

1. A fundamental axiom for the real number  $\mathbb{R}$  is that every bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  has a least upper bound or *supremum*.

In what follows,  $\{x_n\}$  is a bounded sequence, that is, there is a bound  $C < \infty$  s.t.  $|x_n| \leq C \forall n$ . Let  $l = \sup_n x_n$ .

(a) Show that,  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$  index  $m$  s.t.  $x_m > l - \epsilon$ .

**Solution.** By contradiction, assume  $\exists \epsilon > 0, \forall m$  s.t.  $x_m < l - \epsilon$ . Then  $l - \epsilon$  is an upper bound for  $\{x_n\}$ , and  $l - \epsilon < l$ . Thus  $l$  is not the least upper bound of  $\{x_n\}$ . This is a contradiction. Thus for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an index  $m$  such that  $x_m > l - \epsilon$ .

(b) Show that  $l \leq C$ .

**Solution.** Consider  $l > C$ , and hopefully a contradiction comes up. Since  $C$  is a bound on  $\{x_n\}$ ,  $|x_n| \leq C \forall n$ . However,  $l > C$ ,  $C$  would be an upper bound for  $\{x_n\}$  smaller than  $l$ , which means  $l$  would no longer be the least upper bound. Contradiction. Therefore,  $l \leq C$ .

(c) Find, with proof,  $\sup_n x_n^2$ .

**Claim.**  $\sup_n x_n^2 = (\sup_n |x_n|)^2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\sup |x_n| = l$ . Then  $\forall n, 0 \leq |x_n| \leq l \implies |x_n|^2 \leq l^2$  and  $x_n^2 \leq l^2$ . Thus  $l^2$  is an upper bound to  $x_n^2$ . Now assume there exists  $0 < s < l$  such that  $\sup_n x_n^2 = s^2$ . then  $\forall n, x_n^2 \leq s^2$  and  $|x_n| \leq s$ , and  $s$  is an upper bound for  $\{|x_n|\}$ . But  $s < l$  and we assumed  $l = \sup_n |x_n|$ . This is a contradiction and thus  $l^2$  is the least upper bound of  $|x_n^2|$  and  $\sup_n x_n^2 = l^2$ .  $\square$

(d) If  $x_n$  is a monotone nondecreasing sequence, show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  exists.

**Solution.** Suppose that  $x_n$  is bounded monotone nondecreasing sequence. Call  $X$  the nonempty bounded set  $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Since  $X$  is bounded, there must be a least upper bound, call it  $l$ .

Claim that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = l$ . Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $l - \epsilon$  is not an upper bound for  $X$ . Therefore,  $\exists N$  s.t.  $x_N > l - \epsilon$ . Also, since the sequence  $x_n$  is nondecreasing and  $l = \sup X$ , the following holds

$$l - \epsilon < x_N < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \leq l \forall n > N.$$

Therefore,  $x_n$  converges to  $l$ , which means  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = l$ .

(e) Prove this proposition from class:  $a_n \geq 0$  is a sequence of non-negative reals. The infinite series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges iff there is a constant  $C < \infty$  s.t.  $\forall N$  we have  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \leq C$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n$ . Since  $a_n \geq 0$  for all  $n$ , it follows that  $S_{N+1} \geq S_N$  for all  $N$ . If  $S_N$  converges, it follows that the sequence  $S_N$  is bounded, so that there is a constant  $C$  s.t. for all  $N$  we have  $\sum_{n=1}^N a_n \leq C$ .

Alternatively, if  $S_N \leq C$  for all  $N$ , it follows that  $S_N$  is bounded above, so that  $l = \sup_N S_N$  exists. By the previous part, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an index  $m$  such that  $S_m > l - \epsilon$ . Since  $l$  is an upper bound, and  $S_k$  is a non-decreasing sequence, it follows that for all  $k \geq m$ , we have  $l - \epsilon < S_k \leq l$ , which implies  $S_k \rightarrow l$ , showing that the infinite series converges.  $\square$

2.  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are metric spaces.

