

# Analysis

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# Chapter 1

## Metric Space and Continuous Map

### §1 Metric Space

**Definition 1.1.** function

$$d : X^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad (1-1)$$

$\forall x_1, x_2, x_3 \in X$  satisfied:

label  $d(x_1, x_2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x_1 = x_2$ ;

label  $d(x_1, x_2) = d(x_2, x_1)$  (symmetry);

label  $d(x_1, x_3) \leq d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3)$  (Triangle inequality),

is called a **metric** or **distance** in  $X$ . Such  $X$  is said to be equipped with metric  $d$ ,  $(X; d)$  is called a **metric space**.

Some examples:

- $(\mathbb{R}^n; d_p)$ , where  $d_p(x_1, x_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_1^i - x_2^i|^p)^{1/p}$ , while  $d_\infty(x_1, x_2) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_1^i - x_2^i|$ .
- Similarly we can define metric spaces as  $(C[a, b]; d_p)$  or  $C_p[a, b]$ .  $d_p(f, g) = \left( \int_a^b |f - g|^p dx \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ .  $C_\infty$  is called a **Chebyshev metric**.
- On class  $\tilde{\mathfrak{R}}[a, b]$  over  $\mathfrak{R}[a, b]$  similar metric can be defined. Functions are considered of one same class if they are equivalent except on a set not larger than null set.

**Lemma 1.** If  $(X; d)$  is a metric space, then  $\forall a, b, u, v, |d(a, b) - d(u, v)| \leq d(a, u) + d(b, v)$ .

**Proof.** Without loss of generality, we assume that  $d(a, b) > d(u, v)$ . According to the triangle inequality (see def. 1-1),  $d(a, b) \leq d(a, u) + d(u, v) + d(v, b)$ , which is to proof.  $\square$

**Definition 1.2.**  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}_+, a \in X$ . Set

$$B(a; \delta) = \{x \in X | d(a, x) < \delta\}$$

is then called a **ball** with centre  $a \in X$ , and a radius of  $\delta$ , or a **ball** of point  $a$ .

**Definition 1.3.** A **open set**  $G \subset X$  in metric space  $(X; d)$  satisfies:  $\forall x \in G, \exists B(x; \delta)$ , s.t.  $B(x; \delta) \subset G$ .

**Definition 1.4.** A **closed set**  $F$  in metric space  $(X; d)$  satisfies:  $X - F$  is a open set in  $(X; d)$ .

$\tilde{B}(x; \delta) = \{x \in X | d(a, x) \leq r\}$  is an example of closed sets in  $(X; d)$ .

**Proposition 1.** label An infinite union of open sets is an open set.

label A definite intersection of open sets is an open set.

label A definite union of closed sets is a closed set.

label An infinite intersection of closed sets is a closed set.

**Proof.** a) If open sets  $G_\alpha \subset X, \forall \alpha \in A, \forall a \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha, \exists \alpha_0 \in A, a \in G_{\alpha_0}, \exists B(a; \delta) \subset G_{\alpha_0} \subset \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha$ .

b) Open sets  $G_1 \cup G_2 \subset X, a \in G_1 \cap G_2$ , therefore  $\exists \delta_1, \delta_2 \in \mathbb{R}_+, B(a; \delta_1) \subset G_1, B(a; \delta_2) \subset G_2$ , without loss of generality, let  $\delta_1 \geq \delta_2, a \in B(a; \delta_1) \cap B(a; \delta_2) = B(a; \delta_2) \subset G_1 \cap G_2$ .

c) Just consider  $\mathcal{C}_X(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} F_\alpha) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{C}_X(F_\alpha)$  and a).

d) Similarly,  $\mathcal{C}_X(F_1 \cup F_2) = \mathcal{C}_X(F_1) \cap \mathcal{C}_X(F_2)$ .

□

**Definition 1.5.** If  $x \in X$  is an element of an open set, then such open set is called a **neighbourhood** of point  $x$  in  $X$ , denoted by  $U(x)$ .

