

Solutions for Homework 7

Solution for Problem 6, page 99. I'll follow the hint from the assignment and work with the function $F : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by

$$F(x) = (x, f(x)).$$

(\Rightarrow) Suppose f is continuous. Then, since $x \mapsto x$ is continuous, F is continuous by part (a) of Theorem 4.10 (because its components $x \mapsto x$ and f are continuous).

So the graph

$$\Gamma(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in E\}$$

of f is the image of E through the continuous function F . Since continuous functions preserve compactness (Theorem 4.14), the graph is indeed compact.

(\Leftarrow) Conversely, assume that the graph $\Gamma(f)$ is compact. We want to show that f is continuous, or equivalently (by the corollary to Theorem 4.8) that the inverse image $f^{-1}(C)$ of a closed subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is closed.

$f^{-1}(C)$ consists of those points $x \in E$ such that $f(x) \in C$, or equivalently, such that the second component of $F(x) = (x, f(x))$ belongs to C . In other words, $f^{-1}(C)$ consists of the first components of those points $(x, f(x)) \in \Gamma(f)$ which also belong to $\mathbb{R} \times C$. If I denote the two coordinate functions on \mathbb{R}^2 by ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 as in Example 4.11, so that

$$\phi_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_2(x_1, x_2) = x_2,$$

then we've just proven the following formula:

$$f^{-1}(C) = \phi_1(\Gamma(f) \cap \phi_2^{-1}(C)). \tag{1}$$

$C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is closed, so $\phi_2^{-1}(C) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is closed because the coordinate functions ϕ_i are continuous (Example 4.11).

We are assuming that $\Gamma(f)$ is compact, so $\Gamma(f) \cap \phi_2^{-1}(C)$ is again compact, being a closed subset of a compact metric space (Theorem 2.35).

Finally, $\phi_1 : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, so it maps compact sets onto compact sets by Theorem 4.14. All in all, (1) now ensures that $f^{-1}(C) \subset E \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact and hence closed by Theorem 2.34. ■

Solution for Problem 8, page 99. By uniform continuity there is a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| < 1 \quad \text{provided} \quad x, y \in E \quad \text{and} \quad |x - y| < \delta. \tag{2}$$

Since $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ is bounded, it can be covered by finitely many open intervals I_1 up to I_n of length δ . We then get

$$f(E) = f\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^n (E \cap I_j)\right) \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^n f(E \cap I_j).$$

(2) means that each $f(E \cap I_j)$ is bounded (because it has diameter ≤ 1), so that $f(E)$ is contained in a finite union of bounded sets. Finite unions of bounded sets are bounded, so we are done.

To see that the boundedness of E is essential, take say $E = \mathbb{R}$ and define f by $f(x) = x$ for all $x \in E$. It is immediate that f is uniformly bounded, but the range of f is all of \mathbb{R} which is unbounded. ■

Solution for Problem 11, page 99. I will give the alternate proof for Problem 13 separately, after this one. Here, I'm just showing that $(f(x_n))_n$ is Cauchy if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is uniformly continuous and $(x_n)_n$ is Cauchy.

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. We want to show that there is some positive integer N such that

$$n, m \geq N \Rightarrow d(f(x_n), f(x_m)) < \varepsilon. \quad (3)$$

Now, by uniform continuity, we know that there is some $\delta > 0$ such that

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \delta \Rightarrow d(f(x_n), f(x_m)) < \varepsilon. \quad (4)$$

On the other hand, because $(x_n)_n$ is Cauchy, there is a positive integer N such that

$$n, m \geq N \Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) < \delta. \quad (5)$$

Equations (4) and (5) together give (3), which completes the proof. ■

Alternate solution for Problem 13, page 99. Let $x \in X \setminus E$ be an arbitrary point. First off, we want to define the value $g(x)$ of an extension $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of f (this is what it means to *extend* f from E to all of X ; see Problem 5 from the textbook for the definition of 'extension').

Since E is dense, there is a sequence $(x_n)_n$ in E that converges to x . Since $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X , the sequence $(x_n)_n$ is Cauchy. By Problem 11 solved above the absolute continuity of f implies that $(f(x_n))_n$ is also Cauchy. Since by part (c) of Theorem 3.11 the real line \mathbb{R} is complete, the Cauchy sequence $(f(x_n))_n$ converges to some $y \in \mathbb{R}$; set $g(x) = y$. We now have to check a few things.

Step 1: The value $g(x) = y$ from above is well defined. Here's what this means: Recall that in order to set $g(x) = y$ I chose some sequence $(x_n)_n \subset E$ converging to x . What I want to prove now is that the real number y from the construction above does not depend on the specific sequence x_n that converges to x , only on x itself (otherwise the formula $g(x) = y$ is not justified).