(a) If  $U \subseteq X$ , show that  $(U, d_U)$  is a metric space where  $d_U(u_1, u_2) = d_X(u_1, u_2) \forall u_1, u_2 \in U$ .

**Solution.** Pick  $u_1, u_2 \in U$ . Since,  $U \subseteq X$ ,  $u_1, u_2 \in X$ , non-degeneracy holds for  $(U, d_U)$ , since  $(X, d_X)$  is a metric space. That is,  $d_U(u_1, u_2) = d_X(u_1, u_2) \geq 0$ ,  $d_U(u_1, u_2) = d_X(u_1, u_2) = 0 \implies u_1 = u_2$ .

Symmetry follows in a similar fashion: Take same  $u_1, u_2$  as above. We know that  $d_X(u_1, u_2) = d_U(u_1, u_2) = d_X(u_2, u_1) = d_U(u_2, u_1)$  since  $(X, d_X)$  is a metric space. So symmetry holds.

Finally, we need the triangle inequality to hold true. Start by adding  $u_3 \in U$  to the other two elements in  $U$  already presented. Since  $(X, d_X)$  is metric space

$$d_X(u_1, u_3) \leq d_X(u_1, u_2) + d_X(u_2, u_3)$$

Use the relationship that  $d_U(u_i, u_j) = d_X(u_i, u_j) \forall u_i, u_j \in U$ .

$$d_U(u_1, u_3) \leq d_U(u_1, u_2) + d_U(u_2, u_3)$$

All four properties of metric spaces hold for  $(U, d_U)$ . Therefore,  $(U, d_U)$  is a metric space.

(b) Show that  $(X, \rho)$  is a metric space, where

$$\rho(x_1, x_2) = \frac{d_X(x_1, x_2)}{1 + d_X(x_1, x_2)}$$

**Solution.** Since  $d_X(x_1, x_2) \geq 0 \forall x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,  $1 + d_X(x_1, x_2) \geq 1$ . Therefore,  $\rho_X(x_1, x_2) \geq 0$ . We have  $\rho_X(x_1, x_2) = 0 \implies d_X(x_1, x_2) = 0$ . This implies that  $x_1 = x_2$ , since  $(X, d_X)$  is a metric space. So, non-degeneracy holds.

For symmetry, use

$$\begin{aligned}
 d_X(x_1, x_2) &= d_X(x_1, x_2) \\
 \rho(x_1, x_2) &= \frac{d_X(x_1, x_2)}{1 + d_X(x_1, x_2)} \\
 &= \frac{d_X(x_2, x_1)}{1 + d_X(x_2, x_1)} \\
 &= \rho(x_2, x_1);
 \end{aligned}$$

so symmetry holds.

To prove the triangle inequality, I will first need to prove a claim that is not immediately obvious.

**Claim.** *For any two nonnegative real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ , the following inequality holds:*

$$\frac{x + y}{1 + x + y} \leq \frac{x}{1 + x} + \frac{y}{1 + y}.$$

*Proof.* Assume  $x, y$  have are nonnegative.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{x + y}{1 + x + y} &= \frac{x}{1 + x + y} + \frac{y}{1 + x + y} \\
 &\leq \frac{x}{1 + x} + \frac{y}{1 + y}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The claim is true. The claim can be extended to all  $x, y$  using absolute values, however I don't need that much strength.  $\square$

We know that the triangle inequality holds on  $(X, d_X)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho(x_1, x_3) + \rho(x_3, x_2) &= \frac{d(x_1, x_3)}{1 + d(x_1, x_3)} + \frac{d(x_3, x_2)}{1 + d(x_3, x_2)} \\
 &\geq \frac{d(x_1, x_3) + d(x_3, x_2)}{1 + d(x_1, x_3) + d(x_3, x_2)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{d(x_1, x_3) + d(x_3, x_2)}} \\
 &\geq \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{d(x_1, x_2)}} \\
 &= \frac{d(x_1, x_2)}{1 + d(x_1, x_2)} \\
 &= \rho(x_1, x_2).
 \end{aligned}$$

All four properties of metric spaces hold. Therefore,  $(U, \rho)$  is a metric space.

