## Lecture 6, November 7, 2019

## Uniform convergence and normed spaces of functions. Complete spaces of functions. A continuous function without derivative

Normed spaces of functions. In fact, one can consider the pointwise and uniform convergence of sequences of functions for real functions $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on any nonempty set $M$, which need not be a subset of $\mathbb{R}$ as we stated last time. (For locally uniform convergence one needs to endow $M$ with a metric or a topology, in order to be able to speak about neighborhoods of points.) A better structure to capture uniform convergence than a metric space is in this situation the structure of a normed (vector) space $N=\left(N,\|\cdot\|_{\infty}\right)=(N,\|\cdot\|)$ where $N=\{f \mid f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ and the (supremum or $L_{\infty}$ ) norm

$$
\|\cdot\|_{\infty}=\|\cdot\|: N \rightarrow[0,+\infty]=[0,+\infty) \cup\{+\infty\}
$$

is defined by

$$
\|f\|:=\sup (\{|f(x)| \mid x \in M\})
$$

The norm $\|\cdot\|$ therefore may attain value $+\infty$ and has these basic properties (for every $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f, g \in N$ ): (i) $\|f\| \geq 0$ and $\|f\|=0$ iff $f$ is the zero function, (ii) $\|c f\|=|c| \cdot\|f\|$, and (iii) $\|f+g\| \leq\|f\|+\|g\|$. We understand $N$ as a real vector space with the operations $f+g$ of addition of vectors, which are here functions, and $c f$ of scalar multiplication of a function $f$ by a real number $c$. The reader knows their properties from the linear algebra. We compute with the not so usual value of the norm $+\infty$ as follows: $c(+\infty)=+\infty$ for every real $c>0,0(+\infty)=0$, and $(+\infty)+(+\infty)=$ $c+(+\infty)=(+\infty)+c=+\infty$ for every real $c \geq 0$. If we restrict to bounded functions then, as we know,

$$
d(f, g):=\|f-g\|
$$

yields the metric space $(N, d)$.
Uniform convergence and norm. Uniform convergence is equivalent to convergence with respect to the previous norm. The proof of it is left to the reader as a simple exercise.

Proposition $\left(\rightrightarrows \Longleftrightarrow\|\cdot\|_{\infty} \rightarrow 0\right)$. Let $N$ be the normed space of all real functions defined on a nonempty set $M$, and let $f_{n}, f \in N$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$
f_{n} \rightrightarrows f \text { on } M \Longleftrightarrow \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|f_{n}-f\right\|=\lim \left\|f_{n}-f\right\|=\lim d\left(f_{n}, f\right)=0,
$$

that is, the functions $f_{n}$, as points in the space $N$, converge in $N$ to the limit $f$.
Proof. Exercise 1.
However, here in general we get infinite distances as values of the metric, which we did not allow in the definition of a metric space.

More examples. We saw that for $f_{n}(x)=x^{n}$ and $f$ defined as $f(x)=0$ for $0 \leq x<1$ and $f(1)=1$ the sequence of functions $f_{n} \nRightarrow f$ on $[0,1]$ nor on $[0,1)$. But it is easy to see (Exercise 2) that the previous proposition implies that

$$
f_{n} \stackrel{\text { loc }}{\rightrightarrows} f \text { on }[0,1)
$$

If $f_{n}(x)=\frac{n x}{1+n^{2} x^{2}}$ then $f_{n} \rightarrow \equiv 0$ on $\mathbb{R}$ but because of the values $f_{n}\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)=\frac{1}{2}$ the convergence is not uniform nor is it on $\mathbb{R}$ locally uniform (Exercise 3). But $f_{n} \rightrightarrows \equiv 0$ on each set $M \subset \mathbb{R}$ for which 0 is an exterior point (Exercise 4). Finally

$$
f_{n}(x)=\frac{\sin (n x)}{n} \rightrightarrows \equiv 0 \text { on } \mathbb{R}
$$

by the last proposition because $\left\|f_{n}\right\|=\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0(M=\mathbb{R})$ for $n \rightarrow \infty$.
A closed and bounded but non-compact set. We give an example of such a set $X$ in a metric space. As we know, $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ does not suffice for it and we need infinitely many dimensions. We take the metric space $(N, d)$, where $N=\{f \mid f:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $f$ is bounded $\}$ and $d$ is the metric derived from the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$, and for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ set

$$
f_{n}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
0 & \ldots & x \neq 1 / n \\
1 & \ldots & x=1 / n
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then $\left(f_{n}\right) \subset N$ and $d\left(f_{m}, f_{n}\right)=1$ whenever $m \neq n$. These distances imply all three required properties of the set $X=\left\{f_{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\right\} \subset N$ : it is closed, bounded, and non-compact (Exercise 5).