**Definition 1.6.**  $x \in X, E \subset X$ .

a\*) If  $\exists U(x) \subset E, x$  is called an **interior point** of  $E$ .

b\*) If  $\exists U(x) \subset X - E, x$  is called an **exterior point** of  $E$ .

c\*) If  $x$  isn't an interior point nor exterior point of  $E$ , it is called a **boundary point** of  $E$ . The set of boundary points is called **boundary**, denoted by  $\partial E$ .

**Definition 1.7.**  $a \in X, E \subset X$ . If  $\forall U(a), |E \cap U(a)| = \infty, a$  is called a **limit point** of  $E$ .

**Definition 1.8.** The intersections of  $E \subset X$  and set of all its limit points is called the **closure** of  $E$ , denoted by  $\overline{E}$ .

**Theorem 1.1.**  $F \subset X$  is a closed set in  $X \Leftrightarrow \overline{F} = F$ .

**Proof.**  $\Rightarrow$ :  $\mathcal{C}_X(F)$  is open, hence its elements are all its interior points. Therefore  $\overline{F} - F = \overline{F} \cup \mathcal{C}_X(F) = \emptyset, F \subset \overline{F} \Rightarrow F = \overline{F}$ .

$\Leftarrow$ :  $F = \overline{F}$  means that  $\forall x \in \mathcal{C}_X(F), x$  is not a boundary of  $F$ , which indicates that  $x$  is an interior point of  $X - F$ . Therefore  $F - X$  is open while  $F$  is closed. □

**Theorem 1.2.**  $\overline{E}$  is always closed.

**Proof.**  $\forall x \in X - \overline{E}$ , since it is not a element of the set  $E$  or its limit points,  $\exists U(x)$  s.t.  $U(x) \cap \overline{E} = \emptyset$ , which implies that  $x$  is an exterior point of  $E$ , therefore  $\overline{E}$  is closed.  $\square$

**Theorem 1.3.**  $\overline{E} = \overline{\overline{E}}$ .

**Proof.** Since  $\overline{E}$  is closed, its complement is open, which implies that its elements are all exterior point of  $\overline{E}$ , therefore  $\overline{E}$  has contained all of its limit points.  $\square$

**Definition 1.9.** We called  $(X'; d')$  a **subspace** of  $(X; d)$  when  $X' \subset X$  and  $\forall x, y \in X', d'(x, y) = d(x, y)$ .

## §2 Topological Space

**Definition 2.1.** We say  $X$  is equipped with a **topological space** or equipped with **topology** if we assigned a  $\mathcal{T} \subset 2^X$ , which has got the following properties:

- a)  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}; X \in \mathcal{T}$ .
- b)  $(\forall \alpha \in A, \mathcal{T}_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}) \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \mathcal{T}_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}$ .
- c)  $(\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2 \in \mathcal{T}) \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}_1 \cap \mathcal{T}_2$ .

Then we call  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  a **topological space**.

These are correspondence of properties of open sets (See proposition 1). Topology made of all open sets defined in metric space  $(\mathbb{R}; d_2)$  is called the **standard topology** of  $n$ -dimension Euclidean space.

**Definition 2.2.** Topology  $\mathcal{T}$ 's elements are called **open set**, and their complements are called **closed sets**.

**Definition 2.3.**  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is a topological space,  $\mathfrak{B} \subset 2^X$ . If  $\forall G \in \mathcal{T}, \exists B_\alpha \in \mathfrak{B} (\alpha \in A)$  s.t.  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} B_\alpha = G$ , it is called a (topological or open) **base**.

**Definition 2.4.** The smallest possible cardinality of base is called the **weight** of the topological space.

**Definition 2.5.** If  $x \in G$  and  $G \in \mathcal{T}$ , then  $G$  is a **neighbourhood** of  $x$  in topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$ .