(c) Show that the Cartesian product  $X \times Y$  is a metric space with the metric  $d(z_1, z_2) = d_X(x_1, x_2) + d_Y(y_1, y_2)$  where  $z_1 = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $z_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ .

**Solution.** First look at non-degeneracy:  $d(z_1, z_2) \geq 0$  and  $d(z_1, z_2) = 0 \implies z_1 = z_2$ . Since  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are metric spaces we know that  $d(z_1, z_2) = d_X(x_1, x_2) + d_Y(y_1, y_2) \geq 0 \forall x \in X, y \in Y$  and  $d_X(x_1, x_2) = d_Y(y_1, y_2) = 0 \implies x_1 = x_2, y_1 = y_2$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} d(z_1, z_2) &\geq 0 \\ d(z_1, z_2) = 0 &\implies z_1 = z_2 \end{aligned}$$

which shows non-degeneracy.

For symmetry,

$$\begin{aligned} d(z_1, z_2) &= d_X(x_1, x_2) + d_Y(y_1, y_2) \\ &= d_X(x_2, x_1) + d_Y(y_2, y_1) \\ &= d(z_2, z_1). \end{aligned}$$

This proves that symmetry holds.

Finally, as before, we need to show that the triangle inequality holds. Introduce  $x_3 \in X, y_3 \in Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned} d(z_1, z_3) &= d_X(x_1, x_3) + d_Y(y_1, y_3) \\ &\leq (d_X(x_1, x_2) + d_X(x_2, x_3)) + (d_Y(y_1, y_2) + d_Y(y_2, y_3)) \\ &= (d_X(x_1, x_2) + d_Y(y_1, y_2)) + (d_X(x_2, x_3) + d_Y(y_2, y_3)) \\ &= d(z_1, z_2) + d(z_2, z_3). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore all of the properties of metric spaces holds for  $(X \times Y, d)$ .

3.  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

(a) Show that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|).$$

**Solution.** Start with the definition of  $\|\cdot\|_p$ :

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}. \tag{1}$$

Let  $\alpha = \max(x_i)$ , which we know since the sequence is finite, thus  $0 < \frac{x_i}{\alpha} \leq 1$ . Definition (1) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|\mathbf{x}\|_p &= \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \left( \alpha^p \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{x_i}{\alpha} \right)^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \\ &= |\alpha| \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{x_i}{\alpha} \right)^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}. \end{aligned}$$

As  $p \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\left(\frac{x_i}{\alpha}\right)^p$  goes to 0 when  $x_i \neq \alpha$ ; the only term in the sum that matters is where  $x_i = \alpha$ . That is,

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|\mathbf{x}\|_p &= |\alpha| \\ &= \max(|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|).\end{aligned}$$

(b) Show that,  $\forall p, q \geq 1$ ,

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{x}\|_p}{n} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_q \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_p.$$

**Solution.** For  $p, q \geq 1$  use equations from Flaschka,

$$\begin{aligned}\|x\|_\infty &\leq \|x\|_k \quad (*) \\ \|x\|_k &\leq n^{1/k} \|x\|_\infty \quad (**)\end{aligned}$$

for  $1 \leq k \leq \infty$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then we can bound  $\|x\|_q$  from above with eqn (\*) and  $k = q$ .

$$\|x\|_q \leq n^{1/q} \|x\|_\infty$$

Likewise from below using eqn (\*\*) and combining the two results

$$\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_q \leq n^{1/q} \|x\|_\infty$$

