

# Introduction to Analysis I

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### Abstract

The lecture note of 2025 Fall Introduction to Analysis I by professor 崔茂培. In this note, we will write  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  and  $\{X^{(n)}\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$  to express a sequence, they are identical, but 崔茂培 use both during lectures, so I follow him.

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# Chapter 1

## Basic Things

### Lecture 1

#### 1.1 Natural Numbers

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The set of natural numbers is denoted by  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ . There exists an addition operation

$$1 + 1 = 2 \quad 1 + 1 + 1 = 3 \quad \underbrace{1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{n \text{ times}} = n.$$

#### 1.2 Integers

The set of integers is  $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ . There is a zero element 0 such that  $z + 0 = z$  for any  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Also, for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $n + (-n) = 0$  and  $n - m = n + (-m)$  for all  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow[\text{introduce division}]{} \mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow[\text{Completeness axiom}]{} \mathbb{R}$$

#### 1.3 Field

Next, we introduce the concept of field.

**Definition 1.3.1 (Fields).** A field is a set  $F$  together with two binary operations, called addition(+) and multiplication(\*), such that the following properties hold:

- (a)  $a + b = b + a$ ,  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$  for  $a, b \in F$ .
- (b)  $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ,  $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$  for  $a, b, c \in F$ .
- (c)  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ .
- (d) There are distinct element 0 and 1 such that  $a + 0 = a$ ,  $a \cdot 1 = a$  for  $a \in F$ .
- (e) For each  $a \in F$ , there exists  $-a \in F$  such that  $a + (-a) = 0$ . If  $a \neq 0$ , there is an element  $\frac{1}{a}$  or  $a^{-1}$  in  $F$  such that  $a \cdot \frac{1}{a} = 1$ , or  $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1$ .

**Remark 1.3.1.** If  $a \in F$ , then  $a + a \in F$ . We denote  $a + a$  by  $2 \cdot a$ . Similarly,

$$\underbrace{a + a + \dots + a}_{n \text{ times}} = n \cdot a,$$

and

$$a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a}_{n \text{ times}}$$

if  $a \in F$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Remark 1.3.2.** In a field, we have subtraction and division  $a - b = a + (-b)$  for  $a, b \in F$ . If  $b \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{a}{b} = a \cdot b^{-1}$  for  $a, b \in F$ .

In a field  $F$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (a+b)^2 &= (a+b) \cdot (a+b) \\ &= (a+b) \cdot a + (a+b) \cdot b \\ &= a \cdot a + b \cdot a + a \cdot b + b \cdot b \\ &= a^2 + ab + ab + b^2 \\ &= a^2 + 2ab + b^2. \end{aligned}$$

**Example 1.3.1.**

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$$

if  $b \neq 0$  and  $d \neq 0$ .

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} &= a \cdot b^{-1} + c \cdot d^{-1} \\ &= ab^{-1}dd^{-1} + cd^{-1}bb^{-1} \\ &= adb^{-1}d^{-1} + cbd^{-1}b^{-1} \\ &= \frac{ad + bc}{bd}. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that this is true since we have commutativity in multiplication and

$$d^{-1}b^{-1} = (bd)^{-1} = \frac{1}{bd}.$$

■

**Example 1.3.2.** The set of rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0 \right\}$  is a field.

**Example 1.3.3.** The set of real numbers is also a field.

**Example 1.3.4.**  $F_2 = \{0, 1\}$  is also a field since we can define addition and multiplication like  $0 + 0 = 0, 0 + 1 = 1, 1 + 1 = 0$ , and  $0 \cdot 0 = 0, 1 \cdot 0 = 0, 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ .

## 1.4 Order Relation

Next, we introduce the order relation. The real number system is ordered by the relation  $<$ , which has the following properties.

- (f) For each pair of real numbers  $a$  and  $b$ , exactly one of the following is true:  $a = b, a < b, b < a$ .
- (g) If  $a < b$  and  $b < c$ , then  $a < c$ .
- (h) If  $a < b$ , then  $a + c < b + c$  for any  $c$ , and if  $0 < c$ , then  $a \cdot c < b \cdot c$ .

**Definition 1.4.1.** A field with an order relation satisfy (f) to (h) is called an ordered field.

**Example 1.4.1.** The set of rational numbers is an ordered field.

**Example 1.4.2.**  $F_2$  is not an ordered field.

**Proof.** If  $0 < 1$ , then  $1 = 0 + 1 < 1 + 1 = 0$ , which is a contradiction. If  $1 < 0$ , then  $0 = 1 + 1 < 0 + 1 = 1$ , which is also a contradiction. ■

**Notation.** In an ordered field, we use  $a \leq b$  to denote either  $a < b$  or  $a = b$ .

## 1.5 Absolute Value and Triangle Inequality

Next, we define the absolute value of a real number

$$|a| = \begin{cases} a, & \text{if } a \geq 0; \\ -a, & \text{if } a \leq 0; \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 1.5.1** (Triangle Inequality).

$$|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$$

for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Corollary 1.5.1.**

$$||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b| \quad \text{and} \quad ||a| - |b|| \leq |a + b|$$

**Proof.** We write

$$|a| = |a - b + b| \leq |a - b| + |b|.$$

Similarly we have

$$|b| \leq |b - a| + |a|.$$

So

$$-|b - a| \leq |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|.$$

Thus,

$$||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|. \quad \blacksquare$$

## 1.6 Supremum and Infimum

Next, we introduce the notion of supremum of a subset of real numbers.

**Definition 1.6.1.** Let  $S$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

- (1) we say  $b$  is an upper bound of  $S$  if  $x \leq b$  for all  $x \in S$ .
- (2) If  $B$  is an upper bound of  $S$ , and no number smaller than  $B$  is an upper bound of  $S$ , then  $B$  is called the supremum or the least upper bound of  $S$ . We write  $B = \sup S$ .

**Corollary 1.6.1.** If  $B = \sup S$ , then

- (1)  $x \in S$  implies  $x \leq B$

(2) If  $b < B$ , then  $b$  is not an upper bound of  $S$ , i.e. there exists  $x_1 \in S$  such that  $b < x_1$ .

**Definition 1.6.2.** Let  $S$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

- (1) we say  $b$  is a lower bound of  $S$  if  $x \geq b$  for all  $x \in S$ .
- (2) If  $\alpha$  is a lower bound of  $S$ , and no number bigger than  $\alpha$  is a lower bound of  $S$ , then  $\alpha$  is called the infimum or the greatest lower bound of  $S$ . We write  $\alpha = \inf S$ .

**Corollary 1.6.2.** If  $\alpha = \inf S$ , then

- (1)  $x \in S$  implies  $x \geq \alpha$
- (2) If  $\alpha < a$ , then  $a$  is not a lower bound of  $S$ , i.e. there exists  $x_1 \in S$  such that  $x_1 < a$ .

**Notation** (Interval Notation).

$$(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

$$(a, b] = \{x \mid a < x \leq b\}$$

$$[a, b) = \{x \mid a \leq x < b\}$$

**Example 1.6.1.**  $S = \{x \mid x < 0\} = (-\infty, 0)$ , then  $\sup S = 0$  but  $\inf S$  does not exist.

**Example 1.6.2.**  $S_1 = \{-1, -2, -3, -4, \dots\} = \{-n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , then  $\sup S = -1$ , but  $\inf S$  does not exist.

**Definition 1.6.3 (Nonempty Sets).** A nonempty set is that a set has at least one element. The empty set, written as  $\emptyset$ , is the set has no elements at all.

**Example 1.6.3.**  $S = \{x \mid x \in \mathbb{Q}, x < \sqrt{2}\}$

In  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\sup S$  does not exist. In  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sup S = \sqrt{2}$ .

**Theorem 1.6.1 (Completeness axiom).** If a nonempty set of real numbers (an ordered field) is bounded above, then it has a least upper bound or  $\sup S$  exists.

**Remark 1.6.1.** This is an extra axiom that can't be derived from the properties of ordered field.

**Remark 1.6.2.** Up to "isomorphism", there is exactly one complete ordered field: the field of real numbers.

**Remark 1.6.3.** From now, we assume  $\mathbb{R}$  satisfies the completeness axiom. Thus, any nonempty subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  that is bounded above, we have  $\sup S$  exists.

We can prove the following property of  $\sup S$ .

**Theorem 1.6.2.** If  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is bounded above, then  $\sup S$  is the unique real number  $B$  such that

- (i)  $x \leq B$  for all  $x \in S$
- (ii) for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exist an  $x_0 \in S$  such that  $B - \varepsilon < x_0$ .

**Proof.** (i), (ii) follows from the definition. We prove the uniqueness. Suppose  $B_1 = \sup S = B_2$ . We want to show  $B_1 = B_2$ . Suppose  $B_1 \neq B_2$ . Then either  $B_1 < B_2$  or  $B_2 < B_1$ . However, if either one is true, then the other one cannot be  $\sup S$ . ■

**Theorem 1.6.3 (Archimedean Property).** If  $p > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then there exists an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $p < n\varepsilon$ .

**Proof.** We prove this contradiction. Suppose it is not true. This implies  $n\varepsilon \leq p$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Consider  $S = \{n\varepsilon \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , then  $p$  is an upper bound of  $S$ , so  $S$  is bounded above by  $p$ , so we know  $B = \sup S$  exists. Hence,  $n\varepsilon \leq B$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so we have  $(n+1)\varepsilon \leq B$ , which means

$$n\varepsilon \leq B - \varepsilon$$

for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . This implies  $B - \varepsilon$  is also an upper bound of  $S$ , which is a contradiction. ■

## 1.7 Density of other number system

**Theorem 1.7.1.** Every nonempty subset of the integers that is bounded below has a least element.

**Proof.** We first introduce an axiom:

**Theorem 1.7.2 (Well-Ordering principle).** Every non-empty subset of the natural numbers has a least element.

**Note 1.7.1.** Here,  $\mathbb{N}$  can be  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  or  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ , which is not that important.

Now we call this subset of integers as  $S$ , and suppose we have  $m$  as a lower bound of  $S$ , then define  $S' = \{s - m \mid s \in S\}$ , then we know  $S'$  is a nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ , then by well-ordering principle we know there is a least element in  $S'$  and thus there is also a least element in  $S$ . ■

**Corollary 1.7.1.** Every nonempty subset of the integers that is bounded above has a greatest element.

**Proof.** Suppose  $M$  is an upper bound, then define a set  $S' = \{M - s \mid s \in S\}$ , then by well-ordering principle we know  $M - a$  is the least element of  $S'$  for some  $a \in S$ , so we have  $M - x \geq M - a$  for all  $x \in S$ , which means  $a \geq x$  for all  $x \in S$  and since  $a \in S$ , so  $a$  is the greatest element of  $S$ . ■

**Theorem 1.7.3.** The set of rational numbers is dense in the real number. That is, if  $a$  and  $b$  are real numbers with  $a < b$ , then there exists a rational number  $\frac{p}{q}$  such that  $a < \frac{p}{q} < b$ .

**Proof.** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $a < b$ . By [Archimedean Property](#),  $\exists q \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $q(b - a) > 1$ . Let  $S = \{m \mid m \text{ is an integer with } m > qa\}$ , since we know  $S \neq \emptyset$  and  $S$  is bounded below. Hence,  $p = \inf S$  exists and is an integer by the last theorem. So  $qa < p$  and  $p - 1 \leq qa$ , which means  $qa < p \leq qa + 1 < qb$ , so we have  $a < \frac{p}{q} < b$ . ■

## Lecture 2

**Definition 1.7.1 (Floor Function).** For any real number  $x$ , the floor function of  $x$  is denoted by  $\lfloor x \rfloor$ , and is defined by the formula  $\lfloor n \rfloor$  if  $n \leq x < n + 1$  where  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Corollary 1.7.2.**

$$\lfloor x \rfloor \leq x < \lfloor x \rfloor + 1.$$

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**Example 1.7.1.**  $\lfloor 3.7 \rfloor = 3$ ,  $\lfloor -1.2 \rfloor = -2$ .

Now by floor function, we can reprove [Theorem 1.7.3](#).

**Theorem 1.7.4** (Density of rational number in real number Again). The set of rational numbers is dense in the real number. That is, if  $a$  and  $b$  are real numbers with  $a < b$ , then there exists a rational number  $\frac{q}{p}$  such that  $a < \frac{q}{p} < b$ .

**Reprove Theorem 1.7.3.** Since  $a < b$ , so we know  $b - a > 0$ . Now by [Archimedean Property](#), we know there exists  $q \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $q(b - a) > 1$ . Let  $p = \lfloor qa \rfloor + 1$ , we have

$$\lfloor qa \rfloor \leq qa < \lfloor qa \rfloor + 1 = p.$$

From our construction,  $qb > qa + 1$ , so we have

$$p = \lfloor qa \rfloor + 1 \leq qa + 1 < qb,$$

hence we have

$$qa \leq p \leq qb.$$

■

**Note 1.7.2.** For some reason,  $p, q$  in [Theorem 1.7.3](#) and [Theorem 1.7.4](#) are reversed.

**Definition 1.7.2** (irrational number).  $x$  is called irrational if  $x$  is not rational.

**Example 1.7.2.**  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

**Theorem 1.7.5.** Let  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ , then

1.  $r + x$  is irrational.
2. If  $r \neq 0$ , then  $rx$  is irrational.

**sketch of proof.**

1. If  $r + x = q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , then  $x = q - r \in \mathbb{Q}$ , contradiction.
2. If  $rx = q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , then  $x = \frac{q}{r} \in \mathbb{Q}$  since  $r \neq 0$ .

■

**Theorem 1.7.6** (irrational number dense in real number). The set of irrational number is dense in real number. That is, if  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a < b$ , then there exists a irrational number  $t$  such that  $a < t < b$ .

**Proof.** By [density of rational number](#), we can find  $a < r_1 < r_2 < b$  where  $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ , and then let  $t = r_1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(r_2 - r_1)$ , then we know

$$a < r_1 < t < r_2 < b.$$

**Note 1.7.3.** We should use [Theorem 1.7.5](#) and the fact that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

■

**Definition 1.7.3 (bounded set).** A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is bounded if there are numbers  $a, b$  s.t.  $a \leq x \leq b$  for all  $x \in S$ .

**Corollary 1.7.3.** A bounded non-empty set in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a unique supremum and a unique infimum and  $\inf S \leq \sup S$ .