Proposition (1st complete space of functions). If $M$ is any non-empty set, then the normed space $N$ of all bounded real functions defined on $M$ is complete, that is, $(N, d)$ with the metric $d(f, g)=\|f-g\|$ is a complete metric space.

Proof. Let $\left(f_{n}\right) \subset N$ be a Cauchy sequence in the normed space $(N,\|\cdot\|)$, we show that $\left(f_{n}\right)$ has a limit in $N$. In particular, for each fixed $a \in M$ the sequence $\left(f_{n}(a)\right) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a Cauchy sequence of real numbers and (by one of the basic theorems in Mathematical Analysis $I$ ) has a finite $\operatorname{limit} \lim f_{n}(a)=$ : $f(a) \in \mathbb{R}$. We get a function $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_{n} \rightarrow f$ on $M$. We show that even $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M$.

Let an $\varepsilon>0$ be given. Because $\left(f_{n}\right)$ is a Cauchy sequence, we can take an $n_{0}$ such that for every $m, n \geq n_{0}$ one has

$$
\forall x \in M:\left|f_{m}(x)-f_{n}(x)\right|<\varepsilon / 2 .
$$

Further let an $a \in M$ be given. Since $\lim f_{n}(a)=f(a)$, we can take an $m$ such that $\left|f_{m}(a)-f(a)\right|<\varepsilon / 2$ and $m \geq n_{0}$. Then for every $n \geq n_{0}$ one has (by the triangle inequality)

$$
\left|f_{n}(a)-f(a)\right| \leq\left|f_{n}(a)-f_{m}(a)\right|+\left|f_{m}(a)-f(a)\right|<\varepsilon / 2+\varepsilon / 2=\varepsilon .
$$

The first $|\cdots|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ because the sequence $\left(f_{n}\right)$ is (uniformly) Cauchy, and for the second absolute value it holds too because of the choice of $m$. For every $a \in M$ and every $n$ with $n \geq n_{0}$ we therefore have $\left|f_{n}(a)-f(a)\right|<\varepsilon$, thus $f_{n}$ uniformly converge to $f$ on $M$, and $\lim f_{n}=f$ in the normed space of all real functions defined on $M$.

But we have only bounded functions and therefore still have to show that $f$ is bounded. If it were not, the sequence $\left(f_{n}\right)$ would not have a limit in $N$. We take an $n$ such that $\left\|f-f_{n}\right\| \leq 1$ (which is possible since $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M)$. Because $f_{n}$ is bounded, there is a real $c$ with $\left\|f_{n}\right\| \leq c$. By the triangle inequality we have $\|f\| \leq\left\|f-f_{n}\right\|+\left\|f_{n}\right\| \leq 1+c$, thus $f$ is bounded.

We required bounded functions in $N$ only in order that an "ordinary" metric results, without infinite distances (Exercise 6).

Theorem (2nd complete space of functions). For every metric space $(M, d)$ the normed space $N=\left(N,\|\cdot\|_{\infty}\right)$ of all continuous real functions defined on $M$ is complete.

Proof. Let $\left(f_{n}\right) \subset N$ be a Cauchy sequence in the normed space $N$ of all continuous functions from the metric space $M$ to real numbers, we show that $\left(f_{n}\right)$ has a limit in $N$. The previous proof shows the existence of a function $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M$. It remains to show that $f$ is continuous.

We show that $f$ is continuous at a given point $a \in M$. Let also an $\varepsilon>0$ be given. Since $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M$, we can select an $m$ such that

$$
\forall x \in M:\left|f_{m}(x)-f(x)\right|<\varepsilon / 3 .
$$

Because $f_{m}$ is a continuous function (at every point of $M$ ), there is a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
x \in B(a, \delta) \Rightarrow\left|f_{m}(x)-f_{m}(a)\right|<\varepsilon / 3
$$

The ball $B(a, \delta)$ lies in the metric space $(M, d)$. Then for every $x \in B(a, \delta)$ we also have

$$
|f(x)-f(a)| \leq\left|f(x)-f_{m}(x)\right|+\left|f_{m}(x)-f_{m}(a)\right|+\left|f_{m}(a)-f(a)\right|<\varepsilon
$$

The first and third $|\cdots|<\frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ because of the choice of $m$, and the second absolute value satisfies it too due to the continuity of $f_{m}$ at $a$. Hence $f$ is continuous at $a$.