Now we also can bound the  $\|x\|_\infty$  above by eqn (\*) with  $k = p$ , and from below we have that  $\|x\|_\infty \geq n^{-1/p} \|x\|_p$ . Then,

$$n^{-1/p} \|x\|_p \leq \|x\|_q \leq n^{1/q} \|x\|_p.$$

Since  $n \geq 1$ ,  $n^{1/k} \leq n$  in this domain ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) for any  $k \geq 1$ . So conclude that

$$n^{1/q} \leq n \text{ and } n^{-1/p} \geq n^{-1}$$

Therefore we can bound  $\|x\|_q$  yet again to find the simpler result

$$\frac{\|\mathbf{x}\|_p}{n} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_q \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_p.$$

4. Complete the proof of the proposition from class by showing that if (i)  $1 \leq p < q \leq \infty$ , then  $l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}) \subset l^q(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ , and (ii) there is a sequence  $\{a_n\} \in l^q(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ , but  $\notin l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ .

(i)

*Proof.* Need to show that whenever

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i|^p < \infty \text{ for } 1 \leq p < \infty, \tag{2}$$

$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i|^q < \infty$  for  $q > p$ . Consider  $(I)q = \infty$  and  $(II)q < \infty$ .

(I)

A sequence  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots\}$  for which (2) converges is bounded. Therefore

$$l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}) \subset l^q(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}).$$

(II)

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i|^q &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |x_i|^{q-p} |x_i|^p \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( \sup_j |x_j|^{q-p} \right) |x_i|^p \\ &= \left( \sup_j |x_j|^{q-p} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^p \\ &< \infty \end{aligned}$$

which is interpreted as

$$l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}) \subset l^q(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}).$$

Therefore, if  $1 \leq p < q \leq \infty$ , then  $l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}) \subset l^q(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ . □

(ii)

*Proof.* We just need to find a counterexample.

Define  $\{a_n\} = \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$ . Since  $p < q$ ,  $1 = \frac{p}{p} < \frac{p}{q}$ . So

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i+1} \right)^{\frac{1}{p} \cdot p} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i+1} \right) = \infty.$$

$\{a_n\} \notin l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ . However,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i+1} \right)^{\frac{1}{p} \cdot q} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i+1} \right)^{\frac{q}{p}} < \infty$$

by the integral test. Therefore, the desired counterexample has been found; there is a sequence  $\{a_n\} \in l^q(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ , but  $\notin l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ . □

5.  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and  $0 < \beta < 1$ . Find all  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$  s.t. the "two-dimensional" sequence

$$x_{i,j} = \frac{1}{i^\alpha + j^\beta}$$

$\in l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$ .

**Solution.** We will first obtain a sufficient condition, that is we seek values for  $p$  which guarantee that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha} + j^{\beta}|^p}$$

converges. To evaluate this sum, we will consider it over three regions that partition the first quadrant of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

(i)  $i^{\alpha} = j^{\beta}$ . In this region  $j = i^{\alpha/\beta}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha} + (i^{\alpha/\beta})^{\beta}|^p} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|2i^{\alpha}|^p}.$$

(ii)  $i^{\alpha} > j^{\beta}$ . In this region  $j < i^{\alpha/\beta}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{i^{\alpha/\beta}} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha} + j^{\beta}|^p} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^{\alpha/\beta}}{|2i^{\alpha}|^p}.$$

(iii)  $i^{\alpha} < j^{\beta}$ . In this region  $i < j^{\beta/\alpha}$  and the sum is

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{j^{\beta/\alpha}} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha} + j^{\beta}|^p} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{j^{\beta/\alpha}}{|2j^{\beta}|^p}.$$

