

MATH 320/321 (Real Analysis) Notes

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Introduction:

This set of notes is transcribed from UBC's MATH 320/321 (Real Variables I/II) sequence. The course covers the first 9 chapters of Rudin's "Principles of Mathematical Analysis" with occasional omissions & additions. The numbering of the definitions/theorems/examples will follow that used in Rudin for convenience. The structure of these notes is such that they are split into main text (the boxed elements) and side text (everything else). It is possible to solely read the main text for all of the material, but the additional discussion provided by the side text may be useful.

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1 The Real and Complex Number Systems

1.1 The Naturals, Integers, and Rationals

We begin by a review of number systems which are already familiar.

Definition: The Natural Numbers

The **Naturals**, denoted by \mathbb{N} , is the set $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

For $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$, we have that $x + y \in \mathbb{N}$ and $xy \in \mathbb{N}$, so the naturals are closed under addition and multiplication. However, we note that it is not closed under subtraction; take for example $2 - 4 = -2 \notin \mathbb{N}$.

Definition: The Integers

The **Integers**, denoted by \mathbb{Z} , is the set $\{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

The integers are closed under addition, multiplication, and subtraction. However, it is not closed under division; for example, $1/2 \notin \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition: The Rationals (informal)

The **Rationals**, denoted by \mathbb{Q} , can be defined as $\left\{\frac{m}{n} : m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$, where $\frac{m_1}{n_1}$ and $\frac{m_2}{n_2}$ are identified if $m_1 n_2 = m_2 n_1$.

We note that unlike the naturals/integers, the rationals do not have as obvious of a denumeration. This above is a good definition if we already have the same rigorous idea of what a rational number is in our mind; i.e. it works because we have a shared preconceived understanding of a rational number.

If this is not the case, it may help to define the rational numbers more rigorously/formally (even if the definition may be slightly harder to parse). As a second attempt at a definition, we can say that \mathbb{Q} is the set of ordered pairs $\{(m, n) : m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. However, this is not quite enough as we need a notion of equivalence between two rational numbers (e.g. $(1, 2) = (2, 4)$). Hence, a complete and rigorous definition would be:

Definition: The Rationals (formal)

The **Rationals**, denoted by \mathbb{Q} , is the set $\{(m, n) : m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}\} / \sim$ where $(m_1, n_1) \sim (m_2, n_2)$ if $m_1 n_2 = m_2 n_1$.

Under the formal definition, the rationals are a set of equivalence classes of ordered pairs, under the equivalence relation \sim . We note that the rationals are closed under addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

This formal definition might be slightly harder to parse, so it might be useful to consider an example with a similar flavour. Consider the set $X = \{m \in \mathbb{Z}\} / \sim$ such that $m_1 \sim m_2$ if $m_1 - m_2$ is divisible by 12. This is "clock arithmetic", with equivalence classes $[0], [1], [2], \dots$ for each hour on an analog clock. A fun side note: If instead of 12 we picked a prime number, we would get a field (we will discuss what this is in a later lecture)!

Note that under this definition, $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 4)$ are different representations of the same rational number. With this definition, we would define addition such that $(m_1, n_1) + (m_2, n_2) = (m_1 n_2 + m_2 n_1, n_1 n_2)$. Note that $(2m_1, 2n_2) + (m_2, n_2) = (2m_1 n_2 + 2m_2 n_1, 2n_1 n_2)$ and we can identify $(m_1 n_2 + m_2 n_1, n_1 n_2)$ with $(2m_1 n_2 + 2m_2 n_1, 2n_1 n_2)$. If we choose different representations when we do addition, we might get a different representation in our result, but it will represent the same rational number regardless of the choice of representations we originally chose to do the addition.

A natural question then becomes if the rationals are sufficient for doing all of real analysis. Certainly, it seems as we have a number system that is closed under all our basic arithmetic operations; but is this enough? For example, are we able to take limits just using the rationals? The answer turns out to be no (they are insufficient!) and the following example will serve as one illustration of this fact.

Example 1.1: Incompleteness of the Rationals

There exists no $p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $p^2 = 2$.

We proceed via proof by contradiction. Recall in that these types of proof, we start with a certain wrong assumption, follow a correct/true line of reasoning, reach an eventual absurdity, and therefore conclude that the original assumption was mistaken.

Proof

Let us then suppose for the contradiction that there exists $p = \frac{m}{n}$ with $p^2 = 2$. We then have that not both m, n are even, and hence at least one is odd. Then, we have that $2 = p^2 = \frac{m^2}{n^2}$ and hence $m^2 = 2n^2$, so m^2 is even, implying m is even. So, let us write $m = 2k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $(2k)^2 = 4k^2 = 2n^2$, and hence $2k^2 = n^2$. Therefore, n^2 is even and hence n is even. m and n are therefore both even, a contradiction. We conclude that no such p exists. \square

Why can we conclude that not both m, n are even in the above proof? This is the case as if m, n we both even, then we could write $m = 2m', n = 2n'$ for some m', n' , and then $p = \frac{m}{n} = \frac{2m'}{2n'} = \frac{m'}{n'}$ which we can continue until either the numerator or denominator is odd. A natural question to consider is how to prove that this process of reducing fractions will eventually conclude. The resolution is to invoke the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, and write m, n in terms of their unique prime factorization. We are then able to cancel out factors of 2 from the numerator/denominator until at least one is odd.

We note that this example leads us to conclude that the rationals have certain “holes” in them. This is concerning, as there are sequences of rational numbers that tend to $\sqrt{2}$. Conversely, it's not as concerning that there is no rational number x such that $x^2 = -1$, as there is no such sequence of rational numbers that is “close to” i (note that both $\sqrt{2}$ and i have not yet been defined, but this will come shortly).

Example 1.1: Incompleteness of the Rationals

Let $A = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : p > 0, p^2 < 2\}$, and $B = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : p > 0, p^2 > 2\}$. Then, $\forall p \in A, \exists q \in A$ such that $p < q$, and $\forall p \in B, \exists q \in B$ such that $q < p$.



Figure 1: Visualization of sets A and B . We note that $\sqrt{2}$ has not been defined in our formalism yet, but from our prior mathematical intuition it would be what goes in the “hole” of the rationals.

For the proof of this statement, we consider playing a 2 person game. One person is \forall , one person is \exists , and we consider if one person has a winning strategy. \forall goes first, and then \exists goes next, having seen the choice that \forall has made. Then, we check if indeed $p < q$. If $p < q$, then \exists wins. If $p \not< q$, then \forall wins.

Proof

Let $p \in A$. Then, let $q = \frac{2p+2}{2+p}$. Since $p \in \mathbb{Q}$, it follows that $2p+2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $2+p \in \mathbb{Q}$ so $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. Furthermore, we have that $2p+2 > 0$ and $2+p > 0$, so $q > 0$. We also have that:

$$q^2 = \frac{(2p+2)^2}{(2+p)^2} = 2 + \frac{2(p^2-2)}{(p+2)^2} < 2$$

Where the inequality follows from the fact that $p^2 < 2$ and hence $(p^2-2) < 0$. It therefore follows that $q \in A$. Finally, we have that:

$$q = p + \frac{2-p^2}{2+p} > p$$

so $q > p$, completing the proof of the first part of the claim. The second part is left as an exercise (we note that the same q can be used). \square

The number $q = \frac{2p+2}{2+p}$ seems to be pulled out of a hat, but actually comes from a fairly geometric picture (the secant method of approximating roots). Discussion on this topic can be found here:

<https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/141774/choice-of-q-in-baby-rudins-example-1-1>.

1.2 Ordered Sets

Over the next couple sections, we will be discussing certain properties of sets that will give us a better understanding of the real numbers, and allow us to construct them.

Definition 1.5: Order

An **order** $<$ on a set S is a relation with the following properties:

- (i) For every pair $x, y \in S$, exactly one of $x < y$, $x = y$, or $y < x$ is true.
- (ii) For $x, y, z \in S$, if $x < y$ and $y < z$, then $x < z$.

A point on notation; We note that $x > y$ means $y < x$, and $x \leq y$ means $x < y$ or $x = y$.

Definition 1.6: Ordered Sets

An **ordered set** is a pair $(S, <)$. We may write just S if the order can be inferred by the context.

A familiar (and useful) set of examples is $S = \mathbb{N}$ or $S = \mathbb{Z}$ or $S = \mathbb{Q}$. For these three sets, we have that $x < y$ if $y - x$ is positive. For another example, consider the set S of english words; then the order $<$ can be the dictionary/lexographic order.

Definition 1.7: Upper & Lower Bounds

Let S be an ordered set and $E \subset S$ (for the duration of these notes, we will follow Rudin's notation, with $E \subset S$ as a non-strict subset, and $E \subsetneq S$ as a strict subset). E is **bounded above** if there exists an element $\beta \in S$ such that $\forall x \in E, x \leq \beta$. Any such β is an **upper bound** of E . Similarly, we say that E is **bounded below** if there exists an element $\alpha \in S$ such that $\forall x \in E, \alpha \leq x$. In this case, α is a **lower bound** of E .

As an example, one can take $S = \mathbb{Q}$, $E = A = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : p > 0, p^2 > 2\}$ (as in Example 1.1(b)). Here, E is

bounded above, with $\beta = 2$ as one possible upper bound. to see this is the case, consider that if $p \in E$:

$$2 - p = \frac{4 - p^2}{2 + p} > \frac{4 - 2}{2 + p} > 0$$

However, if we take $S = A$, $E = A$, then E is not bounded above as we saw in the example. There is no upper bound of A in A . In general, this example reveals the subtle point that "the upper bound of a set" is ill-defined; we need to specify $E \subset S$.

1.3 The Least Upper Bound Property

Definition 1.8: Least Upper Bound & Greatest Lower Bound

Let S be an ordered set, and let $E \subset S$ with E bounded above. If $\exists \alpha \in S$ such that:

- (i) α is an upper bound for E
- (ii) If $\gamma < \alpha$, then γ is not an upper bound for E

The α is the **least upper bound**, or **supremum** of E . This can be denoted as $\alpha = \sup(E)$. Analogously, the **greatest lower bound**, or **infimum** of E (denoted $\alpha = \inf(E)$) is an element $\alpha \in S$ (if it exists) such that:

- (i) α is a lower bound for E
- (ii) If $\gamma > \alpha$, then γ is not an upper bound of E .

Theorem

If the supremum/infimum of $E \subset S$ exist, they are unique.

Proof

Let $E \subset S$. Suppose that there exist α_1, α_2 such that $\alpha_1 = \sup(E)$ and $\alpha_2 = \sup(E)$. If $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2$, as α_1 is an upper bound of E , this contradicts the fact that α_2 is the least upper bound of E . We reach an identical contradiction if $\alpha_2 < \alpha_1$. Therefore we conclude that $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$ and the supremum of E is unique (if it exists). The proof for the infimum is analogous. \square

Theorem

If $E \subset S$ has a maximum element α (that is, an element such that $x < \alpha$ for all $x \in E$) then $\alpha = \sup(E)$. Similarly, if E has a minimum element α , then $\alpha = \inf(E)$.

Proof

Let $E \subset S$ and $\alpha = \max(E)$. By definition α is an upper bound of E , and if $x < \alpha$ for some $x \in E$ then x is not an upper bound of E as it is not greater than $\alpha \in E$. The claim follows (with an identical proof for the minimum). \square

Example 1.9

- (a) Consider again the sets $A, B \subset \mathbb{Q}$ from example 1.1. A is bounded above by any element in B , and the upper bounds of A are exactly the elements of B . Since B has no smallest member, A does not have a least upper bound in \mathbb{Q} .
- (b) Let $E_1, E_2 \subset \mathbb{Q}$ such that $E_1 = \{r : \mathbb{Q}, r < 0\}$ and $E_2 = \{r : \mathbb{Q}, r \leq 0\}$. Then $\sup(E_1) = \sup(E_2) = 0$. Note that this example shows that the supremum can either be contained or not contained in the set; $0 \notin E_1$ but $0 \in E_2$.
- (c) Let $E \subset \mathbb{Q}$ such that $E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then $\sup(E) = 1$ and $\inf(E) = 0$. This is proven below.

Proof

$\sup(E) = 1$ immediately follows from the equivalence of the maximum and supremum as proven above. To see that $\inf(E) = 0$, first note that 0 is a lower bound for E as all of the elements of E are positive. To see that it is the lower bound, take any $x > 0$. Then, we have that for any $n > \frac{1}{x}$, $\frac{1}{n} < x$ and hence x is not an upper bound of E . This proves the claim. \square

Definition 1.10: The LUB/GUB Property

An ordered set S has the **least upper bound property** if for every $E \subset S$, if $E \neq \emptyset$ and E is bounded above, then E has a least upper bound (that is, $\sup(E)$ exists in S). Similarly, an ordered set S has the **greatest lower bound property** if for every $E \subset S$, if $E \neq \emptyset$ and E is bounded below, then E has a greatest lower bound.

We will show in the next theorem that these properties are actually equivalent; before then, we briefly consider two examples.

Example

\mathbb{Z} has the least upper bound property, while \mathbb{Q} does not.

Proof

For the first claim, consider any nonempty $E \subset \mathbb{Z}$ that is bounded above. Choose any $x \in E$. Since \mathbb{Z} is bounded above, there exist finitely many elements that are greater than x . Take the maximum of these finitely many elements. This maximum is also the maximum of E , so it is the supremum of E . Therefore \mathbb{Z} has the LUB property as claimed. The second claim immediately follows from Example 1.9(a). \square

Theorem 1.11

Let S be an ordered set. Then S has the LUB property if and only if it has the GUB property.

Proof

\Rightarrow Let S be an ordered set with the LUB property. Let $E \subset S$ with $E \neq \emptyset$, with E bounded below. Let $L = \{x \in S : x \text{ is a lower bound of } E\}$. $L \neq \emptyset$ as E is bounded below (and hence has at least one lower bound). If $y \in E$, then y is an upper bound for L . Since E is nonempty, L is therefore bounded above. Since S has the LUB property, then $\sup(L)$ must exist. Let us call this α . Then, $\alpha \leq x \forall x \in E$ (as if $\gamma < \alpha$, then γ is not an upper bound of L and hence $\gamma \notin E$). Hence, α is a lower bound for E and hence $\alpha \in L$. Since $\alpha = \sup(L)$ and α is an upper bound for L , we have that $\alpha \geq \gamma \forall \gamma \in L$. Thus, $\alpha = \inf(E)$.

\Leftarrow Left as an exercise. □

1.4 Fields and Ordered Fields

Definition 1.12: Fields

A **field** F is a set with two binary operations, $+$ and \cdot (addition and multiplication) such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (A1): If $x, y \in F$, then $x + y \in F$. (Closure under addition)
- (A2): $x + y = y + x$ for all $x, y \in F$. (Commutativity of addition)
- (A3): $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$ for all $x, y, z \in F$. (Associativity of addition)
- (A4): $\exists 0 \in F$ such that $\forall x \in F, 0 + x = x$. (Additive identity)
- (A5): $\forall x \in F, \exists y$ such that $x + y = 0$. We can denote $y = -x$. (Additive inverse)
- (M1): If $x, y \in F$, then $x \cdot y \in F$. (Closure under multiplication)
- (M2): $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$ for all $x, y \in F$.
- (M3): $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ for all $x, y, z \in F$. (Associativity under multiplication)
- (M4): $\exists 1 \in F$ such that $1 \neq 0$ and $\forall x \in F, 1 \cdot x = x$. (Multiplicative identity)
- (M5): $\forall x \in F$, exists $y \in F$ such that $x \cdot y = 1$. We can denote $y = \frac{1}{x}$. (Multiplicative inverse)
- (D): $x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z, \forall x, y, z \in F$. (Distributive law)

Note that A3/M3 show that $x + y + z$ and $x \cdot y \cdot z$ are well defined in a mathematical sense; however, associativity may not hold for computers that do math with finite precision!

Theorem

The additive/multiplicative identities given by (A4)/(M4) and the additive/multiplicative inverses given by (A5)/(M5) are unique.

Proof

Let F be an ordered field. Suppose that there exist $0_1, 0_2 \in F$ such that $0_1 + x = x$ and $0_2 + x = x$ for all $x \in F$. We then have that:

$$\begin{aligned} 0_1 + 0_2 &= 0_1 + 0_2 \\ 0_1 + 0_2 &= 0_2 + 0_1 & (A2) \\ 0_2 &= 0_1 & (\text{Property of additive identity}) \end{aligned}$$

Which shows that the additive identity is unique. The remaining proofs are left as an exercise. \square

Some easy (and familiar) consequences of the field axioms can be found in Rudin 1.14-1.16. Instead of repeating those here, we will discuss some examples.

The rationals form a field (under the usual notions of addition/multiplication), but the integers do not, as there are no multiplicative inverses (e.g. there exists no integer $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $2 \cdot x = 1$). The simplest example of a field is $F = \{0, 1\}$, with the relations:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 + 0 &= 0 & 0 \cdot 0 &= 1 \\ 0 + 1 &= 0 & 0 \cdot 1 &= 0 \\ 1 + 1 &= 0 & 1 \cdot 1 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

This field is often called \mathbb{F}_2 or F_2 , and is useful in computer science (where bits can take on two states, 0 or 1). As a slight tangent, a byte (8 bits) can be considered an element of an 8-dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F}_2 , where $+$ would be the XOR operator and \cdot would be the AND operation.

A generalization of the above example is \mathbb{F}_p or F_p , for a prime number p . This field would consist of the elements $0, 1, \dots, p-1$. The addition and multiplication are carried out mod p . An interesting result is that in general, finite fields must have cardinality of some prime power.

Note that a field cannot have a single element; the field axioms (A4) and (M4) require the existence of distinct additive and multiplicative identities, which a singleton set cannot satisfy.

Although algebra is not the focus of this course, it may be interesting to briefly think about sets with less structure than a field. We start by considering a group.