For example, we define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  in  $C(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R})$ . If  $f, g \in C(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R})$ , at point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$f \sim_a g \Leftrightarrow (\exists U(a) (\forall x \in U(a), f(x) = g(x))). \quad (2-1)$$

Then we call  $f$  and  $g$  define a **germ** at point  $a$ , denoted by  $f_a$ . If  $f \in C(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R})$  is defined in  $U(a)$ , then we can call  $f_x := \{f_x | x \in U(a)\}$  a neighbourhood of germ  $f_a$ . Class of neighbourhoods of each  $f_x$  constructs a base of topological space  $(C(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R}); \mathcal{T})$ , where  $\mathcal{T}$  is made of the sets of germs of continuous function in  $C(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R})$ .

**Definition 2.6.** We call a topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  a **Hausdorff space**, **separated space** or  $T_2$  **space**, if  $\forall x, y \in X, \exists U(x), U(y)$  s.t.  $U(x) \cap U(y) = \emptyset$  (**Hausdorff axiom** or **separation axiom**).

**Definition 2.7.**  $E \subset X$  is a **dense set** in topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$ , if  $\forall x \in X, \forall U(x), U(x) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ .

**Definition 2.8.** If there is a countable dense set in topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$ , then  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is **separable**.

We can also define interior points, exterior points, boundary points, limit points in topological space as in metric space.

**Definition 2.9.** Each subset  $Y$  of  $X$  equipped with topology  $\mathcal{T}$  can be given a **subspace topology**  $\mathcal{T}_Y$  whose elements  $G_Y$  are intersections of the subset with an open set  $G$  in  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  i.e.  $\forall G_Y \in \mathcal{T}_Y, \exists G \in \mathcal{T}$  s.t.  $G_Y = G \cap Y$ . Subset equipped with such topology construct a **topological subspace**  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$ .

If two topology  $\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2$  are defined on the same  $X$ ,  $\mathcal{T}_1$  is said to be **stronger** than  $\mathcal{T}_2$  if  $\mathcal{T}_1 \subsetneq \mathcal{T}_2$ .

### §3 Compact Set

**Definition 3.1.** Set  $K$  in topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is called a **compact set** if each of its **open covers** has a finite **subcover**. Class  $\Omega$  is called a open cover of  $K$  if  $K \subset \cup \Omega$  and for all sets in  $\Omega$  are open sets.

Specially,  $\emptyset$  is compact.

**Theorem 3.1.** Set  $K \subset X$  is compact in  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  iff  $K$  is compact in  $(K; \mathcal{T}_K)$  itself.

This theorem tells a truth that whether  $K$  is compact or not isn't dependent on the topological space it's in, it can be easily proved: just need to notice that every open set  $G_K$  in  $(K; \mathcal{T}_K)$  is an intersection of an open set  $G$  in  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  and  $K$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** If  $K$  is compact in a Hausdorff space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  (See definition 2.6), then  $K$  is a closed set in  $(X; \mathcal{T})$ .

**Proof.** If  $x_0$  is a limit point of  $K$ , which means  $\forall U(x_0)$ ,

$$|U(x_0) \cap K| \notin \mathbb{N}.$$

Assume that  $x_0 \notin K$ . In a Hausdorff space,  $\forall x \in K, \exists U(x)$  s.t.  $U(x) \cap U(x_0) = \emptyset$ . Such  $U(x)$  construct a open cover  $\Omega = \{U(x) | x \in K\} \subset 2^K$ . Since  $K$  is compact,  $\exists \Omega' \subset \Omega$  s.t.  $|\Omega'| \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$(\cup \Omega') \cap U(x_0) = \left( \bigcup_{k=1}^n U_k \right) \cap U(x_0) = \bigcup_{k=1}^n (U_k \cap U(x_0)) = \emptyset$$

Since  $K \subset \cup \Omega'$ ,  $x_0$  is an exterior point of  $K$ , which leads to a contradiction. Hence  $x_0 \in K$ .  $\overline{K} = K$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.3.** Each decreasing nested sequences of non-empty compact sets has a non-empty limit, i.e.  $\forall \{K_n\}$  s.t.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+, K_n \supset K_{n+1} \wedge K_n \neq \emptyset \wedge (K_n \text{ is compact}), K_n \downarrow K \neq \emptyset$ .



