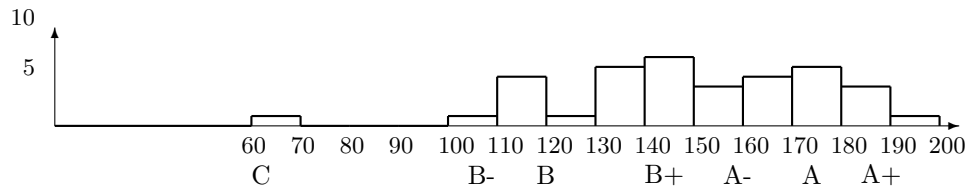


**18.100B/C, SECTION 1, MELROSE  
SOLUTIONS TO FINAL EXAM**

Median seems to be around 142. Grades are modified by 100C component (if relevant) and HW/Tests.



PROBLEM 1

Let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be a closed and bounded set and let  $f : [0, 1] \times K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a continuous function on this subset of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (all with respect to the Euclidean metric). Show that the set of functions  $\{g_s\}_{s \in [0, 1]}$  where

$$g_s(x) = f(s, x)$$

is equicontinuous on  $K$ .

Solution: The subset  $[0, 1] \times K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  is compact, as the product of two compact sets. To see this consider a sequence in  $[0, 1] \times K$  which consists of a pair of sequences, one in  $[0, 1]$  and the other in  $K$ . The first has a convergent subsequence with limit in  $[0, 1]$  by the Heine-Borel theorem and taking the corresponding subsequence of the second this has in turn a convergent subsequence by the compactness of  $K$  and a result to this effect from Rudin. Or recall that we proved that the product of two compact sets is compact, or use Heine-Borel more directly. Since  $f$  is continuous on this compact metric space, by a result in Rudin, it is uniformly continuous. Thus, given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|s_1 - s_2|^2 + |y - y'|^2 < \delta^2 \implies |f(s_1, y) - f(s_2, y')| < \epsilon.$$

Taking  $s_1 = s_2$  this is precisely what is needed to show that the collection of functions  $g_s$  is equicontinuous.

Comments. Quite a few people got to uniform continuity and then did not see that it gave equicontinuity of the  $g_s$ . Some people tried to bluff their way through. Some people used the continuity of the map  $[0, 1] \ni s \mapsto g_s \in \mathcal{C}(K)$ , Heine-Borel and Ascoli-Arzelà. This works if you prove continuity of the map, which is pretty much precisely the equicontinuity we want but okay.

PROBLEM 2

Show that in any metric space, the closure of a connected set is connected.

Solution: See Test 1.

## PROBLEM 3

If  $f : [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function, state a theorem which shows that  $F(x) = \int_0^x f(s)ds$  is differentiable on  $[0, 2]$  (or prove it directly) and show that there exists  $c \in (0, 2)$  such that  $\int_0^2 f(x)dx = 2f(c)$ .

Solution: Sorry about the typo. The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus states that the integral of a Riemann integrable function  $F(x) = \int_0^x f(s)ds$  is differentiable at each point of continuity of  $f$  with derivative there  $F'(x) = f(x)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous everywhere on  $[0, 2]$ ,  $F$  is differentiable on  $[0, 2]$  and by the Mean Value Theorem there exists  $c \in (0, 2)$  such that

$$F(2) - F(0) = \int_0^2 f(s)ds = f(c)(2 - 0) = 2f(c).$$

## PROBLEM 4

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be twice differentiable and suppose that 0 is a local minimum of  $f$ , i.e. for some  $\epsilon > 0$   $f(x) \geq f(0)$  for all  $x \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ . Show that if  $f''(0) > 0$  then 0 is a strict local minimum in the sense that there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $f(x) > f(0)$  for  $0 \neq x \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ .

Solution: By the definition of (second) derivative,  $f''(0)$  is the limit as  $x \rightarrow 0$  of the difference quotient  $(f'(x) - f'(0))/x$ . Since 0 is given to be an interior local minimum of  $f$ ,  $f'(0) = 0$  by a Theorem stating precisely this in Rudin's book. Thus if  $f''(0) > 0$  then  $f'(x)/x > 0$  in  $(-\delta, \delta) \setminus \{0\}$  for some  $\delta > 0$ . Now, applying the mean value theorem if  $x \in (-\delta, 0)$ ,

$$f(0) - f(x) = xf'(c) < 0$$

and similarly, if  $x \in (0, \delta)$  then  $f(x) - f(0) = xf'(c) > 0$  for some  $c \in (0, \delta)$ . Finally then  $f(x) > f(0)$  so  $f$  has a strict local minimum at 0.

There are probably other ways to see this.

## PROBLEM 5

Let  $g_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence of differentiable functions such that the sequence  $g'_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is uniformly bounded.

- (1) Show that there is a sequence of constants  $c_n$  such that sequence of functions  $h_n(x) = g_n(x) - c_n$  has a uniformly convergent subsequence on  $[0, 1]$ .
- (2) Show that if  $\int_0^1 g_n dx$  is a bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  then  $g_n$  has a uniformly convergent subsequence.

Solution: Note that I made a mistake in the first version of the proof by not reading the question and forgetting that I had made it harder by only supposing that the sequence of derivatives is uniformly bounded, not uniformly convergent! So maybe I concede that this was a little too tricky. Oh well, here is an answer to the actual question.

- (1) Set  $c_n = g_n(0)$  so then  $h_n(0) = 0$  for all  $n$ . Since  $h'_n(x) = g'_n(x)$  this sequence is uniformly bounded and hence by the mean value theorem  $|h_n(x)| = |h'_n(t_n)||x|$  for some  $t_n \in (0, x)$  is uniformly bounded. It follows from Ascoli-Arzelà that  $h_n$  has a uniformly convergent

- (2) The  $g_n$  are continuous, since they are differentiable, so the integral exists. Moreover, with  $h_n$  as in the previous part,

$$\int_0^1 h_n dx = \int_0^1 g_n dx - c_n.$$

Thus, if the integrals of the  $g_n$  are bounded then the  $c_n$  must be bounded, since we know that on the subsequence  $h_{n_i}$  converges uniformly so the corresponding subsequence of integrals on the left is convergent, by a result to this effect in Rudin. Thus,  $\{c_{n_i}\}$  is bounded so it has a convergent subsequence, by the Heine-Borel Theorem (maybe Weierstrass in fact). The corresponding subsequence of  $g_n$  therefore converges uniformly, since it is  $h_{n_i} + c_{n_i}'$ .

#### PROBLEM 6

Show that the series of functions

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n \sin(nx)}{n^3 + n^2 + 1}$$

converges uniformly on  $[-1, 1]$  and defines a continuously differentiable function on  $[-1, 1]$ .

Solution: Since  $|\sin y| \leq 1$  the terms of the sequence are bounded by  $(n^3 + n^2 + 1)^{-1}$  for  $|x| \leq 1$ . This gives a convergent series, so the given series is uniformly convergent on  $[-1, 1]$ . Differentiating term by term, gives a new series with  $n$ th term

$$\frac{nx^{n-1} \sin(nx) + nx^n \cos(nx)}{n^3 + n^2 + 1}$$

This is bounded in absolute value by  $n(n^3 + n^2 + 1)^{-1}$  which again gives a convergent series, so the series of derivatives is also uniformly convergent. It follows from a result in Rudin's book that the limit is differentiable on  $[-1, 1]$  and that the derivative is the uniform limit of this series of continuous functions, hence is also continuous.

#### PROBLEM 7

- (1) Explain carefully why the Riemann-Stieltjes integral

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 \exp(x^3) d\alpha$$

exists for any increasing function  $\alpha : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

- (2) Evaluate this integral when

$$\alpha = \begin{cases} x & x < 0 \\ x + 1 & x \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

This one surely was a gift.