## 1.8 Extended real number system

The real number system, together with  $\infty$  and  $-\infty$ , then we have the following properties:

- (a) If  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $a + \infty = \infty + a = \infty$  and  $a - \infty = -\infty + a = -\infty$ , and  $\frac{a}{\infty} = \frac{a}{-\infty} = 0$ .
- (b) If  $a > 0$ , then  $a \cdot \infty = \infty \cdot a = \infty$  and  $a \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot a = -\infty$
- (c) If  $a < 0$ , then  $a \cdot \infty = \infty \cdot a = -\infty$  and  $a \cdot (-\infty) = -\infty \cdot a = \infty$  and  $\infty + \infty = \infty \cdot \infty = (-\infty) \cdot (-\infty) = \infty$  and  $-\infty - \infty = \infty \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot \infty = -\infty$  and  $|\infty| = |-\infty| = \infty$

However, there are some indeterminate form:

**Theorem 1.8.1.** The following things are not defined:

$$\infty - \infty, 0 \cdot \infty, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, \text{ and } \frac{0}{0}.$$

## 1.9 Mathematical Induction

**Theorem 1.9.1 (Peano's Postulate).** The natural numbers satisfy the following properties

- (a)  $\mathbb{N}$  is nonempty.
- (b) For each natural number  $n$ , there exists a unique rational number  $n$  called the successor of  $n$ .
- (c) There exists a natural number  $\bar{n}$  that is not the successor of any natural number.
- (d) Different natural numbers have different successors, that is,  $n \neq m$  implies  $n' \neq m'$ .
- (e) The only subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  that contains  $\bar{n}$  and also contains the successor of every one of its element is  $\mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 1.9.2 (Principle of Mathematical Induction).** Let  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  be propositions, one for each positive integers, such that

- (a)  $p_1$  is true.
- (b) for each positive integer  $n$ ,  $p_n$  implies  $p_{n+1}$ .

then  $p_n$  is true for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $M = \{n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } p_n \text{ is true}\}$ , then from (a) we know  $1 \in M$  and from (b) we know  $n \in M$  implies  $n + 1 \in M$ . Hence, from (e) of [Peano's Postulate](#), we know  $M = \mathbb{N}$ . ■

## Chapter 2

# Metric Space

### 2.1 Definition and examples

**Definition 2.1.1.** Suppose  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $n \geq m$ . We use the notation  $(x_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$  to denote the sequence of numbers

$$x_m, x_{m+1}, \dots$$

We first recall the definition of a convergent sequence.

**Definition 2.1.2 (Convergent Sequence).** We say that a sequence  $(x_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$  of real numbers converges to  $x$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \geq m$  s.t.  $|x_n - x| \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

**Notation.** We write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ .

On  $\mathbb{R}$ , we can define the distance function between two points  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  by  $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ . We'll discuss this more later.

**Lemma 2.1.1.** Let  $(x_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of real numbers, and let  $x$  be another real number, then  $(x_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$  if and only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$ .

**Proof.** Assume  $(x_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be arbitrary real number. By definition, there exists an  $N \geq m$  such that  $|x_n - x| \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ . But  $d(x_n, x) = |x_n - x|$  by the definition. Hence,  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \geq m$  such that  $d(x_n, x) \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ . This implies that  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \geq m$  such that  $|d(x_n, x) - 0| \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ . This implies  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$ .

The proof of the other side is the same but writing the above proof from bottom to top again.

**Definition 2.1.3 (Metric Space).** A metric space  $(X, d)$  is the space of  $X$  of objects (called points), together with a distance function or metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  which associates to each  $x, y$  of points in  $X$  a nonnegative number  $d(x, y) \geq 0$ , the following. Furthermore, the metric must satisfy 4 axioms.

- (a) For any  $x \in X$ ,  $d(x, x) = 0$ .
- (b) (Positivity) For any distinct  $x, y \in X$ , we have  $d(x, y) > 0$ .
- (c) (Symmetry) For any  $x, y \in X$ , we have  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ .
- (d) (Triangle inequality) For any  $x, y, z \in X$ , we have  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ .

**Example 2.1.1.** On  $\mathbb{R}$ , we can define  $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ .

**Proof.** •  $d(x, y) = |x - y| \geq 0$ .

- $d(x, y) = 0$  iff  $|x - y| = 0$  iff  $x = y$ .
- $|x - y| = |y - x|$ , so  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
- $|x - z| \leq |x - y| + |y - z|$  for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ .

⊗

**Example 2.1.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $Y \subseteq X$ , then  $Y$  inherits a natural distance function

$$d|_{Y \times Y} : Y \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

defined by  $d|_{Y \times Y}(\alpha, \beta) = d(\alpha, \beta)$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in Y$ .

**Note 2.1.1.**  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is called a metric subspace of  $(X, d)$ . It is obvious that  $d|_{Y \times Y}$  is a metric on  $Y$ .

Recall  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 2.1.4** ( $l^2$ -metric). The  $l^2$ -metric is defined by

$$d_2(x, y) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (\text{or we called } d_{l_2}(x, y)).$$

**Definition 2.1.5** ( $l^1$ -metric (taxicab metric)). The  $l^1$ -metric is defined by

$$d_1(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i| \quad (\text{or we called } d_{l_1}(x, y))$$

**Definition 2.1.6** ( $l^\infty$ -metric). The  $l^\infty$ -metric is defined by

$$d_\infty(x, y) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i - y_i|$$

**Exercise 2.1.1.** Verify they are all metrics.

**Note 2.1.2.** Actually we have to define inner product and norm first and then we can use the triangle inequality of norm to prove  $d_2$  is a metric. (See lecture notes by professor)

## Lecture 3

**Definition 2.1.7** (Cartesian Product). Let  $A, B$  be sets. The cartesian product of  $A$  and  $B$  is defined by

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}.$$

Similarly, the cartesian product of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is

$$X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots \times X_n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in X_i \forall 1 \leq i \leq n\}.$$

**Definition 2.1.8** (Functions). Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be sets and let  $Y$  be another set. A function of  $n$  variables with codomains is a map  $f : X_1 \times X_2 \times \dots \times X_n \rightarrow Y$  which assigns each  $n$ -tuple  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  with  $x_i \in X_i$  a unique element  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ .

9 Sep. 09:10

**Definition.** We talk about the definition of domain, codomain, and range:

**Definition 2.1.9.** The domain of  $f$  is  $X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots \times X_n$  and  $Y$  is the codomain of  $f$ .

**Definition 2.1.10.** The range of  $f$  is

$$\{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in Y \mid x_i \in X_i \ \forall i\}.$$

In the definition of metric space, we write  $(X, d)$  to emphasize our set  $X$  and  $d$  is a distance function defined on  $X \times X$ , i.e.

$$d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty) \subseteq \mathbb{R},$$

where

$$d : (x, y) \mapsto d(x, y)$$

for  $x, y \in X$ . Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $Y \subseteq X$ . Then  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is also a metric space with distance function defined by

$$d|_{Y \times Y} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

and

$$d|_{Y \times Y} : (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto d(\alpha, \beta) \text{ for } \alpha, \beta \in Y.$$

**Example 2.1.3.** Recall the **Taxi-cab metric**, it can be used in cryptography. For example, for two binary strings, we know

$$d_1((10010), (10101)) = 3 = \text{the number of mismatched bits.}$$

**Example 2.1.4.** Recall the  **$l^\infty$ -metric**. Suppose two jobs where each consists of 3 tasks, and the time (in hours) to complete each task is represented by a vector

$$x = (2, 4, 6), \ y = (3, 7, 5),$$

so

$$d_\infty(x, y) = \max\{|2 - 3|, |4 - 7|, |6 - 5|\} = 3.$$

**Definition 2.1.11 (Lipschitz equivalent metrics).** Let  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  be two metrics on  $X$ . We say  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are Lipschitz equivalent if  $\exists c_1, c_2 > 0$  s.t.

$$c_1 d_1(x, y) \leq d_2(x, y) \leq c_2 d_1(x, y) \quad \forall x, y \in X$$

**Remark 2.1.1.** They will have same topology (defined later).

**Proposition 2.1.1.** For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$d_2(x, y) \leq d_1(x, y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_2(x, y) \tag{2.1}$$

$$d_\infty(x, y) \leq d_2(x, y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_\infty(x, y) \tag{2.2}$$

**Remark 2.1.2.**

$$\begin{aligned} d_\infty(x, y) &\geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} d_2(x, y) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} d_1(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} d_1(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$d_\infty(x, y) \leq d_2(x, y) \leq d_1(x, y).$$

**Remark 2.1.3.**  $d_1, d_2, d_\infty$  are all Lipschitz equivalent.

**proof of Proposition 2.1.1** . Recall  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ , then

$$d_1(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|, \quad d_2(x, y) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

By Cauchy-Schurwatz inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(x, y) &= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i| \\ &\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n 1^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{n} d_2(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Now we show that  $d_1(x, y) \geq d_2(x, y)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} (d_1(x, y))^2 &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i| \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} |x_i - y_i| |x_j - y_j| \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 = d_2(x, y)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have  $d_1(x, y) \geq d_2(x, y)$ .

Now we show that  $d_2(x, y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_\infty(x, y)$ . Note that

$$d_2(x, y) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad d_\infty(x, y) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i - y_i|.$$

For each  $i$ , we know

$$|x_i - y_i| \leq d_\infty(x, y),$$

so

$$d_2(x, y)^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n d_\infty(x, y)^2 = n d_\infty(x, y)^2,$$

so  $d_2(x, y) \leq \sqrt{n} d_\infty(x, y)$ . ■

**Definition 2.1.12 (Discrete metric).** Let  $X$  be any set, define the discrete metric:

$$d_{\text{disc}} : X \times X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$$

where

$$d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x = y; \\ 1, & \text{if } x \neq y. \end{cases}$$

Why this is a metric? Because

- $d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $x, y \in X$  and  $d(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$ .
- $d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) = d_{\text{disc}}(y, x)$  by definition.
- $d_{\text{disc}}(x, z) \leq d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) + d_{\text{disc}}(y, z)$ ?

**proof of triangle inequality in discrete metric.** We first consider the case that  $x = z$ , then

$$d_{\text{disc}}(x, z) = 0,$$

so it is obviously that the triangle inequality is true.

Now if  $x \neq z$ , then either  $y \neq z$  or  $y \neq x$  must happen, so the triangle inequality must be true. ■

**Example 2.1.5.** We can define

$$d(x, x) = 0, \quad d(x, y) = \text{minimal length of a path from } x \text{ to } y,$$

then this is also a metric.



Figure 2.1: Graph metrics

**Definition 2.1.13 (Convergence in metric space).** Let  $m$  be an integer,  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, and let  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of points in  $X$ . Let  $x \in X$ . We say that  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$  with respect to  $d$  iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(X^{(n)}, x) = 0,$$

where  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(X^{(n)}, x) = 0$  iff for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N \geq m$  s.t.  $d(X^{(n)}, x) \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ .

**Notation.** We also write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = x$  in  $(X, d)$ .

**Remark 2.1.4.** Suppose  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$  in  $(X, d)$ , then  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m_1}^{\infty}$  also converges to  $x$  in  $(X, d)$  if  $m_1 \geq m$ .

**Example 2.1.6.** Let  $(X^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  denote the sequence  $X^{(n)} = (\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , then what will this sequence converges to for different metric?

**Proof.**

- If the metric is  $d_1$ , then

$$d_1(X^{(n)}, (0, 0)) = \left| \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right| + \left| \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right| = \frac{2}{n},$$

so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_1(X^{(n)}, (0, 0)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} = 0.$$

- If the metric is  $d_2$ , then

$$d_2 \left( X^{(d)}, (0, 0) \right) = \sqrt{\left( \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right)^2 + \left( \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right)^2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}.$$

Hence, under  $l_2$ -metric  $\{X^{(n)}\}$  also converges to 0.

- If the metric is  $d_\infty$ , then

$$d_\infty \left( X^{(n)}, (0, 0) \right) = \max \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \right|, \left| \frac{1}{n} \right| \right\} = \frac{1}{n},$$

so it also converges to 0.

- If the metric is discrete metric, then however, it will not converges to  $(0, 0)$  since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_{\text{disc}} \left( X^{(n)}, (0, 0) \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_{\text{disc}} \left( \left( \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n} \right), (0, 0) \right) = 1.$$

⊛

**Definition.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function with domain  $X$  and codomain  $Y$ . The range of  $f = \{f(x) \mid x \in X\} \subseteq Y$ .

**Definition 2.1.14 (injective).** We say  $f$  is injective or one-to-one if for all  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  implies  $x_1 = x_2$ .

**Definition 2.1.15 (surjective).** We say  $f$  is surjective or onto if for every  $y \in Y$ ,  $\exists x \in X$  s.t.  $f(x) = y$ .

**Definition 2.1.16 (bijective).** We say  $f$  is bijective if  $f$  is injective and surjective.

**Corollary 2.1.1.** If  $f$  is bijective, then there exists  $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$  defined by  $f^{-1}(y) = x$  if  $f(x) = y$ . We also have

$$\begin{aligned} f(f^{-1}(y)) &= y \quad \forall y \in Y \\ f^{-1}(f(x)) &= x \quad \forall x \in X. \end{aligned}$$

**Example 2.1.7.**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$  in  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$ , where  $d$  is the standard metric in  $\mathbb{R}$ , which is defined by

$$d(x, y) = |x - y|.$$

But in different metric,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}$  may not be 0.

**Proof.** Define  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } 0 < x < 1; \\ 1, & \text{if } x = 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 1. \end{cases}$$

$f$  is bijective on  $[0, 1]$  to  $[0, 1]$



Define another metric  $d^1$  on  $[0, 1]$  by

$$d^1(x, y) = d(f(x), f(y)).$$

We want to show that  $d^1$  is also a metric on  $[0, 1]$ .

- $d^1(x, y) = d(f(x), f(y)) = |f(x) - f(y)| \geq 0$
- $d^1(x, y) = 0$  iff  $f(x) = f(y)$  iff  $x = y$  since  $f$  is injective.
- The triangle inequality is trivially true since we can just use the triangle inequality in  $d$ .

In fact,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1$  in  $([0, 1], d^1)$  since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d^1\left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d\left(\frac{1}{n}, 0\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left|\frac{1}{n}\right| = 0.$$

⊛

## 2.2 Some point set topology of metric space

**Definition 2.2.1 (ball).** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. let  $x_0 \in X$  and  $r > 0$ . We define the ball  $B_{(X, d)}(x_0, r)$  in  $X$ , centered at  $x_0$  and with radius  $r$  in the metric  $d$ , to the set

$$B_{(X, d)}(x_0, r) := \{x \in X \mid d(x_0, x) < r\}.$$

Sometimes, we write it as  $B_X(x_0, r)$  or  $B(x_0, r)$ .

**Example 2.2.1.** In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,

$$B_{(\mathbb{R}^2, d_2)}((0, 0), 1) = \{(x, y) \mid d_2((x, y), (0, 0)) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < 1\},$$

and

$$B_{(\mathbb{R}^2, d_1)}((0, 0), 1) = \{(x, y) \mid d_1((x, y), (0, 0)) = |x| + |y| < 1\},$$

and

$$B_{(\mathbb{R}^2, d_\infty)}((0, 0), 1) = \{(x, y) \mid d_\infty((x, y), (0, 0)) = \max\{|x|, |y|\} < 1\},$$

also we can consider the  $d_{\text{disc}}$  case but I am too lazy to write it down.

**Notation.** Let  $E \subseteq X$ , we will write

$$X \setminus E := \{x \in X \mid x \notin E\}.$$

**Definition.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . For a point  $x_0 \in X$ ,

**Definition 2.2.2 (interior point).**  $x_0$  is an interior point of  $E$  if  $\exists r > 0$  s.t.  $B(x_0, r) \subseteq E$ .

**Definition 2.2.3 (exterior point).**  $x_0$  is an exterior point of  $E$  if  $\exists r > 0$  s.t.  $B(x_0, r) \subseteq X \setminus E$ .

**Definition 2.2.4 (boundary point).**  $x_0$  is a boundary point of  $E$  if it is neither an interior point nor an exterior point of  $E$ .

**Proposition 2.2.1.**  $x_0$  is a boundary point of  $E$  iff for all  $r > 0$ ,  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$  and  $B(x_0, r) \cap (X \setminus E) \neq \emptyset$ .