**Proof.** Assume that  $K = \emptyset$ . Compact subsets of  $K_1$  are all closed, while their complements are all open. An open cover  $\Omega$  can be constructed as  $\{K_1 - K_n | n \in \mathbb{N}_+\}$ . Since  $K_1$  is compact, there would be a finite subcover  $\Omega' \subset \Omega$ , notice that  $\{K - K_n\}$  is also a nested sequence, there must be one single  $K - K_{n_0} \in \Omega'$  that covers  $K_1$ , which means  $K_{n_0} = \emptyset$  contradicting that  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+, K_n$  is non-empty.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.4.** *Closed subsets  $F$  of a compact set  $K$  are also compact.*

**Proof.** If  $\Omega_F \subset 2^K$  is an open cover of  $F$ . Notice that  $K - F$  is open,  $\Omega = (\cup \Omega_F) \cup \{K - F\}$  constructs an open cover over  $K$ . Since  $K$  is compact there must be a finite cover  $\Omega' \subset \Omega$  which obviously also covers over  $F$ .  $\square$

The following properties of compact sets are on the topological space induced from a metric space.

**Definition 3.2.**  $(X; d)$  is a metric space,  $E \subset X$ .  $E$  is called an  $\varepsilon$ -**net** if  $\forall x \in X, \exists e \in E, d(e, x) < \varepsilon$ .

**Theorem 3.5.** *If  $(K, d)$  is a compact metric space, then  $\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+, \exists$  finite  $\varepsilon$ -net in  $(K; d)$ .*

**Proof.** For each point  $x \in K$ , find it a  $B(x, \varepsilon)$ , of which an infinite cover  $\Omega$  over  $K$  is made. Since  $K$  is compact, there exists a finite cover  $\Omega' = \{B(x_1, \varepsilon), \dots, B(x_n, \varepsilon)\}$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ ). Therefore  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is a finite  $\varepsilon$ -net in  $K$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.6.**  $(K; d)$  is compact iff it is **sequentially compact**, that is,  $\forall \{x_n\}$  ( $x_n \in K, n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ ), it has convergent subsequence  $\{x_{k_n}\}$  whose limit  $a \in K$ .

To proof it, we need to proof two lemmata first.

**Lemma 2.** *If  $(K; d)$  is sequentially compact, then  $\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+, \exists$  finite  $\varepsilon$ -net in  $(K; d)$ .*

**Proof.** Assume that there were no finite  $\varepsilon_0$ -net in  $(K; d)$ . Define such sequence :  $\{x_n\}$  s.t.  $\forall k, n \in \mathbb{N}_+ (1 \leq k < n), d(x_n, x_k) \geq \varepsilon_0$  (There would always be the next one since there exists no  $\varepsilon_0$ -net). It has no convergent subsequence for if there were a  $\{x_{k_n}\}$  convergent to  $a \in K, \exists N, M \in \mathbb{N}_+, d(x_N, x_M) \leq d(x_N, a) + d(x_M, a) \leq \varepsilon_0$ , which lead to a contradictory.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.** *If  $(K; d)$  is sequentially compact then every nested sequence of closed non-empty sets  $\{F_n\}$  in  $K$  have a non-empty intersection.*

**Proof.** Let  $\{x_{k_n}\}$  be a convergent subsequence of  $\{x_n\}$ , Let  $a$  be the limit of  $\{x_{k_n}\}$  ( $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+, x_n \in F_n$ ). Assume that  $a \notin \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}_+} F_n$ , in metric space,  $\exists U(a) \cap \left(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}_+} F_n\right) = \emptyset \Rightarrow U(a) \cap \left(\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}_+} F_{k_n}\right) = \emptyset$ . But this conflict the fact that  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}_+, \text{ s.t. } n > N, x_{k_n} \in U(a)$  while  $x_{k_n} \in F_{k_n}$ .  $\square$

Then get back to theorem 3.6.