A continuous function on a non-compact metric space (such as $\mathbb{R}$ ) need not be bounded, hence we get again in general a "metric" $\|f-g\|$ with infinite distances. The theorem actually says that the uniform limit of continuous functions is a continuous function (Exercise 7).

Corollary (the complete space $\mathrm{C}[a, b]$ ). For any two real numbers $a \leq b$ the normed space $\mathrm{C}[a, b]=\left(\mathrm{C}[a, b],\|\cdot\|_{\infty}\right)$ of all continuous real functions defined on the interval $[a, b]$ is complete.

Proof. This is a particular case of the previous theorem, but because of the boundedness of continuous real functions on compact sets, and the intervals $[a, b]$ are compact, we now have bounded functions and therefore a "proper" metric with only finite distances.

The previous complete spaces of functions are derived in a straightforward way from the complete Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}$, the real axis, which makes its role as a basic complete metric space clear.

A continuous function without derivative. Now we give, or at least begin, the promised proof of the existence of a continuous function $f:[0,1] \rightarrow$
$\mathbb{R}$ that for no $a \in[0,1]$ has finite $f^{\prime}(a)$. It applies the Baire theorem in the complete space $\mathrm{C}[0,1]$.

Theorem (a continuous function without derivative). There exists a continuous function $f:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for every $x \in[0,1]$ and every $\delta>0$,

$$
\sup \left(\left\{\left.\left|\frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x}\right| \right\rvert\, y \in P(x, \delta) \cap[0,1]\right\}\right)=+\infty .
$$

Such $f$ does not have for any $x \in(0,1)$ finite $f^{\prime}(x)$, nor it has finite $f_{+}^{\prime}(0)$ and finite $f_{-}^{\prime}(1)$.

We remind that $P(x, \delta)=(x-\delta, x+\delta) \backslash\{x\}$ denotes the deleted neighborhood of the point $x$. The property $\sup (\ldots)=+\infty$ of the function $f$ has the following geometric meaning. For every $x \in[0,1]$, every $\delta>0$, and every large $c>0$ (like $c=10^{100}$ ), one finds in $[0,1]$ a number $y$ different from $x$, but closer to $x$ than $\delta$, such that the secant line of the graph of $f$ corresponding to the numbers $x$ and $y$, which is the line in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ going through the points $(x, f(x))$ and $(y, f(y))$, is quite steep, rises or falls with the slope $\left|\frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x}\right|>c$. Clearly, such function $f$ does not have at the point (number) $x$ finite derivative (a tangent line).

Briefly, the proof goes as follows. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we define subsets $A_{n} \subset \mathrm{C}[0,1]$ by

$$
A_{n}=\left\{\left.f \in \mathrm{C}[0,1]|\exists x \in[0,1] \forall y \in[0,1]: y \neq x \Rightarrow| \frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x} \right\rvert\, \leq n\right\} .
$$

It turns out that they are meager, and therefore by the Baire theorem there is a function $f$ in $\mathrm{C}[0,1] \backslash \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{n}$. It follows from this that such $f$ has the property in the theorem. I will tell you the proof of the theorem in detail next time.

## Exercises

1. Prove the first proposition in the lecture.
2. Prove that $f_{n} \xrightarrow{\text { loc }} f$ on $[0,1)$, where $f_{n}(x)=x^{n}$ and $f$ is the pointwise limit of the functions $f_{n}$ on $[0,1)$, the zero function.
3. Prove that for $f_{n}(x)=\frac{n x}{1+n^{2} x^{2}}$ the sequence of functions $f_{n} \stackrel{\text { loc }}{\nRightarrow} \equiv 0$ on $\mathbb{R}$.
4. Prove that the convergence of the $f_{n}(x)$ in the previous exercise is uniform on $(-\infty,-\delta) \cup(\delta,+\infty)$ for every $\delta>0$.
5. Prove that the set of functions $X=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots\right\} \subset N$ defined in the lecture is closed and bounded but not compact.
6. Prove that the normed space of all real functions defined on a nonempty set is complete.
7. How does exactly follow from the first theorem in the lecture that the uniform limit of continuous functions is a continuous function?
8. Prove that for finite $M, f_{n} \rightarrow f$ on $M$ implies $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M$.
9. Let $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M$ and $g_{n} \rightrightarrows g$ on $M$. Determine if then also $f_{n}+g_{n} \rightrightarrows$ $f+g$ on $M$.
10. Let $f_{n} \rightrightarrows f$ on $M$ and $g_{n} \rightrightarrows g$ on $M$. Determine if then also $f_{n} g_{n} \rightrightarrows f g$ on $M$.
