

## Ark5: Solutions

I have written down some very sketchy solutions to some of the exercises. I have only treated the ones given for the friday sessions, and it has been done rather hastily, so forgive me if there are errors. Still, I hope, they will be useful for you.

PROBLEM 1: We have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1) \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Hence  $f(1) = 1$ . Now  $f_n(x_n) = (1 - \frac{1}{n})^n$  which tends to  $e^{-1}$ . The sequence  $\{f_n\}$  do not converge *uniformly* to  $f$ , hence lemma 3.5.7 does not apply.  $\square$

PROBLEM 2:

a) Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. We have to produce an  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(n) - g(m)| < \epsilon$  once  $d(n, m) < \delta$ , and this for all  $f \in C(X, \mathbb{R})$ . But the metric on  $x$  is discrete which means that  $d(n, m) = 1$  if  $n \neq m$ ; hence if we choose any  $\delta$  less than one,  $d(n, m) < \delta$  implies that  $n = m$ , and  $|f(n) - f(m)| = 0 < \epsilon$ .

b) As  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is equipped with the sup-norm metric,  $d_{\mathbb{R}^m}(f, g) = \sup\{|f(i) - g(i)| : 1 \leq i \leq m\}$  which clearly is equal to  $d(f, g) = \sup\{|f(x) - g(x)| : x \in X\}$  since  $X = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, m\}$ .

c) Recall what the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem says: Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  has a convergent subsequence.

By 2.b) the map  $F$  gives a one to one correspondence between sequences in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$ , and because  $F$  is an isometry, a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  converges if and only if the corresponding sequence in  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  converges. Furthermore, a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is bounded if and only if the same holds for the corresponding sequence in  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$ .

Now, as the whole space  $C(X, \mathbb{R})$  is equicontinuous, any sequence will also be. And hence every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence by the A&A - theorem. And this exactly what B&W say.  $\square$

PROBLEM 3: First of all, if the function  $\sigma$  is constant its value must be zero since  $\sigma(0) = 0$ , and the functions having  $\sigma = 0$  as modulus of continuity are all constant. Clearly a family of constant functions is equicontinuous (whatever  $\epsilon$  is, use any  $\delta$  you want).

If  $\sigma$  is not constant, the set  $\{\sigma(x) : x \in [0, \infty)\}$  is an interval containing 0, but not reduced to  $\{0\}$ . This since  $\sigma$  is continuous and nonconstant. Hence for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is

a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\sigma(\delta) < \epsilon$ .

a) Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a family of functions from  $X$  to  $Y$  all having  $\sigma$  as modulus of continuity. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and choose  $\delta$  such that  $\sigma(\delta) < \epsilon$ . Then if  $d_X(x, y) < \delta$  we get

$$d_X(f(x), f(y)) < \sigma(d_X(x, y)) \leq \sigma(\delta) < \epsilon$$

since  $\sigma$  is nondecreasing.

b) We want to apply the A&A theorem. We know that the family  $\mathcal{K}$  is equicontinuous, and have only to check that it is closed and bounded.

*Boundedness:* We have the inequality:

$$|f(x)| = |f(x) - f(x_0)| \leq \sigma(d_X(x, x_0)). \quad (*)$$

By assumption  $\sigma$  is continuous, and we know that  $d_X(x, x_0)$  is a continuous function of  $x$ . Hence the composition  $\sigma(d_X(x, x_0))$  is a continuous function of  $x$ . Since  $X$  is compact, it has maximal value, say  $M$ . Then  $*$  translate into:

$$|f(x)| = |f(x) - f(x_0)| \leq \sigma(d_X(x, x_0)) \leq M.$$

and we conclude that  $\mathcal{K}$  is bounded.

*Closedness:* Let  $f_n$  be a sequence in  $\mathcal{K}$  converging to  $f$ . Clearly  $f(x_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x_0) = 0$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and choose  $N$  such that  $|f_n(z) - f(z)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $n \geq N$  and for all  $z \in X$ ; which can be done since  $f_n$  tends uniformly to  $f$ . Then we get:

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x) - f_n(y)| + |f_n(y) - f(y)| < 2\epsilon + \sigma(d(x, y)).$$

This holds for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , and it follows that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq \sigma(d(x, y)).$$

Consequently  $f \in \mathcal{K}$ , that is,  $\mathcal{K}$  is closed. □

#### PROBLEM 4:

a) A polynomial is shaped like  $p(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$  where the  $a_k$ 's are constants. This gives

$$\int p(x)f(x) dx = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \int x^k f(x) dx = 0$$

since for each  $k$ ,  $\int x^k f(x) dx = 0$ .

b) Vi have for any polynomial  $p(x)$ :

$$\int f(x)(f(x) - p(x)) dx = \int f(x)^2 dx - \int f(x)p(x) dx = \int f(x)^2 dx \quad (*)$$

By Weierstrass' approximation theorem we can, for each given  $\epsilon > 0$ , find a polynomial such that  $|f(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Integration gives

$$\int |f(x)(f(x) - p(x))| dx \leq M(b - a)\epsilon,$$

where  $M = \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in [a, b]\}$ . Hence by  $\ast$   $\int f(x)^2 dx < M(b - a)\epsilon$ , but then  $\int f(x)^2 dx = 0$  since  $\epsilon > 0$  can be chosen freely. This implies that  $f(x) = 0$  since  $f(x)^2$  is a positive function.  $\square$

PROBLEM 5:

a) If  $f(x)$  is continuously differentiable, we get by partial integration:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx = \left[ \frac{f(x) \sin nx}{n} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{n} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(x) \sin nx dx = -\frac{1}{n} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(x) \sin nx dx$$

hence

$$\left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx \right| \leq \left| \frac{1}{n} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(x) \sin nx dx \right| \leq \frac{2\pi M}{n} \quad (\ast)$$

where  $M = \sup\{|f'(x)| : x \in [-\pi, \pi]\}$  which is finite since  $f'$  is continuous. Now as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the right side of  $\ast$  tends to zero.