**Proof.**  $\Rightarrow$ : If  $|\{x_n\}| \in \mathbb{N}$ , it is obvious; if  $|\{x_n\}| = \infty$ , make finite  $\frac{1}{n}$ -net (Theorem 3.5),  $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ . For each  $n$ , there must be at least one  $B(x_n; \frac{1}{n})$  that includes infinite elements in  $\{x_n\}$ . Select  $x_{k_n} \in B(x_n; \frac{1}{n})$ , and  $\{\tilde{B}(x_n; \frac{1}{n})\}$  is a nested sequence of a closed non-empty sets in sequentially compact  $K$ , (Lemma 3)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{k_n} \in K$ .

$\Leftarrow$ : Assume that there were a open cover  $\Omega$  over  $K$  having no finite subcover,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+, \exists$  finite  $\frac{1}{n}$ -net (Lemma 3), in which there would be at least one  $x_n$  whose  $\tilde{B}(x_n; \frac{1}{n})$  can't be covered finitely. Then  $\tilde{B}(x_n; \frac{1}{n}) \downarrow B = \{a\}$  (Theorem 3.3) can't be finitely covered by any subcover of  $\Omega$  which means  $\Omega$  can't cover the whole  $K$ , leading to the contradiction.  $\square$

## §4 Connected Set

**Definition 4.1.** Topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is called **connected** if there is no **open-closed set** (i.e. both open and closed) besides  $\emptyset$  and  $X$  itself.

Notice that if  $A \subset X$  is open-closed, its complement  $X - A$  is also open-closed, which means a topological space is connected **iff** it is not a union of its two open subsets.

**Definition 4.2.**  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is a topological space. Subset  $C$  is said to be **connected** if subspace  $(C; \mathcal{T}_C)$  is connected.

**Theorem 4.1.**  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is a topological space.  $\forall \alpha \in A, C_\alpha$  are connected subsets of  $X$ . If  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} C_\alpha$  is also connected.

**Proof.** If  $C = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} C_\alpha$  were not connected,  $\exists E \subset C$  s.t.  $E \neq \emptyset \wedge E \neq C \wedge E, C - E \in \mathcal{T}_C$ . For  $E$  is not empty there exists a  $\beta \in A$  s.t.  $E \cap C_\beta \neq \emptyset$ . It can be proofed that  $C_\beta \subset E$ .

Suppose that  $C_\beta \not\subset E$ , which implies that  $(C - E) \cap C_\beta \neq \emptyset$ .  $E, C - E, C_\beta \in \mathcal{T}_C \Rightarrow E \cap C_\beta, (C - E) \cap C_\beta \in \mathcal{T}_C$ . This conflicts to the fact that  $C_\beta$  is connected. Therefore  $C_\beta \subset E$ .

Hence there exists a  $B \subsetneq A, \bigcup_{\beta \in B} C_\beta = A$ . Since  $C_\gamma, \gamma \in A - B$  would have a empty intersection with  $E$ , which contradicts  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} C_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 4.2.** Connected sets have connected closure.

**Proof.**  $\square$

**Theorem 4.3.**  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  is connected **iff** that if  $\forall x, z \in E, y \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $x < y < z$ , then  $y \in E$ .

**Proof.**  $\Rightarrow$ : Assume that there were such  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  that  $\exists x, z \in E, x < y < z$  but  $y \notin E$ .  $\{x \in E | x < y\}$  and  $\{x \in E | x > y\}$  are open in  $C$  for they are intersection of open sets in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $C$ . Since they're each other's complement, they are both open-closed, which conflict to the definition of connected set.

$\Leftarrow$ : It can be proofed that  $(\inf C, \sup C) \subset C$ . Assume that there were an open-closed proper subset  $E \neq \emptyset$  contained in  $C$ . Find two points  $x \in E, z \in C - E$ . Without loss of generality, let  $x < z$ . Since  $E$  and  $C - E$  are closed,  $c_1 = \inf\{E \cap [a, b]\} \in E$  while  $c_2 = \inf\{(C - E) \cap [a, b]\} \in C - E$ . However  $E \cap (C - E) = \emptyset \Rightarrow c_1 < c_2$ , which means  $(c_1, c_2) \cap E = \emptyset$ . Here's the contradiction.  $\square$

**Definition 4.3.** A topological space  $(X; \mathcal{T})$  is said to be **locally connected** if  $\forall x \in X, \exists U(x)$  s.t.  $U(x)$  is connected.