Putting these regions together we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha} + j^{\beta}|^p} &\leq \frac{1}{2^p} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha}|^p} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^{\alpha/\beta}}{|i^{\alpha}|^p} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{j^{\beta/\alpha}}{|j^{\beta}|^p} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2^p} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i^{-\alpha p} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i^{\alpha(\frac{1}{\beta}-p)} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j^{\beta(\frac{1}{\alpha}-p)} \right). \end{aligned}$$

The sum will converge if the sums over each of the regions converges. Thus,  $\alpha p > 1$  and  $\beta p > 1$  by symmetry,  $\alpha(p - \frac{1}{\beta}) > 1$  and  $\beta(p - \frac{1}{\alpha}) > 1$ . Therefore the sum will converge and the sequence will be in  $l^p(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N})$  for  $p > \frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{\beta}$ .

We now need to show that this condition is also necessary. That is, we will show that, for  $1 \leq p \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{\beta}$ , the series  $\sum \sum |x_{i,j}|^p$  diverges.

We again consider the three regions as above, and assume that  $p \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{\beta}$ . The argument for (i) is immediate. In (ii),  $j < i^{\alpha/\beta}$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^{i^{\alpha/\beta}} \frac{1}{|i^{\alpha} + j^{\beta}|^p} &\geq \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{i^{\alpha/\beta}}{|i^{\alpha}|^p} \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{i^{\alpha/\beta}}{i^{1+\alpha/\beta}} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{i} \end{aligned}$$

which diverges as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . The same argument works for (iii). So this condition is necessary.

6. Let  $0 < p < 1$ .

(a) Show that  $d_p(x, y) = |x - y|^p$  defines a metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution.** The properties of non-degeneracy and symmetry follow directly from the properties of  $|\cdot|$  on  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} |x - y| \geq 0 \quad \forall x, y &\implies |x - y|^p \geq 0 \\ |x - y| = 0 &\implies x = y \implies |x - y|^p = 0 \implies x = y \\ |x - y| = |y - x| &\implies |x - y|^p = |y - x|^p. \end{aligned}$$

For the triangle inequality, first observe for concave functions  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that

$$f(x + y) \leq f(x) + f(y) \quad \forall x, y \geq 0.$$

Given the triangle equality on  $\mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} |x - z| = |x - y + y - z| &= |(x - y) + (y - z)| \\ &\leq |x - y| + |y - z|. \end{aligned}$$

Consider  $f(t) = t^p$ ,  $0 < p < 1$ ,  $t > 0$ . Clearly  $f$  is concave. Using the triangle inequality on  $\mathbb{R}$  and the property given above for concave functions (comes from MVT), we have

$$|x - z|^p \leq (|x - y| + |y - z|)^p \leq |x - y|^p + |y - z|^p.$$

So the triangle inequality holds.

Therefore,  $(\mathbb{R}, d_p)$  is a metric space.

(b) Show that,

$$d_p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^p$$

defines a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Solution.** The same arguments as in part (a) work here since:

$$\begin{aligned} |x_i - y_i| \geq 0 &\implies \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i| \geq 0 \implies \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^p \geq 0 \\ (|x_i - y_i| = 0 &\implies x_i = y_i) \implies \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i| = 0 \implies x_i = y_i \quad \forall i \right) \\ &\implies \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^p = 0 \implies x_i = y_i \quad \forall i \right) \\ (|x_i - y_i| = |y_i - x_i| &\implies |x_i - y_i|^p = |y_i - x_i|^p) \implies \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^p = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - x_i|^p \right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $d_p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is non-degenerate and symmetric. Now for the triangle inequality.

From (a),

$$|x - z|^p \leq |x - y|^p + |y - z|^p.$$

Using this relationship at each term in the sum leads to

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - z_i|^p \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^p + \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - z_i|^p.$$

Therefore,  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_p)$  is a metric space.

(c) Can this definition be generalized to sequence spaces? For each  $p$ , what is the appropriate set of sequences on which the metric is defined.

**Solution.** The appropriate space to which this can be generalized is all sequences such that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x_k|^p < \infty.$$