A **group** G is a set with a binary operation $(a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$ such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (M1): If $a, b \in G$, then $a \cdot b \in G$ (Closure)
- (M3): For $a, b, c \in G$, $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (Associativity)
- (M4): There exists $1 \in G$ such that $\forall x \in G, 1 \cdot x = x$. (Identity)
- (M5): $\forall x \in G$, there exists $y \in G$ such that $x \cdot y = 1$. (Inverse)

We note that \mathbb{Z} is a group under addition, but not under multiplication (due to lack of multiplicative inverses). We can also consider the set of 2×2 matrices with integer entries:

$$G = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

G is again a group under matrix addition, but not under matrix multiplication (as not every matrix in G is invertible). If we restricted G to be the set of 2×2 invertible matrices, in this case it could form a group under matrix multiplication. A set with slightly more structure than a group (though not quite as structured as a field) is a ring:

A **ring** R is a set with two binary operations $(a, b) \mapsto a + b$ and $(a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$ such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (A1): If $x, y \in R$, then $x + y \in R$. (Closure under addition)
- (A2): $x + y = y + x$ for all $x, y \in R$. (Commutativity of addition)
- (A3): $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$ for all $x, y, z \in R$. (Associativity of addition)
- (A4): $\exists 0 \in R$ such that $\forall x \in R, 0 + x = x$. (Additive identity)
- (A5): $\forall x \in R, \exists y$ such that $x + y = 0$. We can denote $y = -x$. (Additive inverse)
- (M1): If $x, y \in R$, then $x \cdot y \in R$. (Closure under multiplication)
- (M3): $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ for all $x, y, z \in R$. (Associativity under multiplication)
- (M4): $\exists 1 \in R$ such that $1 \neq 0$ and $\forall x \in R, 1 \cdot x = x$. (Multiplicative identity)
- (D1): $x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z, \forall x, y, z \in R$. (Left distributivity)
- (D2): $(y + z) \cdot x = y \cdot x + z \cdot x, \forall x, y, z \in R$. (Right distributivity)

Rings have the same axioms as fields under addition, but multiplication is not necessarily commutative (this is why an additional distributivity axiom is added), and multiplicative inverses are not required. We note that \mathbb{Z} and G are both rings under their respective operations of addition and multiplication.

For the remainder of this course, we will really only be discussing fields; however, they will be the objects of interest in abstract algebra courses!

Definition 1.17: Ordered Field

An **Ordered field** is a field F that is also an ordered set, such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (i) If $x, y, z \in F$ and $y < z$, then $x + y < x + z$.
- (ii) If $x, y \in F$ and $x > 0, y > 0$, then $x \cdot y > 0$.

Some properties of ordered fields are discussed in Rudin 1.18. We will again refer the reader to the discussion in the textbook for these properties, and here consider some examples.

\mathbb{Q} is an ordered field, with the familiar order of $a > b$ if $a - b > 0$. A question may arise if \mathbb{F}_2 is an ordered field. A priori fields do not have order, but is it possible to impose an order on this set such that it is an ordered field? The answer turns out to be no.

Proof. It suffices to show that both possible orderings leads to a contradiction. Suppose $0 < 1$. Then, $1 = 0 + 1 < 1 + 1 = 0$ which is a contradiction. Suppose instead that $1 < 0$. Then, $0 = 1 + 1 < 1 + 0 = 1$ which again is a contradiction. \square

Theorem 1.19: Existence of \mathbb{R}

There exists an ordered field \mathbb{R} which has the LUB property and contains \mathbb{Q} as a subfield.

What does it mean for \mathbb{Q} to be a subfield? It means that there exists an injective function $\mathbb{Q} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ that respects the properties of an ordered field.

This field \mathbb{R} happens to be exactly the set of real numbers we are familiar with. However, a natural question is “what does it mean that there exists a field?” It turns out that we can define the reals based on the definitions we have made already. One further question might be that could there not exist several fields with the above property; however, taking the appropriate view, we will find that there is a unique such field.

1.5 Consequences of the LUB Property

We will use the least upper bound property and the fact that \mathbb{R} has \mathbb{Q} as a subfield to derive its properties.

Theorem 1.20: Archimedean Property, Density of Rationals/Irrationals in \mathbb{R}

- (a) If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x > 0$, then $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $nx > y$.
- (b) If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, and $x < y$, then $\exists p \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $x < p < y$. (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})
- (c) If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, and $x < y$, then $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ such that $x < \alpha < y$. ($\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is dense in \mathbb{R})

Proof

(a) Let $A = \{nx : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that the conclusion was false; then y is an upper bound of A . Then, $\alpha = \sup(A)$ exists by the LUB property of \mathbb{R} . Since $x > 0$, we then have that $\alpha - x < \alpha$ by the property of an ordered field. Hence, $\alpha - x$ is not an upper bound for A . Therefore, there exists some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $mx > \alpha - x$. It then follows that $(m+1)x > \alpha$. We therefore have found $m+1 = k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $kx > \alpha$, contradicting α being the least upper bound of A . \square

In order to prove (b) and (c), we first prove a stronger version of 1.20(a):

Lemma

If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x > 0$, then there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(n-1)x \leq y < nx$.

Proof

Suppose $y \geq 0$. Let $A = \{m \in \mathbb{N} : y < mx\} \subset \mathbb{N}$. By Theorem 1.20 (a), we have that $A \neq \emptyset$. Every non-empty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element (to see this, let $x \in A$, and define $A' = \{y \in A : y \leq x\}$. This is finite and nonempty and so has a smallest element, and the minimum element of this set will also be a lower bound and hence the minimum element of all of A), so let $n = \min(A)$. The claim holds for this n . The case for $y < 0$ is left as an exercise. \square

Proof

(b) Since $y - x > 0$, by (a), $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $1 < n(y - x)$. Furthermore, by the Lemma we have that $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $m - 1 \leq nx < m$ and hence $m \leq nx + 1$. From these inequalities we obtain that $nx < m \leq nx + 1 < ny$, and therefore $x < \frac{m}{n} < y$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

For the proof of part (c), we will use the result of Theorem 1.21 from the next section, specifically that there exists $s \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ such that $s > 0$ and $s^2 = 2$. We will call this $\sqrt{2}$.

Proof

(c) First, we have that $\sqrt{2} < 2$ as if $\sqrt{2} = 2$ then $(\sqrt{2})^2 = 2 = 2^2 = 4$ which is a contradiction, and if $\sqrt{2} > 2$ then $2 = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2} > 2 \cdot 2 = 4$ by Rudin 1.18 which is yet again a contradiction. Thus, $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} < 1$.

Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x < y$. By Theorem 1.20(b), there exists $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $x < p < q < y$. Let $\alpha = p + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(q - p)$. Then, we have that $p < \alpha < p + 1(q - p) < q$ and hence $x < p < \alpha < q < y$.

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $\sqrt{2} = 2 \left(\frac{\alpha - p}{q - p} \right) \in \mathbb{Q}$, which is a contradiction, so it follows that $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$. \square

1.6 Integer Roots of the Reals

In this section, we will prove that $\sqrt[n]{x}$ exists and is an irrational number, but we will not use the fact that $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is dense in \mathbb{R} ; this would of course be circular reasoning. The more general idea will be to prove that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $y = x^{1/n}$. Before this, we prove a lemma.

Lemma

If $0 < a < b$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $0 < b^n - a^n \leq nb^{n-1}(b - a)$

Note that a “Calculus proof” of this Lemma would be to let $f(x) = x^n$, and then

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a) = nc^{n-1}(b - a) \leq nb^{n-1}(b - a)$$

Where we invoke the mean value theorem. But this obviously doesn’t work as we have neither defined a derivative nor proven the mean value theorem. A proper proof would be:

Proof

Let $0 < a < b$. Then, we may factor $b^n - a^n$ such that:

$$b^n - a^n = (b - a)(b^{n-1} + ab^{n-2} + a^2b^{n-3} + \dots + a^{n-2}b + a^{n-1})$$

The second factor is a sum of n terms, each positive, and in between 0 and b^{n-1} . Therefore:

$$b^n - a^n \leq nb^{n-1}(b - a)$$

which proves the claim. \square

We will now state the theorem formally:

Theorem 1.21: Integer Roots of the Reals

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x > 0$, and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, there exists a unique $y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $y > 0$ and $y^n = x$.

Note that somewhere in the proof, we will use the fact that $y \in \mathbb{R}$; this statement doesn’t hold for rationals (see Example 1.1) so some property of the reals must come into play somewhere.

Proof

If $n = 1$, then the unique solution is $y = x$; we may therefore assume that $n \geq 2$.

Uniqueness: Suppose there exist two distinct numbers y_1, y_2 with $y_1 > 0, y_2 > 0$, and $y_1^n = y_2^n = x$. WLOG, suppose $0 < y_1 < y_2$. We then have that $0 < y_1^n < y_2^n$ which is a contradiction.

Existence: We prove existence in three steps.

1. We show that $E \neq \emptyset$. Let $E = \{t \in \mathbb{R} : t > 0, t^n < x\}$. If $x < 1$, then $x^n < x$, so $x \in E$. If $x \geq 1$, then $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n < \frac{1}{2} < x$, so $\frac{1}{2} \in E$. Therefore, $E \neq \emptyset$.
2. We show that E is bounded above and has a supremum in \mathbb{R} . If $t > 1 + x$, then it follows that $t^n > t > x$, so $t \notin E$. Hence, $1 + x$ is an upper bound of E . By Theorem 1.19 (the LUB property of \mathbb{R}), it follows that $\sup(E) \in \mathbb{R}$ exists.
3. We show that $y = \sup(E)$ satisfies $y^n = x$. As \mathbb{R} is an ordered field, one of $y^n < x$, $y^n = x$, or $y^n > x$ must be true; we show that the first and third are impossible.
 - (a) Suppose $y^n < x$. We will obtain a contradiction by finding $h > 0$ such that $(y + h)^n < x$. (Why is this a contradiction? $y + h > y$, so if $(y + h)^n < x$, then $y + h \in E$, contradicting the fact that y would be an upper bound of E). WLOG, suppose that $h < 1$. By the above Lemma, we have that:

$$(y + h)^n - y^n \leq n(y + h)^{n-1}h \leq n(y + 1)^{n-1}h$$

By choosing h sufficiently small, that is:

$$h < \min \left\{ 1, \frac{x - y^n}{n(y + 1)^{n-1}} \right\}$$

Then $n(y + 1)^{n-1}h < x^n - y^n$ from which it follows that $(y + h)^n - y^n < x^n - y^n$ and so $y + h < x$, which is the desired contradiction.

- (b) Suppose $y^n > x$. We will obtain a contradiction by finding $h > 0$ such that $(y - h)^n > x$. If this is true, then $y - h$ is an upper bound for E , contradicting the fact that y is the least upper bound for E . WLOG suppose that $h < 0$. Again applying the Lemma, we have that:

$$y^n - (y - h)^n \leq ny^{n-1}h$$

By choosing h sufficiently small, that is:

$$h < \min \left\{ 1, \frac{y^n - x}{ny^{n-1}} \right\}$$

It then follows that:

$$y^n - (y - h)^n \leq ny^{n-1}h < y^n - x$$

and hence $(y - h)^n > x$, which is the desired contradiction. □

1.7 Construction of the Reals

Theorem 1.19 says that there exists an ordered field that contains \mathbb{Q} as a subfield. We now go about proving this statement. The construction is fairly technical and hence will be carried out in multiple steps. Some of the steps are left as exercises (one can refer to Rudin for the fully complete construction).

Step 1: Defining the elements of \mathbb{R}

The members of \mathbb{R} will be proper subsets of \mathbb{Q} , called cuts. $\mathbb{R} = \{\text{all cuts}\}$.

Definition: Cuts

A **cut** is a proper subset $\alpha \subsetneq \mathbb{Q}$ with the three properties:

- (I) $\alpha \neq \emptyset$
- (II) If $p \in \alpha$, then $q \in \alpha \forall q < p$.
- (III) If $p \in \alpha$, then $\exists r \in \alpha$ such that $p < r$.



Figure 2: Visualization of a cut α . The real number being described of this cut can be thought of as the number at the right boundary (the arrow).

In a sense, a cut gives us a way of discussing the real numbers (in the way we are familiar with them already) without referring to them directly; much like we could formally define/refer to rationals as equivalence classes of ordered pairs.

As a note, we could very well define cuts to be bounded below rather than above, and the following construction would still work out.

Step 2: \mathbb{R} is an ordered set

We define $\alpha < \beta$ to mean $\alpha \subsetneq \beta$. We show that this makes \mathbb{R} into an ordered set. First checking transitivity, we have that if $\alpha < \beta$ and $\beta < \gamma$ then $\alpha < \gamma$ by the fact that set inclusion is transitive. Furthermore, at most one of $\alpha < \beta$, $\alpha = \beta$, and $\beta < \alpha$ hold; to see this is the case, suppose the first two fail. Then, $\alpha \not\subsetneq \beta$. Hence, $\exists p \in \alpha$ with $p \notin \beta$. If $q \in \beta$, $q < p$ and hence $q \in \alpha$ by (II), so $\beta \subset \alpha$, and since $\beta \neq \alpha$ it follows that $\beta \subsetneq \alpha$.

Step 3: \mathbb{R} has the LUB property

We show that \mathbb{R} has the LUB property. To see this is the case, let $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ with $A \neq \emptyset$, and suppose that there exists $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ that is an upper bound for A . We will now define $\gamma = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \alpha$ and prove that $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\gamma = \sup A$ (hence A has a supremum and \mathbb{R} has the LUB property).

Since $A \neq \emptyset$, $\exists \alpha_0 \in A$, and since $\alpha_0 \neq \emptyset$ (as it is a cut) and $\alpha_0 \subset \gamma$, it follows that $\gamma \neq \emptyset$. Next, we have that $\gamma \subset \beta$, since $\alpha \subset \beta$ for every $\alpha \in A$, and hence $\gamma \neq \mathbb{Q}$, that is, $\gamma \subsetneq \mathbb{Q}$. Hence γ satisfies property (I) of a cut.

Take $p \in \gamma$. Then $p \in \alpha_1$ for some $\alpha_1 \in A$. If $q < p$, then $q \in \alpha_1$ (as α_1 is a cut) so $q \in \gamma$, satisfying property (II).

Next, choose $r \in \alpha_1$ such that $r > p$, then $r \in \gamma$ (as $\alpha_1 \subset \gamma$) and hence γ satisfies property (III). Hence γ is a cut, and $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$.

Finally, we show that $\gamma = \sup A$. Clearly, $\alpha \leq \gamma$ for all $\alpha \in A$, as $\gamma = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \alpha$, so γ is an upper bound of A . To show that it is the least upper bound, let $\delta < \gamma$ be a cut. Then, $\exists s \in \gamma$ such that $s \notin \delta$. Therefore, $\exists \alpha_2 \in A$ such that $s \in \alpha_2$; hence $\delta < \alpha_2$, so δ is not an upper bound for A , giving the desired result.

Step 4: Addition on \mathbb{R}

Definition: Addition

If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, we define $\alpha + \beta = \{s + t : s \in \alpha, t \in \beta\}$. Showing that this is a cut is left as an exercise.

Definition: Zero

$0^* = \{s \in \mathbb{Q}\}$. Showing that this is a cut is left as an exercise.

We leave it as an exercise to show that the addition axioms (A1)-(A5) of a field are satisfied under this definition of addition on \mathbb{R} , with the 0 element as 0^* defined above.

Step 5: \mathbb{R} satisfies the Ordered Field Property (i)

We verify that if $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta < \gamma$, then $\alpha + \beta < \alpha + \gamma$.

For every $s \in \alpha, t \in \beta$, we have that $t \in \gamma$ as β is a subset of γ by the definition of order on \mathbb{R} . Hence, $s + t \in \alpha + \beta$ implies $s + t \in \alpha + \gamma$. Therefore, $\alpha + \beta \subset \alpha + \gamma$ and hence $\alpha + \beta \leq \alpha + \gamma$.

We are then left to check that $\alpha + \beta \neq \alpha + \gamma$. To see that this is the case, if $\alpha + \beta = \alpha + \gamma$, then $\beta = \alpha + \beta - \alpha = \alpha + \gamma - \alpha = \gamma$ by the field axioms for addition. Therefore we obtain that $\beta = \gamma$, contradicting that $\beta < \gamma$. Hence the claim is proven.

As a remark, note that $0^* < \alpha \iff -\alpha < 0^*$.

Next we will define multiplication on \mathbb{R} . A first attempt would be $\alpha \cdot \beta = \{s \cdot t : s \in \alpha, t \in \beta\}$. However, this definition is inconsistent with negative numbers from what we require multiplication to accomplish. $-1 \cdot -1$ would fail to be a cut (it would not contain any negative numbers and hence fail criteria (II)) and $-1 \cdot 1$ would yield the entirety of the rationals (again not a cut!)

Step 6: Positive Multiplication on \mathbb{R}

Definition: Positive Reals

We define $\mathbb{R}^+ = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{R} : \alpha > 0^*\}$

Definition: Multiplication of Positive Reals

If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$, we define $\alpha \cdot \beta = \{r \cdot s : r \in \alpha, r > 0, s \in \beta, s > 0\} \cup \{t \in \mathbb{Q}, t \leq 0\}$. Equivalently, $\alpha \cdot \beta = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : \exists r \cdot s : r \in \alpha, r > 0, s \in \beta, s > 0\}$. We leave it as an exercise to show that $\alpha \cdot \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, and moreover, $\alpha \cdot \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Showing this second fact proves ordered field property (ii).

Definition: One

$1^* = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} : r < 1\}$. We again leave showing $1^* \in \mathbb{R}^+$ as an exercise.

Step 7: Multiplication on all of \mathbb{R}

Definition: Multiplication by zero

$$\alpha \cdot 0^* = 0^* = 0^* \cdot \alpha$$

Definition: Multiplication

We define general multiplication as below, where the \cdot on the RHS represents the multiplication of positive reals as outlined in Step 5.

$$\alpha \cdot \beta = \begin{cases} (-\alpha) \cdot (-\beta) & \text{if } \alpha < 0^* \text{ and } \beta < 0^* \\ -((-\alpha) \cdot \beta) & \text{if } \alpha < 0^* \text{ and } \beta > 0^* \\ -(\alpha \cdot (-\beta)) & \text{if } \alpha > 0^* \text{ and } \beta < 0^* \end{cases}$$

We leave it as an exercise to show that the multiplicative axioms (M1)-(M5), as well as the distributive law (D) of a field are satisfied under this definition of multiplication on \mathbb{R} .

Up until this point, we have shown \mathbb{R} is an ordered field with the LUB property; we last check that it contains \mathbb{Q} as a subfield. Note that we do have to be a bit careful with what we mean here; \mathbb{R} does not literally contain \mathbb{Q} ; \mathbb{R} is indeed a set of proper subsets of \mathbb{Q} . What we really mean is to associate every element of \mathbb{Q} to an element of \mathbb{R} such that the field structure is preserved.