## Lecture 4

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**Theorem 2.2.1.** Let  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  be metrics on  $X$ , and suppose  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are Lipschitz equivalent, then for any sequence  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=m}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ , then for any  $x \in X$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (X, d_1) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (X, d_2).$$

**Proof.** Since  $d_1, d_2$  are Lipschitz equivalent, so there exists  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  s.t.

$$c_1 d_1(x, y) \leq d_2(x, y) \leq c_2 d_1(x, y).$$

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Given  $\frac{\varepsilon}{c_2} > 0$ , since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x$  in  $(X, d_1)$ , so there exists  $N$  s.t.  $N \geq m$  and

$$d_1(x^{(n)}, x) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{c_2} \text{ for } n \geq N.$$

This implies  $d_2(x^{(n)}, x) \leq c_2 d_1(x^{(n)}, x) \leq \varepsilon$  for  $n \geq N$ , which means

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (X, d_2).$$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Similar. ■

**Remark 2.2.1.** On  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the metrics  $d_1, d_2, d_{\infty}$  are Lipschitz equivalent, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (\mathbb{R}^n, d_1) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (\mathbb{R}^n, d_2) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (\mathbb{R}^n, d_{\infty})$$

**Proposition 2.2.2.** Let  $(X, d_{\text{disc}})$  be a discrete metric space, and  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=m}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \text{ in } (X, d_{\text{disc}}) \Leftrightarrow \exists N \geq m \text{ s.t. } x^{(n)} = x \text{ for } n \geq N.$$

**Proof.** ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Easy.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Given  $\frac{1}{2} > 0$ , there exists  $N \geq m$  s.t.  $d(x_n, x) < \frac{1}{2}$  for  $n \geq N$ , but  $d(x_n, x) < \frac{1}{2}$  implies  $d(x_n, x) = 0$ , which means  $x_n = x$  for all  $n \geq N$ . ■

**Definition.** We define the interior, exterior, and boundary point again.

**Definition 2.2.5.** The set of interior points is denoted by

$$\text{Int}(E) = \{x \in X \mid \exists r > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_X(x, r) \subseteq E\}.$$

**Definition 2.2.6.** The set of exterior points is denoted by

$$\text{Ext}(E) = \{x \in X \mid \exists r > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_X(x, r) \subseteq X \setminus E\}.$$

**Definition 2.2.7.** A point is a boundary points if it is neither an interior point nor an exterior point, and we define

$$\partial E = \{x \in X \mid x \notin \text{Int}(E) \text{ and } x \notin \text{Ext}(E)\}.$$

**Remark 2.2.2.**

1.

$$x_0 \notin \text{Int}(E) \Leftrightarrow \forall r > 0, B_X(x_0, r) \cap (X \setminus E) \neq \emptyset.$$

2.

$$x_0 \notin \text{Ext}(E) \Leftrightarrow \forall r > 0, B_X(x_0, r) \cap (E) \neq \emptyset.$$

3.  $\text{Int}(X \setminus E) = \text{Ext}(E)$ .4.  $\partial E = \partial(X \setminus E)$  since

$$x_0 \in \partial E \Leftrightarrow x \notin \text{Int}(E) \text{ and } \text{Ext}(E) \Leftrightarrow x_0 \notin \text{Int}(E) \text{ and } x_0 \notin \text{Int}(X \setminus E).$$

Also,

$$x_0 \in \partial(X \setminus E) \Leftrightarrow x \notin \text{Int}(X \setminus E) \text{ and } \text{Ext}(X \setminus E) \Leftrightarrow x_0 \notin \text{Int}(X \setminus E) \text{ and } x_0 \notin \text{Int}(E).$$

Hence, acutually  $\partial E = \partial(X \setminus E)$ .**Proposition 2.2.3.**

$$x_0 \in \partial E \Leftrightarrow \text{For any } r > 0, B_X(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B_X(x_0, r) \cap (X \setminus E) \neq \emptyset$$

**Example 2.2.2.** Let  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$  be the usual metric on  $\mathbb{R}$ , where

$$d(x, y) = |x - y|.$$

Then, we know in this space,

$$\begin{aligned} B_{\mathbb{R}}(x_0, r) &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid d(x, x_0) < r\} \\ &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid |x - x_0| < r\} \\ &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid -r + x_0 < x < r + x_0\}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, suppose  $E = [1, 2]$ , then  $\text{Int}(E) = (1, 2)$  since we know  $B(x_0, r) = (x_0 - r, x_0 + r)$ , so for all  $x \in (1, 2)$ , we know there is an open ball  $B(x_0, r) \subseteq [1, 2]$  for some  $r > 0$ . Also, consider the endpoint 1, 2, we can verify that these two points are not interior points. Besides, consider the points not in  $[1, 2]$ , it is trivial that they cannot be interior points.

**Example 2.2.3.** We consider  $(X, d_{\text{disc}})$ . Let  $E \subseteq X$ . If  $x \in E$ , we know

$$B\left(x, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \left\{y \mid d(y, x) < \frac{1}{2}\right\} = \{x\} \subseteq E.$$

Hence,  $E \subseteq \text{Int}(E)$ . Besides, for all  $x \in \text{Int}(E)$ , we know there exists  $r > 0$  s.t.  $B(x_0, r) \subseteq E$ , also we know  $x_0 \in B(x_0, r) \subseteq E$ , so  $x_0 \in E$ , and thus  $\text{Int}(E) \subseteq E$ . Hence,  $E = \text{Int}(E)$ . Similarly,  $\text{Int}(X \setminus E) = X \setminus E$ . Suppose there is a  $x \in X$  s.t.  $x \in \partial E$ , then  $x \notin \text{Int}(E) = E$  and  $x \notin \text{Ext}(E) = \text{Int}(X \setminus E) = X \setminus E$ , so such  $x$  does not exist.

**Definition 2.2.8 (Closure).** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, and let  $E \subseteq X$  and  $x_0 \in X$ . We say  $x_0$  is a adherent point of  $E$  if for every  $r > 0$ ,  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ . The set of adherent points is called the closure of  $E$ , and denoted by  $\overline{E}$ .

**Proposition 2.2.4 (TFAE).**(a)  $x_0$  is an adherent point of  $E$ .

- (b)  $x_0$  is either an interior point or a boundary point of  $E$ .  
 (c)  $\exists$  a sequence  $\{X^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $E$  which converges to  $x_0$  in  $(X, d)$ .

**proof from (a) to (b).** Suppose  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$ , then  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$  for all  $r > 0$ . If  $\exists s > 0$  s.t.  $B(x_0, s) \subseteq E$ , then  $x_0 \in \text{Int}(E)$ . If such  $s$  does not exist, then we know

$$B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B(x_0, r) \cap (X \setminus E) \neq \emptyset \text{ for all } r > 0,$$

so we can use [Proposition 2.2.1](#) to conclude that  $x_0$  must be a boundary point. ■

**proof from (b) to (c).** Since either  $x_0 \in \text{Int}(E)$  or  $x_0 \in \partial E$ . If  $x_0 \in \text{Int}(E)$ , then  $x_0 \in E$ , then we can choose  $X^{(n)} = x_0$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . If  $x_0 \in \partial E$ , then given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\exists x_n \in B(x_0, \frac{1}{n}) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ . Hence,  $x_n \in E$  and  $d(x_n, x_0) < \frac{1}{n}$ . Pick such  $x_n$  to form  $\{X^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , then we know this sequence converges to  $x_0$ . ■

**proof from (c) to (a).** Suppose  $\{X^{(n)}\} \subseteq E$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(X^{(n)}, x_0) = 0$ , then we want to show  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$ . Given any  $r > 0$ , choose  $N \geq 1$  s.t.

$$d(X^{(n)}, x_0) < r \text{ when } n \geq N.$$

This implies for  $n \geq N$ ,  $X^{(n)} \in E$  and  $X^{(n)} \in B(x_0, r)$ , so we know  $E \cap B(x_0, r) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $r > 0$ , which means  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$ . ■

**Remark 2.2.3.** The equation (a) and (b) implies  $\overline{E} = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E$ .

**An alternative proof.** Since we know  $X = \text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E$  by [Theorem 2.2.2](#), and  $\overline{E} \subseteq X$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{E} &= \overline{E} \cap X = \overline{E} \cap (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \\ &= (\overline{E} \cap \text{Int}(E)) \cup (\overline{E} \cap \text{Ext}(E)) \cup (\overline{E} \cap \partial E). \end{aligned}$$

Also, notice that

$$\overline{E} \cap \text{Int}(E) = \text{Int}(E) \quad \overline{E} \cap \text{Ext}(E) = \emptyset \quad \overline{E} \cap \partial E = \partial E,$$

so  $\overline{E} = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E$ . ■

**Corollary 2.2.1.**  $\overline{E} = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E$ .

**Theorem 2.2.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . Then,

$$X = \text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E$$

**Remark 2.2.4.**  $\partial E$  could be empty. (See previous example.)

**Corollary 2.2.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . Then

$$\overline{E} = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E = X \setminus \text{Ext}(E).$$

**Lemma 2.2.1.**  $\overline{E} = E \cup \partial E$

**Proof.** We first show that  $E \cup \partial E \subseteq \overline{E}$ . For every point  $x \in E$ , we know  $x \in B(x, r)$  for all  $r > 0$ , so  $B(x, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ . Also, by definition, we know  $\partial E \subseteq \overline{E}$ , so we're done.

Next, we show that  $\overline{E} \subseteq E \cup \partial E$ . For every  $x \in \overline{E}$ , if  $x \in E$ , then  $x \in E \cup \partial E$ . If not, since  $x \in \overline{E}$ , so  $B(x, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$  for all  $r > 0$ . Also, since  $x \notin E$ , and  $x \in B(x, r)$ , so  $B(x, r) \cap (X \setminus E) \neq \emptyset$ ,

otherwise  $x \in B(x, r) \subseteq E$ , which is a contradiction. Now we know for every  $r > 0$ ,  $B(x, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$  and  $B(x, r) \cap (X \setminus E) \neq \emptyset$ , so  $x \in \partial E$ . ■

**Lemma 2.2.2 (Discarded).** If  $x \in \text{Int}(E)$ , then  $x \in E$ . In other words,  $\text{Int}(E) \subseteq E$ .

**Proof.** If  $x \in \text{Int}(E)$ , then there exists  $r > 0$  s.t.  $B(x, r) \subseteq E$ , and thus  $x \in B(x, r) \subseteq E$ , which means  $x \in E$ . ■

**Note 2.2.1.** I thought we need [Lemma 2.2.2](#) to prove [Theorem 2.2.3](#), but I found it needless. Nevertheless, I still want to keep it since I think it is useful in some elsewhere.

**Definition 2.2.9.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . We say  $E$  is closed if  $\partial E \subseteq E$ . We say  $E$  is open if it doesn't contain any boundary points i.e.  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 2.2.3.**  $E$  is closed if and only if  $\overline{E} = E$ .

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} E \text{ is closed} &\Rightarrow \partial E \subseteq E \Rightarrow \overline{E} = E \cup \partial E = E. \\ E = \overline{E} = E \cup \partial E &\Rightarrow \partial E \subseteq E \Rightarrow E \text{ is closed.} \end{aligned}$$

■

**Theorem 2.2.4.**  $E$  is open.  $\Leftrightarrow \text{Int}(E) = E$ .

**proof of  $(\Rightarrow)$ .**  $E$  is open means  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ . Fix  $x \in E$ , since  $x \notin \partial E$ , so  $\exists r > 0$  s.t.  $B(x, r) \cap E = \emptyset$  or  $B(x, r) \cap (X \setminus E) = \emptyset$ . Since  $x \in E$  and  $x \in B(x, r)$ , so  $B(x, r) \cap (X \setminus E) = \emptyset$ , which means  $B(x, r) \subseteq E$ , so  $x \in \text{Int}(E)$ . Now we know  $E \subseteq \text{Int}(E)$ . Also, we know  $\text{Int}(E) \subseteq E$  by [Lemma 2.2.2](#). Hence,  $\text{Int}(E) = E$ . ■

**proof of  $(\Leftarrow)$ .** If  $\text{Int}(E) = E$ , then given any  $x \in E = \text{Int}(E)$ , there exists  $r > 0$  s.t.  $B(x, r) \subseteq E$ . Hence,  $B(x, r) \cap (X \setminus E) = \emptyset$ , so  $x \notin \partial E$ , and thus  $E \cap \partial E = \emptyset$ . ■

**Theorem 2.2.5.** If  $E \subseteq X$ , then  $E$  is open  $\Leftrightarrow X \setminus E$  is closed.

**proof of  $(\Rightarrow)$ .** Since we can write  $X = \text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E$ , and  $E$  is open, so

$$X \setminus E = (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \setminus E = (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \setminus \text{Int}(E) = \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E.$$

by [Theorem 2.2.4](#). Now we want to show that  $\partial(X \setminus E) \subseteq X \setminus E$ , and we know

$$X \setminus E = \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E = \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial(X \setminus E)$$

since  $\partial E = \partial(X \setminus E)$ . Hence, we have  $\partial(X \setminus E) \subseteq X \setminus E$ . ■

**proof of  $\Leftarrow$ .** Suppose  $X \setminus E$  is closed, then  $\partial(X \setminus E) \subseteq X \setminus E$ , and since  $\partial E = \partial(X \setminus E)$ , so  $\partial E \subseteq X \setminus E$ , and thus  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ , which means  $E$  is open. ■

## Lecture 5

**Definition 2.2.10.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space,  $E \subseteq X$  and  $x_0 \in E$ . We say  $x_0$  is an adherent point if for every  $r > 0$ ,  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ , and we denote  $\overline{E}$  to the set of all adherent points.

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**Remark 2.2.5.**  $E \subseteq \overline{E}$ , since given any  $x_0 \in E$  and  $r > 0$ ,  $x_0 \in B(x_0, r)$ , so  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ , and thus  $E \subseteq \overline{E}$ .

**Remark 2.2.6.**  $\partial E \subseteq \overline{E}$ . Given  $x_0 \in \partial E$ , we know for any  $r > 0$ ,  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ , so  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$ .

**Proposition 2.2.5.**  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$  if and only if there exists  $(X^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq E$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)}$  exists and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = x_0$ .

**proof of  $(\Rightarrow)$ .** Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Consider  $B(x_0, \frac{1}{n})$ . We know  $B(x_0, \frac{1}{n}) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ . Choose  $X^{(n)} \in B(x_0, \frac{1}{n}) \cap E$ , then  $d(x_0, X^{(n)}) < \frac{1}{n}$ , which means  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_0, X^{(n)}) = 0$ . Hence, there exists  $(X^{(n)}) \subseteq E$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = x_0$ . ■

**proof of  $(\Leftarrow)$ .** There exists  $N$  s.t.  $X^{(n)} \in B(x_0, r)$  when  $n \geq N$ . Given any  $r > 0$ , since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = x_0$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(X^{(n)}, x_0) = 0$ . Hence, there exists  $N$  s.t.  $d(X^{(n)}, x_0) < r$  when  $n \geq N$ . Hence, when  $n \geq N$ , we have  $X^{(n)} \subseteq B(x_0, r)$ . Since we know  $X^{(n)} \in E$  for all  $n$ , so we know  $B(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ , so  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$ . ■

**Proposition 2.2.6.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ , then

$$X = \text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E.$$

**Corollary 2.2.3.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . Then,

$$\overline{E} = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E = X \setminus \text{Ext}(E) = E \cup \partial E.$$

**Proof.** Since

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{E} &= \overline{E} \cap X = \overline{E} \cap (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \\ &= (\overline{E} \cap \text{Int}(E)) \cup (\overline{E} \cap \text{Ext}(E)) \cup (\overline{E} \cap \partial E) = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E. \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$X \setminus \text{Ext}(E) = (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \setminus \text{Ext}(E) = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E = \overline{E}.$$

Besides, we know  $\text{Int}(E) \subseteq E \subseteq \overline{E}$ , so

$$\overline{E} = \text{Int}(E) \cup \partial E \subseteq E \cup \partial E.$$

Also, by Remark 2.2.5 and Remark 2.2.6, we know  $E \cup \partial E \subseteq \overline{E}$ , so we know  $\overline{E} = E \cup \partial E$ . ■

**Definition 2.2.11.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $E \subseteq X$ . We say  $E$  is open iff  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ . We say  $E$  is closed iff  $\partial E \subseteq E$ .

