

# Rudin: Sequences and Series of Functions

James Pagán

January 2024

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Discussion of the Main Problem</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Exposition . . . . .	2
1.2	Motivating Examples . . . . .	2
<b>2</b>	<b>Uniform Convergence</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1	Definition . . . . .	3
2.2	Uniform Cauchy Criterion . . . . .	4
2.3	Uniform Convergence of Series . . . . .	5
2.4	The Metric Space $\mathcal{C}(X)$ . . . . .	5
<b>3</b>	<b>Uniform Convergence and Continuity</b>	<b>7</b>
3.1	The Theorem . . . . .	7
<b>4</b>	<b>The Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem</b>	<b>8</b>
4.1	Bernstein's Proof . . . . .	8

# 1 Discussion of the Main Problem

## 1.1 Exposition

Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of functions defined on a set  $E$ . If the sequence of numbers  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges for each  $x \in E$ , we may define a function

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x).$$

We say that  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $f$  **pointwise** on  $E$ . An important special case is series of functions: where if  $\sum f_n(x)$  converges for each  $x \in E$ , we may define

$$f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x).$$

The critical question posed by this question is: which properties of functions are preserved under the limit operation? If each  $f_n$  is continuous or differentiable, is the same true of  $f$ ? For continuity: recall that  $f$  is continuous at  $x$  if

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(t) = f(x);$$

then the continuity of  $f$  is equivalent to

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{t \rightarrow x} f_n(t).$$

The following examples will illustrate how this question fails in a general context.

## 1.2 Motivating Examples

**Example 1:** For  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , define

$$a_{m,n} = \frac{m}{m+n}.$$

This example fails to satisfy the continuity condition established above, as demonstrated by the following computation:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{m}{m+n} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 = 1 \neq 0 = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} 0 = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{m}{m+n} \right)$$

**Example 2:** For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , let

$$f_n(x) = \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^n}.$$

and consider the infinite series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{(x^2 + 1)^n}.$$

Since  $f_n(0) = 0$  for all  $n$ , we have  $f(0) = 0$ . For nonzero  $x$ , this is a geometric series that converges to  $x^2 + 1$ . We deduce from pointwise convergence that

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ x^2 + 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Then  $f$  is continuous everywhere *except* the origin.

**Example 3:** For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , consider the functions

$$f_n(x) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (\cos \pi n!x)^{2m} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x).$$

If  $x$  is rational, let  $x = \frac{p}{q}$ . Then  $m > q$  implies  $m!x$  is an integer, so  $f_n(x) = 1$ ; hence  $f(x) = 1$ . If  $x$  is irrational, then  $n!x$  is never an integer. Thus  $\cos \pi n!x < 1$ , so (by nontrivial but irrelevant techniques)  $f_n(0) = 0$  and  $f(x) = 0$ . We deduce that

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q}. \end{cases}$$

We have obtained a limit function which is *nowhere continuous*. It thus fails to be Riemann integral — though the Lebesgue integral returns 0, as will be determined in Chapter 11.

## 2 Uniform Convergence

### 2.1 Definition

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of functions from  $E$  to a metric space  $X$ . We say the sequence **converges uniformly** to a function  $f$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an integer  $N$  such that

$$N \leq n \implies d(f_n(x) - f(x)) < \epsilon$$

for all  $x \in E$ . It is natural that each uniformly convergent sequence is pointwise convergent.

## 2.2 Uniform Cauchy Criterion

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a uniformly continuous sequence of functions from  $E$  to a metric space  $X$ . Then  $\{f_n\}$  satisfies the uniform Cauchy criterion.*

*Proof.* Let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$  for each  $x \in E$ . For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists integers  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} N_1 \leq n &\implies d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ N_2 \leq m &\implies d(f_m(x), f(x)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

for all  $x \in E$ . Let  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ ; then  $N \leq n, m$  implies that

$$d(f_n(x) - f_m(x)) \leq d(f_n(x), f(x)) + d(f_m(x), f(x)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

for all  $x \in E$ . We conclude that  $\{f_n\}$  satisfies the Cauchy criterion.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.** *Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of functions from  $E$  to a complete metric space  $Y$  that satisfies the uniform Cauchy criterion. Then  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly.*

*Proof.* Since  $Y$  is complete,  $\{f_n\}$  converges pointwise for each  $x \in E$ . We must demonstrate that this convergence is uniform.

**Claim 1.** *Suppose that  $\{a_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in a metric space  $Y$  with limit  $A$ : that for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that*

$$N \leq n, m \implies d(a_n, a_m) < \epsilon.$$

*Then  $N \leq n$  implies that  $d(a_n, A) < \epsilon$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose for contradiction that some  $N \leq k$  that  $d(a_k, A) \geq \epsilon$ . Then  $N \leq n$  implies

$$d(a_n, a_k) \geq d(a_k, A) - d(a_n, A) \geq d(a_k, A) \geq \epsilon,$$

which yields the desired contradiction.