Step 8: \mathbb{R} contains \mathbb{Q} as a subfield

For each $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, associate the cut $r^* = \{p \in \mathbb{Q}, p < r\}$. We then leave as an easy exercise to verify that $r^* < s^* \iff r < s$, $r^* + s^* = r + s$, and $r^* \cdot s^* = r \cdot s$. This concludes the construction of the reals. \square

Note that later on in the course, we will construct the real numbers in a different fashion; by considering Cauchy sequences modulo an equivalence relation. Also note that from here on out, it will suffice to have the standard/traditional picture of a "real number" in mind (i.e. infinite decimal expansions) and we will not have to really think about the real numbers as cuts; this was just necessary for the formal construction.

1.8 The Complex Field

Definition 1.24: The Complex Numbers

We define the set of **complex numbers** to be $\{(a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$, denoted by \mathbb{C} . For $x = (a, b) \in \mathbb{C}$ and $y = (c, d) \in \mathbb{C}$, we write $x = y$ if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$ (note that this is a very different notion of equality compared to the rationals). We define the zero element to be $(0, 0)$ and the one element to be $(1, 0)$. We define addition of complex numbers such that:

$$x + y = (a, b) + (c, d) = (a + c, b + d)$$

And multiplication of complex numbers such that:

$$x \cdot y = (a, b) \cdot (c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$$

Theorem 1.25

The operations of $+$ and \cdot , as well as the zero/one elements defined above turn \mathbb{C} into a field.

Proof

It suffices to verify the field axioms (A1)-(A5), (M1)-(M5), and (D) as discussed in 1.12. We will here show (M3), (M4), and (M5) and leave the rest as exercises.

(M3): Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{C}$. We show that $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$. Let $x = (a, b)$, $y = (c, d)$, and $z = (e, f)$. We then have that:

$$\begin{aligned}(x \cdot y) \cdot z &= (ac - bd, ad + bc) \cdot (e, f) \\ &= ((ac - bd)e - (ad + bc)f, (ac - bd)f + (ad + bc)e)\end{aligned}$$

We also have that:

$$\begin{aligned}x \cdot (y \cdot z) &= (a, b) \cdot (ce - df, cf + de) \\ &= (a(ce - df) - b(cf + de), a(cf + de) + b(ce - df)) \\ &= (ace - adf - bcf - bde, acf + ade + bce - bdf) \\ &= ((ac - bd)e - (ad + bc)f, (ac - bd)f + (ad + bc)e)\end{aligned}$$

So the claim is proven.

(M4): $(a, b)(1, 0) = (a \cdot 1 - b \cdot 0, a \cdot 0 + b \cdot 1) = (a, b)$

(M5): Let $x \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $x \neq 0$. Then, $x = (a, b)$ where either $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$ or both. Hence, $a^2 + b^2 > 0$. Then, let $\frac{1}{x} = (\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}, -\frac{b}{a^2 + b^2})$. We then have that:

$$\begin{aligned}x \frac{1}{x} &= (a, b) \left(\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}, -\frac{b}{a^2 + b^2} \right) \\ &= \left(a \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} - b \left(-\frac{b}{a^2 + b^2} \right), a \left(-\frac{b}{a^2 + b^2} \right) + b \left(\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2} \right) \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{a^2 + b^2}{a^2 + b^2}, -\frac{ab}{a^2 + b^2} + \frac{ab}{a^2 + b^2} \right) \\ &= (1, 0)\end{aligned}$$

Which proves the claim. □

Much like \mathbb{Q} was a subfield of \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{R} is a subfield of \mathbb{C} , and there exists a map ϕ from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{C} that respects the field axioms, namely:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi &: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ x &\longmapsto (x, 0)\end{aligned}$$

The theorem below shows that ϕ preserves the field structure:

Theorem 1.26

For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that $(a, 0) + (b, 0) = (a + b, 0)$ and $(a, 0)(b, 0) = (ab, 0)$.

Definition 1.27: i

$$i = (0, 1).$$

Theorem 1.28

$$i^2 = -1.$$

Theorem 1.29

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then $(a, b) = a + bi$.

Proof

Below are the trivial proofs for the above three theorems.

$$\begin{aligned}(a, 0) + (b, 0) &= (a + b, 0 + 0) = (a + b, 0) \\ (a, 0) \cdot (b, 0) &= (a \cdot b - 0 \cdot 0, a \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot b) = (ab, 0) \\ i^2 &= i \cdot i = (0, 1) \cdot (0, 1) = (-1, 0) = -1 \\ a + bi &= (a, 0) + b(0, 1) = (a, 0) + (0, b) = (a, b)\end{aligned}$$

A slightly odd question may be to ask whether \mathbb{C} is a subfield of \mathbb{R} , i.e. does there exist $\psi : \mathbb{C} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ such that $\psi(a + b) = \psi(a) + \psi(b)$ and $\psi(a \cdot b) = \psi(a) \cdot \psi(b)$. As we will prove in Chapter 2, we do have that $|\mathbb{C}| = |\mathbb{R}^2| = |\mathbb{R}|$ (where $||$ denotes cardinality of the set, to be defined shortly), so there does exist a bijection (i.e. a function that is both injective/one-to-one and surjective/onto; we will define these terms precisely in the next chapter) between the two sets.

As a Lemma, we have that the only injective function $f : \mathbb{Q} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies $f(a + b) = f(a) + f(b)$ and $f(a \cdot b) = f(a) \cdot f(b)$ is $f(x) = x$. The proof of this is left as a homework problem (HW2). Therefore, it follows that the only injective function $g : \mathbb{Q} \times \{0\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ (where \times denotes the Cartesian product) is given by $g((x, 0)) = x$. We now give a proof that \mathbb{C} is not a subfield of \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Suppose then for the sake of contradiction that there exists an injective function $\psi : \mathbb{Q} \times \{0, 1\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$. Such a function then must satisfy $\psi(i \cdot i) = \psi(-1) = -1$, and $\psi(i \cdot i) = \psi(i) \cdot \psi(i) = \psi((0, 1)) \cdot \psi((0, 1)) = 0 \cdot 0 = 0$ which is a contradiction. Hence, no such injection exists from $\mathbb{Q} \times \{0, 1\}$ to \mathbb{R} and hence no such injection could exist from \mathbb{C} (\mathbb{R}^2) to \mathbb{R} . Hence \mathbb{C} is not a subfield of \mathbb{R} . \square

Definition 1.30: Real/Imaginary Parts and Complex Conjugates

Let $z = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$. Then, $\text{Re}(z) = a$ is the **real part** of z and $\text{Im}(z) = b$ is the **imaginary part** of z . The **complex conjugate** of z , denoted by \bar{z} , is defined as $\bar{z} = a - bi$.

Theorem 1.31

Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$. It then follows that:

- (a) $\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$.
- (b) $\overline{zw} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{w}$.
- (c) $z + \bar{z} = 2\operatorname{Re}(z)$, $z - \bar{z} = 2i\operatorname{Im}(z)$.
- (d) $z\bar{z}$ is real and positive (except when $z = 0$).

Proof

We prove (d). We have that:

$$z\bar{z} = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2$$

$a^2 + b^2 \geq 0$, and $a^2 + b^2 = 0 \iff a = 0, b = 0$ which proves the claim. \square

Definition 1.32: Absolute Value

We define the **absolute value** $|z|$ of a complex number z as $|z| = \sqrt{z\bar{z}}$. Note that if $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $z = (a, 0)$, then

$$|z| = \sqrt{a^2} = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \geq 0 \\ -a & \text{if } a < 0 \end{cases}$$

Hence if $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we can define $|a| = |(a, 0)|$.

Theorem 1.33

Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$.

- (a) $|z| \geq 0$, $|z| = 0 \iff z = 0$.
- (b) $|\bar{z}| = |z|$.
- (c) $|z||w| = |zw|$.
- (d) $|\operatorname{Re}(z)| \leq |z|$, $|\operatorname{Im}(z)| \leq |z|$.
- (e) $|z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$.

Proof

We prove (d) and (e). Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$, with $z = a + bi$. For (d) we have that $\operatorname{Re}(z) = a$, so

$$|\operatorname{Re}(a)| = \sqrt{a^2} \leq \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = |z|$$

And an equivalent proof follows for $\operatorname{Im}(z)$. For (e), we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} |z + w|^2 &= (z + w)(\overline{z + w}) \\ &= z\bar{z} + z\bar{w} + w\bar{z} + w\bar{w} \\ &= |z|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(z\bar{w}) + |w|^2 \\ &\leq |z|^2 + 2|\operatorname{Re}(z\bar{w})| + |w|^2 && (|x| \geq x) \\ &= |z|^2 + 2|z\bar{w}| + |w|^2 && (1.33(d)) \\ &= |z|^2 + 2|z||\bar{w}| + |w|^2 && (1.33(c)) \\ &= |z|^2 + 2|z||w| + |w|^2 && (1.33(b)) \\ &= (|z| + |w|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

The claim follows by taking square roots on both sides. □

1.9 The Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality

Recall the summation notation:

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j$$

Theorem 1.35: Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality

Let $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathbb{C}$. We then have that:

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \bar{b}_j \right|^2 \leq \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|^2 \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |b_j|^2 \right)$$

Note that in the above theorem, both the RHS and the LHS are real numbers (check!) so the equality makes sense (recall that there is no order on \mathbb{C} ; in fact, it is impossible to define one).

A geometric interpretation of the above inequality is as follows. Let \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} be vectors in \mathbb{C}^n . Then, $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \bar{b}_j$ is the inner product of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . Then, the inequality says that $|\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle|^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$.

Proof

Define $A = \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|^2$, $B = \sum_{j=1}^n |b_j|^2$, and $C = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \bar{b}_j$. If $B = 0$ (that is, all of the b_j s are zero) then the LHS/RHS are both zero and we are done. So, let us assume that $B > 0$. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, and we then have that:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j + \lambda b_j|^2 \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j + \lambda b_j)(\bar{a}_j + \bar{\lambda} \bar{b}_j) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|^2 + \bar{\lambda} \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \bar{b}_j + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^n \bar{a}_j b_j + |\lambda|^2 \sum_{j=1}^n |b_j|^2 \\ &= A + \bar{\lambda} C + \lambda \bar{C} + |\lambda|^2 B \end{aligned}$$

This inequality holds for any λ ; it therefore holds for $\lambda = -\frac{C}{B}$, so:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq A - \frac{\bar{C}}{B} C - \frac{C}{B} \bar{C} + \frac{C \bar{C}}{B^2} B \\ &= A - \frac{|C|^2}{B} \end{aligned}$$

So we therefore obtain that $|C|^2 \leq AB$ which is the desired inequality. □

A natural question given any inequality is when does equality hold; the answer turns out to be if the vectors are linearly independent, that is, at least one of $\mathbf{a} = \alpha \mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \beta \mathbf{a}$ ($\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$) hold. Note that we only require one of the two relations to hold; in the case that one of \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} are $\mathbf{0}$ (the vector of all zeros) both equalities cannot be true. It is left as a homework problem to verify equality in the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality if and only if at least one of the two conditions holds (HW3).

1.10 Euclidean Space

Definition 1.36: Euclidean k-space

If $k \in \mathbb{N}$, define \mathbb{R}^k as the set of k -tuples of real numbers:

$$\mathbb{R}^k = \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) : x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

We can then define vector addition as:

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_k + y_k)$$

And scalar multiplication (for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$) to be:

$$\alpha \mathbf{x} = (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2, \dots, \alpha x_k)$$

These operations make \mathbb{R}^k into a vector space over the real field. We can define the inner product over \mathbb{R}^k to be:

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \sum_{j=1}^k x_j y_j$$

This allows us to define the norm of \mathbf{x} to be:

$$|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

\mathbb{R}^k with the above inner product and norm is called **Euclidean k-space**.

We briefly remark that the above inner product we defined agrees with the inner product we defined over \mathbb{C}^k ; we can identify $r \in \mathbb{R}$ with $(r, 0) \in \mathbb{C}$, and hence recognize that $\mathbb{R}^k \subset \mathbb{C}^k$ where the imaginary part of each coordinate is zero. Then, for the inner product we get the exact same result, as $\bar{b}_j = b_j$ for any complex numbers with imaginary part zero. From this we can conclude that the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality also holds in \mathbb{R}^k .

Note that although the field \mathbb{C} is \mathbb{R}^2 with multiplication defined as in Definition 1.24, in general vector multiplication on \mathbb{R}^n is not well defined. That is, we cannot make \mathbb{R}^n into a field in general; though we can make it into a vector space, which has slightly less structure.

One possibly familiar notion of vector multiplication in \mathbb{R}^3 is the cross product. For $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$, the cross product is defined as:

$$\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y} = (x_2 y_3 - x_3 y_2, x_3 y_1 - x_1 y_3, x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1)$$

However, the cross product does not satisfy properties that would be necessary to make \mathbb{R}^3 a field. For one, it is not commutative, but anticommutative; $\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y} = -\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{x}$. One might ask whether vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 have well-defined inverses, but even before that, there does not exist an identity vector in \mathbb{R}^3 under the cross product! In fact, \mathbb{R}^3 under vector addition and cross product multiplication can be viewed as a noncommutative ring without an identity.

Note that there is a more general notion of a “wedge product” between vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . We are in a sense very “lucky” that in \mathbb{R}^3 , the wedge product of two vectors returns another vector in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Theorem 1.37

Let $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

- (a) $|\mathbf{x}| \geq 0$
- (b) $|\mathbf{x}| = 0 \iff \mathbf{x} = (0, \dots, 0)$. This is often denoted as $\mathbf{0}$, the “zero vector”.
- (c) $|\alpha \mathbf{x}| = |\alpha| |\mathbf{x}|$
- (d) $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|$
- (e) $|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}|$
- (f) $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}| \leq |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}| + |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}|$

(e) and (f) are often called “triangle inequalities”; a visual intuition for these inequalities is given in the following figure:



Figure 3: Visual picture for Theorem 1.37(f), drawn in \mathbb{R}^2 . Suppose we started at \mathbf{x} and wanted the shortest path to \mathbf{z} ; we could try walking directly to \mathbf{z} , or we could try walking somewhere else first (\mathbf{y}) and then to \mathbf{z} . However, the theorem tells us that the direct path will always be shorter in Euclidean space.

Note that equality in part (f) arises if and only if \mathbf{y} lies on the line segment between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} .

Proof

(a)-(c) are immediate, and (d) immediately follows from Theorem 1.35 (Cauchy-Schwartz). For (e), we have that:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|^2 &= (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \\
 &= |\mathbf{x}|^2 + 2\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} + |\mathbf{y}|^2 \\
 &\leq |\mathbf{x}|^2 + 2|\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}| + |\mathbf{y}|^2 \\
 &\leq |\mathbf{x}|^2 + 2|\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}| + |\mathbf{y}|^2 \quad (1.37(d)) \\
 &= (|\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}|)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

And the claim follows by taking square roots on both sides. For (f), substitute $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{y} \mapsto \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}$ into (e). \square

Though we discuss the Euclidean norm here, it may also be of interest to consider/discuss other norms. One example is the L_1 norm (c.f. the norm discussed in Definition 1.36, which is the L_2 norm), which is the sum of the absolute values of each of the components. For $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ we have that:

$$|\mathbf{x}|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|, \quad |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|_1 = |x_1 - y_1| + |x_2 - y_2| + \dots + |x_n - y_n|$$

The L_1 norm is often called the “Taxicab norm” or the “Manhattan norm” as the way it quantifies distance is akin to walking in discrete NSEW chunks; much like a taxi running through a grid-like New York City!



Figure 4: Visual comparison of the L_1 and L_2 norms in \mathbb{R}^2 .

We are free to generalize this notion to the L_n norm, and we may also define the L_∞ norm, which for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as:

$$|\mathbf{x}|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$$

In general for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have that $|x|_1 \geq |x|_2 \geq |x|_3 \geq \dots \geq |x|_\infty$. We note that we can generalize these norms to the cases where we have infinite components:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} < \infty \quad \|f\|_p \equiv \left(\int_S |f|^p d\mu \right)^{1/p} < \infty$$

Which allow us to define norms for function spaces. However, a detailed discussion of these are beyond the scope of this course (to be covered in a later course in functional analysis!) Moreover, we haven't even defined what an infinite sum or integral are yet, which we will get to in later chapters.

2 Basic Topology

2.1 Finite and Countable Sets

This chapter is split into two portions; the first looks at counting, what it means for us to say that two sets have the same number of elements, and concludes with a classic theorem of Cantor concerning uncountable sets. The second part looks at the topology of metric spaces, before moving onto the topology of the real numbers.

Let us then begin with our discussion of counting. If we consider counting how many bananas there are on a table (say there are 10 bananas), then what we are formally doing is establishing a correspondence between each ball on the table with an element in the set $\{1, \dots, 10\}$. When we refer to the number of elements in a set, it will be good to keep in mind that we are establishing functions between sets. Although we have been discussing functions with some frequency in the course already, we give a definition below for completeness.

Definition 2.1: Functions

Let A, B be sets. Then, a map that associates each element $x \in A$ with a unique element denoted as $f(x) \in B$ is a **function** $f : A \rightarrow B$. We then define A as the **domain** of f and the set $\{f(x) : x \in A\}$ as the **range**. For $E \subset A$, we call $f(E) = \{f(x) : x \in E\}$ the **image** of E under f . For $F \subset B$, we call $f^{-1}(F) = \{x \in A : f(x) \in F\}$ the **preimage** of F .

Definition 2.2: Injective/Surjective Functions

Let $f : A \mapsto B$ be a function. If for $x_1, x_2 \in A$ we have that $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$ (or equivalently, $x_1 \neq x_2 \implies f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$), then we say that f is **injective**, or **one-to-one**. If for all $y \in B$ there exists $x \in A$ such that $y = f(x)$, then we say that f is **surjective**, or **onto**. If a function is both injective and surjective, it is **bijective**.

Intuitively, we can think of injectivity as implying each element in B being reached at most once, and surjectivity implying that each element in B is reached at least once.

Definition 2.3: Cardinality & Equivalence

Let A, B be sets. We say that A, B have the same **cardinality** if there exists $f : A \mapsto B$ such that f is bijective. We can denote this as $A \sim B$ where \sim indicates an **equivalence relation**. An equivalence relation has three properties:

- (a) Reflexivity: $A \sim A$.
- (b) Symmetry: If $A \sim B$ then $B \sim A$.
- (c) Transitivity: If $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C$ then $A \sim C$.

As a point of notation, $|S|$ denotes the cardinality of the set S .