**Proposition 2.2.7.**

$$E \text{ is open} \Leftrightarrow \text{Int}(E) = E \Leftrightarrow X \setminus E \text{ is closed.}$$

**proof of  $E \text{ is open} \Leftrightarrow \text{Int}(E) = E$ .**

$(\Rightarrow)$  Since  $E$  is open, so  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} E &= E \cap X = E \cap (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \\ &= (E \cap \text{Int}(E)) \cup (E \cap \text{Ext}(E)) \cup (E \cap \partial E) = \text{Int}(E) \cup (E \cap \partial E) = \text{Int}(E) \end{aligned}$$

since  $E \cap \text{Ext}(E) = \emptyset$  and we know  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ .

$(\Leftarrow)$  Since  $\text{Int}(E) = E$ , and  $\text{Int}(E) \cap \partial E = \emptyset$ , so  $E \cap \partial E = \emptyset$ , and thus  $E$  is open.

**proof of  $E$  is open  $\Leftrightarrow X \setminus E$  is closed.**

( $\Rightarrow$ )  $X = \text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E$ , so

$$X \setminus E = (\text{Int}(E) \cup \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E) \setminus \text{Int}(E) = \text{Ext}(E) \cup \partial E = \text{Int}(X \setminus E) \cup \partial(X \setminus E).$$

Hence,  $\partial(X \setminus E) \subseteq X \setminus E$ , which means  $X \setminus E$  is closed.

( $\Leftarrow$ )  $X \setminus E$  is closed, then  $\partial(X \setminus E) \subseteq X \setminus E$ , but  $\partial E = \partial(X \setminus E)$ , so  $\partial E \subseteq X \setminus E$ , and thus  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ .

**Remark 2.2.7.** If  $\partial E = \emptyset$ , then  $E$  is open and closed.

**Definition 2.2.12 (Clopen).** If a set  $S$  is closed and open, then  $S$  is clopen.

**Remark 2.2.8.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, then  $\emptyset$  is clopen, and we can deduce that  $X$  is also clopen since  $X$  is the complement of  $\emptyset$  and we know  $S$  is open iff  $X \setminus S$  is closed.

**Remark 2.2.9.** In  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$ , where  $d$  is the standard metric, then the only clopen set is  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\emptyset$ .

**Remark 2.2.10.** Let  $(X, d_{\text{disc}})$  be the discrete metric space on  $X$ . Let  $E$  be any set, then  $E$  is open and closed. Given  $x_0 \in E$ , we know  $B_{\text{disc}}(x_0, \frac{1}{2}) \subseteq E$ , so  $x_0 \in \text{Int}(E)$ , which means  $E = \text{Int}(E)$ , so  $E$  is open. Now since  $X \setminus E$  is also open, so  $E$  is closed. Thus,  $E$  is clopen.

**Proposition 2.2.8.** The following hold:

- (a)  $E$  is open iff  $E = \text{Int}(E)$ .
- (b)  $E$  is closed iff every convergent sequence  $(X^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $E$ , then the limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} \in E$ .
- (c) Let  $r > 0$ , then
  - (i)  $\overline{B}(x_0, r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) \leq r\}$  is closed.
  - (ii)  $B(x_0, r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) < r\}$  is open.
- (d) Any singleton  $\{x_0\}$  where  $x_0 \in X$  is closed.
- (e)  $E$  is open iff  $X \setminus E$  is closed.
- (f)
  - (i) If  $E_1, \dots, E_n$  are open sets in  $X$ , then  $E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_n$  is open.
  - (ii) If  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  are closed, then  $F_1 \cup \dots \cup F_n$  is closed.
- (g)
  - (i) If  $\{E_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is any collection of open sets in  $X$ , then  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} E_\alpha$  is open.
  - (ii) If  $\{F_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is any collection of closed sets in  $X$ , then  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_\alpha$  is closed.
- (h)
  - (i) If  $E \subseteq X$ , then  $\text{Int}(E)$  is the largest open set that contained in  $E$  i.e.  $\text{Int}(E)$  is open and if  $V \subseteq E$  and  $V$  is open, then  $V \subseteq \text{Int}(E)$ .
  - (ii) If  $E \subseteq X$ , then  $\overline{E}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $E$  i.e.  $\overline{E}$  is closed and if  $E \subseteq K$  and  $K$  is closed, then  $\overline{E} \subseteq K$ .

**proof of (b).**

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Since  $E$  is closed, so  $\overline{E} = E$ , and we know every convergent sequence  $(X^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$  with  $x_0 \in \overline{E}$  by [Proposition 2.2.4](#). Thus, we have  $x_0 \in E$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume that every convergent sequence in  $E$  has its limit in  $E$ . We want to prove that  $E$  is closed, i.e. that  $X \setminus E$  is open.

Take any point  $y \in X \setminus E$ . Suppose, for contradiction, that every ball around  $y$  meets  $E$ . That is, for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a point

$$x^{(k)} \in E \cap B(y, \frac{1}{k}).$$

Then, by construction, we have  $x^{(k)} \rightarrow y$ .

By our assumption, the limit of any convergent sequence from  $E$  must lie in  $E$ . Hence  $y \in E$ , contradicting the fact that  $y \in X \setminus E$ .

Therefore, there must exist some radius  $r > 0$  such that

$$B(y, r) \cap E = \emptyset,$$

which means  $B(y, r) \subseteq X \setminus E$ . Thus every point of  $X \setminus E$  is an interior point, so  $X \setminus E$  is open. Hence  $E$  is closed. ■

**proof of (c).**

(i) To show that  $\overline{B}(x_0, r)$  is closed, it suffices to show that  $X \setminus \overline{B}(x_0, r)$  is open. Note that

$$X \setminus \overline{B}(x_0, r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) > r\}.$$

Let  $y \in X \setminus \overline{B}(x_0, r)$ , then define  $\varepsilon = d(x_0, y) - r > 0$ , then we can similarly prove that  $B(y, \varepsilon) \subseteq X \setminus \overline{B}(x_0, r)$ . Hence,  $X \setminus \overline{B}(x_0, r) = \text{Int}(X \setminus \overline{B}(x_0, r))$ , and thus it is open.

(ii) If  $y \in B(x_0, r)$ , then  $d(x_0, y) < r$ . Let  $\varepsilon = r - d(x_0, y) > 0$ , then we claim that  $B(y, \varepsilon) \subseteq B(x_0, r)$ . Given  $z \in B(y, \varepsilon)$ , then  $d(z, y) < \varepsilon$ , then use triangle inequality we know  $z \in B(x_0, r)$ . ■

**proof of (d).** It suffices to show that  $X \setminus \{x_0\}$  is open. Given  $y \in X \setminus \{x_0\}$ , so we can show that

$$B\left(y, \frac{d(y, x_0)}{2}\right) \subseteq X \setminus \{x_0\}.$$

Hence,  $y \in \text{Int}(X \setminus \{x_0\})$ , and thus  $X \setminus \{x_0\}$  is open. ■

**proof of (f).**

(i) Given  $x_0 \in E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \cdots \cap E_n$ , then  $x_0 \in E_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Thus, there exists  $r_i > 0$  s.t.

$$B(x_0, r_i) \subseteq E_i \quad \text{for each } 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Let  $r = \min\{r_1, \dots, r_n\} > 0$ , then we know  $B(x_0, r) \subseteq B(x_0, r_i) \subseteq E_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Hence,  $B(x_0, r) \subseteq E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \cdots \cap E_n$ , and thus  $E_1 \cap \cdots \cap E_n$  is open.

(ii) Now if  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  are closed, then  $X \setminus F_1, \dots, X \setminus F_n$  are open. Since we know  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (X \setminus F_i)$  is open, and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n (X \setminus F_i) = X \setminus \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i \right),$$



so  $X \setminus (\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i)$  is open, which means  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$  is closed. ■

**proof of (g).**

- (i) Suppose  $x_0 \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} E_\alpha$ , then there exists  $\mathcal{B} \in I$  s.t.  $x_0 \in E_{\mathcal{B}}$ . Now since  $E_{\mathcal{B}}$  is open, so there exists  $r_{x_0} > 0$  s.t.

$$B(x_0, r_{x_0}) \subseteq E_{\mathcal{B}} \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in \alpha} E_\alpha.$$

Hence,  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} E_\alpha$  is open.

- (ii)

$$\left( X \setminus \left( \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_\alpha \right) \right) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (X \setminus F_\alpha)$$

is open since  $X \setminus F_\alpha$  is open for all  $\alpha \in I$ , so we have  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_\alpha$  is closed.

**Remark 2.2.11.**

- (1)  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} E_\alpha$  may NOT be open. For example,

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n} \right) = \{0\},$$

which is closed.

- (2)  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} F_\alpha$  may NOT be closed. For example,

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \left[ -1 + \frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right] = (-1, 1),$$

which is open.

**Note 2.2.2.** In the proof of (f), if the index set  $I$  is infinite, then we can not pick  $\min \{r_1, \dots, r_n\}$ , so we can not deduce that (f) is correct when there infinitely many open sets or closed sets. ■

**proof of (h).**

- (i) We first claim that  $\text{Int}(E)$  is open.

**Proof.** Since for all  $x \in \text{Int}(E)$ ,  $\exists r_x > 0$  s.t.  $B(x, r_x) \subseteq E$ , so

$$\text{Int}(E) = \bigcup_{x \in \text{Int}(E)} B(x, r_x),$$

and by (ii) of (c) and (i) of (g) in [Proposition 2.2.8](#), we know  $\text{Int}(E)$  is open. ■

Now if we have  $V \subseteq E$  and  $V$  is open, then  $y \in V$  implies there exists  $s > 0$  s.t.  $B(y, s) \subseteq V$ , and thus  $B(y, s) \subseteq E$  since  $V \subseteq E$ . Hence, we know  $y \in \text{Int}(E)$ , and thus  $V \subseteq \text{Int}(E)$ .

- (ii) To show  $\overline{E}$  is closed, it suffices to show that  $X \setminus \overline{E}$  is open. Note that

$$\overline{E} = X \setminus \text{Ext}(E) = X \setminus \underbrace{\text{Int}(X \setminus E)}_{\text{open}},$$

so  $\overline{E}$  is closed. Now if  $E \subseteq K$  and  $K$  is closed, then if  $x \in \overline{E}$ , we have  $B(x, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$  for all  $r > 0$ . Hence,  $B(x, r) \cap K \neq \emptyset$  since  $E \subseteq K$ , so  $x \in \overline{K} = K$  (since  $K$  is closed). Thus,  $\overline{E} \subseteq K$ . ■

## Lecture 6

### 2.3 Relative topology

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Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $Y \subseteq X$ , then  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is also a metric space.

**Example 2.3.1.** Consider  $(\mathbb{R}^2, d_2)$  and  $X = \{(x, 0) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , then on  $(X, d_2|_{X \times X}) = (X, d)$ , it is also a metric space.

**Proof.** Since

$$d((x, 0), (y, 0)) = \sqrt{(x - y)^2 + 0^2} = |x - y|,$$

so it is obvious that  $d$  is a metric.

Note that  $X$  is not open in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Also, if  $E = \{(x, 0) \mid -1 < x < 1\}$ , then  $E$  is not open in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , but  $E$  is open in  $(X, d_2|_{X \times X})$ . ⊛

**Example 2.3.2.** Suppose  $X = (-1, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $(X, d|_{X \times X})$  is a metric space. Consider  $E = [0, 1)$ , then we know  $E$  is not closed in  $(\mathbb{R}, d)$  since  $1 \notin \overline{E}$ . But  $E$  is closed in  $(X, d|_{X \times X})$  since  $\overline{E} = X$  in  $(X, d|_{X \times X})$ .

**Definition 2.3.1 (relatively open/close).** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $Y \subseteq X$ . We say  $E$  is relatively open (resp. closed) in  $Y$  if  $E$  is open (resp. closed) in  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$ .

**Note 2.3.1.** In the following context, if we say  $E$  is open in  $Y$ , then we mean  $E$  is "relatively" open, and if we say  $E$  is closed in  $Y$ , then we mean  $E$  is relatively closed in  $Y$ .

**Note 2.3.2.** If  $Y$  is open/closed in  $E$ , then  $Y \subseteq E$ . Otherwise, we cannot define  $d|_{Y \times Y}(a, b)$  for  $a, b \in E \setminus Y$ .

**Remark 2.3.1.** If  $Y \subseteq X$ , and  $(X, d), (Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  are both metric spaces, then

$$B_Y(x, r) = \{y \in Y \mid d(y, x) < r\} = B_X(x, r) \cap Y.$$

**Remark 2.3.2.** If  $E$  is relatively open in  $Y$ , then given  $x_0 \in E$ ,  $\exists r_0 > 0$  s.t.  $B_X(x_0, r_0) \cap Y \subseteq E$ . This is because by [Remark 2.3.1](#), we have

$$B_X(x_0, r_0) \cap Y = B_Y(x_0, r_0) \subseteq E.$$

**Remark 2.3.3.** A set  $E \subseteq Y$  is relatively closed in  $Y$  if given any  $r > 0$  and  $x_0 \in Y$ ,

$$B_Y(x_0, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset,$$

then  $x_0 \in E$ . This is because "closed" gives  $E = \overline{E}_Y$ . Note that this statement is equivalent to

$$\text{If } x_0 \in \overline{E}_Y, \text{ then } x_0 \in E = E_Y.$$

**Proposition 2.3.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, and  $Y \subseteq X$  and  $E \subseteq Y$ , then

- (1)  $E$  is relatively open in  $Y$  iff  $\exists$  open set  $V$  in  $(X, d)$  s.t.  $E = V \cap Y$ .
- (2)  $E$  is relatively closed in  $Y$  iff  $\exists$  closed set  $K$  in  $(X, d)$  s.t.  $E = K \cap Y$ .