## §5 Complete Metric Spaces

We now take a closer look at one of the most important sorts of metric spaces: complete spaces.

**Definition 5.1.** A sequence  $\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  of points of a metric space  $(X; d)$  is called a **fundamental** or **Cauchy sequence** if  $\forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t. as long as  $m, n > N$ ,  $d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$ .

**Definition 5.2.** A metric space  $(X; d)$  is **complete** if every Cauchy sequence of its points is convergent.

For example, metric space  $C_\infty[a, b]$  is complete while  $C_1[a, b]$  isn't. Proof see p22, Zorich. Consider incomplete space  $\mathbb{Q}_1$ , which is a subspace of the complete space  $\mathbb{R}_1$ . If  $\mathbb{R}_1$  is the smallest complete space containing  $\mathbb{Q}_1$ , we can say that we have achieved a **completion** of  $\mathbb{Q}_1$ . However, the definition of "completion" hasn't been defined yet.

**Definition 5.3.** If a metric space  $(X; d)$  is a subspace of a complete metric space  $(Y; d)$  and everywhere dense in it, we call the latter one the **completion** of  $(X; d)$ .

We need to confirm that such completion is the smallest and unique. So we introduce:

**Definition 5.4.** If there exists a **isometry**  $f : X_1 \rightarrow X_2$  when  $(X_1; d_1)$  and  $(X_2; d_2)$  are both metric space, i.e.  $f$  is a bijective and for each  $a, b \in X_1$ ,  $d_2(f(a), f(b)) = d_1(a, b)$ , then these two metric space is **isometric**.

This relation is reflexive ( $e$ ), symmetric ( $f^{-1}$ ), and transitive ( $f \circ g$ ), so it is a equivalence relation, noted by  $\sim$ . We shall consider isometric spaces are identical.

**Theorem 5.1.** If metric spaces  $(Y_1; d_1)$  and  $(Y_2; d_2)$  are both completions of  $(X; d)$ , then they are isometric.

**Proof.** Such isometry  $f : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$  can be defined: if  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,

$$d_2(f(x_1), f(x_2)) = d(f(x_1), f(x_2)) = d(x_1, x_2) = d_1(x_1, x_2).$$

For each  $y_1 \in Y_1 - X$ , a Cauchy sequence  $\{x_n\}$  can be found in the nested sequence of balls centered in  $y_1$ . It is obvious that  $\{x_n\}$  is also fundamental in  $Y_2$ , limitting to  $y_2 \in Y_2$ . Different sequences of points  $\{x'_n\}$  selected won't result in a different  $y'_2$ , or  $d(x_n, x'_n)$  wouldn't converge to 0, which violate the fact that the radii of balls converge to 0. Let  $f(y_1) = y_2$ .

a) For each  $y_2 \in Y_2 - X$ , there always exists a Cauchy sequence converging to it, which implies that  $f$  is a surjection.

b) Also notice that  $\forall y'_1, y''_1 \in Y_1 - X$ ,

$$d_1(y'_1, y''_1) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x'_n, x''_n) = d_2(y'_2, y''_2)$$

while  $\{x'_n\}$  and  $\{x''_n\}$  are both Cauchy sequence. This equality also proofed that  $f$  is a injection.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.2.** There always exists a completion for every metric space.

**Proof.** A isometric space  $(S_X; d)$  to the metric space  $(X; d_X)$  can be constructed, which consists of constant sequence of points in  $X$ . Its completion  $(S; d)$  can be defined as Cauchy sequences whose mutual distances' limits are not 0.  $\square$

## §6 Continuous Mapping

Let's recall the definition of the limitation.

