

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I  
2016 ASSIGNMENT 5  
SOLUTIONS

This assignment is **due in the appropriate locker** on **Fri 25 Nov 2016 at 4:25pm**.

1. (a) Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous. Show that  $f([a, b])$  is a closed interval. (Put another way: a continuous function maps compact intervals to compact intervals.)  
*Note:* Consider the single point  $\{c\}$  to be the closed interval  $[c, c]$ .

**Solution:** Since  $[a, b]$  is compact, the extreme value theorem (EVT) implies that  $f$  attains maximum and minimum values on  $[a, b]$ , say  $M$  and  $m$ . Suppose  $f(x_1) = m$  and  $f(x_2) = M$ , where  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$ . If  $x_1 \leq x_2$  then, since  $f$  is continuous on  $[x_1, x_2]$ , the intermediate value theorem (IVT) implies that for each  $y \in [m, M]$ , there exists  $x \in [x_1, x_2]$  such that  $f(x) = y$ . But this means  $f([a, b]) = [m, M]$ , a closed interval. If  $x_1 > x_2$  then the argument is the same based on  $[x_2, x_1]$ .  $\square$

- (b) Is it true that continuous functions map closed sets to closed sets? Is it true that continuous functions map open sets to open sets?

**Solution:** Neither is true. Let  $f(x) = 1/(1 + x^2)$ . Then  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, 1]$ , *i.e.*,  $f$  maps a set that is both closed and open to a set that is neither closed nor open. Note also that a constant function maps any set to a closed set.  $\square$

2. Recall that a set  $A$  of real numbers is said to be **dense** if every open interval contains a point of  $A$ . For example, early in the course we showed in class that the set of rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense.

- (a) Prove that if  $f$  is continuous and  $f(x) = 0$  for all numbers  $x$  in a dense set  $A$ , then  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ .

**Solution:** Pick any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $f$  continuous at  $x_0$  means that for any sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ , if  $x_n \rightarrow x_0$  then  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$ . Now, since  $A$  is dense, there is a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  of points in  $A$  such that  $a_n \rightarrow x_0$ . We know  $f(a_n) = 0$  for all  $n$  because  $a_n \in A$  for all  $n$ . Therefore,  $f(a_n) \rightarrow 0$ . But since  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ ,  $f(a_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$ . Hence  $f(x_0) = 0$ .  $\square$

- (b) Prove that if  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous and  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x$  in a dense set  $A$ , then  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x$ .

**Solution:** Apply part (a) to  $h = f - g$ .  $\square$

- (c) If we assume instead that  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  for all  $x$  in the dense set  $A$ , show that  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  for all  $x$ . Can  $\geq$  be replaced by  $>$  throughout?

**Solution:** Let  $h = f - g$ . Since  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous, it follows that  $h$  is continuous. The condition  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  is equivalent to  $h(x) \geq 0$ . Therefore, it is enough to prove that if  $h$  is continuous and  $h(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in A$  then  $h(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Pick any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and choose a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  in  $A$  such that  $a_n \rightarrow x$ . We know  $h(a_n) \geq 0$  for all  $n$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h(a_n) \geq 0$ . But  $h$  is continuous at  $x$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h(a_n) = h(x)$ . Hence  $h(x) \geq 0$ . Since  $x$  was an arbitrary point in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $h(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

We cannot replace  $\geq$  by  $>$ . For example, consider  $h(x) = x^2$  and  $A = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ .  $\square$

3. A function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow [a, b]$  is said to have a fixed point  $c \in [a, b]$  if  $f(c) = c$ . Show that every continuous function  $f$  mapping  $[a, b]$  into itself has at least one fixed point. *Hint:* Consider the function  $g(x) = f(x) - x$ .

**Solution:** Note that since  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , so is  $g$ . Our goal is to show that  $g$  has a root in  $[a, b]$ , i.e.,  $\exists c \in [a, b]$  such that  $g(c) = 0$ .

Since the range of  $f$  is  $[a, b]$ , we know  $a \leq f(x) \leq b$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Therefore,  $g(a) = f(a) - a \geq 0$  and  $g(b) = f(b) - b \leq 0$ .

If either  $g(a) = 0$  or  $g(b) = 0$  then we are done, so assume  $g(a) > 0$  and  $g(b) < 0$ . Then the IVT implies  $g$  has a root between  $a$  and  $b$ .  $\square$

Note: This is a special case of “Brouwer’s fixed-point theorem”.

