# CHAOS <br> First Edition (2003), First Printing Banks, Dragan and Jones 

Partial scrutiny, Solutions of Selected Exercises, Comments, Suggestions and Errata<br>José Renato Ramos Barbosa

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## 3

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Ex. 3.1.4, p. 48
Consider $S=\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \neq 0\}$ and $S \ni x \mapsto f(x)=-x$.
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Ex. 3.1.5, p. 48
(a) Nope since

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{3}\left(x_{0}\right) & =f\left(f^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{1}\left(x_{0}\right) \quad\left(\text { since } x_{0} \text { is a period- } 2 \text { point }\right) \\
& \neq x_{0} \quad\left(\text { since } 2 \text { is the prime period of } x_{0}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Yep since

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{4}\left(x_{0}\right) & =f^{2}\left(f^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{2}\left(x_{0}\right) \\
& =x_{0} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 3.1.10, p. 49
Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{0} & \left.=f^{n}\left(x_{0}\right) \quad \text { (since } x_{0} \text { is a period- } n \text { point }\right) \\
& \left.=f^{r}\left(\left(f^{p}\right)^{q}\left(x_{0}\right)\right) \quad \text { (since } n=p q+r\right) \\
& \left.=f^{r}\left(x_{0}\right) \quad \text { (since } x_{0} \text { is a period- } p \text { point }\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

$p$ is the prime period of $x_{0}$ and $0 \leq r<p$, it follows that $r=0$. Then $n=q p$.
==================================================================================12
Ex. 3.1.12, p. 49
For $i \in\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$, one has
Ex. 2.3.5, p. 42

$\underbrace{x_{0} \text { is a period- } n \text { point; Theo. 2.3.3, p. } 41}_{=} f^{i}\left(x_{0}\right)$
$\underbrace{\text { Theo. 2.3.3, p. } 41}$


Ex. 3.2.6, p. 56
Since $f\left(a_{i}\right)=a_{i}$ for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$, it follows that $f^{n}\left(a_{i}\right)-a_{i}=0$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$. Hence there exists some $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ such that $f^{n}(x)-x=\left(x-a_{1}\right) \cdots\left(x-a_{k}\right) g(x)$. Thus degree $(g(x))+k=\operatorname{degree}\left(f^{n}(x)-x\right)=$ $n d$.
=================================================================================12
Ex. 3.3.1, p. 59
On the one hand, $f(0)=0$. On the other hand:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x)=0 & \Longrightarrow x \in\{0,1\} \\
& \Longrightarrow f(1)=0 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x)=1 & \Longrightarrow x=\frac{1}{2} \\
& \Longrightarrow f(1 / 2)=1 \\
f(x)=\frac{1}{2} & \Longrightarrow x=\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}} \\
& \Longrightarrow f\left(\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}\right)=\frac{1}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 3.3.2, p. 59
(b) Each $x_{0} \in S$ is an eventually periodic point of $f: S \rightarrow S \Rightarrow S$ is a set with only finitely many elements.
(c) False! Consider, for instance, id: $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Ex. 3.3.3, p. 59
(a) See Def. 3.3.1, p. 57.
(b) Use the contrapositive of $x_{k-1}=x_{k-1+n} \Rightarrow k \neq \min \left\{l \in \mathbb{N}_{0}: f^{l}\left(x_{0}\right)=f^{l+n}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\}$.
(c) Use that $f$ is $1-1$.
(d) $k=0$.




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Erratum, Fig. 4.3.2, p. 70
The arrows are reversed!




5



Ex. 5.1.3, p. 82
See Figure 1.

Ex. 5.2.1, p. 85
Suppose $f: S \rightarrow S$ is differentiable at $p \in S$ and $\left|f^{\prime}(p)\right|>1$. Then there is a number $a>1$ and an open-in-S interval $I$ such that, for all $x \in I$,

$$
|f(x)-f(p)| \geq a|x-p| .
$$

Proof:
Choose $1<a<\left|f^{\prime}(p)\right|$. Hence either $f^{\prime}(p)<-a$ or $f^{\prime}(p)>a$.
Consider $\epsilon>0$. Thus there is an interval $I$ containing $p$ such that for all $x \in I-\{p\}$,

$$
\frac{f(x)-f(p)}{x-p} \in\left(f^{\prime}(p)-\epsilon, f^{\prime}(p)+\epsilon\right) .
$$



Figure 1: Graphs of $f(x)=\frac{1}{2}\left(x^{2}+1\right)$ and its tangent mapping $\tau_{1}(x)=f(1)+f^{\prime}(1)(x-1)=1+1(x-1)=x$ at the only one fixed point 1 .

Take $\epsilon<f^{\prime}(p)-a$ for $f^{\prime}(p)>a$. Therefore $\frac{f(x)-f(p)}{x-p}>f^{\prime}(p)-\epsilon>a$.
Take $\epsilon<-f^{\prime}(p)-a$ for $f^{\prime}(p)<-a$. Therefore $\frac{f(x)-f(p)}{x-p}<f^{\prime}(p)+\epsilon<-a$.
Thus, for all $x \in I-\{p\}$,

$$
\left|\frac{f(x)-f(p)}{x-p}\right|>a
$$

Thus, for all $x \in I$,

$$
|f(x)-f(p)| \geq a|x-p|
$$

Ex. 5.2.2, p. 85
Ex. 5.2.1 gives an $a>1$ and an open-in-S bounded interval $I$ containing $p=f(p)$ such that:

- $\forall x_{k} \in I-\{p\},\left|x_{k+1}-p\right|>a\left|x_{k}-p\right|$, in other words, $x_{k+1}$ is further from $p$ than $x_{k}$ is;
- $\exists b>0$ such that $I \subsetneq[-b, b]$ and, $\forall x_{k} \in I,\left|x_{k}-p\right|<b$.

Suppose that $x_{k} \in I-\{p\}, k=0,1, \ldots$. Therefore, by the first item, $\left|x_{k}-p\right|>a^{k}\left|x_{0}-p\right|, k=1,2, \ldots$ Since $\left|x_{0}-p\right|$ is a constant and $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} a^{k}=\infty$, by page 64 (line -9 to line -8 ), there is a positive integer $k_{0}$ such that each element of $\left(\left|x_{k_{0}}-p\right|,\left|x_{k_{0}+1}-p\right|, \ldots\right)$ exceeds b ! This is a contradiction by the last item!


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6
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Ex. 6.1.8, p. 96
(a) $\frac{1}{2}\left(1-y_{n+1}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(1-y_{n}\right)\left(1+y_{n}\right) \Longrightarrow y_{n+1}=y_{n}^{2}$.
(b) $y_{n}=y_{0}^{2^{n}}$, by induction.
(c) $1-2 x_{n}=y_{n}=y_{0}^{2^{n}}=\left(1-2 x_{0}\right)^{2^{n}}=\left(2 x_{0}-1\right)^{2^{n}}$.