We get (a) from each set having a bijection to itself (i.e. the identity function), (b) from the fact that if there exists a bijection $f : A \mapsto B$, then there must exist an inverse $f^{-1} : B \mapsto A$, and (c) from if there exist bijections $f : A \mapsto B$ and $g : B \mapsto C$ then the composition $g \circ f : A \mapsto C$ will also be a bijection.

Definition 2.4: Countability

First, we denote $J_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ and $J = \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. Let A be a set. We say that A is **finite** if it has a finite number of elements, that is, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A \sim J_n$. A set A is **infinite** if it is not finite, and we cannot put A in bijection with J_n for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We say that A is **countable** if $A \sim \mathbb{N}$, and **uncountable** otherwise.

Note that the above definition gives us a useful notion for what sets we can consider countable; if we can enumerate a set with the naturals, this yields a bijection with \mathbb{N} and hence the set must be countable.

We here give some additional properties concerning cardinalities of sets, which may be useful:

- $|A| \leq |B| \iff \exists f : A \mapsto B$ such that f is injective
- $|A| \geq |B| \iff \exists f : A \mapsto B$ such that f is surjective
- $|A| \leq |B|$ and $|A| \geq |B| \implies |A| = |B|$

Example 2.5

\mathbb{Z} is countable. To see this, consider the function:

$$f = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & n \text{ is even} \\ -\frac{n-1}{2} & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

f is a bijection (check!) and hence $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Z}$.

The above example serves as a bit of a warning sign. Even though $\mathbb{N} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}$ and \mathbb{Z} has “more elements”, we still find that the two sets have the same cardinality. A similar example is given by \mathbb{N} and the set of all even natural numbers (which we may denote $2\mathbb{N}$); the bijection $f(n) : n \mapsto 2n$ between these two sets shows that $\mathbb{N} \sim 2\mathbb{N}$, even though $2\mathbb{N}$ is a strict subset of \mathbb{N} .

Theorem 2.8

A subset of a countable set is either finite or countable.

Proof

(Sketch) The countability of A implies that $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, \dots\}$ (in other words, we can enumerate the elements using \mathbb{N}). Let $S \subset A$. Then, $S = \{a_1, \cancel{a_2}, a_3, a_4, \cancel{a_5}, \dots\}$, that is, A with some (or none) of the elements removed. Now, we can rename all the elements with a_1, a_2, \dots ; what we have left is again an enumeration, so it is yet again (at most) countable.

One potentially useful fact is that if we have a set S and a function $f : \mathbb{N} \mapsto S$ such that f is surjective, then S is at most countable.

Proof. Let $T = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : f(n) \neq f(m), \forall m = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$. We restrict $f : T \mapsto S$, then f is injective by constructive. It is still surjective, hence $T \sim S$. Since $T \subset \mathbb{N}$, by Theorem 2.8, S is finite or countable. \square

Theorem 2.12

Let E_1, E_2, \dots be countable sets (i.e. we have a countable number of countable sets). Define $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$. Then, S is countable.

Proof

Write $E_n = \{x_{n1}, x_{n2}, x_{n3}, \dots\}$ (which we can do as each of the E_n s are countable). Then, we form an array:

$$\begin{array}{rcll} E_1 & = & \cancel{x_{11}} & x_{12}^{\nearrow} \quad x_{13}^{\nearrow} \quad \dots \\ E_2 & = & x_{21} & \cancel{x_{22}} \quad x_{23}^{\nearrow} \quad \dots \\ E_3 & = & \cancel{x_{31}} & x_{32} \quad \cancel{x_{33}} \quad \dots \\ & \dots & & \end{array}$$

Then, we can re-number the elements along the diagonal lines (i.e. $x_{11}, x_{21}, x_{12}, x_{31}, x_{22}, x_{13}, \dots$). This new enumeration corresponds to a countable set. From there, we let $T \subset \mathbb{N}$ be the remaining labels in the enumeration after removing the repeated elements from the sequence. Then, $T \sim S$, and hence S is at most countable. S cannot be finite as $E_1 \subset S$ and E_1 is not finite. Hence S is countable. \square

Corollary 2.13: \mathbb{Q} is Countable.

- If A is countable, the set of n -tuples of (a_1, \dots, a_n) is also countable for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- \mathbb{Q} is countable.

We defined \mathbb{Q} as pairs of integers, but by the first part of the corollary (which follows immediately by application of Theorem 2.12) \mathbb{Z}^2 (the set of pairs of integers) has equal cardinality to \mathbb{Z} , and since \mathbb{Q} is a subset of the set of pairs of integers, \mathbb{Q} is countable.

Another way we can formalize this argument: if we let $X_t = \left\{ \frac{m}{n} : m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}, |m| \leq t, n \leq t \right\}$, then we have that $|X_t|$ is at most $t \cdot (2t + 1)$ (the first term being the choices for n , the second term being the choices for m). Of course, the cardinality of X_t is actually less than that as we would have to remove repeats. Nonetheless, we have that $\mathbb{Q} = \bigcap_{t=1}^{\infty} X_t$ and hence \mathbb{Q} would be countable by Theorem 2.12.

From the discussion of today, we have established that $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}|$. Does \mathbb{R} also have equal cardinality to these sets? Do infinite sets in general have the same cardinality? The answer turns out to be no for both of these questions. We will answer the first question in the next lecture (when we discuss Cantor diagonalization, a highlight of the course), but we can discuss the second statement now. First, we make a definition:

Definition: Power Sets

Let A be a set. Then, the **power set** of A , denoted $\mathcal{P}(A)$, is the set of all subsets of A .

An interesting theorem then follows:

Theorem: Power Set Cardinality

Let A be a set. Then, $|A| < |\mathcal{P}(A)|$.

Proof

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists a surjection $f : A \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$ (this would imply that $|A| \geq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$, so by showing this is false, we obtain the desired result). Then, each element $x \in A$ gets mapped to some subset of A . We either have that x belongs to the subset that it gets mapped to, or it doesn't. Therefore, we can define a new subset $B \subset A$, such that:

$$B = \{x \in A : x \notin f(x)\}$$

In other words, the set of all x s that are not in the subset that they get mapped to by f . Since f is surjective, there must be an element $y \in A$ such that $f(y) = B$. One of $y \in B, y \notin B$ must be true. If $y \in B$, by construction of B we have that y is not in the subset that it gets mapped to by f , which is a contradiction. If $y \notin B$, by definition of B , $y \in B$ as it is not in the subset that it gets mapped to, yet again a contradiction. Therefore, we conclude that no $y \in A$ exists such that $f(y) = B$, and hence, no surjective f exists such that $f : A \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$. Hence, $|A| < |\mathcal{P}(A)|$. \square

An interesting consequence of this theorem is that for a countable set A , we then have that $\mathcal{P}(A)$ is an infinite set which has greater cardinality! For example, $|\mathbb{N}| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})|$. Moreover, this gives rise to an infinite number of cardinalities in ascending order; $|\mathbb{N}| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}))| < \dots$ and so on.

2.2 Uncountable Sets

Theorem 2.14: Existence of Uncountable Sets

Let $A = \{(b_1, b_2, \dots), b_n \in \{0, 1\}\}$ be the set of binary sequences. Then, A is uncountable.

Proof

It suffices to show that every countable subset of A is a proper subset of A . Let $E \subset A$ be countable, and let $E = \{S^{(1)}, S^{(2)}, S^{(3)}, \dots\}$. To show that E is a proper subset, we show that there exists a sequence $S \in A \setminus E$. To construct such an S , let us put the elements of E in an array.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} S^{(1)} & = & \boxed{b_1^1} & b_2^1 & b_3^1 & \dots \\ S^{(2)} & = & b_1^2 & \boxed{b_2^2} & b_3^2 & \dots \\ S^{(3)} & = & b_1^3 & b_2^3 & \boxed{b_3^3} & \dots \end{array}$$

Then, define:

$$\tilde{b}_n^n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b_n^n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } b_n^n = 1 \end{cases}$$

I.e. \tilde{b}_n^n is the bit flip of b_n^n . Then, let $S = (\tilde{b}_1^1, \tilde{b}_2^2, \tilde{b}_3^3, \dots)$, that is, S is the sequence of bit-flipped diagonal elements of the original array. By construction, $S \neq S^{(k)}$ as for any $S^{(k)} \in E$ as S differs at the k th position. Hence, $S \notin E$ and therefore $E \subsetneq A$. \square

The above proof is a very famous argument, invented by the mathematician George Cantor. The discovery that there exist sets with greater cardinality than \mathbb{N} was initially quite controversial in the math community!

Corollary: \mathbb{R} is Uncountable

$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ (the power set of \mathbb{N}) is uncountable. \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

Proof

Although we showed that $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ was uncountable last lecture, we show this in an alternative way by considering a bijection between $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ and the set A of binary sequences. To do this, consider that we can associate a subset $T \subset \mathbb{N}$, $T \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ with the sequence corresponding to:

$$b_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in T \\ 0 & \text{if } n \notin T \end{cases}$$

Since A is uncountable, it follows that $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ is uncountable. The second statement in the corollary follows (roughly) by considering \mathbb{R} represented in binary, though this requires more justification than what we present here (we will show below that a subset of \mathbb{R} is uncountable). \square

Theorem

$[0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is uncountable.

Proof

(Sketch) We construct a bijection from $[0, 1]$ to A . Let $x \in [0, 1]$, and let b_1 be the largest integer such that $N_1 = \frac{b_1}{2} \leq x$. Then, let $b_2 \in \{0, 1\}$ be the largest integer such that $N_2 = \frac{b_1}{2} + \frac{b_2}{2^2} \leq x$. We can continue dividing $[0, 1]$ in half in this way, approximating x by powers of 2 (a decimal expansion in binary). Then, let $E(x) = \{N_1, N_2, N_3, \dots\}$. By construction, $E(x)$ is bounded above by x and nonempty. Hence, $\sup(E(x))$ exists and is unique, and in fact is equal to x (note that we are in essence constructing an "infinite series" where the sequence of partial sums is increasing and bounded, approaching x from the left). Doing this we can associate $(b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots) \in A$ with every number $x \in [0, 1]$ and therefore $[0, 1] \sim A$. Hence $[0, 1]$ is uncountable. \square

It might be worth investigating why a more naive approach to the above argument may fail. Let D be the sets of all decanary sequences, i.e. all sequences of the form (d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots) where $d_n \in \{n \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq n \leq 9\}$. Then, it might be tempting to say that the function:

$$\begin{aligned} f : D &\longrightarrow [0, 1] \\ (d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots) &\longmapsto 0.d_1d_2d_3\dots \end{aligned}$$

Is a bijection; however, it is actually not the case! To see this, consider that $0.1000\dots = 0.0999\dots$. The sequences $(1, 0, 0, 0, \dots)$ and $(0, 9, 9, 9, \dots)$ are distinct, but the real number they would map to would be the same. This map is not an injection but a surjection. To show that \mathbb{R} is uncountable, we require an injection from D to $[0, 1]$. So instead, what we have done with the above proof is map the set of binary sequences B to $[0, 1]$:

$$\begin{aligned} g : B &\longrightarrow [0, 1] \\ (b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots) &\longmapsto \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j 3^{-j} = \sup \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^N b_j 3^{-j} : N \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Note that in general, an infinite sum is not equal to the supremum of its partial sums (as a counterexample, consider the sum with first term 1, the second term -1, and all the remaining terms 0; evidently the value

of the infinite sum is 0, but the supremum of the partial sums would be 1.) We will define an infinite sum more generally in chapter 3, but in our case here, this definition suffices as in the case where all terms of the sum are non-negative, the supremum of the partial sums is indeed the value of the infinite sum. We leave it as an exercise to show that g is an injection. Also, one neat remark; the above set is equivalent to the Cantor set, which we will more formally define/discuss in Chapter 2.

We take note a theorem that if Y is a set, and there exists $X \subset Y$ such that X is in bijective correspondence with an uncountable set, then Y is also uncountable. Thus we can use the above theorem to conclude that \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

2.3 Topology of Metric Spaces

In our investigation of topology, we will try to better understand distances between and neighbourhoods of points. To do so, we first introduce the notion of a metric space.

Definition 2.15: Metric Spaces

A set X is a **metric space** (whose elements we call points) with a **metric** $d : X \times X \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ such that for $x, y, z \in X$:

- (a) $d(x, y) > 0$ if $x \neq y$; $d(x, x) = 0$;
- (b) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ (d is symmetric);
- (c) $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ (triangle inequality).

Example 2.16

$\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}$ are all metric spaces with $d(x, y) = |x - y|$. Any subset $Y \subset X$ of a metric space is also a metric space, with the same metric.

Another example of a metric space is given below; note that this example can be generalized, in that any connected graph can be made into a metric space.



Figure 5: A graph-theoretic example of a metric space. Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Then, for $x, y \in X$, let $d(x, y)$ be the number of edges in the shortest path between x and y . Properties (a), (b) of a metric are immediately satisfied, and (c) follows from the property of the shortest path.

It may be of interest to consider other possible metrics. The discrete metric is defined such that $d(x, y) = 1$ if $x \neq y$ and $d(x, x) = 0$. The L1 Norm is defined such that $d(f, g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)| dx$ where f, g are functions. In an inner product space, we have that $d(v, w) = \|v - w\| = \langle v - w, v - w \rangle^{1/2}$; if v, w are functions, then we have that $d(v, w) = \left(\int_0^1 |v(x) - w(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$. In analysis, we are often interested in the notion of things being "close to other things" (e.g. with limits, continuity) so a notion of distance is extremely important to define.

Definition 2.18: Neighbourhoods

A **neighbourhood** in a metric space X is a set $N_r(p) = \{q \in X : d(p, q) < r\}$ with $r > 0$.

Example

- In \mathbb{R} , $N_r(p)$ is the interval $(p - r, p + r)$ about midpoint p .
- In \mathbb{R}^2 , $N_r(p)$ is the open disk about center p .
- In \mathbb{R}^3 , $N_r(p)$ is the open ball about center p .
- In \mathbb{R}^n , $N_r(p)$ is the open hyperball about center p .

As another example, consider that in \mathbb{Z} , $N_1(0) = \{0\}$, $N_{3/2} = \{-1, 0, 1\}$ and $N_2(0) = \{-1, 0, 1\}$.

Definition 2.18: Interior Points

Let $E \subset X$. Then, p is an **interior point** of S if there is a neighbourhood $N_r(p)$ such that $N \subset E$.

Intuitively, an interior point of E is a point that is not on the boundary of E . As an example, in \mathbb{R}^n , if $E = \{y : |x - y| \leq 1\}$, then the interior points of E (which we can denote as E°) are $E^\circ = \{y : |x - y| < 1\}$. The idea is that there is always some finite distance to the boundary, so we can always fit a (perhaps small) open ball in. But this doesn't hold at the boundary!



Figure 6: A visualization of an interior point. A set $E \subset X$ is pictured. p_1 is an interior point as there exists $N_r(p_1) \subset E$. p_2 is not an interior point as there does not exist a neighbourhood of p_2 that is entirely contained in E (it is on the boundary).

Definition 2.18: Open Sets

A set $E \subset X$ is **open** if every point of E is an interior point of E .

Theorem 2.19

Every neighbourhood is an open set.

Proof

Consider a neighbourhood $E = N_r(p) \subset X$. Let $q \in E$. We will show that q is an interior point of E . Choose $s < r - d(p, q)$. Then, let $x \in N_s(q)$. By the triangle inequality:

$$d(x, p) \leq d(x, q) + d(q, p) < s + d(q, p) < r - d(p, q) + d(p, q) = r.$$

Hence, $d(x, p) < r$ and it follows that $x \in N_r(p)$. Hence, $N_s(q) \subset N_r(p)$ and q is an interior point of E . \square



Figure 7: Visualization of the Sets/Points in Theorem 2.19

Definition 2.18: Limit Points/Isolated Points

Let $E \subset X$ and $p \in X$. Then, p is a **limit point** of E if every neighbourhood of p contains $q \in E$, $q \neq p$. If $p \in E$ and p is not a limit point of E , then p is an **isolated point** of E .

Example

Let $E = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$. Then, $\frac{1}{2}$ is not a limit point of E , as for $r < \frac{1}{4}$, $N_r(\frac{1}{2})$ does not contain any other points of E . On the other hand, 0 is a limit point of E . For any neighbourhood $N_r(0)$ of 0, $\frac{1}{N} \in N_r(0)$ for $N > \frac{1}{r}$. Note that 0 is the only limit point of E , and is not contained in E (indeed, there is no requirement that a limit point be contained in the set).

Theorem 2.20

If p is a limit point of E , then every neighbourhood of p contains an infinite number of $q \in E$.

Proof

(Sketch) Let $r_1 = 1$. Then, there exists $q_1 \in N_{r_1}(p)$ such that $q_1 \in E$ and $q_1 \neq p$ as p is a limit point of E by assumption. Let $r_2 = d(q_1, p)$. Then, there exists $q_2 \in N_{r_2}(p)$ such that $q_2 \in E$ and $q_2 \neq p$. We can repeat this process to get a (countably infinite) sequence of distinct points $q \in N_{r_1}(p)$, which proves the claim. \square

Corollary

If $E \subset X$ is finite, then E has no limit points.

Definition 2.18: Dense Sets

$E \subset X$ is dense in X if every point of X is a limit point of E , or a point of E .

By consequence of Theorem 1.20, we have that \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} and $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ is dense in \mathbb{R} . As a general method to show that a set is dense in another set, take $x \in X \setminus E$, and show x must be a limit point of E .

Definition 2.18: Bounded Sets

$E \subset X$ is bounded if there exists $M \in \mathbb{R}$ and a point $q \in X$ such that $d(p, q) < M$ for all $p \in E$.

For example, $(0, 1)$, $[0, 1]$, $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ are bounded, and $(0, \infty)$, \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{R} are unbounded (with the usual metric on \mathbb{R}).

Definition 2.18: Closed Sets

A set $E \subset X$ is closed if every limit point of E is in E .

Note that with the above Corollary, we find that every finite set is (trivially) closed.

Definition 2.18: Complement

Let $E \subset X$. Then, the complement of E , denoted E^c is $E^c = \{x \in X : x \notin E\}$.



Figure 8: Visualization of a set E and its complement.

Theorem 2.23

A set $E \subset X$ is open if and only if E^c is closed.