4. (*Trapping principle.*) In class we considered the example of a function  $f$  defined in a neighbourhood  $I$  of 0 with the property that  $|f(x)| \leq x^2$  for all  $x \in I$ . We showed that any such  $f$  is differentiable at 0 and  $f'(0) = 0$ . Suppose, more generally, that there is some function  $g$  defined on  $I$  such that  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ .

- (a) Suppose  $g(0) = 0$ . What additional condition(s) on  $g$  are sufficient to guarantee that  $f$  is necessarily differentiable at 0? Propose and prove the most general theorem you can, i.e., try to find the weakest sufficient additional condition(s) on  $g$  to ensure that  $f'(0)$  exists.

**Solution:** Since  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ , we must have  $g(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in I$ . Suppose

$$g \text{ is differentiable at } 0 \text{ and } g'(0) = 0, \quad (\spadesuit)$$

i.e.,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x) - g(0)}{x - 0} = 0.$$

Since differentiability implies continuity, we also know  $g$  is continuous at 0; given  $g(0) = 0$  this means

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = g(0) = 0.$$

In addition,  $g(0) = 0$  implies  $f(0) = 0$ , so for all  $x \neq 0$  we have

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \right| = \left| \frac{f(x)}{x} \right| \leq \left| \frac{g(x)}{x} \right| = \left| \frac{g(x) - g(0)}{x - 0} \right|.$$

From this, for all  $x \neq 0$  we have

$$-\left| \frac{g(x) - g(0)}{x - 0} \right| \leq \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \leq \left| \frac{g(x) - g(0)}{x - 0} \right|$$

Here, both the LHS and RHS  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$  (because the quantity inside the absolute value bars  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ). Consequently, the squeeze theorem implies that the quantity in the middle  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ , *i.e.*,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = 0,$$

*i.e.*,  $f$  is differentiable at 0 and  $f'(0) = 0$ .

- (b) Are the sufficient condition(s) you found in part (a) also necessary?

**Solution:** We must have  $g$  differentiable at 0. If not, then  $f = g$  satisfies  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$ , yet  $f$  is not differentiable at 0. Given  $g(0) = 0$ , since  $g(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ , 0 is a minimum point for  $g$ . Therefore, since  $g$  is differentiable at 0, we must have  $g'(0) = 0$ . Thus, given  $g(0) = 0$ , condition ( $\spadesuit$ ) is both necessary and sufficient to ensure that  $f$  is differentiable at 0 and  $f'(0) = 0$ .

- (c) What can be said if  $g(0) \neq 0$ ? In particular, are the sufficient condition(s) you found still sufficient? If they were necessary with  $g(0) = 0$ , are they still necessary if  $g(0) \neq 0$ ?

**Solution:** If  $g(0) < 0$  then no function  $f$  can satisfy  $|f(0)| \leq g(0)$ , so we must have  $g(0) \geq 0$ . If  $g(0) > 0$ , then ( $\spadesuit$ ) is not sufficient. For example, consider  $g(x) \equiv 1$ . This  $g$  is differentiable everywhere and  $g'(0) = 0$ , yet any function  $f$  bounded by  $\pm 1$  satisfies  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$ .

The argument in part (b) showed that it is necessary that  $g$  is differentiable at 0, regardless of the value of  $g(0)$ . So suppose  $g$  is differentiable at 0 but  $g(0) > 0$ . In order to infer that any  $f$  satisfying  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  is differentiable at 0, is it necessary that  $g'(0) = 0$ , as in condition ( $\spadesuit$ )?

Since  $g$  is differentiable at 0, it is continuous at 0. Therefore, since  $g(0) > 0$ , the neighbourhood sign lemma implies that  $g$  is positive in some neighbourhood of 0. In fact, a slight modification of the proof of the neighbourhood sign lemma (take  $\varepsilon = g(0)/2$  rather than  $f(a)$ ) implies that  $\exists m > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $g(x) > m$  for all  $x \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ . Now consider any  $f$  satisfying  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  and, moreover,  $|f(x)| \leq m$  for all  $x \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ . An example of such of function is  $f(x) = 0$  if  $x \neq 0$  and  $f(0) = m/2$ , which is not differentiable at 0. So, in fact, no further condition on  $g$  can force all  $f$ 's that satisfy  $|f(x)| \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  to be differentiable at 0. In particular, the sign of  $g'(0)$  is irrelevant (so certainly not necessary).  $\square$

5. Use the Mean Value Theorem to prove the following.

- (a) If  $f$  is defined on an interval and  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  in the interval, then  $f$  is constant on the interval.

