
EXAMPLES IN MATHEMATICS

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Abstract

This is a notes of examples. I write it mainly because I think I am not good at remembering and using examples in mathematics.

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1 Analysis

1.1 Functional Analysis

$f \in C^\infty, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists n = n(x) \in \mathbb{N}^*, s.t. f^{(n)}(x) = 0.$

(From MSE: If f is infinitely differentiable then f coincides with a polynomial)

Proof. $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [-n, n]$, hence it suffices to show f is a polynomial on $[-n, n]$.

The proof is by contradiction. Suppose f is not a polynomial on $[-n, n]$.

Let: $S_n = \{x : f^{(n)}(x) = 0\}, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, then S_n is closed since $f^{(n)}(x)$ is continuous.

Let $X = \{x : \forall (a, b) \text{ containing } x, f|_{(a,b)} \text{ is not a polynomial.}\}$. X is a non-empty closed set without isolated points:

X is closed: $X^c = \{x : \exists (a, b) \text{ containing } x, f|_{(a,b)} \text{ is a polynomial}\}$, hence X^c is clearly open. X is non-empty: it suffices to show $X^c \neq [-n, n]$, otherwise we can find an open cover of $[-n, n]$, hence a finite subcover of $[-n, n]$ such that f is a polynomial on them respectively, then there exists a sufficiently large N , such that $f'(x) = 0$, hence f is a polynomial on $[-n, n]$, which is a contradiction. X is without isolated points: otherwise $\exists a$ (if $a \neq n, -n$) $\in X$, such that $\exists \epsilon > 0, (a - \epsilon, a) \cup (a, a + \epsilon) \subset X^c, (a - \epsilon, a) \cup (a, a + \epsilon)$ is bounded, so on every compact subset, f is a polynomial, hence f is a polynomial on $(a - \epsilon, a), (a, a + \epsilon)$ respectively. Since $f \in C^\infty$, it is easy to show $\exists N$ sufficiently large such that $f^{(N)}(x) = 0, \forall x \in (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon)$. Then $a \in X^c$, which is a contradiction. For $a = n, -n$, we can easily get a contradiction by the same argument.

$X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (S_n \cap X)$, by Baire Category theorem, $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}^*$, such that $S_k \cap X$ is not a nowhere dense set, i.e. $(S_k \cap X)^\circ$ is not empty (in the induced topology of X). Hence \exists interval (a, b) , such that $(a, b) \cap X \subset S_k \cap X$ and $(a, b) \cap X$ is non-empty. Since X is without isolated point, every point of $(a, b) \cap X$ is an accumulation point. Hence $(a, b) \cap X \subset S_n, \forall n \geq k$ (we can easily prove by the definition of derivative and S_n).

Now consider a maximal interval $(c, e) \subset (a, b) \setminus X$, then we can easily show f is a polynomial, of degree d . Then $f^{(d)} = \text{const.}$, $d < k$ since c or e is in X hence in S_k . So $f^{(k)} = 0$, which is a contradiction to $(a, b) \cap X$ is non-empty. \square

1.2 Measure

1.2.1 A partition of Interval

T is measurable, μ is a finite measure, then $\forall E$ measurable

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu(T^{-n}E \setminus \bigcup_{k=0}^{n-1} T^{-k}E) = 0$$

Hint: note that, we can define

$$E_k = \{x : x \in E, x \notin T^{-1}E, \dots, x \notin T^{-(k-1)}E, x \in T^{-k}E\}$$

$$E_k^* = \{x : x \notin E, x \notin T^{-1}E, \dots, x \notin T^{-(k-1)}E, x \in T^{-k}E\}$$

1.2.2 Dirac measure

$(X, 2^X)$ is a measure space, δ_x is a measure:

$$\delta_x(A) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in A \\ 0, & x \notin A \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$$m = \sum_{n=1}^N \delta_{T^n x} \text{ is ergodic, where } T \text{ is an endomorphism, and } T^N x = x. \quad (2)$$

