

M413 - Fall 2013 - HW 9 - Enrique Areyan

(1) Suppose f is a real function defined on \mathbb{R}^1 which satisfies:

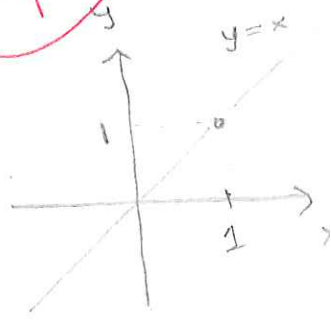
$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(x+h) - f(x-h)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

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Does this imply that f is continuous?

Solution: NO. the following is a counter example:

Define $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to be $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \neq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$



claims: (a) $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(x+h) - f(x-h)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

(b) f is not continuous at $x=1$.

Pf: (a) By linearity of the limit operator on \mathbb{R} :

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(x+h) - f(x-h)] &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x+h) - \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x-h) \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (x+h) - \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (x-h) \\ &= x - x = 0 \end{aligned}$$

By def of f

Formally, we can show that, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$: ($x+h \neq 1$)

let $\epsilon > 0$. Pick $\delta > 0$ to be such that $\delta < \epsilon$. then
 $|f(x+h) - x| = |x+h - x| = |h| < \delta < \epsilon \Rightarrow |f(x+h) - x| < \epsilon$

A similar argument works for the case $x+h=1$.
So the left and right limits of this function agree everywhere.

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 1$ but $f(1) = 0$. By theorem 4.6, we have that f is not continuous at 1.

(a) & (b) show that f is a real function on \mathbb{R} s.t
 $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(x+h) - f(x-h)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e., that left and right limits agree but, it is not continuous because it has a discontinuity at $x=1$.

2) If f is a continuous mapping of a metric space X into a metric space Y , prove that $f(\overline{E}) \subset \overline{f(E)}$, for every set $E \subset X$.

How, by an example, that $f(\overline{E})$ can be a proper subset of $\overline{f(E)}$.

Proof: Let $f: (X, d_x) \rightarrow (Y, d_y)$ be a continuous map. Let $E \subset X$.

Suppose that $a \in f(\overline{E})$. By definition: $f(\overline{E}) = \{y \in Y \mid f(e) = y, \text{ some } e \in \overline{E}\}$

Therefore, there exists $e \in \overline{E}$ such that $f(e) = a$. Since by definition $\overline{E} = E \cup E'$, we need to consider two cases:

(i) $e \in E$. In this case $a \in f(E)$ and hence $a \in f(E) \cup f(E)'$ which is the same as $a \in \overline{f(E)}$, and we are done.

(ii) $e \in E'$. In this case e is a limit point of E . Therefore, for any $r > 0$, $N_r(e) \setminus \{e\} \cap E \neq \emptyset$. Let $x \in N_r(e) \setminus \{e\} \cap E$.

Now use the fact that f is continuous, i.e., $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall q \in X$: If $d_x(q, p) < \delta$ then $d_y(f(q), f(p)) < \epsilon$.

Choose $\delta = r$. Note that $x \in N_r(e) \setminus \{e\}$, so $x \neq e$ and $d_x(x, e) < r$. We are allowed to make $\delta = r$ to get that $d_y(f(x), f(e)) < \epsilon$.

This choice because r is arbitrary, so we let $\epsilon > 0$, and and consider $x \in N_\delta(e) \setminus \{e\}$. But then $f(x) \in N_\epsilon(f(e))$.

At the choice of ϵ was arbitrary so $f(e)$ is a limit point of $f(E)$. (Note $f(x) \in N_\epsilon(f(e))$ and $f(x) \in f(E)$ since $x \in E$, so $f(e) \in \overline{f(E)}$.)

Therefore, $f(\overline{E}) = a \in f(E) \cup f(E)' \Leftrightarrow a \in \overline{f(E)}$.

The following example shows that $f(\overline{E})$ can be a proper subset of $\overline{f(E)}$. Consider:

$f(x) = \frac{1}{e^x}$. Take $E = (0, \infty) \Rightarrow \overline{E} = [0, \infty)$.

Then: $f(E) = (0, 1) \Rightarrow \overline{f(E)} = [0, 1]$ But

$f(\overline{E}) = (0, 1]$. Therefore $1 \in \overline{f(E)}$ but $1 \notin f(\overline{E})$.