Solution: The function  $x^2 \exp(x^3)$  is continuous since the polynomials  $x^2$  and  $x^3$  are continuous, as is  $\exp$  so by composition and product theorem continuity follows. Since  $\alpha$  is increasing, the Riemann-Stieltjes integrability follows from the theorem in Rudin that any continuous function on a compact interval is integrable.

By a decomposition result in Rudin if we write  $\alpha = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ , where here  $\alpha_2$  is the Heaviside function with jump at 0 and  $\alpha_1(x) = x$  then

$$\int_{-1}^1 f d\alpha = \int_{-1}^1 f d\alpha_1 + \int_{-1}^1 f d\alpha_2$$

for any continuous function. The first integral is the Riemann integral and since  $x^2 \exp(x^3) = \frac{1}{3} \frac{d}{dx} \exp(x^3)$  this evaluates to  $\frac{1}{3}(e - e^{-1})$ . On the other hand the value of  $f$  at 0 is zero, so this in fact is the value of the integral.

#### PROBLEM 8

Let  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function on a compact metric space,  $X$ . If  $\{x_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X$  show that  $\{f(x_n)\}$  has a convergent subsequence with limit in  $f(X)$ .

If you didn't get this one you were not paying attention.

Solution: if  $\{x_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X$  then  $\{f(x_n)\}$  is a sequence in  $f(X)$  which is compact, as the continuous image of a compact set. Thus it has a convergent subsequence with limit in  $f(X)$  as this is a property of any sequence in a compact set.

#### PROBLEM 9

If  $a_n > 0$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , is a sequence of real numbers such that the sequence  $b_N = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n$  is bounded, show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^{\frac{1}{2}} a_{n+1}^{\frac{1}{2}}$  converges.

Solution: Since  $2a_n a_{n+1} \leq a_n^2 + a_{n+1}^2$  taking square-roots shows that the increasing sequence  $b_N$  is bounded above by a multiple of the limit of the series, so it is itself convergent. Hence the series converges.

#### PROBLEM 10

Show that a non-empty open subset of  $(-1, 1)$  can be written as an at most countable union of open intervals  $(a_n, b_n)$  where  $(a_n, b_n) \cap (a_k, b_k) = \emptyset$  if  $k \neq n$ .

Solution: Let  $O$  be the open subset. Consider the rational points in  $O$ . For each such  $q$  let  $O_q = \bigcup(a, b)$ , where  $q \in (a, b) \subset O$ . Each  $O_q$  is open, being the union of open sets, and is non-empty since  $O$  being open contains an interval around  $q$ . Set  $a(q) = \inf O_q$  and  $b(q) = \sup O_q$ , which exist since  $O_q \subset (-1, 1)$ . Then in fact  $O_q = (a(q), b(q))$  is an interval. Indeed,  $a(q) \notin O_q$  since otherwise the complement could not be closed, and similarly  $b(q) \notin O_q$ . However, given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $a < a(q) + \epsilon$  with  $(a, q) \subset O_q$  since  $a(q)$  is the limit of lower points of intervals containing  $q$  in  $O$ . Similarly  $[q, b) \subset O_q$  for some  $b > b(q) - \epsilon$ . Thus in fact  $O_q = (a(q), b(q))$  as claimed. Now,  $O_q = O_{q'}$  for any other  $q' \in O_q \cap \mathbb{Q}$ , since  $O_q$  is an interval containing  $q'$  so  $O_q \subset O_{q'}$  but then  $O_{q'}$  is an interval containing  $q$  (in  $O$  of course) so  $O_{q'} \subset O_q$  and they are equal. It follows that any two of the  $O_q$ 's for rational points in  $O$  are either equal or disjoint. Now, enumerating the rational points in  $O$  and dropping repeated intervals gives the intervals  $(a_n, b_n)$  which form a decomposition of  $O$  as an at most countable union of open intervals, since any point of  $O$  is in an interval  $(a, b) \subset O$  and hence in an  $(a_n, b_n)$ .