1.2.3 An outer measure which is not continuous from below

$(\mathbb{Z}, 2^{\mathbb{Z}}, \mu^*)$, where:

$$\mu^*(A) = \begin{cases} 1, & A \text{ is finite and nonempty} \\ 0, & A = \emptyset \\ \infty, & A \text{ is infinite} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

1.3 Ergodic Theory

1.3.1 Bernoulli shift is strong mixing

$Y = \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$, $X = Y^{\mathbb{N}_0}$, \mathcal{A} is the algebra generated by measurable rectangles, $l[a]_k = \{x \in X : x_i = a_i, l \leq i \leq k\}$, then for all $A, B \in \sigma(\mathcal{A})$, T is the shift, then T is strong mixing, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} m(T^{-n}A \cap B) = m(A)m(B)$.

1.3.2 Rotation of torus

T is a measure-preserving transformation (Hint: construct an algebra which generates the Borel algebra), $m = \text{Leb}|_{[0,1]}$.

$$\begin{aligned} T : [0, 1) &\rightarrow [0, 1) \\ x &\mapsto x + \alpha \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Proposition 1.1. T is ergodic if and only if α is irrational.

Proof. " \implies ": We prove this by contradiction, i.e. suppose $\alpha = \frac{q}{p}$, $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$, define

$$\begin{aligned} f : [0, 1) &\mapsto [0, 1) \\ x &\mapsto px \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

therefore, $f \circ T = f$, by Walters(GTM 79) theorem 1.6, $f = \text{const.}$, which is a contradiction.

" \impliedby ": We prove: $\forall f \in L^2(m), f \circ T = f$ implies $f = \text{const.}$ Then by Walters(GTM 79) theorem 1.6, f is ergodic. It is easy to prove this by using the Fourier expansion of f .

Remark: $f \in L^p$, then the Fourier series of f converges almost everywhere if $1 < p < \infty$; but it is not true for $p = 1$. □

1.3.3 Koopman operator

(X, \mathcal{B}, m, T) is a measure preserving system, the koopman operator:

$$\begin{aligned} U_T : L^0(m) &\longrightarrow L^0(m) \\ f &\longmapsto f \circ T \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

It has the following property:

$$\int f dm = \int f \circ T dm$$

1.3.4 Shift space is Lipschitz homeomorphic to a cantor set

1.3.5 Adding Machine

Σ^d is minimal under T , where T is an addition operator which can be seen as "+1" with number written in a inverse order. I write this because it appears in "Conformal fractals" and there is a mistake in the book.

1.3.6 Complex linear fractals(Cantor set)

This is a generalized form of cantor set.(It is from "Conformal fractals", it makes something simple look much more difficult and strange for beginners like me!)

Let $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ be an open connected set. $T_i(z) = \lambda_i z + a_i, \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}, |\lambda_i| < 1, a_i \in \mathbb{C}, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, such that $\overline{T_i(U)}$ are pairwise disjoint and contained in U .

Define the limit cantor set:

$$\Lambda = \bigcap_{k \geq 0} \bigcup_{(i_0, \dots, i_k)} T_{i_0} \circ \dots \circ T_{i_k}(U) = \bigcup_{(i_0, \dots, i_k, \dots)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} T_{i_0} \circ \dots \circ T_{i_k}(z)$$

Note that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} T_{i_0} \circ \dots \circ T_{i_k}(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{i_0} \dots \lambda_{i_{k-1}} a_k$$

So this equality is easy to verify and the definition is independent of x .

1.4 Ordinary Differential Equation

1.4.1 An autonomous system with exactly one limit cycle

This is from Arnold's Ordinary Differential Equation P73.

