0, 0)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

Hence  $f$  is continuous at  $(0, 0)$ . □

4. Use the Arzelà-Ascoli theorem to show that  $\{f \in C[0, 1] : \|f\|_\infty \leq 1\}$  cannot be covered by a sequence of compact sets.

*Proof.* Denote  $B = \{f \in C[0, 1] : \|f\|_\infty \leq 1\}$  as the unit ball in  $C[0, 1]$ . Suppose that  $K_1, K_2, \dots$  are compact sets in  $B$  so that  $B = \cup_n K_n$ . Each  $K_n$  is contained in  $B$ , hence uniformly bounded. By the Arzelà-Ascoli theorem, each  $K_n$  is an equicontinuous family of functions in  $C[0, 1]$ .

Then more stuff. Whatever. □

## Midterm

1. Give an example of an incomplete metric space and compute its completion.

*Proof.* A simple example is  $\mathbb{Q}$  whose completion is  $\mathbb{R}$  by definition. □

2. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a uniformly continuous function. Prove that the set of its translates

$$f_a(x) = f(x - a), \quad a \in \mathbb{R}$$

is equicontinuous.

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and choose  $\delta > 0$  so that whenever  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$  it follows that  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ . Given such  $x, y$  and any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

$$|(x - a) - (y - a)| = |x - y| < \delta \quad \implies \quad |f_a(x) - f_a(y)| = |f(x - a) - f(y - a)| < \epsilon.$$

Thus the family is equicontinuous. □

3. Find a set  $S \subset \ell^\infty$  which is closed, bounded, but not compact.

*Proof.* Define the closed unit ball  $S = \{x \in \ell^\infty : \|x\|_\infty \leq 1\}$ . The ball is clearly closed and bounded, but not compact; to see this consider the sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $S$  wherein each  $x_n$  is a sequence of all zeroes, except for a 1 in the  $n$ -th position. Whenever  $n \neq m$  we have  $\|x_n - x_m\|_\infty = 1$ , so that no subsequence can be Cauchy, let alone convergent. □

4. Prove that  $d(x, y) = |x^3 - y^3|$  is a distance on  $x, y \in (0, \infty)$ .

*Proof.* This is straight-forward. Clearly  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  and  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$  for any  $x, y \in (0, \infty)$ . Further, if  $d(x, y) = 0$  then  $x^3 - y^3 = 0$  and  $x = y$ . Finally, given any  $x, y, z \in (0, \infty)$  we have

$$d(x, z) = |x^3 - z^3| \leq |x^3 - y^3| + |y^3 - z^3| = d(x, y) + d(y, z),$$

so  $d$  is a metric. □

5. Let  $K$  be a compact subset of a complete metric space  $(X, d)$ . Prove that the function

$$x \mapsto \text{dist}(x, K) = \inf_{y \in K} d(x, y)$$

is a continuous function on  $X$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and choose  $\delta = \epsilon/2$ . Given  $x, y \in X$  with  $d(x, y) < \delta$ , we can find  $z \in K$  so that

$$d(x, z) < \text{dist}(x, K) + \epsilon/2.$$

Since  $\text{dist}(y, K) \leq d(y, z)$  we have that

$$\text{dist}(y, K) \leq d(y, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(x, z) < \delta + \text{dist}(x, K) + \epsilon/2 = \text{dist}(x, K) + \epsilon.$$

Thus  $\text{dist}(y, K) - \text{dist}(x, K) < \epsilon$ . Reversing the roles of  $x, y$  in the above argument gives  $\text{dist}(x, K) - \text{dist}(y, K) < \epsilon$ ; together this gives  $|\text{dist}(y, K) - \text{dist}(x, K)| < \epsilon$ , so the function is continuous. □