The example shows that the inclusion can be proper.

(3) Let f be a continuous real function on a metric space X .
 Let $Z(f)$ (the zero set of f) be the set of all $p \in X$ s.t. $f(p) = 0$.
 Prove that $Z(f)$ is closed.

Pr: Two different proofs:

Ⓘ Since f is continuous, given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \in X$
 If $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ then $d_X(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$.

Let p be a limit point of $Z(f)$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta > 0$ such
 that the continuity condition holds. Since p is a limit point, there
 exists $x \in N_\delta(p) \setminus \{p\} \cap Z(f)$. Hence, $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ and $x \in Z(f)$.

the first implies $d_X(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in N_\epsilon(f(p))$
 the second implies $f(x) = 0$

therefore, $0 \in N_\epsilon(f(p)) \Leftrightarrow |0 - f(p)| < \epsilon \Leftrightarrow |f(p)| < \epsilon$, for all
 $\epsilon > 0$. This means that $f(p) = 0$, which by definition means $p \in Z(f)$.
 Thus, $Z(f)$ contains all of its limit points.

Ⓡ Observe that: $f(Z(f)) = \{0\}$.

\Leftarrow Let $y \in f(Z(f))$. By definition, $Z(f) = \{p \in X : f(p) = 0\}$.
 So $y \in f(Z(f)) \Rightarrow \exists z \in Z(f)$ s.t. $f(z) = y$. But $z \in Z(f)$ means
 $f(z) = 0$. Therefore $y = 0$, so $y \in \{0\}$.

\Rightarrow Clearly $0 \in f(Z(f))$, because $z \in Z(f)$ means $f(z) = 0$
 \Leftarrow & $\Rightarrow \Rightarrow f(Z(f)) = \{0\}$.

We know that $\{0\}$ is closed (it has no limit points).
 By theorem 4.8 (and its corollary), since f is continuous and
 $\{0\}$ is closed we must have that $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed.
 But by previous observation, $f^{-1}(\{0\}) = f^{-1}(f(Z(f)))$
 $= Z(f)$, so that $Z(f)$ must be closed.

1) Let f and g be continuous mappings of a metric space X into a metric space Y and let E be a dense subset of X .

Prove that: (I) $f(E)$ is dense in $f(X)$.

(II) If $g(p) = f(p) \forall p \in E$, then $g(p) = f(p) \forall p \in X$.

pf: (I) We want to show that if $x \in f(E)$, then x is a limit point of $f(X)$ or $x \in f(X)$ or both.

Equivalently, let us show that if $y \in f(X)$ and $y \notin f(E)$ then y is a limit point of $f(E)$. So, suppose:

$y \in f(X)$ and $y \notin f(E)$. Then, by definition of $f(X)$, there exists $x \in X$ s.t. $f(x) = y$. claim: $x \notin E$. pf: Suppose $x \in E$. Then $f(x) \in f(E)$, but $f(x) = y \notin f(E)$, a contradiction. Hence $x \notin E$.

But E is dense in X so $x \notin E \Rightarrow x$ is a limit point of E .

Therefore, there exists a sequence in E , $\{x_n\} \subset E$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$. Now, use the hypothesis that f is continuous,

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x) = y$. Note that $y \notin f(E)$ and that for any neighborhood of arbitrary radius $r > 0$, $N_r(y) \setminus \{y\} \cap f(E) \neq \emptyset$ because $\{x_n\} \subset N_r(y) \setminus \{y\}$ and $f(x_n) \in f(E)$, for n large enough. Thus, y is a limit point of $f(E)$.

2) The idea here is to use the fact already proven and construct a sequence $\{x_n\}$ such that $x_n \rightarrow p$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We can do this because E is dense in X . But f is continuous, therefore:

$f(x_n) \rightarrow f(p)$ and $g(x_n) \rightarrow g(p)$. By hypothesis $f(p) = g(p)$.

Therefore $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(p) = g(p) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(x_n)$.

As $p \in X$ was arbitrary, so $f(p) = g(p), \forall p \in X$.

(6) Suppose E is compact. Prove that f is continuous on E if and only if its graph is compact.

Pf: By definition $\text{graph}(f) = \{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in E\} = G(f)$.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose E is compact and f is continuous on E .

We want to prove that $G(f)$ is compact. Take an open cover of $G(f)$, $\{G_\alpha\}$, for some set of indices α . Then $G(f) \subset \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$. But by hypothesis E is compact.