Ex. 6.1.9, p. 96
(a)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin ^{2}\left(\theta_{n+1}\right) & =x_{n+1} \\
& =4 x_{n}\left(1-x_{n}\right) \\
& =4 \sin ^{2}\left(\theta_{n}\right)\left(1-\sin ^{2}\left(\theta_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =\left(2 \sin \left(\theta_{n}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{n}\right)\right)^{2} \\
& =\sin ^{2}\left(2 \theta_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

(b)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{\sin ^{2}\left(\theta_{n+1}\right)}=\sqrt{\sin ^{2}\left(2 \theta_{n}\right)} & \Longrightarrow \sin \left(\theta_{n+1}\right)=\sin \left(2 \theta_{n}\right) \\
& \Longrightarrow \theta_{n+1}=\arcsin \sin \left(2 \theta_{n}\right)=2 \theta_{n} \\
& \Longrightarrow \theta_{n}=2^{n} \theta_{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 6.1.15-16, p. 97
$\mu>0 \Longrightarrow C_{\mu}(0)=C_{\mu}(1)=0$ and $C_{\mu}(1 / 2)=1$;
$x \in(0,1)-\{1 / 2\} \Longrightarrow 0<|2 x-1|<1 \Longrightarrow \lim _{\mu \rightarrow a} C_{\mu}(x)=1-\lim _{\mu \rightarrow a}|2 x-1|^{\mu}=0$ for $a=0$ and 1 for $a=\infty$.
$\therefore$ graph of $f=\{(x, 0): x \in[0,1]-\{1 / 2\}\} \cup\{(1 / 2,1)\}$ and graph of $g=\{(x, 1): x \in(0,1)\} \cup\{(0,0),(1,0)\}$.
$=============================================================================$
Ex. 6.1.17, p. 97
(a) Proof by Induction:

- $x_{0}=x_{0} \mu^{0} ;$
- $-\mu x_{0}^{2}<0 \Longrightarrow \mu x_{0}-\mu x_{0}^{2}<\mu x_{0} \Longrightarrow x_{1}<x_{0} \mu^{1}$;
- $x_{n+1}=\mu x_{n}-\mu x_{n}^{2} \underbrace{-\mu x_{n}^{2} \leq 0}_{\leq} \mu x_{n} \underbrace{x_{n} \leq x_{0} \mu^{n} \text { (Induction Hypothesis) }} x_{n+1} \leq x_{0} \mu^{n+1}$.
(b) $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu^{n} \underbrace{\mu>1}_{=} \infty$ and $x_{0}$ is a negative constant $\underbrace{x_{n} \leq x_{0} \mu^{n}}_{\Longrightarrow} \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n}=-\infty$.
(c) $x_{0}>1 \Longrightarrow x_{0}^{2}>x_{0} \Longrightarrow \mu x_{0}^{2}>\mu x_{0} \Longrightarrow x_{1}=\mu x_{0}-\mu x_{0}^{2}<0 \xlongequal{(\mathrm{~b})}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2} \ldots\right)$ diverges to $-\infty$.

Erratum, p. 101
After Stability, "Recall from Definition 5.1.5 ..." should be "Recall from Definition 5.1.3 ...".
Ex. 6.2.2, p. 104
(a) $f_{\mu}^{\prime}(x)=2 \mu x(1-x)-\mu x^{2}=-\mu x(3 x-2)=0$ iff $x \in\left\{0, \frac{2}{3}\right\}$.
(b) $f_{\mu}^{\prime \prime}(x)=-\mu(3 x-2)-\mu x \cdot 3=-2 \mu(3 x-1)$. Thus $x=\frac{1}{3}$ is the inflection point and, since $f_{\mu}^{\prime \prime}(0)>0$ and $f_{\mu}^{\prime \prime}(2 / 3)<0,0$ is a minimum and $2 / 3$ is a maximum. Therefore, since $f_{\mu}(0)=0$ and $f_{\mu}(2 / 3)=\frac{4 \mu}{27}$, $0 \leq f_{\mu}(x) \leq 1$ for $0 \leq \mu \leq \frac{27}{4}$.
(c) $\mu x^{2}(1-x)=x$ iff $-x\left(\mu x^{2}-\mu x+1\right)=0$ iff $x \in\left\{0, \frac{\mu \pm \sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu}}{2 \mu}\right\}$.
(d)

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{\mu}^{\prime}\left(\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1-4 / \mu}}{2}\right) & =-3 \mu\left(\frac{\mu \pm \sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu}}{2 \mu}\right)^{2}+2 \mu \cdot \frac{\mu \pm \sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu}}{2 \mu} \\
& =-3 \cdot \frac{\mu \pm 2 \sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu}+\mu-4}{4}+\mu \pm \sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu} \\
& =3-\frac{\mu}{2} \mp \frac{\sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu}}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

(e) Notice that, $\forall \mu \in\left[0, \frac{27}{4}\right], 0$ is an attractor since $\left|f_{\mu}^{\prime}(0)\right|=0<1$. Furthermore, for some time after $\mu=4$, $(1-\sqrt{1-4 / \mu}) / 2$ is an atractor and $(1+\sqrt{1-4 / \mu}) / 2$ is a repellor. In fact, suppose

$$
4<\mu \leq \frac{27}{4}
$$

Then, on the one hand,

$$
0<\mu^{2}-4 \mu \leq \frac{11 \cdot 27}{16} \Longrightarrow 0<\frac{\sqrt{\mu^{2}-4 \mu}}{2} \leq \frac{\sqrt{18.5625}}{2} \approx 2.154
$$

On the other hand,

$$
-\frac{3}{8}=3-\frac{27}{8} \leq 3-\frac{\mu}{2}<3-2=1
$$

Now consider the previous item (d).

Ex. 6.2.4, p. 105
(a) Since

$$
\begin{gathered}
g_{\mu}^{\prime}(x)=\mu\left(\frac{1-x}{1+x}\right)+\mu x\left(-\frac{2}{(1+x)^{2}}\right)=-\mu\left(\frac{x^{2}+2 x-1}{(1+x)^{2}}\right)=0 \Longleftrightarrow \\
p(x)=x^{2}+2 x-1=0 \Longleftrightarrow x=\frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{8}}{2} \underbrace{x \in[0,1]} \Longleftrightarrow x=\sqrt{2}-1,
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
g_{\mu}^{\prime \prime}(x)=-\mu\left(\frac{2(x+1)\left((1+x)^{2}-\left(x^{2}+2 x-1\right)\right)}{(1+x)^{4}}\right) \xlongequal[\Longrightarrow]{\Longrightarrow} g_{\mu}^{\prime \prime}(\sqrt{2}-1)<0,
$$

we have that $g_{\mu}$ has its maximum value at $x=\sqrt{2}-1$, where

$$
g_{\mu}(\sqrt{2}-1)=\mu(\sqrt{2}-1)\left(\frac{2-\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}}\right)=\mu(\sqrt{2}-1)(\sqrt{2}-1)=\mu(3-2 \sqrt{2})
$$

(b) Since $g_{\mu}(0)=g_{\mu}(1)=0$ and $g_{\mu}(x)>0$ for $x \in(0,1)$, if $0 \leq \mu \leq 3+2 \sqrt{2}$, then $0 \leq \mu(3-2 \sqrt{2}) \leq$ $(3+2 \sqrt{2})(3-2 \sqrt{2})$, that is, $0 \leq g_{\mu}(\sqrt{2}-1) \leq 1$.
(c) $g_{\mu}(0)=0$ and if $x \neq 0$ then

$$
\mu x\left(\frac{1-x}{1+x}\right)=x \Longrightarrow \mu\left(\frac{1-x}{1+x}\right)=1 \Longrightarrow x=\frac{\mu-1}{\mu+1}=x_{\mu}
$$

Observe that if $0<\mu<1$, then $x_{\mu}<0$, which is a contradiction due to dom $g_{\mu}=[0,1]$.
(d) From the resolution of (a), we have $g_{\mu}^{\prime}(0)=\mu$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{\mu}^{\prime}\left(\frac{\mu-1}{\mu+1}\right) & =-\mu\left(\frac{\left(\frac{\mu-1}{\mu+1}\right)^{2}+2\left(\frac{\mu-1}{\mu+1}\right)-1}{\left(1+\frac{\mu-1}{\mu+1}\right)^{2}}\right) \\
& =-\mu\left(\frac{(\mu-1)^{2}+2\left(\mu^{2}-1\right)-(\mu+1)^{2}}{4 \mu^{2}}\right) \\
& =1-\frac{\mu}{2}+\frac{1}{2 \mu}
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 6.3.5, p. 111
Use long division.