Note that this theorem does not imply that all sets are closed or open; it is possible to have a set that is neither closed or open (such as $[0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}$) and then its complement (with the former example, $(-\infty, 0) \cup [1, \infty)$) which is also neither closed nor open (indeed, most sets are neither closed nor open). As an

additional note, we have that X (the entire metric space) and \emptyset are both open and closed (which we may affectionately label as “clopen”).

Proof

\Rightarrow Assume E is open. If E^c has no limit points, it is trivially closed, so suppose that there exists a limit point x of E^c . Suppose for the sake of contradiction that $x \notin E^c$. Then, $x \in E$. As E is open, x is an interior point of E , so there exists a neighbourhood $N_r(x) \subset E$. In particular, $N_r(x) \cap E^c = \emptyset$, contradicting the fact that x is a limit point of E^c . Hence, $x \in E^c$ and E^c is closed.

\Leftarrow Assume E^c is closed. Let $x \in E$. In particular, $x \notin E^c$, so x is not a limit point of E^c . So, there exists a neighbourhood $N_r(x)$ which contains no point of E^c , i.e. $N_r(x) \cap E^c = \emptyset$. It follows that $N_r(x) \subset E$, and hence x is an interior point of E . This argument applies to all points of E , hence E is open. \square

Corollary

A set $F \subset X$ is closed if and only if F^c is open.

Let $F = E^c$ in Theorem 2.23 to realize the above Corollary.

Theorem 2.24

- (a) For any collection $\{E_\alpha\}$ of open sets, $\bigcup_\alpha E_\alpha$ is open.
- (b) For any collection $\{F_\alpha\}$ of closed sets, $\bigcap_\alpha F_\alpha$ is closed.
- (c) For any finite collection E_1, \dots, E_n of open sets, $\bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$ is open.
- (d) For any finite collection F_1, \dots, F_n of closed sets, $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$ is closed.

A point of notation; $\{E_\alpha\}$ can be finite, countable, or uncountable; the indices α are taken from an index set A which can be chosen to be of any cardinality.

Proof

- (a) Suppose all sets in $\{E_\alpha\}$ are closed. Let $x \in \bigcup_\alpha E_\alpha$. Then, there exists α_0 such that $x \in E_{\alpha_0}$. Since E_{α_0} is open, there exists a neighbourhood $N_r(x)$ of x such that $N_r(x) \subset E_{\alpha_0} \subset \bigcup_\alpha E_\alpha$. Hence, $\bigcup_\alpha E_\alpha$ is open.
- (b) Suppose all sets in $\{F_\alpha\}$ are open. To show that $\bigcap_\alpha F_\alpha$ is closed, we show that $(\bigcap_\alpha F_\alpha)^c$ is open (by Theorem 2.23). We have that $(\bigcap_\alpha F_\alpha)^c = \bigcup_\alpha F_\alpha^c$. As all F_α^c are open, by part (a) we have that $\bigcup_\alpha F_\alpha^c$ is also open. Hence $\bigcap_\alpha F_\alpha$ is closed.
- (c) Suppose E_1, \dots, E_n are open. Let $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$, and then we have that $x \in E_i$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Hence, there exists r_i such that $N_{r_i}(x) \subset E_i$ as each of the E_i s are open. Let $r = \min\{r_1, \dots, r_n\}$ and then we have that $N_r(x) \subset N_{r_i}(x) \subset E_i$ for all E_i . Therefore, $N_r(x) \subset \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$ is open.
- (d) Suppose F_1, \dots, F_n are closed. By Theorem 2.23 we have that $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$ is closed if and only if $(\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i^c$ is open. Since all F_i^c s are open, by part (c) $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i^c$ is open, and hence $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$ is closed. \square

Example 2.25

We consider some examples to see why the finiteness of the collections in parts (c)/(d) of the theorem are essential. Suppose $E_n = \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \subset \mathbb{R}$. These sets form a countably infinite collection of subsets of \mathbb{R} . We then consider that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \{0\}$, which is not open; showing that openness is not preserved under infinite intersections. Next, consider $F_n = [0, 1 - \frac{1}{n}] \subset \mathbb{R}$, which form a countably infinite collection of closed sets in \mathbb{R} . We then have that $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n = [0, 1)$ which is not closed as 0 is not an interior point of the set. Hence, closedness is not preserved under infinite unions.

2.4 Closure and Relative Topology

As a review of some definitions of the previous section, we call a set open if every point of the set is an interior point, and closed if it contains all of its limit points. A complement of an open set is closed and vice versa. We also note that openness is preserved under infinite unions and finite intersections, and closedness is preserved under infinite intersections and finite unions.

Definition 2.26: Closure

Let X be a metric space. Let $E \subset X$, and denote E' as the set of all limit points of E . Then, the set $\bar{E} = E \cup E'$ is the **closure** of E .

Theorem 2.27

- (a) \bar{E} is closed.
- (b) $E = \bar{E}$ if and only if E is closed.
- (c) $\bar{E} \subset F$ for every closed set $F \subset X$ such that $E \subset F$.

Proof

- (a) Let $p \in \bar{E}^c = E^c \cap (E')^c$. Then, $p \notin E$, and furthermore $p \notin E'$ so p is not a limit point of E . Hence, there exists a neighbourhood $N_r(p)$ such that $N_r(p) \cap E = \emptyset$. Moreover, no point of $N_r(p)$ is in E' (if there existed $q \in E'$ such that $q \in N_r(p)$, then there would exist some $N_{r'}(q)$ (which contains points of E) such that $N_{r'}(q) \subset N_r(p)$ which contradicts the fact that $N_r(p)$ contains no points of E). Hence, $N_r(p) \subset E^c \cap (E')^c = \bar{E}^c$. Hence, \bar{E}^c is open and \bar{E} is closed.
- (b) \implies If $E = \bar{E}$, then E is closed by (a).
 \impliedby If E is closed, then E contains all of its limit points, so $\bar{E} = E \cup E' \subset E$. By definition $\bar{E} \supseteq E$, so $E = \bar{E}$.
- (c) Let $E \subset F$ with F closed. Then, $F' \subset F$. Also, $E' \subset F'$. So, by (b) we have $F = \bar{F} = F \cup F' \supseteq E \cup E' = \bar{E}$. □

We will soon define the notion of being relatively open, but before doing so, we consider a motivating example.

In \mathbb{R} , we know (a, b) to be in an open set. However, embedded in \mathbb{R}^2 , (a, b) has no interior points; any neighbourhood about any $x \in (a, b)$ extends into the plane and will inevitably contain points $y \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $y \notin (a, b)$. Hence, (a, b) is open as a subset of \mathbb{R} , but not as a subset of \mathbb{R}^2 .



Figure 9: The interval (a, b) embedded in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Definition 2.29: Relative Openness

Let $E \subset Y \subset X$. Then, E is **relatively open** with respect to Y if it is an open set in the metric space Y .

However, we note that the above definition is not very useful. Is there a better notion of relative openness? Going back to our prior example, consider that (a, b) can be viewed as the intersection of an open disk with \mathbb{R} . This gives an equivalent definition!



Figure 10: The interval (a, b) can be viewed as the intersection of \mathbb{R} with the open disk $N = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{\left(x - \frac{b+a}{2}\right)^2 + y^2} < \frac{b-a}{2} \right\}$, giving rise to a more useful notion of relative openness.

Theorem 2.30

Let $E \subset Y \subset X$. Then, E is open relative to Y if and only if there exists an open set $G \subset X$ such that $E = G \cap Y$.

Proof

\Rightarrow Let $p \in E$. Then, there exists a neighbourhood $N_r^Y(p) \subset E$ (Note that here, $N_r^Y(p) = \{y \in Y : d(p, y) < r\}$). By Theorem 2.24, we have that $G = \bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^X(p)$ is open. Then, we have that $G \cap Y = \bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^X(p) \cap Y = \bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^Y(p) = E$.

\Leftarrow Suppose $G \subset X$ is open and $E = G \cap Y$. Let $p \in E$. Then, there exists a neighbourhood $N_r^X(p) \subset G$ as G is open, so $N_r^Y(p) = N_r^X(p) \cap Y \subset G \cap Y = E$. Hence, p is an interior point of E in the metric space of Y , and hence E is relatively open in Y . \square

2.5 Compactness

Definition 2.31: Open Covers

An **open cover** of a subset $E \subset X$ is a collection $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open sets of X such that $E \subset \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$.

Note that the open cover can be either a finite or infinite (countable or uncountable) collection.



Figure 11: Visualization of a set E and a collection of open disks that form a (finite) open cover of E .

Definition 2.32: Compactness

A subset $K \subset X$ is **compact** if every open cover of K has a finite subcover. Explicitly, if $\{G_\alpha\}$ is an open cover of K , then there exist indices $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ such that $K \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$.

While the above definition might seem strange/esoteric, it turns out to be very useful and important to analysis. We saw in the last lecture that open sets in a sense do not behave “nicely”; a given set could be open with respect to a subspace Y but not to X (and we had to introduce the notion of relative openness to take care of this fact). Compactness behaves more nicely, as we will see with the following theorem.

Theorem 2.33

Suppose $K \subset Y \subset X$. Then, K is compact with respect to X if and only if K is compact with respect to Y .

While openness depends on the choice of subspace, this theorem states that compactness is independent of what subspace we choose to look at. It is in a sense an intrinsic property of the set.

Proof

\Rightarrow Suppose K is compact with respect to X . Let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be an open (in Y) cover of K . Then, by Theorem 2.30 we have that there exists $\{G_\alpha\}$ of open sets in X such that $V_\alpha = G_\alpha \cap Y$. Then, $\{G_\alpha\}$ is an open (in X) cover of K , and hence there exists a finite subcover $K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n G_{\alpha_i}$. Then, we have that $K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n (G_{\alpha_i} \cap Y) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{\alpha_i}$ which is a finite (sub)cover of K in Y . Hence, K is compact with respect to Y .

\Leftarrow Suppose K is compact with respect to Y . Let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be an open (in X) cover of K . Let $V_\alpha = G_\alpha \cap Y$. These are relatively open in Y by Theorem 2.30, and $\{V_\alpha\}$ still cover K . Hence, as K is compact in Y , there exists a finite subcover $K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{\alpha_i} \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n G_{\alpha_i}$. Therefore, we have found a finite subcover in X , so K is compact in X . \square

Theorem 2.34

Let $K \subset X$ be compact. Then, K is closed.

A priori, it might seem like the notions of compactness and closedness are quite different, but this theorem shows that they are indeed quite closely related.

Proof

We show that K^c is open. Let $p \in K^c$. For any $q \in K$. Let $r_q = \frac{1}{2}d(p, q)$, and define $W_q = N_{r_q}(q)$. So, taking the collection $\{W_q\}$ we have that $\bigcup_{q \in K} W_q$ is an open cover (as it clearly contains every $q \in K$). K is compact, so there exists a finite subcover $\bigcup_{i=1}^n W_{q_i}$. Then, let $r = \min\{r_{q_1}, \dots, r_{q_n}\}$. Then, $N_r(p) \subset K^c$, hence p is an interior point of K^c . Therefore K^c is open, and K is closed by Theorem 2.23. \square

Theorem 2.35

If $F \subset X$ is closed, $K \subset X$ is compact, and $F \subset K$, then F is compact.

Proof

Let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be an open cover of F . Then, $\{V_\alpha\} \cup F^c$ is an open cover of K (F^c is open as F is closed). Hence, as K is compact, there exists a finite subcover. Dropping F^c (if it is part of the finite subcover of K), we obtain a finite subcover of F . Hence, F is compact. \square

Corollary

If $F \subset X$ is closed and $K \subset X$ is compact, then $F \cap K$ is compact. In other words, compactness is preserved under intersection (with closed sets).

Proof

If K is compact, it is closed by Theorem 2.34. $F \cap K$ is closed by Theorem 2.24, and since $F \cap K \subset K$, by Theorem 2.35 $F \cap K$ is compact. \square

In a previous course, we may have introduced the definition that compact sets are closed and bounded. Here, we started with a significantly different definition, and work up to prove the Heine-Borel Theorem (coming soon!) which tells us that compactness is equivalent to being closed and bounded in \mathbb{R}^k . Before we move onto such further properties and theorems of compact sets, we may find it useful to consider some examples of sets that are and are not compact.

The singleton set $\{x\}$ is compact in any metric space (out of any open cover, simply pick a single open set that contains x ; this yields the desired subcover). Moreover, any finite set is compact in any topology (consider that for any open cover of a set of n elements, we can just choose at most n open sets corresponding to each element to form our finite subcover).

Next, consider any infinite set Y in a metric space X with the discrete metric:

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = y \\ 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$$

Then is $Y \subset X$ compact? The answer is no; consider the open cover of singleton sets, $U = \{\{x\} : x \in Y\}$. First, note that this is indeed an open cover, as $\{x\}$ is open in X ; consider that $N_r(x) \subset \{x\}$ if $r < 1$, and hence x is an interior point of $\{x\}$, making it open. However, there exists no finite subcover of this open cover as we need to pick an infinite number of singletons to cover each point in Y .

$[1, \infty) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is not compact as we could consider the open cover $\{N_1(n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, which has no finite subcover. For the sake of contradiction, suppose such a finite subcover existed. Then, there exists some maximum m for which there would be a neighbourhood around in this subcover. Then, all real numbers greater than $m + 1$ would not be in this subcover, which is a contradiction. In a similar way, we can show that $\mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ are not compact.

Another interesting example to consider is $(0, 1)$. To see that this interval is not compact, consider the open cover $\{(\frac{1}{n}, 1) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This open cover has no finite subcover. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that a finite subcover existed. Then, there would be some minimum $\frac{1}{N}$ such that $(\frac{1}{N}, 1)$ would be in the subcover. But then no $0 < x < \frac{1}{N}$ would be contained in the subcover, which is a contradiction.

From the Heine-Borel theorem, it is clear here that $[1, \infty), \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^2$ fail due to the sets being unbounded, and the $(0, 1)$ fails due to the set not being closed. We will now move onto a sequence of Theorems that will eventually lead to Heine-Borel (the climax of this chapter)!

Theorem 2.36

Let $\{K_\alpha\}$ is a collection of compact sets such that $\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i} \neq \emptyset$ for any subcollection/any choice of indices $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$. Then, $\bigcap_\alpha K_\alpha \neq \emptyset$.

Proof

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that the assumptions hold but $\bigcap_\alpha K_\alpha \neq \emptyset$. Pick α_0 . Then, $K_{\alpha_0} \cap (\bigcap_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_\alpha) = \emptyset$. Hence, $K_{\alpha_0} \subset (\bigcap_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_\alpha)^c = \bigcup_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_\alpha^c$. Hence, $\{K_\alpha^c\}$ is an open cover of K_{α_0} . K_{α_0} is compact, so there exists a finite subcover $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i}^c = (\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i})^c$. But then we have that $K_{\alpha_0} \cap (\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i}) = \emptyset$, which is a contradiction as a finite intersection should be nonempty by assumption. \square

Corollary

Let $\{K_1, K_2, \dots\}$ be a collection of nonempty and compact sets such that $K_{i+1} \subset K_i$. Then, $\bigcap_{i=1}^\infty K_i \neq \emptyset$.

Proof

If $n_1 < \dots < n_m$, then $\bigcap_{i=1}^m K_{n_i} = K_{n_m} \neq \emptyset$. Then, $\bigcap_{i=1}^\infty K_{n_i} \neq \emptyset$ by the above theorem. \square

Theorem 2.37

Let K be compact and $E \subset K$ be an infinite set. Then, E has a limit point in K .

Proof

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that no point of K is a limit point of E . Then, for all $q \in K$, then there exists $V_q = N_{r_q}(q)$ such that:

$$V_q \cap E = \begin{cases} \{q\} & \text{if } q \in E \\ \emptyset & \text{if } q \notin E \end{cases}$$

Trivially, $\{V_q\}$ is an open cover of K . So, there exists a finite subcover $\{V_{q_i}\}_{i=1}^n$ of K . So:

$$E \subset K \cap E \subset \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{q_i} \right) \cap E = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (V_{q_i} \cap E)$$

But the RHS is a finite set, contradicting the assumption that E is infinite. \square

2.6 Compactness in \mathbb{R}^k and the Cantor Set

Theorem 2.38

Let $I_n = [a_n, b_n] \subset \mathbb{R}$ such that $I_{n+1} \subset I_n$ for all n . Then, $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i \neq \emptyset$.

This theorem is very reminiscent of Theorem 2.37. However, we cannot apply it directly as we do not know if $[a, b]$ is compact (though we will show that this is indeed the case by the end of the lecture, we want to avoid circular reasoning)!



Figure 12: Visualization of the first few sets I_n in Theorem 2.38. Note that this is just an example, and the sets do not need to be “symmetrically shrinking” around a point as pictured.

Proof

We have that $a_n \leq a_{n+m} \leq a_{n+m} \leq b_n$ for all $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $E = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$. E is nonempty and bounded by any b_n , so by the least upper bound property of \mathbb{R} , there exists $x = \sup E \in \mathbb{R}$. We then have that $a_n \leq x \leq b_n$ for all n as x is the least upper bound. Hence, $x \in I_n$ for all n , and hence $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i$. We conclude that $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i \neq \emptyset$. \square

Definition: k-cells

A **k-cell** is $I \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ such that $I = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k : a_j \leq x_j \leq b_j\}$ for some $\{a_1, \dots, a_k, b_1, \dots, b_k\}$.

A k -cell can be viewed as the generalization of a rectangle for \mathbb{R}^k .

Theorem 2.39

Theorem 2.38 holds for general k -cells.

The above theorem follows naturally by applying Theorem 2.38 to each coordinate.

Theorem 2.40

Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ be a k -cell. Then, I is compact.

Proof

Let $\{G_\alpha\}$ be an open cover of $I = I_0$. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that $\{G_\alpha\}$ has no finite subcover. Let $c_j = \frac{1}{2}(a_j + b_j)$. Splitting up I_0 along each coordinate (i.e. $[a_j, c_j], [c_j, b_j]$) we obtain 2^k k -cells Q_i , with $I_0 = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} Q_i$. At least one of these Q_n s has no finite subcover by assumption. Call this I_1 . Then, repeat the same division process using I_1 (and so on). This yields a sequence of k -cells I_0, I_1, I_2, \dots . This sequence has the following properties:

- (a) $I_0 \supset I_1 \supset I_2 \supset \dots$
- (b) None of I_n s have a finite subcover from $\{G_\alpha\}$ by construction.
- (c) Let $\delta = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^k (b_j - a_j)^2}$ be the diameter of I . Then, for $x, y \in I_n$, $|x - y| < 2^{-n}\delta$.