Hence, given an open cover of E , $\{A_\beta\}$, for some set of indices β , we can always extract a finite subcover s.t. $E \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_{\beta_i}$.

Moreover, by theorem 4.14, since f is continuous and E is compact we can conclude that $f(E)$ is compact. Again, we have a finite subcover for any open cover of $f(E)$, say

$\{B_r\}$ is an open cover. Therefore, each piece of $G(f)$ can be finitely covered given an open cover for each piece. Combine these to get the result we want, i.e., let $\{A_\beta \times B_\alpha\}$ be an open cover of $G(f)$.

Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_{\beta_i} \times B_{\alpha_i}$ is a finite subcover of $G(f)$, that is

If $G(f) \subset \bigcup_{\beta, \alpha} A_\beta \times B_\alpha \Rightarrow G(f) \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j=1}^m A_{\beta_i} \times B_{\alpha_j}$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose E is compact and $G(f)$ is compact.

We want to prove that f is continuous on E . Take x and $x_n \in E$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$. E compact $\Rightarrow E$ is closed $\Rightarrow E$ contains all of its limits points $\Rightarrow x \in E$.

The goal now is to show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x)$.

Suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) \neq f(x)$. Then $\exists \epsilon > 0 : \forall \delta > 0 : \exists x \in E$ such that $0 < d_x(x_n, x) < \delta$ and $d_y(f(x_n), x) > \epsilon$. But if this is the

CASE, then we could construct an open cover of $G(f)$ that contains no open subcover, a contradiction. Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x)$, for any arbitrary sequence in E , which means that f is continuous on E .

If $E \subset X$ and if f is a function defined on X , the restriction of f to E is the function g whose domain of definition is E , such that $g(p) = f(p)$ for $p \in E$.

Define f and g on \mathbb{R}^2 by: $f(0,0) = g(0,0) = 0$.

$f(x,y) = \frac{xy^2}{x^2+y^4}$ and $g(x,y) = \frac{xy^2}{x^2+y^6}$ if $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$.

Prove that: (I) f is bounded on \mathbb{R}^2 , (II) g is unbounded in every neighborhood of $(0,0)$ and (III) f is not continuous at $(0,0)$. (IV) the restrictions of both f and g to every straight line in \mathbb{R}^2 are continuous.

(I) $(x-y^2)^2 \geq 0$ (a square number is always positive)

$(x-y^2)^2 = x^2 - 2xy^2 + y^4 \geq 0 \Rightarrow x^2 + y^4 \geq 2xy^2 \Rightarrow \frac{2xy^2}{x^2+y^4} \leq 1$, provided

that $x \neq 0$ and $y \neq 0$. Hence, $\frac{xy^2}{x^2+y^4} \leq \frac{1}{2}$, and if $x=y=0$, then

$f(x,y) = \frac{xy^2}{x^2+y^4} = 0 \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, f is bounded by $\frac{1}{2}$ on \mathbb{R}^2 .

g is unbounded because

$g\left(\frac{1}{n^3}, \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{\frac{1}{n^3} \cdot \frac{1}{n^2}}{\frac{1}{n^6} + \frac{1}{n^6}} = \frac{\frac{1}{n^5}}{\frac{2}{n^6}} = \frac{n^6}{2n^5} = \frac{n}{2}$ which is unbounded

every neighborhood of $(0,0)$. The sequences $\frac{1}{n^3}$ and $\frac{1}{n}$ can get

close as we want to zero.

f is not continuous at $(0,0)$ because if we approach the

limit by the parabola $y^2 = x$ we get $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} g(y^2, y) =$

$\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{y^2 y^2}{y^4 + y^4} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{y^4}{2y^4} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0 = g(0,0)$.

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, mx) = \frac{x m^2 x^2}{x^2 + m^4 x^4} = \frac{x^2 (m^2 x)}{x^2 (1 + m^4 x^2)} = \frac{m^2 x}{1 + m^4 x^2} \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow 0$ by L'Hopital

and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x, mx) = \frac{x m^2 x^2}{x^2 + m^6 x^6} = \frac{x^2 (m^2 x)}{x^2 (1 + m^6 x^4)} = \frac{m^2 x}{1 + m^6 x^4} \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow 0$ by L'Hopital

that do not go through origin are already continuous by composite of polynomials