Ex. 6.3.7, p. 112
(b)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(Q_{\mu}^{2}\right)^{\prime}(a) & \underbrace{\text { Exercise 1(b) }}_{=}\left(Q_{\mu}^{2}\right)^{\prime}(b) \\
& =(-1-\sqrt{(\mu+1)(\mu-3)})(-1+\sqrt{(\mu+1)(\mu-3)}) \\
& =-((\mu+1)(\mu-3)-1) \\
& =-\left(\mu^{2}-2 \mu+1-5\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$


 7



Erratum, 1. 3, p. 128
7.2.3 should be 7.2.1.

Erratum, (a), p. 129
"... to $x^{\prime}$, ..." should be "... to $x^{\prime}$, ...".

Ex. 7.2.3, p. 130
$f^{n}(z)=0 \Longrightarrow f^{n+1}(z)=f(0)=0$.

## Ex. 7.2.4, p. 130

## Lemma 7.2.5

$f^{n}(x) \quad=\quad 1 \Longrightarrow f^{n+1}(x)=f(1)=0$.
Ex. 7.2.6, p. 131
(b) Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin ^{2}\left(2^{n} \theta_{0}\right)=0 & \Longleftrightarrow \sin \left(2^{n} \theta_{0}\right)=0 \\
& \Longleftrightarrow 2^{n} \theta_{0}=k \pi, k \in \mathbb{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

it follows that $f^{n}\left(x_{0}\right)=0$ for $x_{0}=\sin ^{2}\left(k \pi / 2^{n}\right)=z_{k}, k \in \mathbb{Z}$. As a matter of fact $k \in\left\{0,1, \ldots, 2^{n-1}\right\}$ : the first $z_{k}$ is $z_{0}=\sin ^{2}\left(0 \pi / 2^{n}\right)=0$ and the last one is $z_{2^{n-1}}=\sin ^{2}\left(2^{n-1} \pi / 2^{n}\right)=1$, which are the end points of $[0,1]$.
(c)

For $k \in\left\{1, \ldots, 2^{n-1}\right\}$,

$$
\left[z_{k-1}, z_{k}\right]=\left[\sin ^{2}\left((k-1) \pi / 2^{n}\right), \sin ^{2}\left(k \pi / 2^{n}\right)\right]
$$

is the base of the $k$ th hump of $f^{n}$. Thus, from

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\pi}{2^{n}} & =\frac{k \pi}{2^{n}}-\frac{(k-1) \pi}{2^{n}} \\
& =\arcsin \sqrt{z_{k}}-\arcsin \sqrt{z_{k-1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

it follows that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \arcsin \sqrt{z_{k}}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \arcsin \sqrt{z_{k-1}}
$$

Hence, since sin and $\sqrt{-}$ are continuous, $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(z_{k}-z_{k-1}\right)=0$ follows from

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sqrt{\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{k}} & =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{z_{k}} \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(\sin \arcsin \sqrt{z_{k}}\right) \\
& =\sin \left(\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \arcsin \sqrt{z_{k}}\right) \\
& =\sin \left(\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \arcsin \sqrt{z_{k-1}}\right) \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(\sin \arcsin \sqrt{z_{k-1}}\right) \\
& =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{z_{k-1}} \\
& =\sqrt{\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} z_{k-1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 7.4.4, p. 139
(a) The set of zeroes of $T^{1}$ is

$$
\{0,1\}=\left\{\frac{i}{2^{1-1}}: 0 \leq i \leq 2^{1-1}\right\} .
$$

Now suppose the set of zeroes of $T^{n}$ is

$$
\left\{\frac{i}{2^{n-1}}: 0 \leq i \leq 2^{n-1}\right\}
$$

Then, by Lemma 7.4.1, $x$ is a zero of $T^{n+1}$ iff $T(x)=\frac{i}{2^{n-1}}$ for $i \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{n-1}\right\}$. Therefore:

- $x \in[0,1 / 2] \Longrightarrow 2 x=\frac{i}{2^{n-1}}$, that is, $x=\frac{i}{2^{n}}$ for $i \in\left\{0, \ldots, 2^{n-1}\right\}$;
- $x \in(1 / 2,0] \Longrightarrow 2-2 x=\frac{i}{2^{n-1}}$, that is, $x=\frac{2^{n}-i}{2^{n}}=\frac{j}{2^{n}}$ for $j \in\left\{2^{n-1}, \ldots, 2^{n}\right\}$.

In fact, if $j=2^{n}-i$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 \leq i \leq 2^{n-1} & \Longrightarrow-2^{n-1} \leq-i \leq 0 \\
& \Longrightarrow 2^{n}-2^{n-1} \leq 2^{n}-i \leq 2^{n} \\
& \Longrightarrow(2-1) 2^{n-1} \leq j \leq 2^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore the set of zeroes of $T^{n+1}$ is

$$
\left\{\frac{i}{2^{n}}: 0 \leq i \leq 2^{n}\right\}
$$

(b) Each hump of $T^{n}$ has base lenght $\frac{i+1}{2^{n-1}}-\frac{i}{2^{n-1}}=\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$.

Ex. 8.2.6, p. 147
(I) reads as (1), p. 145.
(II) reads as $(\exists \delta>0)\left(\exists y \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}\right)\left(\exists \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} y_{k} \in\{x\}\right)(\forall k \in \mathbb{N})(\exists n \in \mathbb{N}) \quad\left|f^{n}(x)-f^{n}\left(y_{k}\right)\right| \geq \delta$.
(III) reads as $(\exists \delta>0)(\exists n \in \mathbb{N})(\forall I \ni x)(\exists y \in I) \quad\left|f^{n}(x)-f^{n}(y)\right| \geq \delta$.

Ex. 8.2.7, p. 148
(a)
(I), as seen in the previous exercise!
(b)
(III) since it is the negation of $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N})(\forall \delta>0)(\exists I \ni x)(\forall y \in I) \quad\left|f^{n}(x)-f^{n}(y)\right|<\delta$, which means that $f^{n}$ is continuos at $x$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(c)

Ex. 8.2.9

Ex. 8.2.8, p. 148
(a)
$(\exists \delta>0)(\forall y \in[0,1]-\{x\})(\exists n \in \mathbb{N}) \quad\left|f^{n}(x)-f^{n}(y)\right| \geq \delta$.
(b)
sensitivity is a local concept whereas expansiveness is a global one!
Ex. 8.2.9, p. 148
It seems the assumption must end with "... a point of $Y-\{x\}$. ." and the deduction must have "... $\left(y_{k}\right)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ in $Y-\{x\} \ldots "$. Otherwise, not only the assumption is always true, but also the deduction follows trivially from $y_{k}=x$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, by the assumption, for $x \in Y$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$, if $I_{k}=Y \cap\left(x-\frac{1}{k}, x+\frac{1}{k}\right)$, there is an $y_{k} \in I_{k}-\{x\}$. Thus, since $0<\left|y_{k}-x\right|<\frac{1}{k}$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$, it follows that $y_{k} \rightarrow x$. For the converse, assume there is $y_{k} \in Y-\{x\}$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $y_{k} \rightarrow x$. Thus, if $J$ is an open interval such that $x \in I=Y \cap J$, there is an index $k_{0}$ such that $y_{k} \in J$ for every $k>k_{0}$. Hence $y_{k} \in I-\{x\}$ for $k>k_{0}$.
====================================================================================1
Ex. 8.2.10, p. 148
First observe that the graph of $f$ is given by the union of $[0,1 / 2] \times\{0\}$ and the second hump of the graph of $Q_{4}^{2}$ (see Figure 7.2.1). Now let $\delta>0$ and consider $I=[0,1 / 2]$, which is not an open-in- $[0,1]$ interval. Thus $\left|f^{n}(1 / 2)-f^{n}(y)\right|=0<\delta$ for all $y \in I$. (For an open-in-[0,1] interval $I$ containing $\frac{1}{2}$, there is $y \in I \cap\left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$ such that $\left|f^{1}(y)-f^{1}(1 / 2)\right|=|f(y)|>\delta$, depending on the $\delta$ taken!)

