

## Solutions to Homework 8

**Beals, page 22 #9:** No, it's not always true. Consider for example the function  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  which is zero everywhere except on intervals of the form  $[n - 1/n^2, n + 1/n^2]$ ,  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ ; and on such an interval the graph of  $f$  is the pair of lines joining the points  $(n - 1/n^2, 0)$  and  $(n + 1/n^2, 0)$  to the point  $(n, 1)$ . Then  $f$  is continuous and  $f(n) = 1$  for every  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) \neq 0$  (in fact, the limit doesn't exist). However,

$$\int f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} < \infty.$$

**Beals, page 25, #2:**

(a) Note that for  $n, x \geq 0$ , we have

$$e^{nx} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(nx)^j}{j!} \leq \frac{n^2 x^2}{2}.$$

Therefore,  $n^2 x^2 / e^{nx} \leq 2$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  and all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . In other words, for  $x \in [0, 1]$  we have  $|n^2 x^2 / e^{nx}| \leq g(x)$ , where  $g(x) := 2 \cdot \mathbf{1}_{[0,1]}$ .

Moreover,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 x^2 / e^{nx} \rightarrow 0$  for every  $x \in [0, 1]$  (use L'hôpital's rule, differentiating with respect to  $n$ , for instance). So we can apply the dominated convergence theorem to conclude

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \frac{n^2 x^2}{e^{nx}} = \int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 x^2}{e^{nx}} = \int 0 = 0.$$

(c) Since  $\log(1+t) \leq t$  for  $t \geq 0$  and  $e^s$  is increasing in  $s$ , we have

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = e^{n \log(1 + \frac{x}{n})} \leq e^{n \cdot (x/n)} = e^x.$$

Hence for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ ,

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-\alpha x} \leq e^{(1-\alpha)x},$$

where the right hand side is integrable on  $[0, \infty)$  for  $\alpha > 1$ . It follows from this and the dominated convergence theorem that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-\alpha x} = \int_0^{\infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n e^{-\alpha x} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{(1-\alpha)x} = \frac{1}{\alpha - 1}.$$

**Beals, page 25 #3:** Note that since  $f$  is integrable and  $F(y) - F(x) \leq \int_x^y |f|$ , there is no loss of generality in what follows if we assume that  $f \geq 0$ .

- (a) Let  $\{x_n\} \subset \mathbf{R}$  be any sequence converging to  $x$ . Let  $I_n$  be the closed interval of points between  $x_n$  and  $x$ . Then

$$F(x_n) - F(x) = \int_{I_n} f = \int \mathbf{1}_{I_n} f.$$

Now the function  $g_n := \mathbf{1}_{I_n} f$  satisfies  $|g_n| \leq g := |f|$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . Moreover,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(y) = 0$  for all  $y \neq x$ . Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) - F(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int g_n = \int \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n = \int 0 = 0.$$

In other words  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) = F(x)$ , which means that  $F$  is continuous at  $x$ .  $\square$

- (b)  $F$  must be uniformly continuous, too. To see this, note that (since  $f \geq 0$ )  $F$  increases from  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$  to

$$M := \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = \int f < \infty.$$

So if  $\epsilon > 0$  is given, then there is some number  $T$  such that  $M - \epsilon/2 < F(x) < M$  for all  $x \geq T$  and similarly  $0 < F(x) < \epsilon/2$  for all  $x < -T$ . In particular, if  $x, y > T$  or  $x, y < -T$ , we have  $|F(x) - F(y)| < \epsilon/2$ .

Moreover,  $F$  is uniformly continuous on the compact set  $[-T, T]$ , so there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x, y \in [0, T]$  and  $|x - y| < \delta$  implies that

$$|F(x) - F(y)| < \epsilon/2.$$

Now if by chance  $|x - y| < \delta$  and, say,  $|x| < T$  while  $|y| > T$ , we have either  $-T$  or  $T$  between  $x$  and  $y$ —say, for argument's sake it's  $T$ . Then

$$|F(x) - F(y)| \leq |F(x) - F(T)| + |F(T) - F(y)| < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon.$$

So in all cases,  $|x - y| < \delta$  implies that  $|F(x) - F(y)| < \epsilon$ , and  $F$  is uniformly continuous.  $\square$

**Beals, page 25 #5:** Set  $g_n(x) = \inf_{j \geq n} f_j(x)$ . Then for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  and  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ ,

- $\liminf f_n(x) = \lim g_n(x)$ ,
- $0 \leq g_n(x) \leq f_n(x)$ ,
- $g_{n+1}(x) \geq g_n(x)$

The second and third items allow us to apply the monotone convergence theorem to  $g_n$  and obtain

$$\int \liminf f_n = \int \lim g_n = \lim \int g_n = \liminf \int g_n \leq \liminf \int f_n.$$

**Beals, page 25 #6:** Let  $f_n : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be the ‘tent’ function.

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

Then

$$\liminf \int f_n(x) = \liminf 1 > 0 = \int 0 = \int \lim f_n = \int \liminf f_n.$$

**Beals, page 27 #1:** By the monotone convergence theorem, we have

$$\infty > \lim \int f_n = \int \lim f_n = \int f.$$

So by the proposition on page 27, it follows that  $f$  is finite a.e. □

**Beals, page 34 #2:** The assertion is false. To see this, consider the function which is zero except on closed intervals  $[n - 1/4^n, n + 1/4^n]$ ,  $n \geq 2$ . And to define  $f$  on each of these intervals take  $f(n) = 2^n$  and then make  $f$  linear on each of the remaining subintervals (i.e. the graph of  $f$  on the interval is a triangle of height  $2^n$  and width  $2/4^n$ ). Then on the one hand  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = \lim 2^n = \infty$ , so  $f$  is not bounded. But on the other hand,

$$\int f = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{4^n} 2^n = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} < \infty.$$

**Beals, page 34 #3:** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By Theorem 2 on page 33, there is a continuous, compactly supported function  $g$  such that  $\|g - f\|_1 < \epsilon/4$ . Note that in fact  $\|g_a - f_a\|_1 = \|g - f\|_1 < \epsilon/4$  for all  $a \in \mathbf{R}$ .

Let  $M > 0$  be chosen so that  $g \equiv 0$  outside  $[-M, M]$ . Because  $g$  has compact support, it is uniformly continuous. So I can choose  $\delta > 0$  so that  $|x - y| < \delta$  implies that  $|g(x) - g(y)| < \epsilon/8M$ . I can, of course, assume that  $\delta < M$ , too. Therefore, if  $|a| < \delta$ , it follows that  $g_a \equiv 0$  outside  $[-2M, 2M]$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \|f - f_a\|_1 &\leq \|f - g\|_1 + \|g - g_a\|_1 + \|f_a - g_a\|_1 \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{4} + \int_{-2M}^{2M} (g(x) - g(x - a)) + \frac{\epsilon}{4} \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \int_{-2M}^{2M} \frac{\epsilon}{8M} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

This proves that  $\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \|f - f_a\|_1 = 0$ . □