By (a) and Theorem 2.39, we have that there exists \mathbf{x}^* such that $\mathbf{x}^* \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \subset I$. There exists α_0 such that $\mathbf{x} \in G_{\alpha_0}$, and as G_{α_0} is open, there exists some $r > 0$ such that $N_r(\mathbf{x}^*) \subset G_{\alpha_0}$. By (c), we have that $I_n \subset N_{2^{-n+1}\delta}(\mathbf{x}^*)$. For sufficiently large n , $I_n \subset N_{2^{-n+1}\delta}(\mathbf{x}^*) \subset N_r(\mathbf{x}^*) \subset G_{\alpha_0}$, but this contradicts (b). Hence, there must exist a finite subcover of $\{G_\alpha\}$ for I . \square



Figure 13: Visualization of the division process (first three iterations shown) in the proof of Theorem 2.40, for $I \subset \mathbb{R}^2$.

Theorem 2.41: Heine-Borel

If a set in \mathbb{R}^k has the following three properties, then it has the other two.

- (a) E is bounded and closed.
- (b) E is compact.
- (c) Every infinite subset of E has at least one limit point in E

In particular, the equivalence of (a) and (b) is what is commonly referred to as the Heine-Borel theorem.

Proof

(a) \implies (b) If E is bounded, then there exists a k -cell I such that $E \subset I$. I is compact by Theorem 2.40, and since E is closed, by Theorem 2.35 we have that E is compact.

(b) \implies (c) See Theorem 2.37.

(c) \implies (a) Suppose first for the sake of contradiction that E is not bounded. Then, E has an infinite subset $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ with $|x_n| > n$ for all n . Hence, S has no limit points in \mathbb{R}^k , and therefore no limit points in E . But this contradicts (c).

Suppose next that E is not closed. Then, there exists $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^k$ which is a limit point of E but is not in E . Form $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subset E$ with $|x_n - x_0| < \frac{1}{n}$ for all n . We now show that S has no limit point in \mathbb{R}^k except for x_0 . To see this, let $y \in \mathbb{R}^k, y \neq x_0$. Then:

$$|x_n - y| \geq |x_0 - y| - |x_n - x_0| \geq |x_0 - y| - \frac{1}{n} \geq |x_0 - y| - \frac{n}{2}|x_0 - y| = \frac{1}{2}|x_0 - y|$$

Where the last inequality holds for sufficiently large n . As every neighbourhood of y must contain an infinite number of points in S if y is to be a limit point of S (Theorem 2.20) we find that y is not a limit point of S . Hence, S has no limit point in E , again contradicting (c). We conclude that E must be bounded and closed. \square

We have already shown that compactness implies closed in any metric space (see Theorem 2.34). It also turns out that compactness implies boundedness in any metric space, as well!

Proof. Let $E \subset X$ be compact. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that E was unbounded. Pick any $x_0 \in E$, then E is unbounded, so $(N_n(x_0))^c \cap E \neq \emptyset$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. But, $E \subset \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} N_n(x_0)$, and hence $\{N_n(x_0)\}$ forms an (infinite) subcover of E . By the compactness of E , there exists a finite subcover; but then, there is a maximal radius neighbourhood of x_0 that is contained in this subcover. However, this neighbourhood would not contain all $x \in E$ as E is unbounded, which is a contradiction. \square

From this, we have shown that compact implies closed and bounded in any metric space (i.e. the forwards direction of Heine-Borel holds in general). The converse is not always true, however. For one example, consider any infinite set E in a metric space equipped with the discrete metric. E is closed, since E has no limit points (the neighbourhood of radius $r \leq 1$ around any point contains no other point of E). E is bounded as a neighbourhood of radius $r > 1$ around any point contains all points of E . However, as we have discussed previously, E is not compact. Another example would be \mathbb{R}^∞ (i.e. the set of all infinite sequences of real numbers), but the argument for this is left as homework (HW5).

Theorem 2.42: Weierstrauss

Suppose $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ is bounded and infinite. Then, E has a limit point in \mathbb{R}^k .

Proof

Since E is bounded, $E \subset I \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ for some k -cell I . By Theorem 2.40 E is compact, so by Theorem 2.37 E has a limit point in I (and hence in \mathbb{R}^k). \square

Having proven the landmark (Heine-Borel) theorem of this section, we close this chapter with discussion of perfect sets and the Cantor set.

Definition 2.18: Perfect Sets

A set $P \subset X$ is **perfect** if P is closed and every point of P is a limit point of P .

Theorem 2.43

Let $P \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ be nonempty and perfect. Then, P is uncountable.

Proof

Since P has limit points, it is not finite by Theorem 2.20. Assume for the sake of contradiction that P is countable. Then, $P = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$. Let $V_1 = N_r(x_1)$ be any neighbourhood of x_1 . Suppose we construct B_n such that $V_n \cap P \neq \emptyset$ (note that we don't assume that $x_n \in V_n$, just that some point $p \in P$ is in V_n). Since P is perfect, we may construct V_{n+1} such that:

- (i) $\overline{V}_{n+1} \subset V_n$
- (ii) $x_n \notin \overline{V}_{n+1}$
- (iii) $V_{n+1} \cap P \neq \emptyset$

Note that \overline{V}_n is closed and bounded, and hence is compact by Theorem 2.41. Hence, by the corollary to Theorem 2.35 we have that $K_n = \overline{V}_n \cap P$ is also compact. By (ii), we have that $x_n \notin \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$, and this holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, $P \cap \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n = \emptyset$, but $K_n \subset P$, so it follows that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n = \emptyset$. But K_n is non-empty, compact, and $K_{n+1} \subset K_n$, so this contradicts the corollary to Theorem 2.36. We conclude that P is uncountable. \square

Corollary

Every interval $[a, b]$ is uncountable. It follows that \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

Definition 2.44: The Cantor Set

Let $E_0 = [0, 1]$. Then, remove the middle third (that is, $(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$) to obtain $E_1 = [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1]$. Then remove the middle thirds of each of these parts to get $E_2 = [0, \frac{1}{9}] \cup [\frac{2}{9}, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{9}] \cup [\frac{8}{9}, 1]$. This yields a sequence of sets $E_0 \supset E_1 \supset E_2 \supset E_3 \supset \dots$. Then, we may define the **Cantor set** as $P = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$.

Although we will rigorously define a measure in this course, each E_n in the above construction is the union of 2^n intervals of measure $\frac{1}{3^n}$, for a total measure of $\frac{2^n}{3^n}$ for each E_n . Taking the limit of $n \rightarrow \infty$, we

can therefore see that the Cantor set has measure zero. However, the Cantor set is uncountable (as we will see shortly), making it an example of an uncountable set of measure zero.



Figure 14: Visualization of the first few sets E_0, E_1, E_2 used in the construction of the Cantor set.

Theorem

The Cantor set contains no interval (a, b) .

Proof

(Sketch) Any interval (a, b) contains some interval $\left(\frac{3k+1}{3^m}, \frac{3k+2}{3^m}\right)$ which are all removed in the construction of the set. \square

If the Cantor set contains no intervals, then how is it uncountable? It might help to consider that by construction, the endpoints of each E_n belong to P ; in the limit, this yields an uncountable number of points contained in P .

Theorem

The Cantor set is uncountable. Moreover, it is perfect.

Proof

Let $x \in P$ and S be an interval such that $x \in S$. Let I_n be the interval of E_n containing x . The length of I_n is given by $\frac{1}{3^n}$. For sufficiently large n , $I_n \subset S$. Let x_n be an endpoint of I_n such that $x_n \neq x$. By construction, $x_n \in P$, and hence x is a limit point of P by construction. Additionally, P is closed by Theorem 2.24 as it is an infinite intersection of closed sets. Hence P is perfect, and by Theorem 2.43 it is uncountable. \square

3 Numerical Sequences and Series

3.1 Sequences

We begin by formally defining a sequence.

Definition: Sequences

Let X be a metric space. A **sequence** is a function $f : \mathbb{N} \mapsto X$. We can denote a term in the sequence as $f(n) = x_n$, or the entire sequence as $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, $\{x_n\}$, (x_n) , or $\{x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots\}$.

We now discuss the notion of convergence of a sequence. Intuitively, we can equate convergence with the notion of points getting closer together.

Definition 3.1: Convergence of Sequences

A sequence $\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ **converges** to $p \in X$ if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n \geq N$ implies $d(p_n, p) < \epsilon$. In this case, we say that $\{p_n\}$ converges to p , or that p is the limit of $\{p_n\}$, and denote this as $p_n \rightarrow p$ or $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$. If $\{p_n\}$ does not converge, we say it **diverges**.

To phrase this definition in another way, we fix some $\epsilon > 0$, and then we have that all points in the sequence past some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ are contained in the neighbourhood $N_{\epsilon}(p)$. In practice, it can be difficult to apply this definition of convergence if we don't know what the limiting p is, as the definition implicitly uses the value of the limit. We will later discuss another definition of convergence (in \mathbb{R}^k) that does not use the value of the limit.

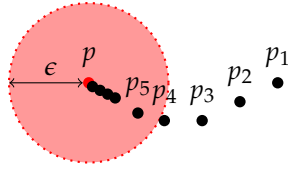


Figure 15: Visualization of a sequence $\{p_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ converging to a point p . For the $\epsilon > 0$ shown in the picture, we have that all points of the sequence past $N = 5$ lie in the open disk of radius ϵ around p .

As a remark, consider that convergence can depend on our choice of metric space; for example, $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$ as a sequence in \mathbb{R} converges to 0, but the same sequence in the strictly positive reals ($\mathbb{R}^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}$) does not converge.

Another interesting example (that again shows us the importance of the choice of metric space). Is \mathbb{R} equipped with the discrete metric. A question we can ask is “given some points $p \in \mathbb{R}$, what sequences converge to p ?” The answer turns out to be eventually constant sequences only; that is, sequences for which $p_n = p$ for $n \geq N$ for some N .

Proof. If $p_n \rightarrow p$, then setting $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, we have that there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq N$, $d(p_n, p) < \epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$. Under the discrete metric, this is only possible if $p_n = p$. \square

This of course is a strikingly different picture for \mathbb{R} with the standard metric of $d(x, y) = |x - y|$. For example, the sequence $p_n = \frac{1}{n}$ has no term equal to zero, but converges to $p = 0$. The takeaway message here can be that in the Euclidean metric, points can “get closer” but in the discrete metric, they cannot.

Theorem 3.3

Suppose $\{s_n\}, \{t_n\}$ are complex sequences that converge, with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \rightarrow s$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \rightarrow t$. Then:

- (a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n + t_n) = s + t$.
- (b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} cs_n = cs$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c + s_n) = c + s$ for all $c \in \mathbb{C}$.
- (c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n t_n = st$
- (d) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s_n} = \frac{1}{s}$ provided $s \neq 0$ and $s_n \neq 0$ for all n .

Proof

- (a) Let $\epsilon > 0$. There exist $N_1, N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|s_{n_1} - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ for $n_1 \geq N_1$ and $|t_{n_2} - t| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ for $n_2 \geq N_2$. Take $N = \max N_1, N_2$, and using the triangle inequality, it follows that for $n \geq N$:

$$|(s_n + t_n) - (s + t)| \leq |s_n - s| + |t_n - t| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

We conclude that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n + t_n) = s + t$.

- (b) Let $\epsilon > 0$. If $c = 0$ then the first sequence trivially converges to 0, so suppose that $c \neq 0$. There exists N such that $|s_n - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{|c|}$ for $n \geq N$, so it follows that:

$$|cs_n - cs| = |c||s_n - s| < |c| \frac{\epsilon}{|c|} = \epsilon.$$

For the second identity, we have that $c_n \rightarrow c$ for any constant sequence $c_n = c$ so we may apply (a).

- (c) Let $\epsilon > 0$. There exist N_1, N_2 such that $|s_{n_1} - s| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ for $n_1 \geq N_1$ and $|t_{n_2} - t| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ for $n_2 \geq N_2$. We then consider that:

$$s_n t_n - st = (s_n - s)(t_n - t) + s(t_n - t) + t(s_n - s)$$

For $n \geq N = \max N_1, N_2$, we have that:

$$(s_n - s)(t_n - t) < \epsilon$$

And we hence observe that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n - s)(t_n - t) = 0$. We can then use (a) and (b) to find that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s(t_n - t) = 0, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(s_n - s) = 0$$

So we conclude that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n t_n - st) = 0$ and hence $s_n t_n \rightarrow st$.

Proof (Continued)

(d) Choose m such that $|s_n - s| < \frac{1}{2}|s|$ if $n \geq m$. We then have that $|s_n| > \frac{1}{2}|s|$ for $n \geq m$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists N with $N > m$ such that for $n \geq N$:

$$|s_n - s| < \frac{1}{2}|s|^2\epsilon$$

Hence, for $n \geq N$:

$$\left| \frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} \right| = \left| \frac{s_n - s}{s_n s} \right| < \frac{2}{|s|^2} |s_n - s| < \epsilon$$

□

Lemma: Squeeze Lemma

Let $\{x_n\}, \{s_n\}$ be real-valued sequences. Then, if $0 \leq x_n \leq s_n$ for all n , and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$.

Proof

Let $\epsilon > 0$. Choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n \geq N$ implies $0 \leq s_n < \epsilon$. Then, we have that for $n \geq N$, $0 \leq x_n \leq s_n < \epsilon$ and hence $x_n \rightarrow 0$ as claimed. □

Note that we can prove a more generalized version of the Squeeze Lemma.

Lemma: Generalized Squeeze Lemma

Suppose we have sequences $\{l_n\}, \{x_n\}, \{u_n\}$ such that $l_n \leq x_n \leq u_n$ for all n and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} l_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = L \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = L$.

Proof

We have that $0 \leq u_n - l_n \leq u_n - l_n$. We have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n - l_n = 0$ by Theorem 3.3(a), so by the (original) Squeeze Lemma we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n - l_n = 0$. It then follows that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} l_n = L$ as claimed.

Theorem 3.20

- (a) Let $p > 0$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 0$.
- (b) Let $p > 0$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{p} = 1$.
- (c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1$.
- (d) Let $p > 0$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n} = 0$.
- (e) Let $|x| < 1$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0$.

Proof

(a) Let $\epsilon > 0$. Choose N such that $\frac{1}{N^p} < \epsilon$, namely $N > \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)^{1/p}$. Then, for $n \geq N$, $\frac{1}{n^p} < \frac{1}{N^p} < \epsilon$.

(b) If $p = 1$, the sequence is constant and the conclusion immediate.

If $p > 1$, then let $x_n = \sqrt[p]{p} - 1$. We then have that:

$$p = (x_n + 1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x_n^k \geq nx_n$$

Where the second equality follows from the binomial theorem (where $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$), and the inequality follows by considering that we just keep the $k = 1$ term (and the series is non-negative). Hence, we have that $x_n \leq \frac{p}{n}$, and $x_n \rightarrow 0$ by (a).

If $p < 1$, then let $q = \frac{1}{p} > 1$. Then, $\sqrt[q]{q} \rightarrow 1$ by the argument above. By Theorem 3.3(d), we then have that $\sqrt[p]{p} = \frac{1}{\sqrt[q]{q}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1} = 1$.

(c) Let $x_n = \sqrt[n]{n} - 1$. Then, we have that:

$$n = (x_n + 1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x_n^k \geq \frac{n(n-1)}{2} x_n^2$$

Where the inequality follows from keeping the $k = 2$ term only. We then have that $x_n \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}}$ and hence $x_n \rightarrow 0$ by the Squeeze Lemma.

(d) We want to show $\frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n} \rightarrow 0$; we therefore want an upper bound on the expression, and hence a lower bound on $(1+p)^n$. Applying the Binomial Theorem we have that:

$$(1+p)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k = ((n)(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-k+1)) \frac{p^k}{k!}$$

Now, we pick $k > \alpha$. For $2n > k$, we then have that:

$$(1+p)^n \geq \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^k \frac{p^k}{k!}$$

We therefore have that:

$$\frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^k} \leq \frac{2^k k!}{p^k} n^{\alpha-k} \rightarrow 0$$

And the claim follows by the Squeeze Lemma.

(e) Taking $\alpha = 0$ in (d), the claim follows by setting $|x| = \frac{1}{1+p} < 1$ (as $p > 0$) and recognizing that $x_n \rightarrow 0 \iff |x^n| = |x|^n \rightarrow 0$. \square

3.2 Subsequences

Theorem 3.2

Let $\{p_n\}$ be a sequence in X .

- (a) $p_n \rightarrow p$ in X if and only if for all $r > 0$, $N_r(p)$ contains all but finitely many points of $\{p_n\}$.
- (b) If $p_n \rightarrow p$ and $p_n \rightarrow p'$ then $p = p'$. In other words, the limit is unique.
- (c) If $\{p_n\}$ is convergent, then it is bounded (that is, for any $q \in X$ there exists $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $d(q, p_n) \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$).
- (d) If $E \subset X$ has a limit point p , then there exists $\{p_n\}$ in E such that $p_n \rightarrow p$.

Proof

- (a) The claim follows immediately from the definition of convergence; for any $r = \epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $N_r(p)$ contains $\{p_n : n \geq N\}$.
- (b) There exist N_1, N_2 such that $d(p, p_{n_1}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ if $n_1 \geq N_1$ and $d(p, p_{n_2}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ if $n_2 \geq N_2$. Then for $n \geq N = \max N_1, N_2$ we have (using the triangle inequality) that:

$$d(p, p') \leq d(p, p_n) + d(p_n, p') < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

Since ϵ is arbitrary, $d(p, p') = 0$ and hence $p = p'$.

- (c) If $p_n \rightarrow p$, there exists N such that $d(p_n, p) < 1$ for all $n \geq N$. Set:

$$r = \max \{1, d(p_1, p), d(p_2, p), \dots, d(p_{N-1}, p)\}$$

For any $q \in X$, we then have that:

$$d(q, p_n) \leq d(q, p) + d(p, p_n) \leq d(q, p) + r$$

so the claim follows with $M = r + d(q, p) + 1$.

- (d) Pick $p_n \in E$ such that $d(p_n, p) < \frac{1}{n}$. Let $\epsilon > 0$, and $N > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$. Then, $n \geq N$ implies $\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$ and hence $d(p_n, p) < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq N$, and hence $p_n \rightarrow p$ as desired. \square

Definition 3.5: Subsequences

Given $\{p_n\}$ and $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$, we say that $\{p_{n_j}\}$ is a **subsequence** of $\{p_n\}$.