**proof of (1).**

- ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Given any  $x \in E$ ,  $\exists r_x > 0$  s.t.  $B_X(x, r_x) \cap Y \subseteq E$ . Let  $V = \bigcup_{x \in E} B_X(x, r_x)$ . Obviously,  $V \cap Y = E$  and  $V$  is open.
- ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $E = V \cap Y$ , then given any  $x \in E$ , since  $V$  is open, so there exists  $r > 0$  s.t.  $B_X(x, r) \subseteq V$ , and then  $B_X(x, r) \cap Y \subseteq V \cap Y = E$ . Since  $x$  is an interior point of  $E$  in  $Y$ , so  $\text{Int}_Y(E) = E$ , and thus  $E$  is open in  $Y$ . ■

**proof of (2).**

- ( $\Rightarrow$ )  $E$  is relatively closed in  $Y$ , then  $Y \setminus E$  is relatively open, so there exists  $V$  open in  $X$  s.t.  $Y \setminus E = V \cap Y$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} E &= Y \setminus (Y \setminus E) = (X \setminus (Y \setminus E)) \cap Y = (X \setminus (V \cap Y)) \cap Y \\ &= ((X \setminus V) \cup (X \setminus Y)) \cap Y \\ &= ((X \setminus V) \cap Y) \cup ((X \setminus Y) \cap Y) \\ &= (X \setminus V) \cap Y \end{aligned}$$

Let  $E = (X \setminus V) \cap Y = K \cap Y$ , then since  $K = X \setminus V$  is closed in  $X$ , so we're done.

- ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $E = K \cap Y$  for some closed  $K$ , then  $Y \setminus E = (X \setminus K) \cap Y$ , which means  $Y \setminus E$  is relatively open in  $Y$  since  $X \setminus K$  is open and by (a), so  $E$  is closed in  $Y$ . ■

**Example 2.3.3.** Let  $X = [0, 1] \cup [2, 3] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  with the standard metric  $d(x, y) = |x - y|$  with  $x, y \in X$ , then

- (i)  $[0, 1]$  is open and closed in  $X$ .
- (ii)  $\partial_X[0, 1] = \emptyset$ .

**Proof.**

- (i) We want to find  $V$  open in  $\mathbb{R}$  s.t.

$$[0, 1] = V \cap \overbrace{([0, 1] \cup [2, 3])}^X,$$

we can choose  $V = (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$ , so  $[0, 1]$  is open in  $X$ .

We want to find  $K$  closed in  $\mathbb{R}$  and

$$[0, 1] = K \cap ([0, 1] \cup [2, 3]),$$

and we can choose  $K = [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}]$ , so  $[0, 1]$  is closed in  $X$ .

- (ii) If  $x \in \partial_X[0, 1]$ , then  $B_X(x, r) \cap [0, 1]$  and  $B_X(x, r) \cap [2, 3]$  are both nonempty for any  $r > 0$ . However, this is impossible for any  $x$  in  $X$ , so  $\partial_X[0, 1] = \emptyset$ . ⊛

## 2.4 Cauchy sequence and complete metric space

**Definition 2.4.1 (subsequence).** Suppose  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a sequence in  $(X, d)$ . Suppose  $m \leq n_1 < n_2 < \dots$ , then  $(X^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is called a subsequence of  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ .

**Example 2.4.1.**  $X^{(n)} = (-1)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof.**

$$\{X^{(2n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

is a subsequence of  $\{X^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . ⊛

**Lemma 2.4.1.** Let  $\{X^{(n)}\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$  be a convergent sequence with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = x$ , then every subsequence of  $\{X^{(n)}\}_{n=m}^{\infty}$  also converges to  $x$ .

**Definition 2.4.2 (limit points).** Suppose  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a sequence in  $(X, d)$ , then we say  $L$  is a limit point of  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  if for every  $N \geq m$  and every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n \geq N$  s.t.  $d(X^{(n)}, L) \leq \varepsilon$ .

**Proposition 2.4.1.**  $L$  is a limit point of  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  iff there exists a subsequence

$$(X^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$$

converges to  $L$ .

**Proof.**

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Assume  $L$  is a limit point, now we build a subsequence converges to  $L$  by an inductive method. Our goal is to build a subsequence  $\{X^{(n_j)}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  so that

$$d(X^{(n_j)}, L) < \frac{1}{j} \quad \forall 1 \leq j.$$

For  $j = 1$ , pick  $N = m$ , and pick  $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{1}$  to pick  $n_1 \geq N$  s.t.

$$d(X^{(n_1)}, L) \leq \varepsilon < \frac{1}{1}.$$

Now suppose  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{k-1}$  are all chosen, then now we can pick  $N = n_{k-1} + 1$  and  $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{k}$ , so that we can pick  $n_k \geq N$  s.t.  $d(X^{(n_k)}, L) \leq \varepsilon < \frac{1}{k}$ , so we're done. Now we show that this subsequence converges to  $L$ . For every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we know there exists  $0 < \frac{1}{k} < \varepsilon$ , so for all  $K \geq k$ , we have

$$d(X^{(K)}, L) < \frac{1}{K} \leq \frac{1}{k} < \varepsilon,$$

so we're done.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Left as exercise to the reader. ■

**Proposition 2.4.2.**  $L$  is a limit point iff  $L \in \bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} \overline{S_N}$  where  $S_N = \{X^{(K)}\}_{K \geq N}$ .

**Definition 2.4.3 (Cauchy sequence).** Let  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in  $(X, d)$ . We say this sequence is a Cauchy sequence if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \geq m$  s.t.  $d(X^{(j)}, X^{(k)}) < \varepsilon$  for all  $j, k \geq N$ .

**Lemma 2.4.2.** Suppose  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges in  $(X, d)$ , then  $(X^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$ .

**Proof.** Suppose  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = X_0$ , then for every  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2} > 0$ , there exists  $N \geq m$  s.t.  $d(X^{(n)}, X_0) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for all  $n \geq N$ . If  $j, k \geq N$ , then

$$d(X^{(j)}, X^{(k)}) \leq d(X^{(j)}, X_0) + d(X^{(k)}, X_0) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

■

**Example 2.4.2.** A sequence in  $\mathbb{Q}$  may not converges in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Proof.** See teacher's note.

⊗

**Definition 2.4.4 (Complete space).** A metric space  $(X, d)$  is complete iff every Cauchy sequence converges to some points in  $X$ .

**Remark 2.4.1.**  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then  $(\mathbb{Q}, d)$  is not complete.

**Remark 2.4.2.** The limit of a convergent sequence in metric space is unique. If

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = y \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = z,$$

then suppose by contradiction,  $y \neq z$ . Then,

$$0 \leq d(y, z) \leq d(y, x^{(n)}) + d(z, x^{(n)}).$$

By squeeze theorem, we know  $d(y, z) = 0$  and thus  $y = z$ .

**Proposition 2.4.3.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  be a subspace of  $(X, d)$ . If  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is complete, then  $Y$  is closed in  $X$ .

**Proof.** We want to show that  $Y = \overline{Y}$ , so we want to show for all  $y \in \overline{Y}$ , we have  $y \in Y$ . Now for every  $y \in \overline{Y}$ , then by [Proposition 2.2.4](#), we know there exists a convergent sequence  $\{Y^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $Y$  and converges to  $y$ . However, every convergent sequence is Cauchy, and since  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is complete, so  $\{Y^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges in  $Y$ , which means  $y \in Y$ , and we're done. ■

**Proposition 2.4.4.** If  $(X, d)$  is complete and  $Y \subseteq X$  is closed, then  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is complete.

**Proof.** Given a Cauchy sequence  $(X^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $Y$ , so this is also a Cauchy sequence in  $X$ , so it converges in  $X$ . If  $\exists x_0 \in X$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X^{(n)} = x_0$ . Since  $Y$  is closed, so  $Y = \overline{Y}$ , and by [Proposition 2.2.4](#), we know  $x_0 \in \overline{Y} = Y$ , so  $x_0 \in Y$ , and thus  $(X^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  also converges in  $Y$ . ■

## Lecture 7

Completeness of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $d_2, d_1, d_{\infty}$

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**As previously seen.**  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  are Lipschitz equivalent if  $\exists c_1, c_2 > 0$  s.t.

$$c_1 d_1(x, y) \leq d_2(x, y) \leq c_2 d_1(x, y) \quad \forall x, y \in X.$$

**Theorem 2.4.1.** Suppose  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  are Lipschitz equivalent, then

$$(X, d_1) \text{ is complete} \Leftrightarrow (X, d_2) \text{ is complete.}$$

**Proof.**

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Given any Cauchy sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $(X, d_2)$ , then since  $d_1(x, y) \leq \frac{1}{c_1} d_2(x, y)$ , so  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy in  $(X, d_1)$ . Since  $(X, d_1)$  is complete, so there exists  $x \in X$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \in (X, d_1)$ . However,  $x \in (X, d_2)$ , so  $(X, d_2)$  is complete.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Similar. ■

**Theorem 2.4.2.**  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2)$  is a complete metric space.

**Corollary 2.4.1.** Since  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_2), (\mathbb{R}^n, d_1), (\mathbb{R}^n, d_{\infty})$  are Lipschitz equivalent, so they are all complete by [Theorem 2.4.1](#) and [Theorem 2.4.2](#).

## 2.5 Compact metric space

**Definition 2.5.1 (Compact space).** A metric space  $(X, d)$  is compact iff every sequence in  $(X, d)$  has at least one convergent subsequence converging in  $X$ . A subset  $Y \subseteq X$  is compact if  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is compact. That is,  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is compact if for any sequence  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq Y$ , there exists a subsequence  $(y^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  and  $y \in Y$  s.t.  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y^{(n_k)} = y$ .

**Definition 2.5.2 (Bounded).** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $Y \subseteq X$ . We say  $Y$  is bounded iff for any  $x \in X$ , there exists  $r > 0$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq B_X(x, r)$ .

**Theorem 2.5.1.**

$$Y \text{ is bounded} \Leftrightarrow \exists x_0 \in X \text{ and } R > 0 \text{ s.t. } Y \subseteq B_X(x_0, R).$$

**Proof.** The " $\Rightarrow$ " is easy, so we just prove the other direction. Given any  $x \in X$ , we can choose  $r_x = R + d(x, x_0)$ .

**Claim 2.5.1.**  $Y \subseteq B_X(x, r_x)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $y \in Y$ , we know

$$d(y, x) \leq d(y, x_0) + d(x_0, x) < R + d(x_0, x).$$

Hence,  $y \in B_X(x, r_x)$ . ⊗

**Proposition 2.5.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a compact metric space. Then  $(X, d)$  is complete and bounded. ■

**Proof.**

- We want to show that  $(X, d)$  is complete. Given any Cauchy sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $(X, d)$ , then since  $(X, d)$  is compact, so there exists a compact subsequence  $(x^{(n_k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  in  $X$  s.t.  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n_k)} = x$ . Since  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy sequence and  $(x^{(n_k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x$ . (See [Theorem A.0.1](#))
- Consider  $x_0 \in X$ . Suppose  $X$  is not bounded, then  $B(x_0, n)$  will not contain  $X$  for all  $n$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\exists y^{(n)} \in X \text{ and } y^{(n)} \notin B_X(x_0, n) \text{ i.e. } d(y^{(n)}, x_0) \geq n.$$

Hence,  $\{y^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence in  $(X, d)$  with  $d(y^{(n)}, x_0) \geq n$ . Since  $(X, d)$  is compact, so there exists a convergent sequence  $\{y^{(n_k)}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  and  $y \in X$  s.t.  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y^{(n_k)} = y$ . Hence, there exists  $R > 0$  s.t.  $d(y, y^{(n_k)}) < R$  for all  $k$  which is big enough, but this means

$$n_k \leq d(y^{(n_k)}, x_0) \leq d(y^{(n_k)}, y) + d(y, x_0) < R + d(y, x_0),$$

which is a fixed value, but  $n_k$  can be arbitrary large, so this is a contradiction. ■

**Corollary 2.5.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $Y$  be a compact subset, then  $Y$  is closed and bounded.

**Proof.** Since  $Y$  is a compact subset, so  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is compact. Thus,  $Y$  is bounded by [Proposition 2.5.1](#). Hence,  $\exists y_0 \in Y$  and  $R > 0$  s.t.

$$Y \subseteq B_Y(y_0, R) = B_X(y_0, R) \cap Y \subseteq B_X(y_0, R).$$

Let  $y \in \bar{Y}$ , then  $\exists (y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $Y$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y^{(n)} = y$ . Also, since  $Y$  is compact, so for the convergent sequence  $\{y^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , there is a subsequence  $\{y^{(n_k)}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  and  $y_0 \in Y$  s.t.  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y^{(n_k)} = y_0 \in Y$ . By uniqueness of limit in metric space, we know  $y = y_0$ , and thus  $y \in \bar{Y}$ . Hence,  $\bar{Y} = Y$ . (Actually, by [Lemma 2.4.2](#), we know  $\{y^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is Cauchy, and then by [Theorem A.0.1](#), we know  $y = y_0$ .) ■

**Theorem 2.5.2 (Heine-Borel Theorem).** Let  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d)$  be  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $d = d_2, d_{\infty}, d_1$ , and let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$E \text{ is compact} \Leftrightarrow E \text{ is closed and bounded.}$$

**Proof.**

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Trivial by the corollary.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $E$  is closed and bounded. Given a sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $E$ . By [Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem](#), every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence. Since  $E$  is closed, so  $E = \bar{E}$ , and thus the convergent subsequence converges in  $E$ . Hence,  $E$  is compact. ■

**Remark 2.5.1.** In a metric space, closed and bounded do not imply compact but compact implies closed and bounded.

**Example 2.5.1.** Consider  $(\mathbb{Z}, d_{\text{disc}})$ , then  $\mathbb{Z}$  is bounded since  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq B_{\text{disc}}(0, 2)$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$  is closed in  $\mathbb{Z}$  but  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not compact since any subsequence of  $\{n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  does not converge in  $(\mathbb{Z}, d_{\text{disc}})$ .

**Theorem 2.5.3.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, let  $Y$  be a compact subset of  $X$ . Let  $(V_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A}$  be a collection of open sets in  $X$ , and suppose that  $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha$  (i.e.  $(V_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A}$  covers  $Y$ ). Then, there exists a finite subset  $F \subseteq A$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in F} V_\alpha$ .

**Proof.** We prove by contradiction. Suppose there does not exist a finite subset  $F \subseteq A$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in F} V_\alpha$ . For each  $y \in Y \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha$ ,  $\exists \alpha \in A$  s.t.  $y \in V_\alpha$ . Since  $V_\alpha$  is open, so there exists  $r > 0$  s.t.  $B(y, r) \subseteq V_\alpha$ . Define

$$r(y) = \sup \{r > 0 : B_X(y, r) \subseteq V_\alpha \text{ for some } \alpha \in A\}.$$

Note that  $r(y) > 0$  for all  $y \in Y$ . Now if we pick  $r_0 = \inf \{r(y) : y \in Y\}$ , then  $r_0 \geq 0$ .

- Case 1:  $r_0 = 0$ , there exists  $y^{(n)} \in Y$  s.t.  $0 < r(y^{(n)}) < \frac{1}{n}$ . Thus,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^\infty$  is a sequence in  $Y$ , and since  $Y$  is compact, so there exists a convergent subsequence  $(y^{(n_k)})_{k=1}^\infty$  converging to  $y_0 \in Y$ . Also, there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\alpha \in A$  s.t.  $B_X(y_0, \varepsilon) \subseteq V_\alpha$ . Since  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} d(y^{(n_k)}, y_0) = 0$ , so there exists  $N > 0$  s.t.  $j \geq N$  implies

$$y^{(n_j)} \in B_X\left(y_0, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right).$$

**Claim 2.5.2.** For all  $j \geq N$ ,  $B(y^{(n_j)}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \subseteq B(y_0, \varepsilon)$ .