By definition, for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that

$$N \leq n, m \implies d(f_n(x), f_m(x)) < \epsilon$$

for all  $x \in E$ . Then via our claim, the same choice of  $N$  demonstrates uniform continuity: namely,  $N \leq n$  implies  $d(f_n(x), f(x)) < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in E$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 1.** *A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  from a set  $E$  to a Banach space  $Y$  converges uniformly if and only if it satisfies the uniform Cauchy criterion.*

## 2.3 Uniform Convergence of Series

**Theorem 3.** Suppose  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  is a sequence of functions from  $E$  to a Banach space  $Y$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{f}_n(x)\| \leq M_n$$

for all  $x \in E$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ . If  $\sum M_n$  converges, then  $\sum \mathbf{f}_n$  converges uniformly.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\sum M_n$  converges. Then it satisfies the Cauchy criterion: for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that

$$N \leq n, m \implies \sum_{i=n+1}^m M_i < \epsilon.$$

We deduce that

$$\left\| \sum_{i=n+1}^m \mathbf{f}_i(x) \right\| \leq \sum_{i=n+1}^m M_i < \epsilon$$

for all  $x \in E$  as well, so  $\mathbf{f}_n$  satisfies the uniform Cauchy criterion. Its uniform convergence is hence guaranteed by Theorem 2.  $\square$

If  $E$  is  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , and  $Y$  is  $\mathbb{C}^m$ , then functions  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  are matrices.

## 2.4 The Metric Space $\mathcal{C}(X)$

If  $X$  is a metric space, we denote by  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  the set of continuous and bounded functions from  $X$  to a Banach space  $Y$ . If  $X$  is compact, then the boundedness condition is redundant. We associate with each  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathcal{C}(X)$  its **supremum norm**

$$\|\mathbf{f}\|_X = \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{f}(x)\|.$$

Since  $\mathbf{f}$  is assumed to be bounded,  $\|\mathbf{f}\|_X < \infty$ . A similar definition exists if  $Y$  is substituted with any metric space; only a few properties about  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  hold in such a setting.

**Theorem 4.**  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  equipped with the supremum norm is a metric space.

*Proof.* We must perform three rather routine calculations:

- **Positivity:** It is natural that  $\|\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{g}\|_X \geq 0$ , with equality if and only if  $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{g}$ .
- **Symmetry:** For all  $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g} \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ , we have

$$\|\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{g}\|_X = \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{g}(x)\| = \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{g}(x) - \mathbf{f}(x)\| = \|\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f}\|_X.$$

- **Triangle Inequality:** For all  $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{g}\|_X &= \|\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{g}\|_X \\
&= \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{h}(x) + \mathbf{h}(x) - \mathbf{g}(x)\| \\
&\leq \sup_{x \in X} \left( \|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{h}(x)\| + \|\mathbf{h}(x) - \mathbf{g}(x)\| \right) \\
&\leq \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{h}(x)\| + \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{h}(x) - \mathbf{g}(x)\| \\
&= \|\mathbf{f} - \mathbf{h}\|_X + \|\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{g}\|_X.
\end{aligned}$$

We conclude that  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  is a metric space with respect to the supremum norm.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.** *A series of functions  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  from  $X$  to a Banach space  $Y$  uniformly converges to  $\mathbf{f}$  if and only if  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{f}$  in  $\mathcal{C}(X)$ .*

*Proof.* We have the following: for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\{\mathbf{f}_n\} \rightarrow \mathbf{f} \text{ is uniform} &\iff \exists N \text{ such that } N \leq n \implies \|\mathbf{f}_n(x) - \mathbf{f}(x)\| < \epsilon \\
&\text{for all } x \in X \\
&\iff \exists N \text{ such that } N \leq n \implies \sup_{x \in X} \|\mathbf{f}_n(x) - \mathbf{f}(x)\| \leq \epsilon \\
&\iff \exists N \text{ such that } N \leq n \implies \|\mathbf{f}_n - \mathbf{f}\|_X \leq \epsilon \\
&\iff \{\mathbf{f}_n\} \text{ converges to } \mathbf{f} \text{ in } \mathcal{C}(X).
\end{aligned}$$

A corollary is that  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  uniformly converges to  $\mathbf{f}$  if and only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|\mathbf{f}_n - \mathbf{f}\|_X = 0$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 6.**  *$\mathcal{C}(X)$  under the supremum norm is complete — hence a Banach space.*