We first consider some examples. Let $p_n = n$. Then some valid subsequences of $\{p_n\}$ are $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$ (the original sequence), $\{1, 3, 5, 7, \dots\}$ (the odds), $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, \dots\}$ (the primes). Next, let $p_n = i^n$. We have that $\{p_n\} = \{i, -1, -i, 1, i, -1, -i, 1, \dots\}$ which is clearly divergent. However, the subsequences $\{i, i, i, \dots\}$, $\{-1, -1, -1, \dots\}$, $\{-i, -i, -i, \dots\}$ and $\{1, 1, 1, \dots\}$ are all convergent! It is hence possible for a divergent sequence to have a convergent subsequence.

Lemma

If $p_n \rightarrow p$, then every subsequence of $\{p_n\}$ converges to p .

Proof

Suppose $p_n \rightarrow p$ and let $\{p_{n_j}\}$ be a subsequence of p_n . Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d(p, p_n) < \epsilon$ if $n \geq N$. Hence, $d(p, p_{n_j}) < \epsilon$ if $n_j \geq N$ and hence $p_{n_j} \rightarrow p$. \square

Theorem 3.6

- (a) If $\{p_n\} \subset X$ with X compact, then $\{p_n\}$ has a convergent subsequence.
- (b) If $\{p_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ and $\{p_n\}$ is bounded, then $\{p_n\}$ has a convergent subsequence.

Proof

- (a) Let E be the range of $\{p_n\}$. If E is finite, then there exists $x \in X$ and $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$ such that $p_{n_j} = x$ for all j . Therefore $p_{n_j} \rightarrow x$ and we are done. If E is infinite, then by compactness, $E \subset X$ has a limit point in X by Theorem 2.37. By Theorem 3.2(d) there exists a sequence $\{p_{n_j}\}$ in E such that $p_{n_j} \rightarrow p$.
- (b) By Theorem 2.41, E (being bounded) lies in a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^k . We then apply (a). \square

3.3 Cauchy Sequences and Completeness

Definition 3.8: Cauchy Sequences

A sequence $\{p_n\} \subset X$ is a **Cauchy sequence** if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n, m \geq N$, $d(p_n, p_m) < \epsilon$.

Note the fact that this definition does not refer to a particular p that the sequence may converge to! It instead formalizes the notion of the points of a sequence getting “closer together” as the sequence goes on. It is therefore easier to check if a sequence is Cauchy than if it converges, as we don’t need to know the value of the limit. To this end, it is useful to know in what situations a sequence being Cauchy implies that the sequence is convergent. We will soon arrive at a theorem that addresses this question, but first we establish a little more machinery.

Definition 3.9: Diameter

Let $E \subset X$. Then the **diameter** of E , denoted $\text{diam } E$ is defined as $\text{diam } E = \sup \{d(p, q) : p, q \in E\}$. It follows from the definition that a sequence $\{p_n\}$ is Cauchy if and only if $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } E_n = 0$ where $E_n = \{p_n\}_{n=N}^{\infty}$ (the tail of the sequence).

Example

- (a) If $E = (a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}$ or $E = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$, then $\text{diam } E = b - a$.
- (b) If $E = (0, 1) \times (0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, then $\text{diam } E = \sqrt{2}$ (the diagonal of the open square).

Theorem 3.10

- (a) Let $E \subset X$. Then, $\text{diam } \bar{E} = \text{diam } E$.
- (b) If $K_n \subset X$ are compact, $K_{n+1} \subset K_n$ for all n , and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } K_n = 0$, then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$ consists of exactly one point.

Proof

- (a) Since $E \subset \bar{E}$, it is clear that $\text{diam } \bar{E} \geq \text{diam } E$. Next, let $\epsilon > 0$ and $p, q \in \bar{E}$. Choose $p', q' \in E$ such that $d(p, p') < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$, $d(q, q') < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ (this choice is possible as either p, q are in E , or p, q are limit points of E). Then, we have that:

$$d(p, q) \leq d(p, p') + d(p', q) \leq d(p, p') + d(p', q') + d(q', q) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \text{diam } E + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \text{diam } E + \epsilon$$

ϵ, p , and q are arbitrary, so it follows that $\text{diam } \bar{E} \leq \text{diam } E + \epsilon$ from the definition of the diameter. It then follows that $\text{diam } \bar{E} \leq \text{diam } E$. We conclude that $\text{diam } \bar{E} = \text{diam } E$.

- (b) Let $K = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$. By the corollary to Theorem 2.36, we have that $K \neq \emptyset$, so K contains at least one point. Since $K \subset K_n$, it follows that $\text{diam } K \leq \text{diam } K_n$ for any n , and since $\text{diam } K_n \rightarrow 0$, $\text{diam } K = 0$. If there were $p, q \in K$ such that $p \neq q$, then $\text{diam } K \neq 0$, so it must follow that K has at most one point. We conclude that K has exactly one point. \square

Lemma

If a sequence $\{p_n\}$ is Cauchy, then it is bounded.

Proof

If $\{p_n\}$ is Cauchy, then we have that $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } E_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } \{p_n\}_{n=N}^{\infty} = 0$. Then for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, $\text{diam } E_N < 1$. The range of $\{p_n\}$ is the union of E_N and the finite set $\{p_1, \dots, p_{N-1}\}$ and hence $\{p_n\}$ is bounded. \square

Theorem 3.11

- (a) If a sequence $\{p_n\} \subset X$ converges, then it is Cauchy.
- (b) If a sequence $\{p_n\} \subset X$ is Cauchy and X is compact, then $\{p_n\}$ converges to some $p \in X$.
- (c) In \mathbb{R}^k , every Cauchy sequence is convergent.

Proof

- (a) Let $p_n \rightarrow p$ and let $\epsilon > 0$. There exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d(p_n, p) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ if $n \geq N$. Then, for $n, m \geq N$, we have that:

$$d(p_n, p_m) \leq d(p_n, p) + d(p, p_m) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

so $\{p_n\}$ is Cauchy.

- (b) Let $E_N = \{p_n\}_{n=N}^{\infty}$. Then, $\bar{E}_N \subset X$ is closed, so by the compactness of X we have that \bar{E}_N is compact by Theorem 2.35. Since $E_{N+1} \subset E_N$, we have that $\bar{E}_{N+1} \subset \bar{E}_N$, and additionally we have that $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \bar{E}_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} E_N = 0$ where the first equality follows from Theorem 3.10(a) and the second equality follows from the fact that $\{p_n\}$ is Cauchy and Definition 3.9. Thus, Theorem 3.10(b) says that there exists a unique point $p \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bar{E}_N$. Next, let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists N_0 such that $\text{diam } \bar{E}_N < \epsilon$ for all $N \geq N_0$. So, $d(p, q) < \epsilon$ for all $q \in \bar{E}_N$, so the same holds for all $q \in E_N$. Hence, $d(p, p_n) < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq N_0$, which shows that $p_n \rightarrow p$ and proves the claim.

- (c) By the above Lemma, Cauchy sequences are bounded. Hence, $\{p_n\} \subset I$ for some k -cell $I \subset \mathbb{R}^k$. Since I is compact in \mathbb{R}^k , the claim follows from (b). \square

Definition 3.12: Completeness

A metric space X is called **complete** if every Cauchy sequence converges in X .

It might be tempting at first to think that every space would be complete, but this is not the case. For example, something that can go wrong is a sequence can be Cauchy, but the limit can lie “outside” of the space. To see this, consider again the sequence $\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}$ in the metric space $\mathbb{R}^+ = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq 0\}$. The sequence is Cauchy, but does not converge in \mathbb{R}^+ (as it converges to 0, which lies outside of the space).

Example

- (i) Compact sets are complete by Theorem 3.11(b).
- (ii) \mathbb{R}^k (and \mathbb{C}) are complete by Theorem 3.11(c).
- (iii) \mathbb{Q} is not complete. We can make a sequence of rational points that converges to an irrational number in \mathbb{R} which is Cauchy, but does not converge in \mathbb{Q} (Example 1.1 gives a way one might construct such a sequence).

Note that \mathbb{Q} can be completed to \mathbb{R} , and in general for any (X, d) which is not complete, there exists (X^*, d^*) that is complete such that $|X| = X^*$. Indeed, this is another way we can construct the real numbers! \mathbb{R} can be viewed as equivalence classes of Cauchy sequences in \mathbb{Q} . The idea is to define an equivalence relation \sim such that $p_n \sim q_n$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(p_n, q_n) = 0$. X^* is then defined as the set of equivalence classes under that equivalence relation, equipped with the metric $d^*([p], [q]) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(p_n, q_n)$. It can then be checked that d^* is a valid metric and that X^* is complete. For the full proof, see HW7, or exercises 3.23-3.25 in Rudin (note: this proof is quite technical/difficult).

To motivate the next theorem, consider that all convergent sequences in \mathbb{R} (and in general) are bounded (as we saw in Theorem 3.2(c)). However, this is not always true; for example consider $p_n = (-1)^n$ which is clearly bounded but divergent. What then are conditions that a bounded sequence may converge?

Definition 3.13: Monotonic Sequences

A sequence $\{p_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is **monotonically increasing** if $p_{n+1} \geq p_n$ for all n , and **monotonically decreasing** if $p_{n+1} \leq p_n$.

Theorem 3.14

Suppose $\{p_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is monotonic. Then, $\{p_n\}$ is convergent if and only if it is bounded.

Proof

\Rightarrow See Theorem 3.2(c).

\Leftarrow We show the proof for the increasing case as the decreasing case is analogous. Let $p = \sup p_n : n \in \mathbb{N}$ which exists as $\{p_n\}$ is bounded and \mathbb{R} has the LUB property. Then, $p_n \leq p$ for all n . Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p - \epsilon < p_N < p_{N+1}$. By the monotonicity of $\{p_n\}$, it follows that $|p_n - p| < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq N$. Hence, $p_n \rightarrow p$. \square

Definition 3.15: Limits to Infinity

Let $\{p_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$. If for all $M \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p_n > M$ for all $n \geq N$, then we write $p_n \rightarrow \infty$. If instead for all $M \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p_n < M$ for all $n \geq N$, then we write $p_n \rightarrow -\infty$.

3.4 Limit Supremum and Limit Infimum

As a motivating question, how would we say something about the largest and smallest accumulation points of a sequence? This leads us to the following definition.

Definition 3.16: limsup and liminf

Let $\{s_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, then, we define the **limit supremum** as:

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \inf_{n \geq 1} \sup_{m \geq n} s_m = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{m \geq n} s_m$$

And the **limit infimum** as:

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \sup_{n \geq 1} \inf_{m \geq n} s_m = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} s_m$$

Note that unlike the limit of a real-valued sequence, the limsup and liminf always exist.

In the above definition, the equivalence of $\inf_{n \geq 1} \sup_{m \geq n} s_m$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{m \geq n} s_m$ may be slightly confusing. To see this, consider the fact that the sequence $q_n = \sup \{p_n : n \geq 1\}$ is a strictly decreasing sequence in n (with increasing n , we take the supremum over less terms each time), so taking the limit of $n \rightarrow \infty$ or taking the infimum over n are equivalent.

Note that Rudin defines the limsup/liminf differently, but perfectly equivalently. Namely, if $\{p_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a sequence, then E is the set of all subsequential limits (i.e. there is a subsequence of $\{p_n\}$ with a given limit). Then, $\limsup^* p_n = \sup E$ (we use the $*$ to denote Rudin's definition). The equivalence is not immediately obvious, so we here give a sketch to show that the two definitions coincide. We will use the

general technique of showing that the two expressions are ϵ close to one another. Namely, for any $\epsilon > 0$, we show that the following two statements hold:

- 1) $\limsup^* p_n \leq \limsup p_n + \epsilon$
- 2) $\limsup^* p_n + \epsilon \geq \limsup p_n$

To show 1), for each N , we let n_N be an index such that p_{n_N} satisfies:

$$p_{n_N} \geq \sup \{p_n : n \geq N\} - \frac{\epsilon}{N}$$

And then we claim that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n_N} = \limsup p_n$ (Exercise). There is one slight technical issue in that $\{p_{n_N}\}$ may not be a subsequence of $\{p_n\}$, in particular we don't know that $n_{N_1} < n_{N_2} < n_{N_3} < \dots$ just by the above construction (but in order for this to be a valid subsequence, we need this to be the case). Fortunately, this is a fixable issue. We do know that $n_{N_1} \geq 1$, $n_{N_2} \geq 2$, $n_{N_3} \geq 3$ by construction, so if it turns out to be the case that $n_{N_1} < n_{N_2}$ doesn't hold, we can skip ahead into the sequence until we find the first j for which the equality holds. Concretely, if $n_{N_1} = 1000$ (as an example), then if we skip ahead to $n_{N_{1001}}$, it is guaranteed that $n_{N_1} < n_{N_{1001}}$ and we can from there construct a valid sequence. The sketch for 2) is left as an exercise.

Example

- (a) Consider $s_n = (-1)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$. Then, we have that $1 \leq \sup_{m \geq n} s_m \leq 1 + \frac{1}{1^2} = 2$, so $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 1$. Similarly, $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = -1$. Note that this sequence has no limit (it oscillates indefinitely and does not converge) but these quantities are well defined. We notice that the limsup is greater than the liminf in this case, and indeed it is true in general that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$.
- (b) If $\{s_n\}$ is not bounded above, then $\sup_{m \geq n} s_m = \infty$ for all n and we write $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \infty$. Similarly, if $\{s_n\}$ is not bounded below, then $\inf_{m \geq n} s_m = -\infty$ for all n and we write $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = -\infty$.

One difficulty with discussing the convergence of a sequence is that the definition is difficult to apply; we need to know what the sequence converges to. The notion of a Cauchy sequence then begins helpful (as Cauchy and convergent are equivalent in complete metric spaces). In addition, it is helpful to consider the limsup and liminf, as we can bound the limit above and below with these quantities respectively. In particular, the limit of the supremum of the tail of the sequence equals the limit of the infimum of the tail of the sequence equals the limit of the sequence if the sequence is convergent.

Theorem 3.18

Let $\{s_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$. Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$ if and only if $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$.

Proof

\Rightarrow Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s_m \in (L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon)$ for all $m \geq N$. Then, we have that:

$$L - \epsilon \leq \inf_{m \geq N} s_m \leq \sup_{m \geq N} s_m \leq L + \epsilon$$

Taking limits we have:

$$L - \epsilon \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq L + \epsilon$$

ϵ is arbitrary, so we have that $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$.

\Leftarrow We have that:

$$\inf_{m \geq n} s_m \leq s_n \leq \sup_{m \geq n} s_m$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By assumption we have $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$ so by the Generalized Squeeze Lemma we conclude that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$. \square

3.5 Series

Definition 3.21: Infinite Series

Let $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{C}$. We then form a new sequence of $s_n = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j$ (the sequence of partial sums). Then, if $s_n \rightarrow s$. We say that the series $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j$ converges, and write $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j = s$. If s_n does not converge, we say that $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j$ diverges. As a notational point, we will sometimes omit the bounds of summation and write $\sum a_j$ to denote an infinite series, where the meaning is clear from context.

Note that series are just a specific subset of sequences. Although the above definition states that $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{C}$, it is in general possible to define series over general vector spaces, with $\{a_n\} \in V$ and $\{s_n\} \in V$.

Note that this generalization allows us to state an equivalent notion of completeness for vector spaces, namely that V is complete if and only if for all sequences $\{a_n\} \subset V$, the sum $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \|a_n\|$ converges to a point in V . As before, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^k (both over the field \mathbb{R}), are complete vector spaces. An example of a vector space that is not complete is the set of functions $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{C}$ such that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty$ (where the integral is the familiar Riemann integral from first year calculus, to be defined more rigorously in Chapter 6). For example, the sequence $f_n \subset V$ such that:

$$f_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for the first } n \text{ rationals} \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

does not converge to a function in V . In fact, Lebesgue integration (which is not covered in this course, but will be the primary focus of a course in measure theory) deals with this issue.

We will now restate the Cauchy criterion (Theorem 3.11) for series.

Theorem 3.22

A series $\sum a_j$ converges if and only if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\left| \sum_{j=m}^n a_j \right| < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq m \geq N$.

Proof

$\sum a_j$ converges if and only if $\{s_n\}$ converges if and only if $\{s_n\}$ is Cauchy. So by definition there exists N such that for $n \geq m - 1 \geq N$:

$$|s_n - s_m| = \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_j - \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} a_j \right| = \left| \sum_{j=m}^n a_j \right| < \epsilon$$

which proves the claim. \square

Theorem 3.23: Divergence Test

If $\sum a_n$ converges, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Proof

Choose $n = m$ in Theorem 3.22. \square

Note that this criteria gives us the ability to easily check if a series diverges; if a_j does not converge to 0, then $\sum a_j$ diverges. However, note that the reverse implication does NOT hold! $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges (as we will show next lecture) even though clearly $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$.

Theorem 3.24

Let $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $a_n \geq 0$ for all n . Then, we have that $\sum a_n$ converges if and only if the sequence of partial sums $\{s_n\}$ is bounded.

Proof

If $a_n \geq 0$, then $\{s_n\}$ is monotonically increasing. Then by Theorem 3.14, $\{s_n\}$ converges if and only if it is bounded. \square

Theorem 3.25: Comparison Test

- (a) Let $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{C}$ and $\{c_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$. Then, if $|a_n| \leq c_n$ for all $n \geq N_0$ for some $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\sum c_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges.
- (b) Let $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\{d_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$. If $a_n \geq d_n \geq 0$ for all $n \geq N_0$ for some $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\sum d_n$ diverges, then $\sum a_n$ diverges.

Proof

- (a) Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\sum_{j=m}^n c_j < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq m \geq N$. Then, take $N \geq N_0$, and we have that:

$$\left| \sum_{j=m}^n a_j \right| \leq \sum_{j=m}^n |a_j| \leq \sum_{j=m}^n c_j < \epsilon$$

Where in the first inequality we apply the triangle inequality (Theorem 1.37). We conclude that $\sum a_j$ converges by the Cauchy criterion (Theorem 3.22).

- (b) The claim follows by considering the contrapositive of (a). □

Theorem 3.26: The Geometric Series

If $0 \leq x < 1$, then $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j = \frac{1}{1-x}$. If $x \geq 1$, then $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j$ diverges.