**Proof.** Suppose  $z \in B(y^{(n_j)}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$ , then  $d(z, y^{(n_j)}) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ , and thus

$$d(z, y_0) \leq d(z, y^{(n_j)}) + d(y^{(n_j)}, y_0) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

⊗

Now since  $B_X(y_0, \varepsilon) \subseteq V_\alpha$ , so for  $j \geq N$ ,  $B(y^{(n_j)}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \subseteq V_\alpha$ , which means

$$r(y^{(n_j)}) \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} > 0.$$

However, this contradicts to the assumption that  $r(y^{(n_j)}) < \frac{1}{n_j}$  for all  $j$ . Hence, Case 1 is impossible.

- Case 2:  $\infty > r_0 > 0$ . We know  $r_0 \leq r(y)$  for all  $y \in Y$  by definition. Hence,  $0 < \frac{r_0}{2} < r(y)$ . This means for each  $y \in Y$ , there exists  $\alpha \in A$  s.t.  $B_X(y, \frac{r_0}{2}) \subseteq V_\alpha$ . Choose a point  $y^{(1)} \in Y$  s.t.  $\exists \alpha_1 \in A$  s.t.  $B_X(y^{(1)}, \frac{r_0}{2}) \subseteq V_{\alpha_1}$ . Since  $V_{\alpha_1}$  cannot cover  $Y$ , so there exists  $y^{(2)} \in Y$  and  $y^{(2)} \notin B_X(y^{(1)}, \frac{r_0}{2}) \subseteq V_{\alpha_1}$ . Hence,  $d(y^{(2)}, y^{(1)}) \geq \frac{r_0}{2}$ . Now we set the induction hypothesis: Suppose there exists  $y^{(1)}, \dots, y^{(k)} \in Y$  and  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in A$  s.t.

$$B_X\left(y^{(j)}, \frac{r_0}{2}\right) \subseteq V_{\alpha_j} \text{ and } d(y^{(i)}, y^{(j)}) \geq \frac{r_0}{2} \quad \forall i \neq j,$$

and  $B_X(y^{(1)}, \frac{r_0}{2}) \cup \dots \cup B_X(y^{(k)}, \frac{r_0}{2})$  cannot cover  $Y$ , then we can find

$$y^{(k+1)} \notin B_X(y^{(1)}, \frac{r_0}{2}) \cup \dots \cup B_X(y^{(k)}, \frac{r_0}{2}),$$

and thus  $d(y^{(k+1)}, y^{(i)}) \geq \frac{r_0}{2}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Also,  $\exists \alpha_{k+1}$  s.t.  $B(y^{(k+1)}, \frac{r_0}{2}) \subseteq V_{\alpha_{k+1}}$ . Now we know  $B(y^{(1)}, \frac{r_0}{2}) \cup \dots \cup B(y^{(k+1)}, \frac{r_0}{2})$  won't cover  $Y$ , then  $\{y^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^\infty$  is a sequence in  $Y$  and  $d(y^{(j)}, y^{(l)}) \geq \frac{r_0}{2}$ . Since  $Y$  is compact, so there exists a subsequence of  $\{y^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^\infty$  which is convergent, but it is impossible, so we have a contradiction.

- Case 3:  $r_0 = \infty$ . If so, then it means  $\inf \{r(y) : y \in Y\} = \infty$ , so  $r(y) = \infty$  for all  $y \in Y$ , otherwise if for some  $y' \in Y$ ,  $r(y')$  is finite, then  $r_0 \leq r(y')$ , and will get a contradiction. Now we have  $r(y) = \infty$  for all  $y \in Y$ . This means for all  $r > 0$ , there exists some  $\alpha \in A$  s.t.



$B_X(y, r) \subseteq V_\alpha$ . Now since  $Y$  is compact, so  $Y$  is bounded, which means for all  $y \in Y$ , there exists  $r_y$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq B_X(y, r_y)$ . However, since  $r(y) = \infty$  and by the previous argument, we know  $B_X(y, r_y) \subseteq V_{\alpha_y}$  for some  $\alpha_y \in A$ , and thus  $Y \subseteq V_{\alpha_y}$ , and thus  $V_{\alpha_y}$  covers  $Y$ , which is a contradiction. ■

## Lecture 8

**Theorem 2.5.4** (Review [Theorem 2.5.3](#)). Let  $Y$  be a compact subset of a metric space  $(X, d)$  and let  $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  be an open cover of  $Y$ . Then  $\exists$  a finite subcover of  $\{V_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  i.e.  $\exists \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in A$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{\alpha_i}$ .

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### Remark 2.5.2.

$Y$  is compact  $\Leftrightarrow$  Any open cover of  $Y$  has a finite subcover.

**Proof.** The  $(\Rightarrow)$  direction is proved. Now we prove the other direction.

**Claim 2.5.3.** If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and for all open cover of  $X$ , there exists finite subcover of  $X$ , then  $X$  is complete.

**Proof.** We will prove this by contradiction, using the definition of compactness (the open cover property).

**1. Assumption** Assume for the sake of contradiction that  $X$  is **compact** but **not complete**. Since  $X$  is not complete, there exists a **Cauchy sequence**  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  in  $X$  that **does not converge** to any point  $p \in X$ .

**2. Constructing the Open Cover** Since  $\{x_n\}$  does not converge to a point  $p \in X$ , for every  $p \in X$ , the point  $p$  is not the limit of the sequence. This means there exists some  $\epsilon_p > 0$  such that the open ball  $B_{\epsilon_p}(p)$  contains only a **finite number of terms** of the sequence  $\{x_n\}$ .

To see why, suppose for a contradiction that there was some  $p \in X$  such that for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , the ball  $B_\epsilon(p)$  contains an infinite number of terms of  $\{x_n\}$ . Let  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  be a subsequence with  $x_{n_k} \in B_{1/k}(p)$ . This subsequence converges to  $p$ . Since  $\{x_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence and has a convergent subsequence, the entire sequence  $\{x_n\}$  must converge to the same limit  $p$ , which contradicts our initial assumption. Therefore, the property holds: for every  $p \in X$ , there is an  $\epsilon_p > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon_p}(p)$  contains  $x_n$  for only finitely many  $n$ .

Consider the collection of open balls  $\mathcal{U} = \{B_{\epsilon_p}(p) : p \in X\}$ . Since the union of these balls covers every point  $p \in X$ ,  $\mathcal{U}$  is an **open cover** of  $X$ :

$$X \subseteq \bigcup_{p \in X} B_{\epsilon_p}(p).$$

**3. Using Compactness to Find a Finite Subcover** Since  $X$  is **compact**, the open cover  $\mathcal{U}$  must have a **finite subcover**. That is, there exist a finite number of points  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k \in X$  such that

$$X \subseteq B_{\epsilon_{p_1}}(p_1) \cup B_{\epsilon_{p_2}}(p_2) \cup \dots \cup B_{\epsilon_{p_k}}(p_k) = \bigcup_{i=1}^k B_{\epsilon_{p_i}}(p_i).$$

**4. Reaching the Contradiction** By the definition of  $\epsilon_{p_i}$ , each ball  $B_{\epsilon_{p_i}}(p_i)$  contains  $x_n$  for only a **finite number** of indices  $n$ . The union of a finite number of finite sets is a finite set. Therefore, the finite union  $\bigcup_{i=1}^k B_{\epsilon_{p_i}}(p_i)$  can contain  $x_n$  for only a finite number of indices  $n$ . However, since this finite union covers all of  $X$  (step 3), it must contain **all** terms of the sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ . Since the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is an infinite set of points, this is a **contradiction**.

The initial assumption that  $X$  is not complete must be false. Thus, every compact metric space is complete. ⊛

Suppose any open cover of  $Y$  has a finite subcover, then given any sequence  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Consider

$$\bigcup_{x \in Y} B_Y(x, 1),$$

then this is an open cover of  $Y$ , and now we know there is a finite subcover

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^k B_Y(x_i, 1)$$

of  $Y$  where  $x_i \in Y$  for all  $i$ . Now since  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has infinitely many terms, so we know for some  $i$ , we have infinitely many terms of  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq B_Y(x_i, 1)$  by Pigeonhole principle. Hence, there are infinitely many terms of  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are in

$$\left\{ y \in Y : 0 \leq d(y, x_i) < \frac{1}{2} \right\} \cup \left\{ y \in Y : \frac{1}{2} \leq d(y, x_i) < 1 \right\}.$$

Thus, again, by Pigeonhold principle we know there are infinitely many terms of  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are in either one of the above two sets. By repeating split the space into half as what we do above, we know for all  $k \geq 0$ , there are infinitely many terms of  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has the following property: Every two terms of these "infinitely many terms" has distance less than  $\frac{1}{2^k}$ . Note that this means we can pick a subsequence of  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  so that it is Cauchy, and since every Cauchy sequence converges in  $Y$  (Since [Claim 2.5.3](#)), so we're done. ■

**Corollary 2.5.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and let  $K_1, K_2, \dots$  be a sequence of nonempty compact subsets of  $X$  s.t.  $K_{i+1} \subseteq K_i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , that is,  $K_1 \supseteq K_2 \supseteq K_3 \supseteq \dots$  for  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} K_i \neq \emptyset.$$

**Proof.** Suppose  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} K_i = \emptyset$ . Since  $K_i$ 's are compact, so they are closed. Also, we have

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (K_1 \setminus K_n) = K_1 \setminus \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} K_n \right) = K_1.$$

Let  $V_i = K_1 \setminus K_i = K_1 \cap K_i^C$ . Note that  $K_i^C$  is open in  $X$ . Hence, we have  $V_i$  is open in  $K_1$ , and thus  $\{V_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  is an open cover of  $K_1$  in  $K_1$ . ( $(K_1, d|_{K_1 \times K_1})$  is compact.) By [Theorem 2.5.3](#), we know there exists  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_l$  with  $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_l$  s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} K_1 &\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^l V_{\alpha_i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^l (K_1 \setminus K_{\alpha_i}) \\ &= K_1 \setminus \bigcap_{i=1}^l K_{\alpha_i} = K_1 \setminus K_{\alpha_l} \end{aligned}$$

since  $K_{\alpha_1} \supseteq K_{\alpha_2} \supseteq \dots \supseteq K_{\alpha_l}$ . However,  $K_{\alpha_l} \subseteq K_1$  and  $K_{\alpha_l} \neq \emptyset$ . Thus, we have a contradiction. ■

**Example 2.5.2.** Consider  $I_1 = [0, 1]$ , and  $I_2 = [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1]$ , and picking  $I_3, I_4, \dots$  with same method, then  $I_{n+1} \subseteq I_n$  for all  $n$  and they are compact, so

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i \neq \emptyset.$$

**Theorem 2.5.5.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

- (a) If  $Y$  is a compact subset of  $X$ , and  $Z \subseteq Y$ , then  $Z$  is compact iff  $Z$  is closed.
- (b) If  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  are a finite collection of compact subsets of  $X$ , then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n Y_i$  are also compact.

**proof of (a).** If  $Z$  is compact, then by [Corollary 2.5.1](#), we know  $Z$  is closed. Now we show that if  $Z$  is closed, then  $Z$  is compact. If  $Z$  is closed, then  $Y \setminus Z$  is open in  $Y$ , then we know

$$Y \setminus Z = V \cap Y$$

for some open set  $V \subseteq Y$ , so note that  $(Y \setminus Z) \subseteq V$ . Now suppose  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$  is an open cover of  $Z$ . Hence, we know  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A} \cup \{V\}$  is an open cover of  $Y$  since the former covers  $Z$  and the latter covers  $Y \setminus Z$ . Now since  $Y$  is compact, so we know for some  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ , there is

$$Y \subseteq \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i} \right) \cup V,$$

and thus we can write

$$Z \subseteq Y \subseteq \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i} \right) \cup V.$$

However, note that  $Z \cap V = \emptyset$  since

$$Z = Y \setminus (Y \setminus Z) = Y \setminus (V \cap Y) = (Y \setminus V) \cup (Y \setminus Y) = Y \setminus V.$$

Hence, we know

$$Z \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_{\alpha_i},$$

and thus for any open cover of  $Z$ , we know there exists a finite subcover of  $Z$ , and we're done. ■

## Chapter 3

# Continuous functions on metric spaces

Suppose  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  are metric spaces. Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function from  $X$  to  $Y$ . Then we want that if  $x \in X$  is close to  $y \in X$ , then, then  $f(x) \in Y$  is close to  $f(y) \in Y$ .

**Definition 3.0.1 (Continuous function).** Let  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. Suppose  $x_0 \in X$ , we will say  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  iff for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t.

$$d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon \quad \text{whereas } d_X(x, x_0) < \delta.$$

We say  $f$  is continuous if  $f$  is continuous at every point  $x \in X$ .

**Definition 3.0.2 (Preimage).** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function from  $X \rightarrow Y$  and  $V \subseteq Y$ . The preimage (inverse image) of  $V$  is

$$f^{-1}(V) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in V\} \subseteq X.$$

**Example 3.0.1.** Suppose  $f(x) = x^2$ , then what is the preimage of  $(1, \infty)$ ?

**Answer.**

$$f^{-1}((1, \infty)) = (-\infty, -1) \cup (1, \infty).$$

⊛

Now we build an equivalent definition of continuity. If  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , then given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$f(x) \in B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \quad \text{whereas } x \in B_X(x_0, \delta).$$

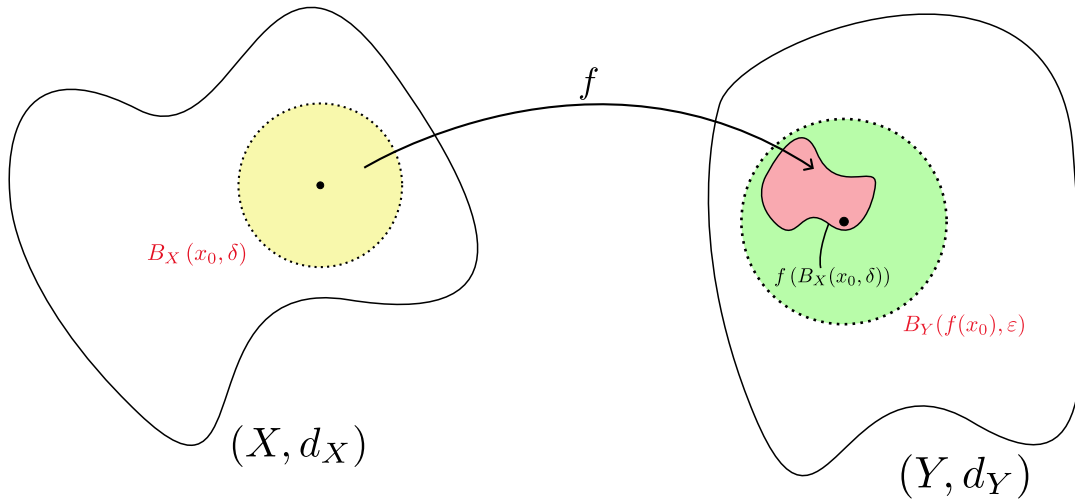
Also,  $f(x) \in B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon)$  if and only if

$$x \in f^{-1}(B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon)).$$

Hence, we have

**Corollary 3.0.1.**  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if and only if

$$\text{Given any } \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_X(x_0, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon)).$$

Figure 3.1: Continuous function from  $(X, d_X)$  to  $(Y, d_Y)$ 

**Remark 3.0.1.** If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous and  $K \subseteq X$ , then  $f|_K : K \rightarrow Y$  is continuous.