Ex. 8.3.1, p. 154
Choose $\delta=\frac{3}{4}$. Let $I$ be an open-in- $[0,1]$ interval containing 1 . Choose $y \in I-\{1\}$. Thus choose $n$ so large that $y^{2^{n}} \leq \frac{1}{4}$. This gives $\left|f^{n}(1)-f^{n}(y)\right|=\left|1-y^{2^{n}}\right| \geq \frac{3}{4}=\delta$.

Ex. 8.3.2, p. 154
Do the same as Example 8.3.1, replacing $y^{2^{n}}$ with $y^{3^{n}}$.

Ex. 8.3.3, p. 154
The points are -1 and 1 :
Do the same as the last exercise for 1 , choosing $y \in I$, which is an open-in- $[-1,1]$, such that $0<y<1$.
For -1 , choose $\delta=\frac{1}{2}, y \in I$ such that $-1<y<0$, and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $-\frac{1}{2} \leq y^{3^{n}}<0$. Thus $\frac{1}{2} \leq y^{3^{n}}+1<1$, that is, $\frac{1}{2} \leq\left|y^{3^{n}}-(-1)^{3^{n}}\right|<1$.

Ex. 8.3.4, p. 154

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[-1,1] \ni x \mapsto f_{1}(x)=x^{3} \in[-1,1] } & \Longrightarrow[-1,1] \ni x \mapsto f_{2}(x)=\frac{f_{1}(x)}{2}=\frac{x^{3}}{2} \in[-1 / 2,1 / 2] \\
& \Longrightarrow[-1,1] \ni x \mapsto f_{3}(x)=f_{2}(x)+\frac{1}{2}=\frac{x^{3}}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \in[0,1] \\
& \Longrightarrow[0,2] \ni x \mapsto f_{4}(x)=f_{3}(x-1)=\frac{(x-1)^{3}}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \in[0,1] \\
& \Longrightarrow[0,1] \ni x \mapsto f(x)=f_{4}(2 x)=\frac{(2 x-1)^{3}}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \in[0,1]
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 8.3.5, p. 154
Let $\delta>0$. Thus $\left|y^{2^{n}}\right|<\delta$ for all $y \in I=[0,1] \cap(-\delta, \delta)$ and each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Ex. 8.3.6, p. 154
(a)

Let $\delta>0$. Thus $\left|f^{n}(y)-f^{n}(1)\right|=|y-1|<\delta$ for all $y \in I=[0,1] \cap(1-\delta, 1+\delta)$ and each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(b)

Let $x \neq 1$ and $\delta>0$. Thus $\left|f^{n}(y)-f^{n}(x)\right|=|y-x|<\delta$ for all $y \in I=[0,1] \cap(x-\delta, x+\delta)$ and each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.


## Ex. 8.3.7, p. 154

First observe that all the iterates of $f$ lie below the graph of id. Now use that id is not sensitive dependent anywhere. (See p. 152 and the last exercise).

Ex. 8.3.8, p. 154
Let $x \in[0,1], \delta>0, y \in I=[0,1] \cap(x-\delta, x+\delta)$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, since

- $f^{i}(z) \in[0,1]$ and $\left|f^{\prime}\left(f^{i}(z)\right)\right|<1$ for $i=0,1, \ldots, n-1$,
- a composition of differentiable functions is a differentiable function, and
- $\left(f^{n}\right)^{\prime}(z)=f^{\prime}(z) f^{\prime}(f(z)) f^{\prime}\left(f^{2}(z)\right) \cdots f^{\prime}\left(f^{n-1}(z)\right)$
for each $z \in[0,1]$, it follows from The Mean Value Theorem that $\left|f^{n}(x)-f^{n}(y)\right|=\left|\left(f^{n}\right)^{\prime}\left(z_{n}\right)\right||x-y|<\delta$ for some $z_{n} \in(\min \{x, y\}, \max \{x, y\})$.
$===============================================================================$
Ex. 8.3.9, p. 154
If $f$ is differentiable on $[0,1]$, then there is an $x \in(0,1)$ such that $f(1)-f(0)=f^{\prime}(x)(1-0)$. Thus, since $0 \leq \min \{f(0), f(1)\} \leq \max \{f(0), f(1)\} \leq 1$, there is an $x \in(0,1)$ such that $f^{\prime}(x) \leq 1$.


 9



Ex. 9.1.1, p. 160
Use Example 7.2.6 on p. 129.

Ex. 9.1.2, p. 160
(a) Take $x \in\{0,1\}$.
(b) Choose $y \in I$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $f^{n}(y)=1$.

Ex. 9.1.3, p. 160
Let $S$ be the set of all zeroes of all iterates of $f$ (Lemma 7.3.2), $x \in S$ and $I$ be an open-in- $[0,1]$ interval containing $x$. Thus, since there is an $n_{0} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $f^{n}(x)=0$ for every $n \geq n_{0}$, choose $y \in I$ and $n \geq n_{0}$ such that $f^{n}(y)=1$.

Ex. 9.1.4, p. 160
(a) The Spike Lemma.
(b) It follows from the 'Wiggly $\Leftrightarrow$ dense sets of zeroes' Lemma (see p. 133). In fact, if $I \subseteq[0,1]$ and $S$ is the set of all zeroes of all iterates of $f$, since $f$ is spreading, there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and there is an $z \in I$ such that $f^{n}(z)=0$, that is, $z \in S$.

Ex. 9.2.1, p. 164
None!
For the reasons, observe that $S \subset[0,1]$ is not dense in $[0,1]$ if $S$ is a finite set (just take an interval $I \subset[0,1]$ such that $S \cap I=\varnothing$ ), and
(a) a periodic orbit is a finite set $S=\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}$ such that $f\left(x_{n-1}\right)=x_{0}$,
(b) an eventually periodic orbit is a finite set $S=\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}, x_{k+1}, \ldots, x_{k+n-1}\right\}$ such that $f\left(x_{k+n-1}\right)=x_{k}$,
(c) for every open interval $J \subset[0,1]$ containing a fixed point $p$, an orbit converging to $p$ is the union $S \cup S^{\prime}$ such that $S=\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n_{0}-1}\right\}$ and $S^{\prime}=\left\{x_{n_{0}}, x_{n_{0}+1}, \ldots\right\} \subset J$. (Here, take $I$ such that $I \cap J=\varnothing$ as well).

Ex. 9.2.2, p. 164
$(\exists I)(\exists J)(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) \quad f^{n}(I) \cap J=\varnothing$.
Thus, to prove that $f$ is not transitive, choose a pair of subintervals $I$ and $J$ of $[0,1]$ such that $f^{n}(I) \cap J=\varnothing$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Ex. 9.2.3, p. 164
Choose a pair of subintervals $I$ and $J$ of $[0,1]$ such that $I \cap J=\varnothing$ and let $f=\mathrm{id}^{m}$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, since $f^{n}(I) \cap J=\operatorname{id}^{m+n}(I) \cap J=I \cap J=\varnothing$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}, f=\mathrm{id}^{m}$ is not transitive for $m \in\{1,2, \ldots\}$.

Ex. 9.2.4, p. 164
$f$ is not transitive. In fact, choose $J=[0,0.5)$ and $I=[0.5,1]$. Thus, since $f(I)=I, f^{n}(I) \cap J=I \cap J=\varnothing$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. (See Figure 2)


Figure 2: $f(x)=2 x$ for $x \in[0,0.5]$ and $f(x)=1.5-x$ for $x \in[0.5,1]$.

