

# “Sparknotes” for *Principles of Mathematical Analysis* by Walter Rudin

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## About

*“A modern mathematical proof is not very different from a modern machine, or a modern test setup: the simple fundamental principles are hidden and almost invisible under a mass of technical details.”*

- Hermann Weyl

These notes contain short summaries of (my) proof ideas for exercises and some theorems from the book *Principles of Mathematical Analysis* by Walter Rudin. I have tried to make the summaries as brief as possible, sometimes only one line or one equation. My hope is that the summaries will give enough information to reconstruct a full proof without bogging the reader down with details. In many cases, I am sure that I inadvertently sacrificed clarity in an attempt to obtain brevity, and would greatly appreciate any feedback.

Also, I like when people include (what they presume to be) relevant quotes in their notes, so I have to ask you to forgive my haughtiness in starting these notes with a quote from Hermann Weyl.

# 1 The Real and Complex Number Systems

## 1.1 Exercise 1

If  $rx = q$  or  $r + x = q$  for some rational  $q$ , then subtracting  $r$  from  $q$  or dividing  $q$  by  $r$  yields  $x$  rational, which is a contradiction.

## 1.2 Exercise 2

We can first show that  $\sqrt{3}$  is irrational by seeing that  $\frac{a^2}{b^2} = 3 \implies 3|a, 3|b$ . Then, since  $12 = 3 * 2^2$ , we have that  $\sqrt{12}$  is irrational as well.

## 1.3 Exercise 4

If  $\alpha > \beta$  then  $\alpha$  would be an upper bound as well.

## 1.4 Exercise 5

$\forall x \in A, -x \leq \sup -A$  and  $\forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \exists x \in A | \sup -A + \epsilon < -x \leq \sup -A$ . Negating the last inequality gives  $\inf A = -\sup -A$ .

## 1.5 Exercise 6

(a) Follows from  $m = \frac{np}{q}$ .

(b) Put  $r = \frac{m}{n}, s = \frac{p}{q}$ . Then  $b^r b^s = b^{\frac{mq}{nq}} b^{\frac{np}{nq}}$ . Pulling out  $\frac{1}{nq}$  gives the desired result.

(c)  $b^r$  is an upper bound since  $b > 1$ , and if it were not the supremum we could choose  $t < r$  such that  $b^t > b^r$ . This is not possible since again,  $b > 1$ .

(d) Every element in  $B(x + y)$  can be expressed as  $b^{s+t} = b^s b^t$   $s \leq x, t \leq y$ . If  $\sup B(x + y) = \alpha < \sup B(x) \sup B(y)$ , then  $b^s b^t \leq \alpha \implies B(x) \leq \alpha b^{-t} \implies B(y) \leq \frac{\alpha}{B(x)} \implies B(x)B(y) \leq \alpha$ .

## 1.6 Exercise 7

(a)  $b^n - 1 = (b - 1)(b^{n-1} + b^{n-2} + \dots + 1) \geq n(b - 1)$  since  $b > 1$ .

(b) Plug  $b^{\frac{1}{n}}$  into (a).

(c) Plug  $n > \frac{b-1}{t-1}$  into (b).

(d) Using (c) gives that we can choose  $n$  such that  $b^{\frac{1}{n}} < y b^{-w} \implies b^{w+\frac{1}{n}} < y$ .

(e) We can take the reciprocal of (c) and do the same as in (d).

(f) If  $b^x > y$  we can apply (e) for a contradiction, if  $b^x < y$  we can apply (d) for a contradiction.

(g) Supremum is unique.

### 1.7 Exercise 8

Suppose  $(0, 1) < (0, 0)$ . Then  $(0, -1) < (0, 0)$  after multiplying by  $(0, 1)$  twice yields a contradiction. Similarly, assuming the opposite yields  $(-1, 0) > (0, 0)$ .

### 1.8 Exercise 9

Does exhibit least upper-bound property since you can take  $(\sup a_i, \sup b_i)$ .

### 1.9 Exercise 10

Exception is 0.

### 1.10 Exercise 11

Take  $w = \frac{1}{|z|}z$  and  $r = |z|$  when  $|z| \neq 0$ .  $w$  and  $r$  are not uniquely determined; take  $z = 0$  for example.