**Proof.** Given any point  $x_0 \in K \subseteq X$ . Since  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , so  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon \quad \text{if } d_X(x, x_0) < \delta.$$

If  $z \in K$  and  $d_K(z, x_0) < \delta$ , then  $d_Y(f(z), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$  since  $d_K$  is actually  $d_X$  but intersected to  $K$ , so  $f$  is continuous on  $K$ .  $\circledast$

**Theorem 3.0.1.** Suppose that  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces, and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a function and let  $x_0 \in X$ , then TFAE:

- (a)  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .
- (b) Whenever  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence in  $X$  converges to  $x_0$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0) \text{ in } (Y, d_Y).$$

- (c) For every open set  $V \subseteq Y$  that contains  $f(x_0)$ ,  $\exists$  an open set  $U \subseteq X$  containing  $x_0$  s.t.  $f(U) \subseteq V$ , or equivalently,  $U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ .

**proof of (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b).** Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , since  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , so  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t. if  $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta$ , then  $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$ . Now if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x_0$ . Then there exists  $N > 0$  s.t.  $n \geq N$  implies  $d_X(x^{(n)}, x_0) < \delta$ . Hence, we know  $d_Y(f(x^{(n)}), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$ . Hence, for this  $\varepsilon$ , we know there exists  $N$  s.t.  $n \geq N$  implies  $d_Y(f(x^{(n)}), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$ , and thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0)$ .  $\blacksquare$

**proof of (b)  $\Rightarrow$  (c).** Let  $f(x_0) \in V \subseteq Y$  for some open  $V$ .

**Claim 3.0.1.** There exists an open set  $U$  s.t.  $x_0 \in U \subseteq X$  and  $f(U) \subseteq V$ .

**Proof.** If this is not true, then this implies that for every open set  $U$  with  $x_0 \in U$ , consider  $U_n = B_X(x_0, \frac{1}{n})$  for all  $n$ , then  $\exists x_n \in U_n$  s.t.  $f(x_n) \notin V$ , then pick all of this  $x_n$  to be  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  with  $x^{(n)} \in U_n$  for all  $n$ , we know  $\forall x^{(n)}$  we have  $f(x^{(n)}) \notin V$ . Then,  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a sequence converges to  $x_0$ . By (b), we know  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0) \in V$ . However, by our choice,  $f(x^{(n)}) \notin V$ , so  $f(x^{(n)}) \in Y \setminus V$ . Since  $V$  is open, so  $Y \setminus V$  is closed. Hence, we must have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0) \in Y \setminus V$ , which is a contradiction.  $\otimes$

**proof of (c)  $\Rightarrow$  (a).** Suppose (c) holds, then we want to show  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , which means for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $B_X(x_0, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon))$ . Now consider  $V = B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon) \subseteq Y$ , then by (c) we know there exists open  $U \subseteq X$  s.t.  $x_0 \in U \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ . Now since  $U$  is open and  $x_0 \in U$ , so there exists  $B_X(x_0, \delta) \subseteq U$ , and thus

$$B_X(x_0, \delta) \subseteq U \subseteq f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(B_Y(f(x_0), \varepsilon)),$$

and we're done.  $\blacksquare$

**Theorem 3.0.2.** Suppose  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ , then TFAE

- (a)  $f$  is continuous.
- (b) If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \in (X, d_X)$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x)$  in  $(Y, d_Y)$ .
- (c) If  $V$  is open in  $Y$ , then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ .
- (d) If  $F$  is closed in  $Y$ , then  $f^{-1}(F)$  is closed in  $X$ .

**Note 3.0.1.** (a) says  $f$  is continuous, so it is a statement for every point in  $X$  and [Theorem 3.0.1](#) is a theorem for a single  $x_0 \in X$ .

**(a)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (b).** By [Theorem 3.0.1](#), we know it is true.  $\blacksquare$

**(c) holds iff for every  $x \in X$ , (c) in [Theorem 3.0.1](#) holds.** If we have (c) in [Theorem 3.0.1](#) holding for all  $x \in X$  and we know  $V$  is open in  $Y$ , then for each  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$ , we have  $f(x) \in V$ , so there exists an open set  $u_x$  s.t.  $x \in u_x \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$ . Hence,

$$f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{x \in f^{-1}(V)} u_x.$$

Since  $u_x$  is open, so  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open.

Now if we have (c), then

If  $V$  is open in  $Y$ , then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ .

Now for all open  $V \subseteq Y$  that contains  $f(x_0)$  for some  $x_0 \in X$ , we know  $f(x_0) \in V$ , so  $x_0 \in f^{-1}(V)$ , and since  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , so we can just pick  $U = f^{-1}(V)$ , and we're done since this proof is valid for all  $x_0 \in X$ .  $\blacksquare$

**(c)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (d).** If  $F$  is closed in  $Y$ , then  $Y \setminus F$  is open in  $Y$ , and thus  $f^{-1}(Y \setminus F)$  is open in  $X$ , and since  $f^{-1}(Y \setminus F) = X \setminus f^{-1}(F)$  is open, so  $f^{-1}(F)$  is closed. This is the proof from (c) to (d), and the proof from (d) to (c) is similar.  $\blacksquare$

**Note 3.0.2.** [Theorem 3.0.2](#) is a stronger version of [Theorem 3.0.1](#) since it states the version holding for all  $x$ .

**Remark 3.0.2.** [Theorem 3.0.2](#) tells us that continuity tells us if the image is open/closed, then the preimage is open/closed. However, if  $f$  is continuous, then the image of an open set on  $f$  may not be open, and the image of a closed set on  $f$  may not be closed.

**Example 3.0.2.** Consider  $f(x) = x^2$ , then  $f(-1, 1) = [0, 1)$  is not open.

**Example 3.0.3.** Consider  $f(x) = \arctan(x)$ , then  $f([0, \infty)) = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ .

Now if  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : X \rightarrow Z$ , then consider

$$(f, g) : X \rightarrow Y \times Z \text{ with } x \mapsto (f(x), g(x)),$$

we know  $Y \times Z$  has a natural metric, which is defined as: If  $(y_1, z_1)$  and  $(y_2, z_2)$  are in  $Y \times Z$ , then

$$d_{Y \times Z}((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = d_Y(y_1, y_2) + d_Z(z_1, z_2).$$

**Lemma 3.0.1.** Consider  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  and  $(f, g) : X \rightarrow Y \times Z$ , then  $f$  and  $g$  are both continuous if and only if  $(f, g)$  is continuous.

**Proof.** Suppose  $f, g$  are both continuous, then given  $x \in X$ , we know  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x \in (X, d_X)$  implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x) \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(x^{(n)}) = g(x).$$

**Claim 3.0.2.**

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f, g)(x^{(n)}) = (f, g)(x).$$

**Proof.** Check. ⊗

The other direction is also easy to prove. ■

## Lecture 9

**Corollary 3.0.2.** Let  $(X, d_X)$ ,  $(Y, d_Y)$ , and  $(Z, d_Z)$  be metric spaces.

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- (a) If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in X$ ,  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$  is continuous at  $f(x_0)$ , then  $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .
- (b) If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$  are continuous, then  $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$  is continuous.

**proof of (a).** Fix  $x_0 \in X$ . Since  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x_0 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0) \in Y.$$

Recall  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$ . Since  $g$  is continuous at  $f(x_0) \in Y$ . It follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0) \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(f(x^{(n)})) = g(f(x_0)).$$

Note that this means

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x_0) \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g \circ f)(x^{(n)}) = (g \circ f)(x_0).$$

Hence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x_0 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g \circ f)(x^{(n)}) = (g \circ f)(x_0),$$

which means  $g \circ f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . ■

### 3.1 Continuity and Product Spaces

Given two functions  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : X \rightarrow Z$ , we can define the pairing  $(f, g) : X \rightarrow Y \times Z$  by

$$(f, g)(x) = (f(x), g(x)).$$

**Example 3.1.1.** Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by  $f(x) = x^2 + 3$  and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by  $g(x) = 4x$ , then we can define  $(f, g) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  by

$$(f, g)(x) = (x^2 + 3x, 4x).$$

**Definition 3.1.1 (Product metric).** Let  $(Y, d_Y)$  and  $(Z, d_Z)$  be metric spaces. Define a metric  $d_{Y \times Z}^1$  on  $Y \times Z$  by

$$d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = d_Y(y_1, y_2) + d_Z(z_1, z_2).$$

Also, we can define  $d_{Y \times Z}^\infty$  by

$$d_{Y \times Z}^\infty((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = \max\{d_Y(y_1, y_2), d_Z(z_1, z_2)\}.$$

Finally, we can define

$$d_{Y \times Z}^2((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = \sqrt{(d_Y(y_1, y_2))^2 + (d_Z(z_1, z_2))^2}.$$

**Proposition 3.1.1.** Let  $(Y, d_Y)$  and  $(Z, d_Z)$  be metric spaces, then  $d_{Y \times Z}^1, d_{Y \times Z}^2, d_{Y \times Z}^\infty$  are metrics on  $Y \times Z$ .

**Proof.** Here we only prove  $d_{Y \times Z}^1$  is a metric. For  $(y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2), (y_3, z_3)$  in  $Y \times Z$ .

- $d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = d_Y(y_1, y_2) + d_Z(z_1, z_2) \geq 0$ .
- If  $d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = 0$ , then  $y_1 = y_2 = z_1 = z_2 = 0$ .
- $d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) = d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_2, z_2), (y_1, z_1))$ .
- 

$$\begin{aligned} d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_1, z_1), (y_3, z_3)) &= d_Y(y_1, y_3) + d_Z(z_1, z_3) \\ &\leq d_Y(y_1, y_2) + d_Y(y_2, y_3) + d_Z(z_1, z_2) + d_Z(z_2, z_3) \\ &= d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_1, z_1), (y_2, z_2)) + d_{Y \times Z}^1((y_2, z_2), (y_3, z_3)). \end{aligned}$$

■

**Proposition 3.1.2.**  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (y_n, z_n) = (y, z)$  in  $Y \times Z$  w.r.t.  $d^1, d^2, d^\infty$  iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y \text{ in } (Y, d_Y) \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z \text{ in } (Z, d_Z),$$

**Proof.** We prove the case w.r.t.  $d_{Y \times Z}^\infty$  metric. Since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (y_n, z_n) = (y, z) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_{Y \times Z}^\infty((y_n, z_n), (y, z)) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max\{d_Y(y_n, y), d_Z(z_n, z)\} = 0.$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq d_Y(y_n, y) \leq \max\{d_Y(y_n, y), d_Z(z_n, z)\} \\ 0 &\leq d_Z(z_n, z) \leq \max\{d_Y(y_n, y), d_Z(z_n, z)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by squeeze theorem, we must have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Y(y_n, y) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Z(z_n, z) = 0$ .



If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Y(y_n, y) = 0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Z(z_n, z) = 0$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_{Y \times Z}^\infty((y_n, z_n), (y, z)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max \{d_Y(y_n, y), d_Z(z_n, z)\} = 0.$$

Hence,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (y_n, z_n) = (y, z)$  in  $d_{Y \times Z}^\infty$  metrics. ■

**Theorem 3.1.1.** Let  $(Y, d_Y)$  and  $(Z, d_Z)$  be metric spaces. On  $Y \times Z$ , we have the metric  $d^1, d^2, d^\infty$ . The map  $(f, g) : X \rightarrow Y \times Z$  is continuous iff  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  are both continuous.

**Proof.** If  $(f, g)$  is continuous. Take any sequence  $x^{(n)}$  with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n)} = x$  in  $(X, d_X)$ . Then,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f, g)(x^{(n)}) = (f, g)(x) \in Y \times Z.$$

Recall that  $(f, g)(x^{(n)}) = (f(x^{(n)}), g(x^{(n)}))$ . Hence, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n)}) = f(x) \in (Y, d_Y) \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(x^{(n)}) = g(x) \in (Z, d_Z)$$

by [Proposition 3.1.2](#). Thus,  $f, g$  are both continuous at  $x$ . Since  $x$  can be arbitrary point in  $(X, d_X)$ , so  $f, g$  are both continuous. ■

**Lemma 3.1.1.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be functions, and define  $(f, g) : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ . We give  $\mathbb{R}^2$  the Euclidean metric. Then,  $f, g$  are both continuous iff  $(f, g)$  is continuous.

**Proof.** By [Theorem 3.1.1](#). Choose  $d^2$  on  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ , then  $d^2 = d_2 =$  Euclidean metric. ■

**Lemma 3.1.2.** The following functions are continuous.

- $(x, y) \mapsto x + y$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$
- $(x, y) \mapsto x - y$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$
- $(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$
- $(x, y) \mapsto \max \{x, y\}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$
- $(x, y) \mapsto \frac{x}{y}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(x, 0) : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .
- $x \mapsto cx$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof.** We prove the  $(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y$  case. Define  $M(x, y) = x \cdot y$ . Choose  $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we want to find  $\delta > 0$  s.t.

$$d_2((x, y), (x_0, y_0)) = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2} < \delta \Rightarrow |M(x, y) - M(x_0, y_0)| < \varepsilon.$$

We will choose  $\delta$  later. Now suppose we have chosen some appropriate  $\delta$ , then we have  $|x - x_0|, |y - y_0| < \delta$ . Then,

$$|M(x, y) - M(x_0, y_0)| = |xy - x_0y_0| = |x(y - y_0) + y_0(x - x_0)|.$$

Now we choose some  $\delta \leq 1$ . Then since  $|x - x_0| < \delta \leq 1$ , we have

$$|x| = |x - x_0 + x_0| < |x - x_0| + |x_0| < 1 + |x_0|.$$

Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 |M(x, y) - M(x_0, y_0)| &\leq |x_0||y - y_0| + |y_0||x - x_0| \\
 &< (1 + |x_0|)|y - y_0| + |y_0||x - x_0| \\
 &< (1 + |x_0|)\delta + |y_0|\delta \\
 &= (1 + |x_0| + |y_0|)\delta.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we can choose

$$\delta = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\varepsilon}{1 + |x_0| + |y_0|} \right\},$$

and we will have

$$|M(x, y) - M(x_0, y_0)| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } d_2((x, y), (x_0, y_0)) < \delta.$$

■

**Proof.** Here we prove the  $(x, y) \mapsto \max\{x, y\}$  case. Note that

$$\max\{x, y\} = \frac{x + y + |x - y|}{2}.$$

Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\max\{x, y\} - \max\{a, b\}| &= \left| \frac{x + y + |x - y|}{2} - \frac{a + b + |a - b|}{2} \right| \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} |(x - a) + (y - b) + |x - y| - |a - b|| \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{2} (|x - a| + |y - b| + ||x - y| - |a - b||) \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{2} (|x - a| + |y - b| + |(x - y) - (a - b)|) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (|x - a| + |y - b| + |(x - a) + (b - y)|) \\
 &\leq |x - a| + |b - y|.
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $d_2((x, y), (a, b)) < \delta$ , then  $|x - a| < \delta$  and  $|y - b| < \delta$ . Hence, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can just pick  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ , and then we can show that

$$|\max\{x, y\} - \max\{a, b\}| < \varepsilon.$$

■

**Corollary 3.1.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, and let  $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be functions. Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $f, g$  are continuous on  $X$ , then  $f + g, f - g, f \cdot g, \max\{f, g\}, \min\{f, g\}, cf$  are continuous. Also,  $\frac{f}{g}$  is also continuous at  $x_0$  if  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ .

**Proof.** For example, we know

$$(f + g)(x) = \text{Add} \circ (f, g)(x) = \text{Add}(f(x), g(x)) = f(x) + g(x).$$

Since  $(f, g)$  is continuous and  $\text{Add}$  is continuous, so the composition function  $\text{Add} \circ (f, g)$  is also continuous. ■

## 3.2 Continuity and Compactness

**Theorem 3.2.1.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous function from  $(X, d_X)$  to  $(Y, d_Y)$ . Let  $K \subseteq X$  be

a compact subset of  $X$ . Then

$$f(K) = \{f(x) \mid x \in K\}$$

is also compact in  $Y$ .

**Proof.** Given any sequence  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $f(K)$ , then  $\exists x^{(n)} \in K$  s.t.  $f(x^{(n)}) = y^{(n)}$ . Since  $K$  is compact, then there exists a convergent subsequence  $(x^{(n_k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  s.t.  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n_k)} = x_* \in K$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n_k)}) = f(x_*)$  in  $Y$ . Hence,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y^{(n_k)} = f(x_*) \in f(K)$ . Thus,  $f(K)$  is compact. ■

**Another method.** Let  $\{V_\alpha : \alpha \in A\}$  be any open cover of  $f(K)$  i.e.  $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} V_\alpha$  and  $V_\alpha$  is open in  $Y$ . Hence,

$$K \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} f^{-1}(V_\alpha).$$

Note that since  $f$  is continuous and  $V_\alpha$  is open, so  $f^{-1}(V_\alpha)$  is open by [Theorem 3.0.2](#). Hence,  $\{f^{-1}(V_\alpha) : \alpha \in A\}$  is an open cover of  $K$ . Since  $K$  is compact, then

$$K \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_i})$$

Hence,  $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{\alpha_i}$ , which shows  $f(K)$  is compact. ■

## Lecture 10

**Proposition 3.2.1.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a compact metric space and let  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous map. Then

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(1)  $f$  is bounded on  $X$

(2)  $\exists x_{\max}, x_{\min}$  s.t.

$$f(x_{\max}) = \max_{x \in X} f(x) \quad f(x_{\min}) = \min_{x \in X} f(x).$$

**Proof.** Since  $X$  is compact and  $f$  is continuous, so  $f(X)$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}$  and thus  $f(X)$  is bounded by [Corollary 2.5.1](#). Now since  $\{f(x) \mid x \in X\}$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{R}$ , so  $\exists p_1, p_2$  s.t.  $p_1 \leq f(x) \leq p_2$  for all  $x \in X$ . Let  $M = \sup_{x \in X} f(x)$  and  $P = \inf_{x \in X} f(x)$ . Thus, there exists  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq f(X)$  s.t.  $y_n \leq M$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = M$  for all  $n$ . Hence,  $\exists \{x^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  s.t.  $y_n = f(x^{(n)})$  for all  $n$ . Since  $X$  is compact, so there exists a subsequence  $\{x^{(n_k)}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  s.t.

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(n_k)} = x_* \in X.$$

Since  $f$  is continuous, so  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x^{(n_k)}) = f(x_*)$ , which means  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y^{(n_k)} = f(x_*)$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = M$ , so  $f(x_*) = M$ , and thus  $f(x_*) = \max_{x \in X} f(x)$ . ■

**Example 3.2.1.** This proposition is false if  $X$  is not compact.

**Proof.** Consider  $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f(x) = x$ , then  $f$  can't achieve its sup on  $(0, 1)$ . ⊛

**Definition 3.2.1 (uniformly continuous).** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a map between metric spaces  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$ , we say  $f$  is uniformly continuous if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$d_Y(f(x), f(x')) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } d_X(x, x') < \delta.$$

**Remark 3.2.1.** This  $\delta$  is independent of  $x$ .

**Example 3.2.2.**  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is continuous on  $(0, 1]$ , then  $f$  is not uniformly continuous on  $[0, 1]$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\varepsilon = 10$ . Suppose  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon \text{ if } |x - y| < \delta.$$

We may assume  $\delta < 1$ . Choose  $x = \delta$  and  $y = \frac{\delta}{11}$ , then  $|x - y| = \frac{10}{11}\delta < \delta$ , and

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = \frac{1}{\delta} - \frac{11}{\delta} = \frac{10}{\delta} > 10.$$

⊛

**Theorem 3.2.2.** Suppose  $X$  is compact, then  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous iff  $f$  is uniformly continuous.

**Proof.** If  $f$  is uniformly continuous, then  $f$  is continuous. Now we show the other direction. If  $f$  is continuous, then by contradiction, if it is not uniformly continuous, then  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  s.t. no matter how small  $\delta$  is, then  $\exists p, q$  s.t.  $d_X(p, q) < \delta$  and  $d_Y(f(p), f(q)) \geq \varepsilon$ . Choose  $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$ , then exists  $p^{(n)}, q^{(n)} \in X$  s.t.

$$d_X(p^{(n)}, q^{(n)}) < \frac{1}{n} \text{ and } d_Y(f(p^{(n)}), f(q^{(n)})) \geq \varepsilon.$$

Since  $X$  is compact, so  $\{p^{(n)}\}$  has a convergent subsequence, say

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} p^{(n_k)} = p \in X.$$

Also, there exists  $\{q^{(n_k)}\}$  s.t.  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} q^{(n_k)} = p$  since  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} d_X(p^{(n_k)}, q^{(n_k)}) = 0$ . (By triangle inequality). Thus, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Y(f(p^{(n_k)}), f(q^{(n_k)})) = 0$$

since  $f$  is continuous. Hence, it is a contradiction, since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_Y(f(p^{(n)}), f(q^{(n)})) \geq \varepsilon.$$

■

### 3.3 Connectedness

**Definition 3.3.1** (disconnected/connected). Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. We say  $X$  is disconnected iff  $\exists$  non-empty open  $V, W$  in  $X$  s.t.  $V \cup W = X$  and  $V \cap W = \emptyset$ . Also, we called  $X$  is connected if it is non-empty and not disconnected.

**Remark 3.3.1.**  $X$  is disconnected iff  $X$  has a nonempty proper subset which is both open and closed.

**Proof.**

( $\Rightarrow$ )  $V \cup W = X$  and  $V \cap W = \emptyset$ , so  $X \setminus V = W$  is open, and thus  $V$  is closed. Since we already know  $V$  is open, so  $V$  is a proper subset of  $X$  that is clopen.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $V$  is clopen in  $X$  and  $V \neq X$ . Let  $W = X \setminus V \neq \emptyset$ , then we know  $W$  is open since  $V$  is closed and thus  $V \cup W = X$  and  $V \cap W = \emptyset$  and  $V, W$  are both non-empty open in  $X$ , so  $X$  is disconnected.

■

**Example 3.3.1.** Suppose  $X = [1, 2] \cup [3, 4]$ , then  $X$  is disconnected.

**Proof.** Since

$$[1, 2] = (-\infty, 2.5) \cap X,$$

so  $[1, 2]$  is open in  $X$ , and similarly we can show  $[3, 4]$  is open in  $X$ , and  $[1, 2] \cup [3, 4] = X$ , and  $[1, 2] \cap [3, 4] = \emptyset$ , so  $X$  is disconnected.  $\otimes$

**Definition 3.3.2.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $Y \subseteq X$ . We say  $Y$  is connected (resp. disconnected) iff the metric space  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is connected (resp. disconnected).

**Remark 3.3.2.**  $Y$  is disconnected iff  $\exists U, V$  open in  $X$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq U \cup V$  with  $U \cap Y \neq \emptyset$  and  $V \cap Y \neq \emptyset$  and  $U \cap V \cap Y = \emptyset$ .

**Proof.**

( $\Rightarrow$ ) If  $Y$  is disconnected, then  $\exists$  open sets  $O_1, O_2$  in  $Y$  s.t.  $Y \subseteq O_1 \cup O_2$  and  $O_1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $O_2 \neq \emptyset$  and  $O_1 \cap O_2 = \emptyset$ . Since  $O_1$  is open in  $Y$ , so there exists open set  $U_1$  in  $X$  s.t.  $O_1 = U_1 \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ . Similarly, we know there exists  $U_2$  open in  $X$  s.t.  $O_2 = U_2 \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ . Since

$$Y \subseteq O_1 \cup O_2 = (U_1 \cap Y) \cup (U_2 \cap Y) = (U_1 \cup U_2) \cap Y \subseteq U_1 \cup U_2,$$

and we know

$$\emptyset = O_1 \cap O_2 = (U_1 \cap Y) \cap (U_2 \cap Y) = U_1 \cap U_2 \cap Y.$$

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Choose  $O_1 = U \cap Y$  and  $O_2 = V \cap Y$ . Note that  $O_1, O_2$  are non-empty and open in  $Y$ , and we can easily check that  $O_1 \cup O_2 = Y$  and  $O_1 \cap O_2 = \emptyset$ , so  $Y$  is disconnected.  $\blacksquare$

**Theorem 3.3.1.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous map between metric spaces. Let  $E$  be any connected subset of  $X$ . Then  $f(E)$  is connected in  $Y$ .

**Proof.** Suppose not,  $f(E)$  is disconnected in  $Y$ , then  $\exists$  open set  $U, V$  in  $Y$  s.t.  $f(E) \subseteq U \cup V$  and  $U \cap f(E) \neq \emptyset$  and  $V \cap f(E) \neq \emptyset$  and  $U \cap V \cap f(E) = \emptyset$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, so  $f^{-1}(U)$  and  $f^{-1}(V)$  are both open and non-empty and  $f^{-1}(U) \cap f^{-1}(V) = \emptyset$ , and note that  $E \subseteq f^{-1}(U) \cup f^{-1}(V)$ , so  $E$  is disconnected.  $\blacksquare$

**Theorem 3.3.2.** Let  $X$  be a nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , then TFAE:

- (a)  $X$  is connected.
- (b) Whenever  $x, y \in X$  and  $x < y$ , we have  $[x, y] \subseteq X$ .
- (c)  $X$  is an interval.

**proof from (a) to (b).** Suppose not, then there exists  $z \notin X$  s.t.  $x < z < y$ . Hence, we can pick  $U = (-\infty, z) \cap X$  and  $V = (z, \infty) \cap X$ , then  $U \neq \emptyset$  and  $V \neq \emptyset$  and  $U, V$  both open in  $X$  and  $U \cap V = \emptyset$  and  $X \subseteq U \cup V$ , so  $X$  is disconnected, which is a contradiction.  $\blacksquare$

**proof from (b) to (a).** Suppose not, then  $X$  is disconnected, which means there exists  $V, W$  open in  $\mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $X \subseteq V \cup W$  and  $V \cap X \neq \emptyset$  and  $W \cap X \neq \emptyset$  and  $V \cap W \cap X = \emptyset$ . Fix  $x \in V \cap X$ , and  $y \in W \cap X$ , note that  $x \neq y$  since  $V \cap W \cap X = \emptyset$ . Assume  $x < y$  ( $x > y$  can be proved similarly). By our assumption,  $[x, y] \subseteq X \subseteq V \cup W$ . Consider  $S = [x, y] \cap V$ , then  $x \in S$ , and suppose  $z = \sup S$ .

- Case 1:  $z \in V$ , then  $z < y$ . Since  $V$  is open in  $X$ , so there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  s.t.

$$B(z, \varepsilon) = (z - \varepsilon, z + \varepsilon) \subseteq V,$$

so we know  $[z, z + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}] \subseteq [x, y] \subseteq V$ , which is impossible since  $z = \sup S$ .

- Case 2:  $z \in W$ , and since  $W$  is open in  $X$ , so  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  s.t.  $(z - \varepsilon, z + \varepsilon) \subseteq W$ , so we know  $[z - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}, z] \cap V = \emptyset$  since  $W \cap V = \emptyset$ , which is a contradiction since  $z = \sup S$ .

■

# Appendix

# Appendix A

## Some Extra proof

**Theorem A.0.1.** For a Cauchy sequence  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , if there exists a subsequence  $\{x^{(n_j)}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$ , then  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  also converges to  $x$ .

**Proof.** For all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we know there exists  $N > 0$  s.t.  $j \geq N$  implies

$$d(x^{(n_j)}, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Also, there exists  $N' > 0$  s.t.  $i, j \geq N'$  implies

$$d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Hence, if we pick some  $d \geq N$  and  $n_d \geq N'$ , then we know for all  $n \geq N'$ , we have

$$d(x^{(n)}, x) \leq d(x^{(n)}, x^{(n_d)}) + d(x^{(n_d)}, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon,$$

which means  $\{x^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$ . ■

**Definition A.0.1.** A sequence of intervals  $I_n$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is nested if  $I_n \neq \emptyset$  and  $I_{n+1} \subseteq I_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . ( $I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq \dots$ ).

Now we want to know  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n \neq \emptyset$ ?

Here is some counterexamples. Consider  $I_n = (0, \frac{1}{n})$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We can show that  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \emptyset$  by Archimedean Property. Besides, if  $I_n = [n, \infty)$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , this is trivial that  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = \emptyset$ .

**Theorem A.0.2 (Theorem of nested intervals).** If  $I_n$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is a sequence of bounded closed nested intervals, then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** Write  $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . First, we know  $I_n$  is nested iff  $a_n \leq b_n$  and  $a_n$  is nondecreasing and  $b_n$  is nonincreasing. Hence,  $\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have  $a_n \leq a_{\max\{n, m\}} \leq b_{\max\{n, m\}} \leq b_m$ . In other words, for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $b_m$  is a upper bound of  $\{a_n\}$ . Hence, we know  $c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sup \{a_n\}$  exists. Then,  $c \leq b_m$  for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Also,  $c \geq a_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence,  $a_n \leq c \leq b_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and thus we know  $c \in I_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus,  $c \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ . ■

**Theorem A.0.3 (Bolzano Weierstrass Theorem).** Suppose we have a bounded infinite sequence  $a_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , then  $\exists$  a subsequence  $a_{n(m)}$  such that  $a_{n(m)}$  is convergent.

**Proof.** We just talk about the case  $m = 2$ , and the higher case is similar. Choose  $M > 0$  such that  $a_n \in [-M, M] \times [-M, M]$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose  $[-M, M] \times [-M, M]$  is called  $Q$ . Divide  $Q$  into 4 squares with equal size, and choose one, say  $Q_1$  such that  $|\{n \mid a_n \in Q_1\}| = \infty$ . Select  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{n_1} \in Q_1$ . Repeat this step, that is, divide  $Q_1$  into 4 subparts, then says the one subpart with



infinite many  $a_n$  in it is  $Q_2$  ( $Q_2$  must exist). Select  $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{n_2} \in Q_2$  and  $n_2 > n_1$ . Keep repeating this step, then by [Theorem A.0.2](#) we know

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n \neq \emptyset.$$

**Note A.0.1.** Just think of the nested intervals are in  $x$  and  $y$  directions.

Actually,  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n = \{a\}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , otherwise if there are two points in the intersection, then at some moment we will divide them into different subpart, which is a contradiction. It can be seen that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n(k)} = a$ . ■

## Appendix B

### TA Class