## Ex. 9.2.5, p. 164

Choose a pair of subintervals $I$ and $J$ of $[0,1]$ such that $I$ is a small enough interval containing the fixed point and $I \cap J=\varnothing$. Thus, since $I \supseteq f(I) \supseteq f^{2}(I) \supseteq \cdots$, it follows that $f^{n}(I) \cap J=\varnothing$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

## 

Ex. 9.2.6, p. 164
(a) Let $S_{0}=D-\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ with $x_{0} \in D$ and let $I$ be a subinterval of $[0,1]$. If $x_{0} \notin I$, then $I \cap S_{0} \neq \varnothing$ since $I \cap D \neq \varnothing$. Otherwise, if $x_{0} \in I$, take another subinterval $J$ of $[0,1]$ such that $J \subset I-\left\{x_{0}\right\}$. Thus $J \cap S_{0} \neq \varnothing$ since $J \cap D \neq \varnothing$. Therefore, $I \cap S_{0} \neq \varnothing$.
(b) Suppose $S_{k}=D-\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$ is dense in $[0,1]$ if $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\} \subset D$. Let $S_{k+1}=D-\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{k+1}\right\}$ with $\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{k+1}\right\} \subset D$ and let $I$ be a subinterval of $[0,1]$. If $x_{k+1} \notin I$, then $I \cap S_{k+1} \neq \varnothing$ since $I \cap S_{k} \neq \varnothing$. Otherwise, if $x_{k+1} \in I$, take another subinterval $J$ of $[0,1]$ such that $J \subset I-\left\{x_{k+1}\right\}$. Thus $J \cap S_{k+1} \neq \varnothing$ since $J \cap S_{k} \neq \varnothing$. Therefore, $I \cap S_{k+1} \neq \varnothing$.

Ex. 9.2.7, p. 165
Consider $y_{0} \in D=\left\{x_{n} / n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}\right\}$ such that $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)$ is a dense orbit and, for $y_{0}=x_{n_{0}}$, let $S=D-$
$\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n_{0}-1}\right\}$, which is a dense set from Exercise 6. Thus, if $y_{n}=x_{n_{0}+n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, it follows that $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots\right)$ is a dense orbit.

Ex. 9.2.8, p. 165
Let $I$ and $J$ be a pair of subintervals of $[0,1]$ and $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots\right)$ a dense orbit in $[0,1]$. Therefore $I$ contains an element $x_{n_{0}}$ of the dense orbit. Thus, since $f^{k}\left(x_{n_{0}}\right) \in f^{k}(I)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and, from Exercise $7, f^{n}\left(x_{n_{0}}\right) \in J$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, it follows that $f^{n}(I) \cap J \neq \varnothing$.

Ex. 9.3.1, p. 167
(a) Consider $T_{4}$.
(b) See Figure 3.


Figure 3: $f(x)=\frac{x}{2}$ for $x \in\left[0, \frac{1}{4}\right], f(x)=\frac{7 x}{2}-\frac{3}{4}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right], f(x)=-\frac{7 x}{2}+\frac{11}{4}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}\right]$, and $f(x)=\frac{-x+1}{2}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{3}{4}, 1\right]$.
(c) See Figure 4.


Figure 4: $f(x)=\frac{3 x}{2}$ for $x \in\left[0, \frac{1}{8}\right], f(x)=\frac{x}{2}+\frac{1}{8}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{1}{8}, \frac{3}{8}\right], f(x)=\frac{11 x}{2}-\frac{7}{4}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{3}{8}, \frac{1}{2}\right], f(x)=-\frac{11 x}{2}+\frac{15}{4}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{8}\right], f(x)=-\frac{x}{2}+\frac{5}{8}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{5}{8}, \frac{7}{8}\right]$, and $f(x)=\frac{-3 x+3}{2}$ for $x \in\left[\frac{7}{8}, 1\right]$.

The least possible number of fixed points for a one-hump maps is two.

Since both $Q_{4}$ and $T_{4}$ have wiggly iterates (see Example 7.2.6), they are mappings whose periodic points are dense in $[0,1]$. Thus

$$
[0,1] \times[0,1] \ni\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \stackrel{\left(Q_{4}, T_{4}\right)}{\mapsto}\left(Q_{4}\left(x_{1}\right), T_{4}\left(x_{2}\right)\right) \in[0,1] \times[0,1]
$$

is a mapping whose periodic points are dense in $[0,1] \times[0,1]$. In fact, let $S_{Q_{4}}$ and $S_{T_{4}}$ be the sets of periodic points of $Q_{4}$ and $T_{4},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in[0,1] \times[0,1]$ and $B\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), r\right) \subset[0,1] \times[0,1]$ be an open ball of radius $r$ centered at $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$. Consider that $I_{1}$ and $I_{2}$ are intervals such that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in\left(I_{1} \times I_{2}\right) \subset B\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), r\right)$. Therefore, since $\left(I_{1} \times I_{2}\right) \cap\left(S_{Q_{4}} \times S_{T_{4}}\right) \neq \varnothing$, it follows that $B\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), r\right) \cap\left(S_{Q_{4}} \times S_{T_{4}}\right) \neq \varnothing$. Finally, $B\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), r\right) \cap$ $\left(S_{Q_{4}} \times S_{T_{4}}\right) \ni\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)$ is a period- $n_{1} n_{2}$ point of $\left(Q_{4}, T_{4}\right)$ if $p_{1}$ is a period- $n_{1}$ point of $Q_{4}$ and $p_{2}$ is a period- $n_{2}$ point of $T_{4}$.

Ex. 9.3.3, p. 167
Since $f^{n}-\mathrm{id}:\left[z_{i}, y_{i}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuos function, $\left(f^{n}-\mathrm{id}\right)\left(z_{i}\right)=-z_{i} \leq 0$ (since $\left.0 \leq z_{i}<1\right)$ and $\left(f^{n}-\right.$ id) $\left(y_{i}\right)=1-y_{i}>0$ (since $0<y_{i}<1$ ), it follows that there is $x_{i} \in\left[z_{i}, y_{i}\right]$ such that $\left(f^{n}-\mathrm{id}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)=0$, that is, $f^{n}\left(x_{i}\right)=\operatorname{id}\left(x_{i}\right)=x_{i}$. Since $f^{n}-\mathrm{id}:\left[y_{i}, z_{i+1}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuos function, $\left(f^{n}-\mathrm{id}\right)\left(y_{i}\right)=1-y_{i}>0$ (since $\left.0<y_{i}<1\right)$ and $\left(f^{n}-\mathrm{id}\right)\left(z_{i+1}\right)=-z_{i+1}<0\left(\right.$ since $\left.0<z_{i+1} \leq 1\right)$, it follows that there is $x_{i+1} \in\left[y_{i}, z_{i+1}\right]$ such that $\left(f^{n}-\mathrm{id}\right)\left(x_{i+1}\right)=0$, that is, $f^{n}\left(x_{i+1}\right)=\operatorname{id}\left(x_{i+1}\right)=x_{i+1}$.
===================================================================================12
Ex. 9.3.4, p. 167
(a) From Theorem 5.2.1, there is an open-in- $[0,1]$ interval $I$ containing $p$ such that

$$
\left|f^{n}\left(x_{0}\right)-p\right|=\left|x_{n}-p\right|<\cdots<\left|x_{2}-p\right|<\left|x_{1}-p\right|<\left|x_{0}-p\right|
$$

for all $x_{0} \in I-\{p\}$ and all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
(b) Now suppose $J \subset I-\{p\}$ is an interval and $p_{0} \in J$ is a fixed point of $f$. Thus $\left|f^{n}\left(p_{0}\right)-p\right|=\left|p_{0}-p\right|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This contradicts (a).
(c) See Exercice 9.3.1.(b)-(c).