**Solution:** Let  $a$  and  $b$  be any two points in the interval  $I$ , with  $a < b$ . By the MVT,  $\exists \xi \in (a, b)$  such that

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(\xi). \quad (\clubsuit)$$

But  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in I$ , so in particular  $f'(\xi) = 0$ , and hence  $f(b) = f(a)$ . Since  $a$  and  $b$  were arbitrary points in the interval,  $f$  has the same value at every point in the interval.  $\square$

- (b) If  $f$  and  $g$  are defined on the same interval and  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x$  in the interval, then there is some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f = g + c$ .

**Solution:** Let  $h = f - g$ . Then  $h$  is differentiable and  $h'(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  in the interval. Therefore, by part (a),  $h$  is constant, *i.e.*,  $f = g + c$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$

- (c) If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in an interval  $I$ , then  $f$  is increasing on  $I$ .

**Solution:** Suppose  $a, b \in I$  and  $a < b$ . By MVT  $\exists \xi \in (a, b)$  such that  $(\clubsuit)$  holds. But  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in I$ , so  $f'(\xi) > 0$ . Therefore  $f(b) - f(a) > 0$ , *i.e.*,  $f(b) > f(a)$ . Since this is true for any  $a, b \in I$  with  $a < b$ ,  $f$  is increasing on  $I$ .  $\square$

6. (a) Prove that a bounded function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  if and only if for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  such that

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon.$$

**Solution:** ( $\implies$ ) Suppose the bounded function  $f$  is integrable, *i.e.*,  $\sup\{L(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\} = \inf\{U(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\} = \int_a^b f$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , since  $\int_a^b f$  is the least upper bound of the lower sums, there is a partition  $P_1$  such that

$$\int_a^b f = \sup_{P'}\{L(f, P')\} < L(f, P_1) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2},$$

*i.e.*,

$$-L(f, P_1) < -\int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Similarly, there is a partition  $P_2$  such that

$$U(f, P_2) < \inf_{P'}\{U(f, P')\} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let  $P = P_1 \cup P_2$ . Then

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) \leq U(f, P_2) - L(f, P_1) < \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} - \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) The function  $f$  is assumed bounded, so proving that  $f$  is integrable means establishing that  $\sup_{P'}\{L(f, P')\} = \inf_{P'}\{U(f, P')\}$ .

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose a partition  $P$  such that

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon.$$

Now, for any partition, and in particular for  $P$ , we have

$$L(f, P) \leq \sup_{P'}\{L(f, P')\} \leq \inf_{P'}\{U(f, P')\} \leq U(f, P),$$

and hence

$$0 \leq \inf_{P'}\{U(f, P')\} - \sup_{P'}\{L(f, P')\} \leq U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon.$$

But by hypothesis, such a partition  $P$  can be found for any given  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Therefore  $\inf_{P'}\{U(f, P')\} = \sup_{P'}\{L(f, P')\}$ .  $\square$

- (b) Suppose  $b > 0$  and  $f(x) = x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Prove, using only the definition of the integral (or the result proved in part (a) of this question), that

$$\int_0^b f = \frac{b^2}{2}.$$

(This exercise should help you appreciate the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.)

**Solution:** To apply the theorem proved in part (a), we need to show that for any given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a partition  $P$  of  $[0, b]$  such that  $U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon$ .

Let  $P_n = \{t_0, \dots, t_n\}$  be a partition of  $[0, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals of equal length. Thus,  $t_i = ib/n$  for each  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(f, P_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_{i-1})(t_i - t_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n t_{i-1}(t_i - t_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(i-1)b}{n} \cdot \frac{b}{n} \\ &= \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (i-1) = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{(n-1)n}{2} = \frac{b^2}{2} \cdot \frac{(n-1)}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$U(f, P_n) = \frac{b^2}{2} \cdot \frac{(n+1)}{n},$$

and hence

$$U(f, P_n) - L(f, P_n) = \frac{b^2}{n}.$$

Thus, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $n$  large enough that  $b^2/n < \varepsilon$ . Then the partition  $P = P_n$  satisfies  $U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon$ .  $\square$

*Note:* If you're not yet convinced of the power of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, try computing  $\int_0^b x^2 dx$  directly from the definition of the integral.

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