*Proof.* Let  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathcal{C}(X)$ : for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that

$$N \leq n, m \implies \|\mathbf{f}_n - \mathbf{f}_m\|_X < \epsilon.$$

This implies that

$$N \leq n, m \implies d(\mathbf{f}_n(x) - \mathbf{f}_m(x)) < \epsilon$$

for all  $x \in X$ . By Theorem 2, such a uniform Cauchy sequence in  $Y$  converges uniformly; by Theorem 5,  $\{\mathbf{f}_n\}$  converges in  $\mathcal{C}(X)$ . The continuity of  $\mathbf{f}$  is ensured by Theorem 7, and  $\mathbf{f}$  is bounded since there is  $n$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{f}_n(x)\| < 1$$

for all  $x \in X$ , and  $\mathbf{f}_n$  is bounded. This completes the proof.  $\square$

### 3 Uniform Convergence and Continuity

#### 3.1 The Theorem

**Theorem 7.** Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of functions from  $E$  to a metric space  $X$  that converges uniformly to  $f$ . If  $x$  is a limit point of  $E$  and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f_n(t) = F_n$$

for each  $n$ , then  $\{F_n\}$  converges and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\{f_n\}$  is uniformly continuous, it satisfies the uniform Cauchy sequence. For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exist  $\delta_2$ ,  $\delta_3$ , and an integer  $N$  such that each of the following is satisfied:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < d(x, t) < \delta_1 &\implies d(f_i(t), F_i) < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ 0 < d(x, t) < \delta_2 &\implies d(f_j(t), F_j) < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \\ N \leq i, j &\implies d(f_i(t), f_j(t)) < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose we consider  $0 < d(x, t) < \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . Then  $N \leq i, j$  implies

$$\begin{aligned} d(F_i, F_j) &\leq d(F_i, f_i(t)) + d(f_i(t), f_j(t)) + d(f_j(t), F_j) \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\{F_n\}$  converge to  $F$ . For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exist  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} t \in E, \quad N_1 \leq n &\implies d(f(t), f_n(t)) < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ 0 < d(x, y) \leq \delta &\implies d(f_n(t), F_n) < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ N_2 \leq n &\implies d(F_n, F) < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\max\{N_1, N_2\} \leq N$  and  $0 < d(x, y) < \delta$  implies that

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(t), F) &\leq d(f(t), f_n(t)) + d(f_n(t), F_n) + d(F_n, F) \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(t) = F$ . □

**Corollary 2.** Suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$ . Then  $f$  is continuous.

## 4 The Stone-Weierstrauss Theorem

### 4.1 Bernstein's Proof

**Theorem 8** (Weierstrauss Approximation Theorem). *Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. Then there exists a sequence of polynomials that uniformly converges to  $f$ .*

*Proof.* For any nonnegative integer  $n$ , define

$$B_n(f)(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k}.$$

Denote the component  $\binom{n}{k} x^k (1-x)^{n-k}$  by  $P_{n,k}(x)$ . Then the  $(P_{n,k})_{k=0}^n$  satisfy the following properties for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ :

1.  $P_{n,k}(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$
2.  $\sum_{k=0}^n P_{n,k}(x) = (x + (1-x))^n = 1$ , hence  $(P_{n,k})_{k=0}^n$  is a partition of unity.
3.  $P_{n,k}$  attains its maximum on  $[0, 1]$  at  $\frac{k}{n}$ ; simply compute its derivative.
4.  $(P_{n,k})_{k=0}^n$  is a basis of the vector space of polynomials of degree  $n$  or smaller.

For all  $x \in [0, 1]$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , we have using Property 2 that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) - B_n(f)(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n f(x) P_{n,k}(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) P_{n,k}(x) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \left( f(x) - f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \right) P_{n,k}(x) \end{aligned}$$

so that using the Triangle Inequality and Property 1 yields that

$$|f(x) - B_n(f)(x)| \leq \sum_{k=0}^n \left| f(x) - f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \right| P_{n,k}(x). \quad (1)$$

Select  $\delta > 0$  arbitrarily. We will bound  $|f(x) - f(\frac{k}{n})|$  as follows:

1. When  $|x - \frac{k}{n}| \leq \delta$ , we will invoke the bound  $|f(x) - f(\frac{k}{n})| \leq \omega_f(\delta)$ .
2. When  $|x - \frac{k}{n}| > \delta$ , we will invoke the bound  $|f(x) - f(\frac{k}{n})| \leq 2\|f\|_{[0,1]}$ .

We may use the modulus of continuity, since the Heine-Cantor Theorem guarantees that continuous functions are uniformly continuous on closed intervals.