### 1.11 Exercise 12

By strong induction:

$$\begin{aligned} |z_1 + \dots + z_{n+1}| &\leq |z_1 + \dots + z_n| + |z_{n+1}| \\ &\leq |z_1| + \dots + |z_{n+1}| \end{aligned}$$

### 1.12 Exercise 13

$$\begin{aligned} |x - y|^2 &= x\bar{x} - 2|x||y| + y\bar{y} \\ &\geq (|x| - |y|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

## 2 Basic Topology

### 2.1 Exercise 1

The empty set has no elements, so all of its elements are vacuously also elements of every set.

### 2.2 Exercise 2

The roots of complex polynomials with integer coefficients can be expressed as elements of the countable cross product of  $\mathbb{N}$  with itself (cross  $\mathbb{N}$  with itself  $n$  times for the coefficients, and then once more to indicate which root).

### 2.3 Exercise 3

If all real numbers were algebraic, then the set of algebraic numbers would be uncountable (thus contradicting Exercise 2).

### 2.4 Exercise 4

The set of irrational numbers is  $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}$ , which must be uncountable as otherwise  $\mathbb{R}$  would be countable.

### 2.5 Exercise 5

We can use  $\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \cup \left(\frac{2n}{n+1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \cup \left(\frac{3n}{n+1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  to get the three limit points 1, 2, 3.

### 2.6 Exercise 6

If  $p$  is a limit point of  $E'$ , then every neighborhood of  $p$  contains a limit point  $q$  of  $E$ , and every neighborhood of  $q$  contains a point of  $E$  thereby implying that  $p$  is a limit point of  $E$ .  $E$  and  $E'$  do not need to have the same limit points, since  $E'$  could be finite and thus have no limit points.

### 2.7 Exercise 7

(a) If  $p$  is a limit point of  $\overline{B_n}$ , then every neighborhood of  $p$  contains a point  $q \in A_i$ . Since there are only finitely many  $A_i$ ,  $p$  must be a limit point for at least one of the  $A_i$ , as an infinite number of neighborhoods of  $p$  must have non-zero intersection with some of the  $A_i$ .

(b) If we take  $A_i = \left(\frac{in}{(i+1)n+1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , then 1 is a limit point of  $B_n$  despite not being a limit point of any of the  $A_i$ .

## 2.8 Exercise 8

Every point of an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is by definition a limit point of the set, since the point must have a neighborhood contained in the set. The same is not true for closed sets, since we can just take a finite set.

## 2.9 Exercise 10

Every set in  $X$  is open, since any set containing  $p$  also contains  $N_r(p)$  for  $r < 1$ . No set in  $X$  is closed, since  $N_r(p) = p$  for  $r < 1$ . All infinite sets in  $X$  are not compact, since we can take balls of radius  $r < 1$  around each point as an open cover.

## 2.10 Exercise 12

Take any open cover of  $K$ . There must be some open set in this cover containing 0, which means that the same set contains all but a finite number of the elements of  $K$  (since 0 is the only limit point of  $K$ ). Take a union of this set as well as the finitely many other sets containing the aforementioned points to get a finite subcover.

## 2.11 Exercise 13

Take  $\cup_{k=1}^{\infty} \{0, (\frac{n}{kn+1})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \frac{1}{k}\}$ . This set is closed and bounded, so it is compact by Heine-Borel. Its limit points are 0 and  $(\frac{1}{k})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ .

## 2.12 Exercise 14

We can use  $\cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (0, \frac{n}{n+1})$ , which has no finite subcover (since we could choose  $x \in (0, 1)$  larger than the largest endpoint in the finite subcover).

## 2.13 Exercise 15

For closed, we can take  $K_i = \mathbb{N}/0, \dots, i-1$ , since any  $x \in K_i$  will not be in  $K_j$  if  $j > x$ . For bounded, we can take  $K_i = (0, \frac{1}{i})$ .

## 2.14 Exercise 16

$E$  is by definition bounded, and  $E$  is closed since  $q^2 \neq 3$  ( $q$  is rational), and  $q^2 > 3 \implies \exists \epsilon | p \in N_{\epsilon}(q) \implies p^2 > 3$ . Same logic gives that  $E$  is also open in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .  $E$  is, however, not compact, since we can construct an open cover consisting of  $G_n = \{x | 2 < x^2 < 2 + \frac{n}{n+1}\}$ .