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = y + x(1 - x^2 - y^2) \\ \dot{y} = -x + y(1 - x^2 - y^2) \end{cases} \tag{7}$$

By passing to polar coordinates, we obtain:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{r} = r(1 - r^2) \\ \dot{\theta} = -1 \end{cases} \tag{8}$$

The phase curve is as follows:

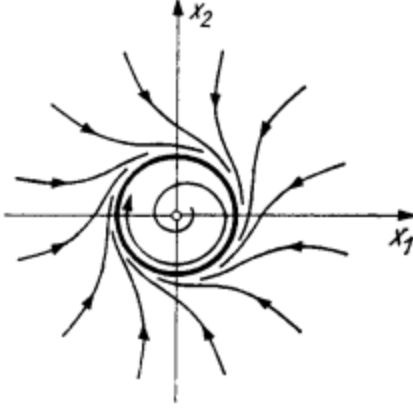


Figure 1: Integral curves in the (x,y)-plane

2 Algebra

2.1 Homological Algebra

2.1.1 R-module R is projective but not injective

R-module R is projective, because $\text{Hom}_R(R, N) \cong R$.

R-module R is not injective, consider an exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\text{projection}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0$$

$\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$ is a left exact functor, we have the following exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f} \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$$

It suffices to show f is not surjective: for $\text{id} \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$, $\text{id} \notin f(\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}))$, otherwise $\text{id}(1) = f \circ g(1) \neq 1, g \in \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$.

2.1.2 R-module R is injective if R is a field

Note that when R is a field, we can consider this proposition in the category of vector space.

2.2 Commutative Algebra

2.2.1 A ring which is not Noetherian but has a Noetherian prime spectra

$R = k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots]$ is a polynomial ring with infinite indeterminates, and $I = (x_1, x_2^2, \dots, x_n^n, \dots)$ is an ideal. Then $S = R/I$ is a ring which is not Noetherian but has a Noetherian prime spectra.

$J = (\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_n, \dots)$ is an ideal of S . $S/J \cong k$, hence J is a maximal ideal; every element of J is nilpotent, hence J is contained in the nilradical, which is the intersection of all prime ideals of J . Therefore, J is the unique prime ideal of S , hence the prime spectra of

S is Noetherian. There exists a strictly increasing sequence of ideals of S : $(\bar{x}_1) \subset (\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2) \subset \dots \subset (\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_n) \subset \dots$

3 Geometry

3.1 Point Set Topology

3.1.1 Projections from product space is not necessarily closed

$p : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not closed. For $p\{(x, y) : xy = 1\} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.

3.1.2 A continuous map which is bijective but not homeomorphic

$f : \mathbb{E}^1 \setminus [0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}^1$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & x < 0 \\ x - 1, & x \geq 1 \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

3.1.3 A continuous map which is closed but not open

$$\begin{aligned} f : \mathbb{E}^1 &\longmapsto \mathbb{E}^1 \\ x &\longmapsto 1 \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

3.1.4 A continuous map which is open but not closed

Let the open set of \mathbb{R} be $\emptyset, \{1\}, \mathbb{R}$.

$$\begin{aligned} f : \mathbb{E}^1 &\longmapsto \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto 1 \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

3.1.5 An example which is T_2 but not T_3 , is C_1 and separable but not C_2

This example is in Your's Basic Topology P44 Ex.18.

Let $S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, the topology of \setminus is $\tau = \{U \setminus A \mid U \text{ is open in } \mathbb{E}^1, A \subset S\}$.

(1). τ is a topology:

Clearly $\emptyset, \mathbb{R} \in \tau$.

Finite intersection:

$$U_n \in \mathbb{E}^1, A_n \subset S, n \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}, \bigcap_{n=1}^N U_n \setminus A_n = \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^N U_n\right) \setminus \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^N A_n\right) \in \tau$$

Arbitrary union:

$$U_i \in \mathbb{E}^1, A_i \subset S, i \in \Lambda, \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} (U_i \setminus A_i) \subset \left(\bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} U_i\right) \setminus \left(\bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} A_i\right) \implies \bigcup_{i \in \Lambda} (U_i \setminus A_i) \in \tau$$

(2). (\mathbb{R}, τ) is T_2 but not T_3 .

This is because the open set in \mathbb{E}^1 is also open in τ , so it is T_2 . For $(a, b) \setminus S$ and $r \in (a, b) \cap S$, we cannot find two open sets separating (a, b) and $\{r\}$, hence it is not T_3 .