Hence equation (1) reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}
|f(x) - B_n(f)(x)| &\leq \sum_{k: |x - \frac{k}{n}| \leq \delta} \omega_f(\delta) P_{n,k}(x) + \sum_{k: |x - \frac{k}{n}| > \delta} 2\|f\|_{[0,1]} P_{n,k}(x) \\
&= \omega_f(\delta) \sum_{k: |x - \frac{k}{n}| \leq \delta} P_{n,k}(x) + 2\|f\|_{[0,1]} \sum_{k: |x - \frac{k}{n}| > \delta} P_{n,k}(x) \\
&\leq \omega_f(\delta) + 2\|f\|_{[0,1]} \sum_{k: |x - \frac{k}{n}| > \delta} P_{n,k}(x)
\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\left(\frac{|x - k/n|}{\delta}\right)^2 \geq 1$  whenever  $|k - \frac{k}{n}| > \delta$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
|f(x) - B_n(f)(x)| &\leq \omega_f(\delta) + 2\|f\|_{[0,1]} \sum_{k: |x - \frac{k}{n}| > \delta} \left(\frac{|x - \frac{k}{n}|}{\delta}\right)^2 P_{n,k}(x) \\
&\leq \omega_f(\delta) + 2\|f\|_{[0,1]} \sum_{k=0}^n \left(\frac{|x - \frac{k}{n}|}{\delta}\right)^2 P_{n,k}(x) \\
&\leq \omega_f(\delta) + \frac{2\|f\|_{[0,1]}}{n^2 \delta^2} \sum_{k=0}^n (nx - k)^2 P_{n,k}(x).
\end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 1.**  $\sum_{k=0}^n (nx - k)^2 P_{n,k}(x) = nx(1 - x).$

*Proof.* Güntürk gives a slick probabalistic proof; we will use algebra, as unenlightening as this may be. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^n (nx - k)^2 P_{n,k}(x) &= n^2 x^2 \sum_{k=0}^n P_{n,k}(x) - 2nx \sum_{k=0}^n k P_{n,k}(x) + \sum_{k=0}^n k^2 P_{n,k}(x) \\
&= n^2 x^2 - 2nx \sum_{k=0}^n k P_{n,k}(x) + \sum_{k=0}^n k^2 P_{n,k}(x)
\end{aligned}$$

Our task is to simplify these summations. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^n k P_{n,k}(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n k \left( \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \right) x^k (1-x)^{n-k} \\
&= nx \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} x^{k-1} (1-x)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\
&= nx \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} x^k (1-x)^{(n-1)-k} \\
&= nx (x + (1-x))^{n-1} \\
&= nx,
\end{aligned}$$

For the summation  $k^2$ , we find it is easier to work with  $k(k-1)$  due to the factorial:

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^n k^2 P_{n,k}(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n k P_{n,k}(x) + \sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1) P_{n,k}(x) \\
&= nx + \sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1) P_{n,k}(x) \\
&= nx + \sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1) \left( \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \right) x^k (1-x)^{n-k} \\
&= nx + n(n-1)x^2 \sum_{k=2}^n \binom{n-2}{k-2} x^{k-2} (1-x)^{(n-2)-(k-2)} \\
&= nx + n(n-1)x^2 \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k} x^k (1-x)^{(n-2)-k} \\
&= nx + n(n-1)x^2 (x + (1-x))^{n-2} \\
&= nx + n(n-1)x^2.
\end{aligned}$$

We are ready to return to our original series: we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^n (nx - k)^2 P_{n,k}(x) &= n^2 x^2 - 2nx(nx) + (nx + n(n-1)x^2) \\
&= n^2 x^2 - 2n^2 x^2 + nx + n^2 x^2 - nx^2 \\
&= nx - nx^2 \\
&= nx(1-x),
\end{aligned}$$

completing the proof of our lemma.

Returning to our original series, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
|f(x) - B_n(f)(x)| &\leq \omega_f(\delta) + \frac{2\|f\|_{[0,1]}}{n^2\delta^2}(nx(1-x)) \\
&\leq \omega_f(\delta) + \frac{2\|f\|_{[0,1]}}{n\delta^2}(x^2 - x) \\
&\leq \omega_f(\delta) + \frac{\|f\|_{[0,1]}}{2n\delta^2}
\end{aligned}$$

This holds for all  $\delta > 0$ . To proceed, we select  $\delta_n$  such that  $\delta_n \rightarrow 0$  and  $\frac{1}{n\delta_n^2} \rightarrow 0$  as well. The choice we will use is  $\delta_n = n^{-1/3}$ . Then for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$|f(x) - B_n(f)(x)| \leq \omega_f(n^{-1/3}) + \frac{\|f\|_{[0,1]}}{2}n^{-1/3}.$$

Both terms on the right-hand side converge to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We may therefore select  $N$  such that the right-hand side is less than  $\epsilon$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

We invoked properties of the modulus of continuity in our proof. If desired, we encourage the reader to explore `RealAnalysis/gunturk.tex` for more.