Ex. 9.5.1, p. 175
If $\{u, v\} \subset f(I)$ and $w \in[\min \{u, v\}, \max \{u, v\}]$, then there is a $\{x, y\} \subset I$ such that $f(x)=u$ and $f(y)=v$, and the IVT implies that there is a $z \in[\min \{x, y\}, \max \{x, y\}]$ such that $f(z)=w$. Thus $w \in f(I)$.

Ex. 9.5.2, p. 175
(a) $\{0, c, 1\} \cap J=\varnothing$ since $f(0)=f^{2}(c)=f(1)=0$. Thus either $J \subset(0, c)$ or $J \subset(c, 1)$. Therefore, since $f$ is strictly increasing on $(0, c)$ and strictly decreasing on $(c, 1)$, either $f$ is strictly increasing on $J$ or strictly decreasing on $J$.
(b) $f(J)$ is an interval contained in $f((0, c))=f((c, 1))=(0,1)$. Thus, if $J \subset(0, c)$, that is, $f$ is strictly increasing on $J$, since $f(J) \subset f((c, 1))$, then the IVT implies that there exists an interval $K \subset(c, 1)$ such that $f(K)=f(J)$ and $f$ is strictly decreasing on $K$. Otherwise, if $J \subset(c, 1)$, that is, $f$ is strictly decreasing on $J$, since $f(J) \subset f((0, c))$, then the IVT implies that there exists an interval $K \subset(0, c)$ such that $f(K)=f(J)$ and $f$ is strictly increasing on $K$.

 10



Ex. 10.1.2, p. 184
$f(x)=x^{3}$. (See Figure 6).

Ex. 10.1.3, p. 185
(a) Use Ex. 9.2.5 and Lemma 9.2.2.
(b) 0 is an attracting fixed point since $f^{\prime}(0)=0$.

Ex. 10.1.4, p. 185
$g$ has an attracting fixed point by Figure 10.1.5.

Ex. 10.1.6, p. 185
Consider $f(x)=\sin x$ for $x \in I=\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ and $a=0$. Thus (see Figure 5) $f^{\prime}(x)=\cos x>0$ for $x \in I$, $f^{\prime \prime}(a)=-\sin 0=0$ and $f^{\prime}(a) f^{\prime \prime \prime}(a)=(\cos a)(-\cos a)=1 \cdot(-1)<0$.


Figure 5: $f(x)=\sin x$ and $f^{\prime}(x)=\cos x$ for $x \in\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$.

Ex. 10.1.7, p. 185
It's similar to the previous exercise.
Ex. 10.1.8, p. 185
$2^{n-1}$ zeroes since $f^{n}$ has $2^{n-1}$ humps and each one of the humps has its peak correspondingto the maximum of $f^{n}$.

Ex. 10.2.2, p. 189

$$
\left.\begin{array}{c}
T_{4}(x) \stackrel{\text { Ex. 6.1.4 }}{=}\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
2 x, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\
2(1-x), & \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1
\end{array}\right. \\
\Downarrow \\
T_{4}^{\prime}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
2, & 0 \leq x<\frac{1}{2} \\
-2, & \frac{1}{2}<x \leq 1
\end{array}\right. \\
\Downarrow \\
T_{4}^{\prime \prime}(x)=T_{4}^{\prime \prime \prime}(x)=0, \forall x \in[0,1]-\left\{\frac{1}{2}\right\}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

Ex. 10.2.3, p. 189
Since $f^{\prime}(x)=3 x^{2}=0$ iff $x=0, f^{\prime \prime}(x)=6 x$ and $f^{\prime \prime \prime}(x)=6$, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(f)(x) & =2 \cdot 3 x^{2} \cdot 6-3(6 x)^{2} \\
& =-72 x^{2}<0
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 6: Cubing map.
for all $x \neq 0$. (See Figure 6).
Ex. 10.2.4, p. 189
If

$$
A=f^{\prime \prime \prime} \circ g \cdot f^{\prime} \circ g \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{4}+3 f^{\prime \prime} \circ g \cdot f^{\prime} \circ g \cdot g^{\prime \prime} \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(f^{\prime} \circ g\right)^{2} \cdot g^{\prime \prime \prime} \cdot g^{\prime}
$$

and

$$
B=2\left(f^{\prime \prime} \circ g\right)^{2} \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{4}+4 f^{\prime \prime} \circ g \cdot f^{\prime} \circ g \cdot g^{\prime \prime} \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{2}+2\left(f^{\prime} \circ g\right)^{2} \cdot\left(g^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}
$$

then $S(f \circ g)$ would be equal to

$$
A+B=S(f) \circ g \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{4}+\left(f^{\prime} \circ g\right)^{2} \cdot S(g)+7 f^{\prime \prime} \circ g \cdot f^{\prime} \circ g \cdot g^{\prime \prime} \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{2}
$$

Therefore $S(f \circ g)$ would depend on $7 f^{\prime \prime} \circ g \cdot f^{\prime} \circ g \cdot g^{\prime \prime} \cdot\left(g^{\prime}\right)^{2}$. However, for $S(f) \stackrel{\text { Def. } 10.2 .2}{=} f^{\prime} f^{\prime \prime \prime}+2\left(f^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}$, it is even hard to find an $f:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1]$ such that $S(f)<0$ holds at all points of $[0,1]$ for which $f^{\prime} \neq 0$. For example, if $f(x)=\sin \pi x$, then $S(f)(x)=\pi\left(2-3 \cos ^{2} \pi x\right)<0$ for $x$ sufficiently close to 0 or for $x$ sufficiently close to 1 , whereas $S(f)(x)>0$ for $x$ sufficiently close to $\frac{1}{2}$. As another example, if $a \neq 0$ and $f(x)=a x^{2}+b x+c$, then $S(f)(x)=4 a^{2}>0$ for all $x$.
============
Concerning the first equality of the next exercise, take $c=-1$.
Ex. 10.2.6, p. 189
Use that $S(c f)=c^{2} S(f)$ and $S(f+c)=S(f)$.
Ex. 10.2.7-8, p. 189
It's similar to the Proof of Theo. 10.2.4.

Ex. 10.2.11, p. 190
Let $x \in I$ such that $f^{\prime}(x) \neq 0$. Thus $\left(f^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2}>0, \bar{S}(f)(x)<0 \Longrightarrow S(f)(x)=2\left(f^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2} \bar{S}(f)(x)<0$ and $S(f)(x)<0 \Longrightarrow \bar{S}(f)(x)=\frac{S(f)(x)}{2\left(f^{\prime}(x)\right)^{2}}<0$.

Example, p. 192
$Q_{\mu}$ has negative Schwarzian derivative (except at $x=\frac{1}{2}$ ) and $Q_{\mu}^{\prime}(0)=\mu$. Does $Q_{\mu}$ have chaotic behaviour if $\mu>1$ ?

In order to use the Test for chaos, p. 191, $Q_{\mu}$ must be a symmetric one-hump mapping (Def. 7.2.1, p. 126). Thus $Q_{\mu}(1 / 2)$ must be equal to 1 , that is, $\mu=4$.

```
\(===========-\)
Ex. 10.3.1, p. 192
If \(f(x)=1-(2 x-1)^{4}\), then \(f^{\prime}(x)=-8(2 x-1)^{3}, f^{\prime \prime}(x)=-48(2 x-1)^{2}\) and \(f^{\prime \prime \prime}(x)=-192(2 x-1)\). Hence
\(f^{\prime}(0)=8>1\) and \(S(f)(x)=(3072-6912)(2 x-1)^{4}<0\) for \(x \neq \frac{1}{2}\).
If \(f(x)=\sin (\pi x)\), then \(f^{\prime}(x)=\pi \cos (\pi x), f^{\prime \prime}(x)=-\pi^{2} \sin (\pi x)\) and \(f^{\prime \prime \prime}(x)=-\pi^{3} \cos (\pi x)\). Hence \(f^{\prime}(0)=\)
\(\pi>1\) and \(S(f)(x)=-\pi^{4}\left(2 \cos ^{2}(\pi x)+3 \sin ^{2}(\pi x)\right)<0\).
```




11



Erratum, l. -2, p. 213
"... (see Exercise 11.3.4) ..." should be "... (see Exercise 11.3.5) ...".