**Definition 6.1.** A set  $\mathcal{B} \subset 2^X$  is called a **(filter) base** in  $X$  if the following conditions hold:

- a)  $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{B}$ .
- b)  $\forall B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}$  s.t.  $B \subset B_1 \cap B_2 \subset B_2$ .

Introduction of the limits in a topological space is as follows.

**Definition 6.2.** Let  $a \in Y$  be the **limit** over the base  $\mathcal{B} \subset 2^{\mathcal{D}(f)}$  of a mapping  $f : \mathcal{D}(f) \rightarrow Y$ , in which  $Y$  is equipped with a topology  $\mathcal{T}$ .

$$\lim_{\mathcal{B}} f = a \quad := \quad \forall U(a) \subset Y \exists B \in \mathcal{B} (f(B) \subset U(a)).$$

Such definition is parallel to the definition we have introduced on the limits of real number, hence it basically holds the same propoties.

**Definition 6.3.** A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ , where  $X, Y$  is respectively equipped with topology  $\mathcal{T}_X, \mathcal{T}_Y$ , is said to be **continuous** at  $x_0 \in X$  (let  $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$ ), if  $\forall U(y_0), \exists U(x_0)$  s.t.  $f(U(x_0)) \subset U(y_0)$ . It is **continuous** in  $X$  if it is continuous at each point  $x \in X$ .

The set of continuous mappings from  $X$  into  $Y$  can be denoted by  $C(X, Y)$  or  $C(X)$  when  $Y$  is clear.

**Theorem 6.1 (Criterion for continuity).**  $(X; \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are both topological spaces. A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous iff  $\forall G_Y \in \mathcal{T}_Y, f^{-1}(G_Y) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ .

**Proof.**  $\Rightarrow$ : It is obvious if  $f^{-1}(G_Y) = \emptyset$ . If  $f^{-1}(G_Y) \neq \emptyset$  and  $x_0 \in X$ , since  $f \in C(X, Y)$ , for  $G_Y, \exists U(x_0)$  s.t.  $f(U(x_0)) \subset G_Y$ . Also notice that  $f(U(x_0)) \subset G_Y \Rightarrow U(x_0) \subset f^{-1}(G_Y)$ , therefore  $f^{-1}(G_Y)$  is open.

$\Leftarrow$ :  $\forall x_0 \in X$ , let  $y_0 = f(x_0), f^{-1}(U(y_0)) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ . Notice that  $x_0 \in f^{-1}(U(y_0))$ , therefore  $f \in C(X, Y)$ .  $\square$

**Definition 6.4.**  $(X; \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are both topological spaces. A bijective mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a **homeomorphism** if  $f \in C(X, Y) \wedge f^{-1} \in C(Y, X)$ .

**Definition 6.5.** Two topological spaces  $(X; \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are said to be **homeomorphic** if there exists a homeomorphism  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ .

Homeomorphic topological spaces are identical with respect to their topological propoties since the theorem 6.1 has shown that their open sets correspond to each other.

**Theorem 6.2.**  $(X; \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are both topological spaces.  $K \subset X$  is a compact set. If  $f : X \rightarrow Y \in C(X, Y)$ , then  $f(K)$  is compact.

**Proof.** For each open cover  $\Omega_Y = \{G_Y \in \mathcal{T}_Y\} \subset \mathcal{T}_Y$  over  $f(K)$ ,  $f^{-1}(G_Y) \in \mathcal{T}_X$  (Therem 6.1).  $f(K) \subset \cup \Omega_Y \Rightarrow K \subset f^{-1}(\cup \Omega_Y) = \cup \Omega_X$ , where  $\Omega_X = \{f^{-1}(G_Y) \mid G_Y \in \Omega_Y\}$  is an open cover over  $K$ . Since  $K$  is compact,  $\exists \Omega'_X \subset \Omega_X$  ( $|\Omega'_X| \in \mathbb{N}_+ \wedge K \subset \cup \Omega'_X$ ),  $f(K) \subset f(\cup \Omega'_X)$ .  $f(G'_X) \in \Omega_Y$ , hence  $\Omega'_Y = \{f(G'_X) \mid G'_X \in \Omega'_X\}$  is a finite subcover over  $f(K)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 6.3.**  $(K; \mathcal{T}_K)$  is a compact space and  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is a Hausdorff space. If a bijective  $f : K \rightarrow Y \in C(K, Y)$ , then it is a homeomorphism.