## 2.15 Exercise 17

$E$  is not countable by diagonalization.  $E$  is not dense in  $[0, 1]$ , since  $E \cap [0, 0.1] = \emptyset$ .  $E$  is not perfect, consider  $N_{0.001}(0.77)$ .  $E$  is closed and therefore compact by

Heine-Borel. To see closed, suppose a limit point  $q$  had a non-4/7 digit in the  $i^{th}$  decimal spot. Then we could take a neighborhood of size  $10^{-(i+1)}$ .

### **2.16 Exercise 18**

Rationals are dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , so no.



### 3 Numerical Sequences and Series

#### Definition 3.5

Since  $\{p_n\} \rightarrow p \implies \forall \epsilon, \exists N | n \geq N \implies |p_n - p| < \epsilon$ , we can choose  $k | n_k \geq N \implies \{p_{n_k}\} \rightarrow p$ . The reverse direction can be shown via contradiction of  $\{p_n\} \rightarrow p$ .

#### Examples 3.18

- (a) Density of rationals in reals.
- (b)  $|s_n| < 1$ , take  $n$  odd to get -1 and even to get 1.
- (c) Every subsequential limit has to converge to  $s$ .

#### Theorem 3.19

For all  $\{n_k\}$ , we have  $\exists K | k \geq K \implies n_k \geq N \implies \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} t_{n_k} - s_{n_k} \geq 0$ .

#### Theorem 3.26

$$s_n = 1 + x + \dots + x^n \implies x s_n = x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n+1} \implies (1 - x)s_n = 1 - x^{n+1}.$$

#### Examples 3.40

- (a) Root test:  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- (b) Ratio test:  $\frac{1}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ .
- (c)  $1 \rightarrow 1$ .
- (d) Ratio test:  $\frac{n}{n+1} \rightarrow 1$ .  $z = 1$  leads to harmonic series.
- (e) Ratio test:  $\frac{n^2}{(n+1)^2} \rightarrow 1$ .

#### Example 3.53

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4k-3} + \frac{1}{4k-1} - \frac{1}{2k} < \frac{5}{6} + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4k-4} + \frac{1}{4k-4} - \frac{1}{2k}$ . The RHS converges since  $\frac{1}{4k-4} + \frac{1}{4k-4} - \frac{1}{2k} = \frac{1}{2k^2-2k}$ .

### 3.1 Exercise 1

All we need is the inequality  $|s_n - s| \geq ||s_n| - |s||$ . The converse is not true, since we can take  $s_n = (-1)^n$ .

### 3.2 Exercise 2

My original idea:  $\sqrt{(n+x)^2} - n = x$ . Setting  $(n+x)^2 \geq n^2 + n$  gives  $x^2 \geq (1-2x)n$ . The last inequality is only true for all  $n$  when  $x \geq \frac{1}{2}$ . This implies that  $\frac{1}{2}$  is the supremum of  $\sqrt{n^2+n} - n$ . Since  $\sqrt{n^2+n} - n$  is increasing, it converges to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Better:  $(\sqrt{n^2+n} - n)(\sqrt{n^2+n} + n) = n \implies \sqrt{n^2+n} - n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{n}}+1}$ .

### 3.3 Exercise 3

Clearly  $s_{n+1} > s_n$ . We can see that  $s_n < 2$  by induction, since  $s_1 < 2$  and  $2 + \sqrt{s_n} < 4$ . This gives that  $s_n$  is monotone and bounded, implying it converges.

### 3.4 Exercise 4

$$s_{2m+1} = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i, \quad s_{2m} = \sum_{i=2}^m \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^i \\ \implies \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 1, \quad \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \frac{1}{2}$$

### 3.5 Exercise 5

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \sup_{\{k\}} \left\{ \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (a_{n_k} + b_{n_k}) \right\} \\ = \sup_{\{k\}} \left\{ \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} + \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{n_k} \right\}$$

### 3.6 Exercise 6

(a)  $\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}$  diverges from comparison to harmonic series (same technique as Exercise 2).

(b) Converges, by comparison to  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  for  $p = \frac{3}{2}$ .

(c) Converges by root test, since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}}$ .

(d) Converges when  $|z| > 1$  and diverges otherwise. To see this, put  $z = |z|e^{i\theta}$  to get  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+|z|^n e^{in\theta}}$ .