Ex. 11.3.4, p. 215
No for both items since

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =T_{4}(x) \\
& = \begin{cases}2 x & \text { if } x \in[0,1 / 2] \\
2-2 x & \text { if } x \in(1 / 2,1]\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

has two fixed points, whereas

$$
g(x)= \begin{cases}2 x+2 & \text { if } x \in[-1,-1 / 2] \\ -2 x & \text { if } x \in(-1 / 2,0]\end{cases}
$$

has only one fixed point.


12



Ex. 12.1.5, p. 223
For $x \geq 0$, see Example 12.1.6. For $x<0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(f(x)) & =h\left(\frac{x}{4}\right) \\
& =-\sqrt{-\frac{x}{4}} \\
& =-\frac{\sqrt{-x}}{2} \\
& =\frac{h(x)}{2} \\
& =g(h(x)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 12.1.6, p. 223
(a) Clearly $h$ is continuous at $x \neq 0$.

What about $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} h(x)$ ?
Since $\phi(0) \geq 1$ and $\phi$ is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing ${ }^{1}$, it follows that $\phi(0)=1$ (and $\phi$ is strictly increasing, which implies that $h$ is strictly increasing ${ }^{2}$, which implies that $h$ is invertible if $h$ is continuous). Thus

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{+}} h(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{+}} \phi(x)=\phi(0)=1 \text { and } \lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{-}} h(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{-}} \frac{1}{\phi(-x)} \underbrace{u=-x}_{=} \lim _{u \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{1}{\phi(u)}=\frac{1}{\phi(0)}=1
$$

Now, since $h$ is strictly increasing, $h^{-1}$ is continuous ${ }^{3}$.
(b) Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: \mathbb{R}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+}$with $f(x)=-x$ and $g(x)=\frac{1}{x}$. Then:

- Since $h(0)=\phi(0)=1, h(f(0))=h(0)=\frac{1}{h(0)}=g(h(0))$;
- If $x>0$, then $h(f(x))=h(-x)=\frac{1}{\phi(x)}=g(\phi(x))=g(h(x))$;
- If $x<0$, then $h(f(x))=h(-x)=\phi(-x)=\frac{1}{1 / \phi(-x)}=\frac{1}{h(x)}=g(h(x))$.
(c) There are infinitely many such homeomorphisms $h$ since there are infinitely many such strictly increasing $\operatorname{maps} \phi:[0, \infty) \rightarrow[1, \infty)$.

Ex. 12.1.8, p. 224
If $f$ is conjugate to $g$ via $h$ is denoted by $f \stackrel{h}{\sim} g$, then:
(i) $f \stackrel{i d_{I}}{\sim} f$;
(ii) $f \stackrel{h}{\sim} g \Longrightarrow g \stackrel{h^{-1}}{\sim} f$;
(iii) $f_{1} \stackrel{h_{1}}{\sim} f_{2}$ and $f_{2} \stackrel{h_{2}}{\sim} f_{3} \Longrightarrow f_{1} \stackrel{h_{2} \circ h_{1}}{\sim} f_{3}$.

Ex. 12.1.9, p. 224
From Example 12.1.3,

$$
h \circ f=g \circ h \Longrightarrow h \circ f^{2}=g^{2} \circ h .
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
h \circ f^{3} & =h \circ f^{2} \circ f \\
& =g^{2} \circ h \circ f \\
& =g^{2} \circ g \circ h \\
& =g^{3} \circ h .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 12.1.10, p. 224
Suppose $h \circ f=g \circ h$ and $h \circ f^{n}=g^{n} \circ h$ with $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
h \circ f^{n+1} & =h \circ f^{n} \circ f \\
& =g^{n} \circ h \circ f \\
& =g^{n} \circ g \circ h \\
& =g^{n+1} \circ h .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 12.2.4, p. 237

$$
x \in\left[z_{i}, z_{i+1}\right] \underbrace{h \text { is increasing }}_{\Longrightarrow} h(x) \in\left[h\left(z_{i}\right), h\left(z_{i+1}\right)\right] \underbrace{\text { Lemma 12.2.5 }}_{=}\left[w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right] .
$$

Lemma 12.3.1, p. 238

[^0]"Each time the exponent $n$ is increased by 1 , $f^{n}$ acquires one new zero between each of the old ones, as $f$ is a one-hump mapping."

In fact, besides the zeroes of $f^{n}$ are also zeroes of $f^{n+1}$ (see Ex. 7.2.3, p. 130), $f^{n}$ is a $2^{n-1}$-hump mapping, thus it has $2^{n-1}+1$ zeroes, whereas $f^{n+1}$ is a $2^{n}$-hump mapping, thus it has $2^{n}+1$ zeroes.

Erratum, Def. 12.3.3, p. 240
"... where the $h^{n}$ are ..." should be "... where the $h_{n}$ are ...".

Erratum, order of compositions, p. 240 and p. 242
$f \circ h=h \circ g$ should be $h \circ f=g \circ h$.

Ex. 12.3.1, p. 245
(a) Let $z=z_{i}$ be the $\mathrm{i}^{\text {th }}$ zero of $f^{n}$. Thus $h_{n}(z)=h_{n}\left(z_{i}\right)=w_{i}$ is the $\mathrm{i}^{\text {th }}$ zero of $g^{n}$, by Matching Zeroes. Hence, by Lemma 12.3.1, if $m>n$ then $z=z_{j}$ and $h_{n}(z)=w_{j}$ are the $j^{\text {th }}$ zeroes of $f^{m}$ and $g^{m}$ for $j>i$, that is, $h_{m}(z)=h_{m}\left(z_{j}\right)=w_{j}=h_{n}(z)$ by Matching Zeroes.
(b) $h(z)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} h_{n}(z)$.
(c) $n=1,2, \ldots \Longrightarrow h(0)=h_{n}(0)=0, h(1)=h_{n}(1)=1$.
(d) Since $h$ is continuous, if $u \in[h(0), h(1)]$ then there is a $z \in[0,1]$ such that $u=h(z)$, by the IVT.

Ex. 12.3.2, p. 245
If $\epsilon=\frac{1}{2}\left(h(a)-h_{n}(z)\right)$ and $m \geq n$, use that $h_{m}$ is strictly increasing and Ex. 12.3.1 in order to obtain $h_{m}(a)<$ $h_{m}(z)=h_{n}(z)<h(a)-\epsilon$.

Ex. 12.4.3, p. 253
(a) Theo. 12.4.2.
(b) Since $x_{0}$ is a periodic point for $f$ with prime period $n$ and there is a one-to-one correspondence between $X=\left\{f^{i}\left(x_{0}\right) \mid i=0, \ldots, n-1\right\}$ and $Y=\left\{h\left(f^{i}\left(x_{0}\right)\right) \mid i=0, \ldots, n-1\right\}, X$ and $Y$ have the same number ( $n$ ) of elements. Now suppose that $i<n$ is the prime period of $h\left(x_{0}\right)$ under $g$. Thus $h\left(f^{i}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=g^{i}\left(h\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=h\left(x_{0}\right)$ and hence $Y$ has less than $n$ elements!

## Ex. 12.4.5, p. 253

It suffices to prove the result given in the box that precedes Theo. 12.4.3. Let $D$ be dense in $[0,1]$ and $I \subseteq[0,1]$ be an interval. Since $h^{-1}(I) \subseteq[0,1]$ is an interval, there is a point $x \in D \cap h^{-1}(I)$. So $h(x) \in h(D) \cap I$. Therefore $h(D)$ is dense in $[0,1]$.