**Proof.**  $\forall F = K - G$  s.t.  $G \in \mathcal{T}_K$  is compact (Theorem 3.4). Hence  $f(F)$  is compact (Theorem 6.2), then it is also closed (Theorem 3.2). This fact shows that  $f^{-1}$  is continuous (Theorem 6.1).  $\square$

**Theorem 6.4.**  $(X; \mathcal{T}_X)$  and  $(Y; \mathcal{T}_Y)$  are both topological spaces.  $E \subset X$  is a connected set. If  $f : X \rightarrow Y \in C(X, Y)$ , then  $f(E)$  is also connected.

**Proof.** Only to notice that the open-closed sets in  $(f(E); \mathcal{T}_{f(E)})$  have concurrently open-closed pre-images in  $(E; \mathcal{T}_E)$ .  $\square$

## §7 Contraction

**Definition 7.1.** A point  $a \in X$  is a **fixed point** of a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow X$  if  $f(a) = a$ .

**Definition 7.2.** Let  $(X; d)$  be a metric space. A mapping  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is called a **contraction** if  $\exists q \in (0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,

$$d(f(x_1), f(x_2)) \leq qd(x_1, x_2). \quad (7-1)$$

**Lemma 4.** A contraction  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is always continuous.

**Proof.**  $\forall x \in X, \forall \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+, \exists \delta < \varepsilon/q$ , according to inequality 7-1:

$$f(B(x; \delta)) \subset B(f(x); \varepsilon).$$

$\square$

**Theorem 7.1 (Picard-Banach fixed-point principle or contraction mapping principle).**

Let  $(X; d)$  be a complete metric space. Each contraction  $f : X \rightarrow X$  has a unique fixed point  $a$ . Also,  $\forall \{x_n\} \subset X$  s.t.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} (f(x_n) = x_{n+1})$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a$ , and

$$d(x_n, a) \leq \frac{q^n}{1 - q} d(x_1, x_0). \quad (7-2)$$

**Proof.** By the inequality 7-1:

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) \leq qd(x_n, x_{n-1}) \leq \cdots \leq q^n d(x_1, x_0)$$

Therefore,  $\forall n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$d(x_{n+k}, x_n) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} d(x_{n+i+1}, x_{n+i}) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} q^{n+i} d(x_1, x_0) \leq \frac{q^n}{1 - q} d(x_1, x_0), \quad (7-3)$$

which implies that  $x_n$  is a Cauchy sequence in a complete space  $(X; d)$ , hence it converges to a point  $a \in X$ .

To proof that  $a$  is a fixed point of  $f$ , since  $f$  is continuous (Lemma 4), just notice that

$$a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n) = f(a).$$

If there were a second fixed point  $a' \in X$  of  $f$ , then:

$$0 \leq d(a, a') = d(f(a), f(a')) \leq qd(a, a')$$

which can't be true unless  $a = a'$ .

By passing to the limit as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  in the inequality 7-3, we have the inequality 7-2. □

## Chapter 2

# Normed Linear Space and Differential Calculus

### §8 Normed Linear Space

**Definition 8.1.** Let  $V$  be a linear space over  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . A function  $\| \cdot \| : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  assigning to each vector  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  a real number  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$  is called a ***norm*** in the linear space  $X$  if:

- a)  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  (nondegeneracy);
- b)  $\|\lambda\mathbf{x}\| = |\lambda|\|\mathbf{x}\|$  (homogeneity);
- c)  $\|\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}_1\| + \|\mathbf{x}_2\|$  (the triangle inequality).

A linear space with a norm defined on it is called ***normed***.

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