b) By Weierstrass approximation theorem we may find, for each  $\epsilon > 0$  given, a polynomial  $p(x)$  such that  $|f(x) - p(x)| < \epsilon/2$  for all  $x \in [-\pi, \pi]$ . Since  $p(x)$  is continuously differentiable, we may by 5.a) find an  $N$  such that for  $n > N$  then  $|\int p(x) \cos nx dx| < \epsilon/2$ . This gives

$$\left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx \right| \leq \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x) - p(x)| dx + \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} p(x) \cos nx dx \right| < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$$

whenever  $n > N$ .  $\square$

PROBLEM 6: We have to assume that  $f(x)$  is a *continuous* function on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  satisfying  $f(-x) = f(x)$ .

The function  $\arccos t$  is well defined on  $[-1, 1]$  and satisfies  $\arccos(\cos x) = x$  for  $x \in [0, \pi]$ . Hence  $f(\arccos t)$  is a continuous function on  $[-1, 1]$ . For each  $n$  there is — after Weierstrass — a poly  $p_n(t)$  defined in  $[-1, 1]$  such that  $|f(\arccos t) - p_n(t)| < \frac{1}{n}$  for all  $t \in [-1, 1]$ . Putting  $t = \cos x$  we get

$$|f(x) - p_n(\cos x)| < \frac{1}{n} \quad (\ast)$$

for all  $x \in [0, \pi]$  (since  $\arccos(\cos x) = x$  for  $x \in [0, \pi]$ ). Now both  $f(x)$  and  $\cos x$  are even functions, so the inequality  $\star$  also holds for  $x$  in  $[-\pi, 0]$ . The sequence  $p_n(\cos x)$  then tends to  $f(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .  $\square$

PROBLEM 7: Assume that there is a sequence of polynomials  $\{P_n(x)\}$  that converges uniformly to  $\frac{1}{x}$  in  $(0, 1)$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be a number. There is an  $N$  such that if  $n \geq N$ , then  $|\frac{1}{x} - P_n(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in (0, 1)$ . This implies that  $\frac{1}{x} < P_n(x) + \epsilon$  for all  $x \in (0, 1)$  which is absurd since the right side of the inequality is bounded whereas the left side is unbounded.  $\square$

PROBLEM 8: Assume that there is a sequence of polynomials  $\{P_n(x)\}$  that converges uniformly to  $e^x$  in  $\mathbb{R}^+$ . Pick any  $\epsilon > 0$  and find a  $N$  such that if  $n > N$ , then  $|e^x - P_n(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$ . This implies that  $e^x < P_n(x) + \epsilon$  and hence  $1 < e^{-x}P_n(x) + e^{-x}\epsilon$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , which is absurd since the right side of the inequality tends to zero.

If we replace  $e^x$  by  $e^{-x}$  we get an inequality  $|P_n(x) - e^{-x}| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , but  $e^{-x}$  tends to zero when  $x \rightarrow \infty$  whereas  $P_n(x)$  tends to  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ , so they cannot be only an  $\epsilon$  apart.  $\square$

PROBLEM 9:

a) We use induction on  $n$  and assume that  $f^{(n)}(x) = e^{-1/x^2} \frac{P_n(x)}{x^{N_n}}$  where  $P_n(x)$  is some polynomial. We get when we differentiate:

$$f^{(n+1)}(x) = e^{-1/x^2} \frac{x^{N_n} P_n'(x) - N_n x^{N_n-1} P_n(x)}{x^{2N_n}} - e^{-1/x^2} \frac{2x}{x^4} \cdot \frac{P_n(x)}{x^{N_n}}$$

$$= e^{-1/x^2} \frac{x^{N_n} P_n'(x) - (N_n x^{N_n-1} + 2x^{N_n}) P_n(x)}{x^{N_n+3}}$$

which certainly is of the form  $e^{-1/x^2} \frac{P_{n+1}(x)}{x^{N_{n+1}}}$  with  $P_{n+1}(x) = x^{N_n} P_n'(x) - (N_n x^{N_n-1} + 2x^{N_n}) P_n(x)$  and  $N_{n+1} = N_n + 3$ .

b) As  $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} e^{-y^2} Q(y) = 0$  for any rational function  $Q(y)$ , we see that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f^{(n)}(x) = 0$  for all  $n$ . This means that  $f$  has infinitely many derivatives in zero, and that they all take the value 0 there.

c) The Taylor series at the origin of  $f$  being  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$ , it follows by what we just did, that the Taylor series is identically zero. But the function  $e^{-1/x^2}$  is not!  $\square$

PROBLEM 11: The binomial formula gives us

$$(xe^{\alpha/n} + x - 1)^n = \sum_{r=0}^n (e^{\alpha/n})^r x^r (x - 1)^{n-r} = \sum_{r=0}^n e^{r\alpha/n} x^r (x - 1)^{n-r}$$

and if  $f(x) = e^{\alpha x}$  then  $f(\frac{r}{n}) = e^{r\alpha/n}$ . □

PROBLEM 11: The binomial formula gives us

$$(xe^{\alpha/n} + x - 1)^n = \sum_{r=0}^n (e^{\alpha/n})^r x^r (x - 1)^{n-r} = \sum_{r=0}^n e^{r\alpha/n} x^r (x - 1)^{n-r}$$

and if  $f(x) = e^{\alpha x}$  then  $f(\frac{r}{n}) = e^{r\alpha/n}$ . □