Suppose you have sequences $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $x'_n \rightarrow x$ with $x_n, x'_n \in E$ and fix an arbitrarily small $\varepsilon > 0$. Since f is uniformly continuous, there is some $\delta > 0$ such that

$$d(p, q) < \delta \Rightarrow d(f(p), f(q)) < \varepsilon. \quad (6)$$

For sufficiently large n we have

$$d(x_n, x) < \frac{\delta}{2}, \quad d(x'_n, x) < \frac{\delta}{2},$$

which implies

$$d(x_n, x'_n) \leq d(x_n, x) + d(x'_n, x) < \frac{\delta}{2} + \frac{\delta}{2} = \delta.$$

This together with (6) implies $d(f(x_n), f(x'_n)) < \varepsilon$ for sufficiently large n , so the distance between the limits of the Cauchy sequences $(f(x_n))_n$ and $(f(x'_n))_n$ is at most ε (this last step follows for example from Problem 6 from Homework 4). This is true for *any* $\varepsilon > 0$, so the two sequences $(f(x_n))_n$ and $(f(x'_n))_n$ must have the same limit. So indeed $y = \lim_n f(x_n)$ does not depend on $(x_n)_n$ itself so long as this sequence converges to x .

This concludes the proof of Step 1. Since I now have a well defined value for g at each point in $X \setminus E$. Setting $g = f$ on E gives me a function $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is an extension of f in the sense of Problem 5. We want a *continuous* extension, so there's one more thing to check:

Step 2: The function $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined above is continuous. We will actually show that g is *uniformly* continuous, which is even better.

Note first that the exact same procedure as above actually works for $x \in E$ as well, so we can define g uniformly for all points of X : pick your point $x \in X$ arbitrarily, take some sequence $E \ni x_n \rightarrow x$ converging to it, and set $g(x)$ to be the limit of $f(x_n)$. This observation will allow us to treat all points of X on an equal footing, without having to split into cases depending on whether or not they are in E .

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. We want to find some $\delta > 0$ such that

$$d(p, x) < \delta \Rightarrow d(g(p), g(x)) < \varepsilon.$$

Choose $\delta > 0$ so small that

$$p', x' \in E, \quad d(p', x') < 3\delta \Rightarrow d(f(p'), f(x')) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}. \quad (7)$$

(this is possible, since $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous).

Now, by the way we defined g , we can find $x' \in E$ such that $d(x', x) < \delta$ and $d(f(x'), g(x)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$.

Similarly, for any $p \in X$ with $d(p, x) < \delta$ we can find $p' \in E$ with $d(p', p) < \delta$ and $d(f(p'), g(p)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$.

We then have

$$d(p', x') \leq d(p', p) + d(p, x) + d(x', x) < \delta + \delta + \delta = 3\delta,$$

which by (7) implies $d(f(p'), f(x')) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$. But then we get

$$d(g(p), g(x)) \leq d(f(p'), g(p)) + d(f(p'), f(x')) + d(f(x'), g(x)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon,$$

which is what we wanted. ■

Remark 1. Problem 13 also asks whether the result remains true if instead of real-valued functions f we consider functions taking values in any Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^k , or any compact or complete or arbitrary metric space. I purposely phrased the proof so that it goes through whenever $f : E \rightarrow Y$ lands inside a *complete* metric space Y .

You can't drop completeness though: the identity function $\text{id} : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ cannot be extended to a continuous function $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Indeed, if it could, the image of this continuous function

would contain both 0 and 1 and hence would have to contain the entire interval $[0, 1]$ by Theorem 4.23. This means that its image can't be contained in \mathbb{Q} .

In conclusion, the answer to all of the questions at the end of Problem 13 is 'yes' except for the last one, which has a negative answer. \blacklozenge

E1. Give an example of a continuous function $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a Cauchy sequence $(x_n)_n$ in $(0, 1)$ such that $(f(x_n))_n$ is not Cauchy in \mathbb{R} .

Solution. Take say $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. This is continuous by, say, Theorem 4.9 (dividing a continuous function by a non-zero continuous functions yields something continuous).

Now have a look at the sequence $\frac{1}{n}$ in $(0, 1)$. It is Cauchy because it is convergent in the larger metric space $[0, 1)$, but applying f to it turns it into the sequence n , which is unbounded and hence not Cauchy. \blacksquare

E2. Show that a metric space (X, d) is disconnected if and only if there exists a continuous function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ whose range $f(X)$ is the two-element set $\{0, 1\}$.

Solution. According to Problem 1 from Homework 4, a metric space is disconnected if and only if it can be written as the disjoint union of two non-empty open subsets (or equivalently, two non-empty *closed* subsets); see also Definition 3 in that homework assignment.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose first that I can write $X = A \cup B$, with $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and both A and B are open and non-empty. Define a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in B \end{cases}$$

Clearly, $f(X) = \{0, 1\}$. To see that f is continuous, use the criterion that the preimage of every relatively open subset of $\{0, 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is open. $\{0, 1\}$ has four subsets, namely

$$\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\} \text{ and } \{0, 1\}.$$

Their preimages through f are

$$\emptyset, A, B \text{ and respectively } X,$$

all of which are indeed open.

(\Leftarrow) If there is a function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as in the statement, then the inverse images $A = f^{-1}(0)$ and $B = f^{-1}(1)$ of the relatively open subsets

$$\{0\} \text{ and } \{1\} \subset \{0, 1\}$$

are open and non-empty in X , and moreover

$$X = f^{-1}(\{0, 1\}) = f^{-1}(0) \cup f^{-1}(1) = A \cup B,$$

so we can write X as a disjoint union of two non-empty open subsets. According to the observation made at the beginning of the proof, this means that X is disconnected. \blacksquare