(3). (\mathbb{R}, τ) is C_1 and separable.

For the neighbourhood basis of $r \in \mathbb{R}$ is $\{(r - q_n, r + q_n) \setminus T\}_{q \in \mathbb{Q}}$, For $r \notin \mathbb{Q}, T = S$ if $r \in \mathbb{Q}, T = S \setminus \{r\}$, if $r \in S$.

(\mathbb{R}, τ) is separable, i.e. has a countable dense subset, because $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}$.

(4). The induced topology of $S(\tau_S)$ from τ is discrete.

$\forall p \in S, p \in [\mathbb{R} \setminus (S \setminus \{p\})] \cap S = \{p\}$.

(5). (\mathbb{R}, τ) is not C_2 .

Otherwise S, τ_S would be C_2

3.1.6 Topologist's sine curve

$A = \{(x, \sin \frac{1}{x}); x \in (0, 1]\}$, $\bar{A} = \overline{\{(x, \sin \frac{1}{x}); x \in (0, 1]\}}$ is connected but neither path-connected nor locally connected.

\bar{A} is connected: $A \cong (0, 1]$ is a connected and dense subset of \bar{A} .

\bar{A} is not locally connected: $(0, 0) \in U = \bar{A} \setminus \{(x, y) | y = 1\} \subset \bar{A}$ contains no connected neighbourhood.

\bar{A} is not path-connected: it suffices to show ∂A is a path-connected component. Clearly ∂A is path connected, we can prove ∂A is a path-connected component of A by the above argument. Suppose a is a path such that $a(0) \in A$, $J = a^{-1}(A)$. Then J is closed and nonempty. It suffices to show J is open, then $J = I$, hence $a(I) \subset A$, then A is a path connected component. $\forall t \in J, a(t) \in A$, without loss of generality, suppose $a(t) \neq (0, 1)$, then $a(t) \in U$. There exist path-connected neighbourhood of t , such that $a(W) \subset U$, since $[0, 1]$ is locally path connected. Since the continuous image of a path-connected set is path-connected, $a(W) \subset A$, therefore $W \subset a^{-1}(A)$. Hence $a^{-1}(A)$ is both open and closed. Hence A is a path connected component. Therefore \bar{A} is not path-connected.

Remark: $\{(x, \sin \frac{1}{x}) : x \neq 0\}$ is a smooth manifold.

3.2 Algebraic Topology

4 Applied Mathematics

4.1 Asymptotic Methods and Perturbation Theory

The last problem of 1.5 from Introduction to Perturbation Methods: suppose $f = o(\phi)$, for small ϵ , where f and ϕ are continuous functions. Give an example to show that it is not necessarily true that

$$\int_0^\epsilon f = o(\int_0^\epsilon g)$$

Example:

$$f(x) = x^2 |\sin(\frac{1}{x})|$$

$$g(x) = x \sin(\frac{1}{x})$$

$f = o(g)$, but $\int_0^\epsilon f \neq o(\int_0^\epsilon g)$:

$\int_0^\epsilon f > 0, \forall \epsilon > 0$, but $\int_0^\epsilon g$ has infinitely many zeros in any neighbourhood of 0.

Let $F(x) = \int_0^x x \sin(\frac{1}{x}) dx$,

$$F\left(\frac{1}{n\pi}\right) = \int_0^{\frac{1}{n\pi}} x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx = \frac{(-1)^n}{(n\pi)^3} - 3 \int_0^x x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx$$

Note that $|3 \int_0^x x^2 \sin(\frac{1}{x}) dx| \leq 3 \int_0^x |x^2 \sin(\frac{1}{x})| dx < 3 \int_0^x x^2 dx = \frac{1}{(n\pi)^3}$

So $F(\frac{1}{n\pi})(-1)^n > 0$, so $o(\int_0^\epsilon g)$ has infinitely many zeros in any neighbourhood of 0, so $\int_0^\epsilon f \neq o(\int_0^\epsilon g)$.