Ex. 12.4.7, p. 253
From Ex. 9.5.1, it follows that $I^{\prime}$ and $J^{\prime}$ are intervals as images of $I$ and $J$ under $h^{-1}$. Therefore, since the inverse image of an open set under $h$ is open in its domain, which is a basic fact from General Topology, and $h^{-1}(I)$ and $h^{-1}(J)$ are both images under $h^{-1}$ and inverse images under $h$, which comes from the fact that $h \circ h^{-1}$ and $h^{-1} \circ h$ are both identities, it follows that $I^{\prime}$ and $J^{\prime}$ are open intervals.
Let $x \in J^{\prime} \cap f^{n}\left(I^{\prime}\right)$. Thus $y=h(x) \in h\left(J^{\prime}\right) \cap h\left(f^{n}\left(I^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Therefore, since there is a $z \in I^{\prime}$ such that $y=$ $h\left(f^{n}(z)\right)=g^{n}(h(z))$, it follows that $y \in h\left(J^{\prime}\right) \cap g^{n}\left(h\left(I^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Hence $y \in J \cap g^{n}(I)$, by $\left(h \circ h^{-1}\right) \mid J=\mathrm{id}_{J}$, $(h \circ$ $\left.h^{-1}\right) \mid I=\mathrm{id}_{I}$.

$\alpha=1-1 / r$, p. 262, 1. 2
In fact, $\frac{r}{1 / 2}$ is the slope of 'the first half of the graph of $T$ ', that is, the slope of the line segment joining the points $(0,0)$ and $(1 / 2, r)$, which equals the slope of 'the first half of the triangle of base $\alpha$ and height $r-1^{\prime}$.
Thus $\frac{r}{1 / 2}=\frac{r-1}{\alpha / 2}$.
Ex. 13.1.8, p. 264
See Ex. 13.3.3, p. 276.

## Ex. 13.1.9, p. 264

## General Version of Theorem 13.1.5

Let $T=T_{\mu}$ with $\mu>4$. The graph of $T^{n}$ consists of $2^{n-1}$ isosceles triangles, each of height $r=\frac{\mu}{4}>1$ and base lenght $\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right)^{n-1}(\alpha+(1-\alpha)=1)$ with $\alpha=1-\frac{1}{r}(0<\alpha<1)$.
The domain of $T^{n}$ can be obtained recursively from the results:
(a) dom $T^{1}=[0,1]$;
(b) dom $T^{k+1}$ is the result of removing the open middle fractions $\alpha$ of all the maximal closed intervals in dom $T^{k}$.
Proof: Concerning the lines of the original Proof of Theorem 13.1.5, put a fraction $\frac{1-\alpha}{2}$ of the length in place of one third of the length (line 8), put a fraction $\frac{1-\alpha}{2}$ in place of one third (line 11 ) and put $\frac{1-\alpha}{2}$ in place of 1/3 (line 11).

Erratum, Example 13.2.2, p. 265
"Let $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ be ..." should be "Let $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$ be ...".
Ex. 13.2.3, p. 270

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{n+1} & =\operatorname{dom} f^{n+1} \\
& =\operatorname{dom} f^{n} \circ f \\
& =\left\{x \in \operatorname{dom} f: f(x) \in \operatorname{dom} f^{n}\right\} \\
& =\left\{x \in[0,1]: f(x) \in C_{n}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. 13.2.4, p. 270

$$
\begin{aligned}
\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n} & =\cap_{i=0}^{\infty} C_{i+1} \\
& =C_{1} \cap\left(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} C_{i+1}\right) \\
& =[0,1] \cap\left(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} C_{i+1}\right) \\
& =\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} C_{i+1} \\
& =\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n+1} ;
\end{aligned}
$$

- $\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n+1} \subset C_{n+1}$ for $n=1,2, \ldots \Longrightarrow f\left(\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n+1}\right) \subset f\left(C_{n+1}\right)$;
- Ex. 13.2.3.

Ex. 13.2.5, p. 271
$f^{1}(C) \subset C$ and $f^{n}(C) \subset C$ is the induction hypothesis. Thus $f^{n+1}(C)=f\left(f^{n}(C)\right) \subset f(C) \subset C$.
===================================================================================1
Ex. 13.2.11, p. 271
$\underbrace{\text { Ex. 3.1.12 }}$
$x_{0}$ is a periodic point of $f \xlongequal{\text { Px }^{2}} x_{1}=f\left(x_{0}\right)$ is a periodic point of $f$.

Ex. 13.2.12, p. 271
Let $x \in[0,1]$ be a zero of $f^{n}$, that is, $f^{n}(x)=0$. Therefore $f^{n-1}(f(x))=0$, that is, $f(x)$ is a zero of $f^{n-1}$.

Erratum, the line before Fig. 13.3.2, p. 274
"... in Exercise 13.3.5." should be "... in Exercise 13.3.6.".

Ex. 13.3.1, p. 276
$(\mathrm{a}) \longleftrightarrow\left(\mathrm{e}^{\prime}\right)$,
$(\mathrm{b}) \longleftrightarrow\left(\mathrm{c}^{\prime}\right)$,
$(c) \longleftrightarrow\left(\mathrm{a}^{\prime}\right)$,
$(\mathrm{d}) \longleftrightarrow\left(\mathrm{b}^{\prime}\right)$ and
$(\mathrm{e}) \longleftrightarrow\left(\mathrm{d}^{\prime}\right)$.

Ex. 13.3.3, p. 276
$\operatorname{dom} T^{1}=C_{1}$ and, for $n=1,2, \ldots$, dom $T^{n}=C_{n}$ is the union of the bases of $2^{n-1}$ isosceles triangles, which are the bases of humps for $T^{n}$, each of base lenght $(1 / 3)^{n-1} . C_{n+1}$ is obtained from $C_{n}$ by removing the open middle thirds of all the maximal closed intervals in $C_{n}$, which are the bases of humps for $T^{n}$. This leaves two closed intervals in $C_{n+1}$, each of lenght $(1 / 3)^{n-2}$, in place of each maximal closed interval in $C_{n}$. Thus $(1 / 3)^{n-1}$ is also the lenght of the longest interval in $C_{n}$ and it $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Ex. 13.3.4, p. 276
See the resolution of Ex. 13.1.9, the resolution of the last exercise and notice that $\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2}\right)^{n-1} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
$===============================================================================$
Erratum, Ex. 13.4.8, p. 281
$I \cap C_{n} \neq \varnothing$ should be $I \cap C \neq \varnothing$.
Ex. 13.4.8, p. 281
$S \subset C$ by Corollary 13.2.10. Since $I \cap C \neq \varnothing$, there is a hump of some $f^{n}$ with base contained in $I$ by the Spike Lemma. Since the endpoints of such a base are zeroes of $f^{n}$, we have that $S \cap(I \cap C) \neq \varnothing$.

[^1]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ From Calculus, if $I$ is an interval and $f: I \rightarrow f(I)$ is a continuous function, then $f$ is invertible iff $f$ is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing;
    ${ }^{2}$ If $0 \leq x_{1}<x_{2}$, then $h\left(x_{1}\right)=\phi\left(x_{1}\right)<\phi\left(x_{2}\right)=h\left(x_{2}\right)$. If $x_{1}<x_{2}<0$, that is $0<-x_{2}<-x_{1}$, then $h\left(x_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{\phi\left(-x_{1}\right)}<\frac{1}{\phi\left(-x_{2}\right)}=h\left(x_{2}\right)$;
    ${ }^{3}$ From Calculus, if $I$ is an interval and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is strictly monotone, then $f^{-1}: f(I) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.

[^1]:    $================================================================================$