Proof

Suppose $x = 1$. Then, $x_n = 1$ does not converge to zero, so by Theorem 3.24 $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j$ diverges. Suppose then that $x \neq 1$. We have that $s_n = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n$. Hence, $xs_n = x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^{n+1}$. Hence, $(1-x)s_n = 1 + x^{n+1}$ and therefore a closed form expression for s_n is:

$$s_n = \frac{1 + x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

If $x > 1$, we have that s_n diverges (again) by Theorem 3.24. If $x < 1$, then $x^{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ by 3.20(e), so $s_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{1-x}$. □

Note that by the comparison test, the above result can be generalized to see that $\sum z^j$ for $z \in \mathbb{C}$ converges for $|z| < 1$ and diverges for $|z| \geq 1$.

Theorem 3.27: Cauchy Condensation Test

Suppose $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \dots \geq 0$. Then, $\sum a_j$ converges if and only if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^n a_{2^n}$ converges.

Proof

\Rightarrow For $2^k < n$, using the fact that the sequence is decreasing, we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n &\geq a_1 + a_2 + (a_3 + a_4) + \dots + (a_{2^{k-1}+1} + \dots + a_{2^k}) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2}a_1 + a_2 + 2a_4 + \dots + 2^{k-1}a_{2^k} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + 2a_2 + 4a_4 + \dots + 2^k a_{2^k}) \end{aligned}$$

Hence by the comparison test (Theorem 3.25) we have that $\sum 2^n a_{2^n}$ converges if $\sum a_j$ converges.

\Leftarrow We show the contrapositive. For $2^k > n$, We have that:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n &\leq a_1 + (a_2 + a_3) + \dots + (a_{2^k} + \dots + a_{2^{k+1}-1}) \\ &\leq a_1 + 2a_2 + 4a_4 + \dots + 2^k a_{2^k} \end{aligned}$$

Hence by the comparison test (Theorem 3.25) we have that $\sum 2^n a_{2^n}$ diverges if $\sum a_j$ diverges. \square

3.6 p-Series and Euler's Number

We now use the result of Theorem 3.27 to prove a result about a familiar subset of series.

Theorem 3.28: p-Series

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $p \leq 1$.

Proof

If $p \leq 0$, then n^p does not converge to 0 and hence $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$ diverges by Theorem 3.23. If $p > 0$, then $\frac{1}{n^p}$ is a monotonically decreasing sequence of positive terms. Hence, we can apply the result of Theorem 3.27. $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if and only if $\sum_k 2^k \frac{1}{2^{kp}} = \sum_k \left(\frac{1}{2^{p-1}}\right)^k$ converges. By Theorem 3.26, this last expression is convergent if and only if $0 < \frac{1}{2^{p-1}} < 1$, i.e. if $p > 1$, proving the claim. \square

From the above result, we have that the p -series converges if $p > 1$ and diverges otherwise. Is there something “in between” these two regions?

Theorem 3.29

$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $p \leq 1$.

Proof

$\log n$ is monotonically increasing for $p > 0$. So, $\frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$ is monotonically decreasing. Hence, $\sum \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$ converges if and only if $\sum_k 2^k \frac{1}{2^k (\log 2^k)^p} = \sum_k \frac{1}{k^p}$ converges, and hence the claim follows from Theorem 3.28. \square

Definition 3.30: Euler's Number

$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$, where $0! = 1$ and $n! = n \cdot (n-1)! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$ for $n \geq 1$.

We should check that this expression is well defined (namely, that the series converges). We first observe that $\frac{1}{n!} \leq \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$ for $n \geq 1$. Therefore, we have that:

$$s_n = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \leq 1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2^{j-1}} \leq 1 + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^j} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 3$$

Where we use Theorem 3.26 in the second last equality. Hence, we conclude that $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!}$ converges by comparison, and moreover, that $0 < e < 3$.

It will also be of interest to investigate the rate of convergence of this series. To this end, we observe:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < e - s_q &= \frac{1}{(q+1)!} + \frac{1}{(q+2)!} + \dots \leq \frac{1}{(q+1)!} \left(1 + \frac{1}{q+1} + \frac{1}{(q+1)^2} + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{(q+1)!} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{q+1}} = \frac{1}{(q+1)!} \frac{q+1}{q} = \frac{1}{q!q} \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have that the error goes to zero extremely quickly! Moreover, we can use this fact to show that e is irrational.

Theorem 3.32: Irrationality of e

$e \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof

Suppose $e = \frac{p}{q}$ for $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, by the argument above, we have that $0 < e - s_q < \frac{1}{q!q}$. Hence, we have that $0 < q!e - q!s_q < \frac{1}{q} \leq 1$. But, $q!e = q! \frac{p}{q} = (q-1)!p \in \mathbb{N}$, and $q!s_q = \sum_{j=0}^q q! \frac{1}{j!} \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, $q!e - q!s_q \in \mathbb{Z}$, but this is a contradiction as $0 < q!e - q!s_q < 1$. \square

There is another familiar definition of e involving a limit that one may recall from first year calculus. These definitions are equivalent, as we will show in the next theorem.

Theorem 3.31

$$e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n.$$

Proof

Let $t_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$. By the Binomial theorem, we have that:

$$t_n = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^j = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \left(\frac{n}{n} \cdot \frac{(n-1)}{n} \cdots \frac{(n-j+1)}{n}\right) \leq s_n$$

Where the last inequality follows from the fact that the term in brackets is less than (or equal to) 1. Hence, we have that $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = e$. On the other hand, fix $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $n \geq m$. Then, we have that:

$$t_n \geq \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{n}{j} \frac{1}{n^j} = \sum_{j=0}^m \frac{1}{j!} \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{j-1}{n}\right) \right)$$

The infimum of the term in the brackets is just 1, so we therefore have that:

$$\inf_{n \geq m} t_n = \sum_{j=0}^m \frac{1}{j!} = s_m$$

Now, we take $m \rightarrow \infty$ to find that $\liminf_{m \rightarrow \infty} t_m \geq \liminf_{m \rightarrow \infty} s_m = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} s_m = e$.

Having shown that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \geq e \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n$, we conclude that $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = e$ and hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = e$. \square

3.7 The Ratio and Root Tests

Theorem 3.33: The Root Test

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series, and put $\alpha = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$. Then,

- (i) $\sum a_n$ converges if $\alpha < 1$.
- (ii) $\sum a_n$ diverges if $\alpha > 1$.
- (iii) If $\alpha = 1$, the test is inconclusive.

Proof

- (i) Suppose $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \alpha < 1$. Take β such that $\alpha < \beta < 1$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < \beta$ for all $n \geq N$. Hence, for $n \geq N$, $|a_n| < \beta^n$, and $\beta < 1$. The result follows by using the comparison Test with the geometric series.
- (ii) Suppose $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \alpha > 1$. Then, there exists a subsequence such that $\sqrt[n_j]{|a_{n_j}|} \rightarrow \alpha$. Therefore, there exists N such that for $j \geq N$, $\sqrt[n_j]{|a_{n_j}|} > 1$, that is to say, $\sqrt[n_j]{|a_{n_j}|} > 1$ for infinitely many terms. Hence, $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$ does not converge to zero, and hence the series does not converge by the divergence test.
- (iii) Consider $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ and $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$. $\alpha = 1$ for both sums, but by Theorem 3.28 the former diverges and the latter converges. \square

Theorem 3.34: The Ratio Test

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series such that $a_n \neq 0$ for all n . Then,

- (i) $\sum a_n$ converges if $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$.
- (ii) Diverges if there exists N_0 such that $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \geq 1$ for all $n \geq N_0$.

In other cases, the test is inconclusive.

Proof

- (i) By assumption, there exists $\beta < 1$ such that for some N , $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < \beta$ for all $n \geq N$. We then have that $|a_{N+1}| < \beta|a_N|$, that $|a_{N+1}| < \beta|a_{N+1}| < \beta^2|a_N|$ and inductively we obtain that $|a_{N+p}| < \beta^p|a_N|$. In other words, we have that for $n \geq N$, $|a_n| < |a_N|\beta^{-N}\beta^n$. Since $\sum \beta^n$ converges (convergent geometric series), $\sum a_n$ converges by the comparison test.
- (ii) For $n \geq N_0$, we have that $|a_n| \leq |a_{N+1}|$. Hence, a_n does not converge to 0, and the claim follows by the divergence test. \square

As a remark, the the ratio test is less powerful than the root test. For any series for which the ratio test is conclusive, the root test is also conclusive. But the converse is not true. However, the ratio test is easier to apply in practice. We also note that the above ratio test implies the (perhaps more familiar) version from first year calculus:

Corollary

Let $\sum a_n$ be a series such that $a_n \neq 0$ for all n . Then:

- (i) $\sum a_n$ converges if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$.
- (ii) $\sum a_n$ diverges if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$.
- (iii) $\sum a_n$ diverges if $\liminf \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$.

Example 3.35

Consider the series:

$$\frac{1}{2} + 1 + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$$

We then have that the ratio $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ is the sequence $2, \frac{1}{8}, 2, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$. Therefore, $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 2 > 1$ and $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \frac{1}{8} < 1$ and the ratio test is inconclusive/tells us nothing. We then consider the root test. For $n \geq 3$, we have that:

$$a_n = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^k = \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} = 2\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} & n = 2k + 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^k = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} & n = 2k \end{cases}$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{p} = 1$ for $p > 0$ (Theorem 3.20(b)), we have that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{c \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{c} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} < 1$$

where the above limit holds for either $c = \frac{1}{2}$ or $c = 2$. Hence, we conclude that the series converges by the root test. This example demonstrates how the root test is “sharper” than the ratio test (though harder to apply).

3.8 Power Series

Definition 3.38: Power Series

For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and a sequence $\{c_n\}$, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ is called a **power series**.

Theorem 3.39: Radius of Convergence

Let $R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}}$, with the convention $R = \infty$ if $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} = 0$ and $R = 0$ if $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} = \infty$. Then, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ converges if $|z| < R$ and diverges if $|z| > R$. R is called the **radius of convergence** of $\sum c_n z^n$. We note that on the circle $|z| = R$, the behavior is varied; the series can be divergent or convergent, and it can also depend on the particular choice of z on the circle.

Proof

We have that $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{c_n z^n} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{c_n} |z| = \frac{|z|}{R}$. Therefore, by the root test (Theorem 3.33) the series converges if $|z| < R$ and diverges if $|z| > R$ (and nothing can be said if $|z| = R$). \square

Note that we can use the ratio test to determine R as well, as we will see in the next few examples.

Example 3.40

(a) $\sum n! z^n$. By the ratio test, we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)! z^{n+1}}{n! z^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1) |z| = \infty$ for all $z \neq 0$. Hence the series diverges for all $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$, and we conclude that $R = 0$.

(b) $\sum \frac{z^n}{n^n}$. By Theorem 3.39, we have that:

$$R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{n^n}}} = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}} = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}} = \infty$$

(c) $\sum \frac{z^n}{n!}$ also has $R = \infty$ (as can be checked easily with the ratio test). For $R = 1$, the series is equal to e . As we will define later in Chapter 8, this series is equal to e^z .

(d) $\sum \frac{z^n}{n^p}$ with $p > 1$. By Theorem 3.39, we have that:

$$R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{n^p}}} = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^{\frac{p}{n}}} = \frac{1}{1^p} = 1$$

where for the second last equality we apply Theorem 3.20(c). Note that this series converges for all $|z| \leq 1$ (although the above calculation does not show convergence on the boundary).

Before moving on, let us consider some further examples. Suppose $a_n = 1$ for all n . Then, our power series is just $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$, which is just the Geometric series. By Theorem 3.26, we have that the series converges if $|z| < 1$ to $\frac{1}{1-z}$.

As another example, consider the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} z^n$. By the ratio test, we find that $R = 1$, as:

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{1}{n+1} z^{n+1}}{\frac{1}{n} z^n} \right| = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n}{n+1} z \right| = |z| \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right| = |z|$$

So this series converges if $|z| < 1$, diverges if $|z| > 1$. What happens for $|z| = 1$? At $z = 1$, we have that the series is just the standard harmonic series and diverges (by Theorem 3.28). At $z = -1$, we have an alternating series (a series whose terms are decreasing and tend to zero, and alternate in sign with

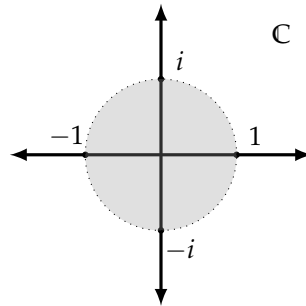


Figure 16: Visualization of the radius of convergence of the Geometric Series. The series converges in the shaded region, and diverges outside of it (and on the boundary).

each term), so we can apply the Alternating series test (below) to conclude that it converges. What about elsewhere on the circle? Let's look at $z = i$. We then have that the terms look like:

$$1 + \frac{i}{2} - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{i}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{i}{6} - \dots$$

we then have that the real and imaginary parts of the series are separately alternating series that decrease in magnitude; hence both parts are convergent, and the series as a whole is convergent at $z = i$. The same argument can be applied to conclude convergence of the series at $z = -i$. In fact, this series converges everywhere on the unit circle except at $z = 1$, which is a conclusion that follows from Theorem 3.44 (not covered in lecture, but feel free to refer to Rudin)!

Theorem 3.43: The Alternating Series Test

Let $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{C}$ and suppose that:

- (a) $|a_1| \geq |a_2| \geq |a_3| \dots$
- (b) $a_{2m-1} \geq 0, a_{2m} \leq 1$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}$
- (c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Then, $\sum a_n$ converges.

Proof

Rudin establishes a partial summation formula (Theorem 3.41) and proves a more general theorem (Theorem 3.42) to prove this claim. However, an alternative proof in the case where $\{a_n\}$ is real is left as homework (HW7). \square

3.9 Absolute Convergence

Definition: Absolute Convergence

$\sum a_n$ is **absolutely convergent** if $\sum |a_n|$ converges. Note that if $\sum a_n$ is convergent but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges, then $\sum a_n$ is **conditionally convergent**. Note that for real series with strictly positive terms, absolute convergence and conditional convergence are equivalent. Also, note that the root and ratio tests test for absolute convergence, and hence do not yield any information for conditional convergence.

As an example, consider that $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ converges, but $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges, so $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ is conditionally convergent.

Theorem 3.45

If $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely, then $\sum a_n$ converges.

Proof

We have that:

$$\left| \sum_{j=m}^n a_j \right| \leq \sum_{j=m}^n |a_j| < \epsilon$$

For all $n \geq m \geq N$ for some N by the fact that $\sum |a_j|$ converges. Hence, $\sum a_j$ is convergent by the Cauchy Criterion. \square

For absolutely convergent series, we can freely change the order of the additions without affecting the value of the sum (as we will soon see). However, for series that are not absolutely convergent, this turns out to not be the case!

Definition 3.52: Rearrangements

Given a bijection $K : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, the series:

$$\sum_n a'_n = \sum_n a_{K(n)}$$

is called a rearrangement of $\sum_n a_n$.

Theorem 3.55

If $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent, every rearrangement $\sum a'_n$ converges to the same limit.

Proof

Let $\{s'_n\}$ be the sequence of partial sums of the rearrangement $\sum a'_n$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. By the absolute convergence of the original series, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq m \geq N$, $\sum_{j=m}^n |a_j| < \epsilon$. Then, pick p such that $\{1, 2, \dots, N\} \subset \{K(1), K(2), K(3), \dots, K(p)\}$. Then, the summands a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N cancel out in $s_n - s'_n$ for $n \geq p$, leaving only terms $a_{K(j)}$ past a_N . Hence, $|s_n - s'_n| < \epsilon$ for $n \geq p \geq N$, and we conclude that $\sum a'_n$ converges to the same limit as $\sum a_n$. \square

Theorem 3.54: Riemann Rearrangement Theorem

If $\sum a_n$ is a conditionally convergent series of real numbers, and $-\infty \leq \alpha \leq \beta \leq \infty$, then there is a rearrangement $\sum a'_n$ such that $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s'_n = \alpha$ and $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s'_n = \beta$. Taking $\alpha = \beta$, we have that for any real number, there exists a rearrangement that converges to it.

Proof

Not covered in lecture, see Rudin. □

For example, given $\sum (-1)^n a_n$ with $a_n \geq 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$, we can rearrange this series to converge to any point in \mathbb{R} that we like (for example, π). The idea is to select positive terms from the series until we overshoot π , then choose a sequence of alternating negative/positive terms of decreasing magnitude until the ϵ distance from π decreases to zero.

3.10 Addition and Multiplication of Series

Theorem 3.47: Series Addition

Let $\sum a_n = A$ and $\sum b_n = B$. Then, $\sum (a_n + b_n) = A + B$ and $\sum ca_n = cA$ for any fixed $c \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof

Let $A_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j$ and $B_n = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j$. Then, $A_n + B_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j + b_j$ and since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = A$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n = B$, it follows that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (A_n + B_n) = A + B.$$

For the second assertion, we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} cA_n = c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = cA$. □

Definition 3.48: Series Multiplication

Let $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ be two series. Then, the **product** of the two series is the series $\sum c_n$ where:

$$c_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j b_{n-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_{n-j} b_j$$

Any student who has studied Fourier Series prior to this course will notice the similarity of the above definition to the convolution of two functions.

Theorem 3.50

Suppose that $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely and $\sum b_n$ converges. Let $\sum a_n = A$ and $\sum b_n = B$. Then, $\sum c_n$ converges and $\sum c_n = AB$.

Proof

Let $A_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j$ and $B_n = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j$. Let $\beta_n = B_n - B$ (note that $\beta_n \rightarrow 0$). Now, we have that:

$$C_n = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^k a_j b_{k-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=j}^n a_j b_{k-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \sum_{k=j}^n b_{k-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j B_{n-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j (B + \beta_{n-j})$$

From here, we split the sum and then we have that:

$$C_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j B + \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \beta_{n-j}$$

Defining $\gamma_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \beta_{n-j}$ and taking the limit of $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n = C = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^n a_j B + \gamma_n \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=0}^n a_j B + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_n = AB + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_n$$

So the claim is proven if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_n = 0$. Let $\alpha = \sum |a_n| < \infty$ (by assumption of absolute convergence). Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|\beta_j| < \frac{\epsilon}{\alpha}$ for all $j \geq N$ (as $\beta_n \rightarrow 0$). Hence,

$$|\gamma_n| \leq \left| \sum_{j=0}^n a_{n-j} \beta_j \right| \leq \left| \sum_{j=0}^N a_{n-j} \beta_j \right| + \left| \sum_{j=N+1}^n a_{n-j} \beta_j \right| < \left| \sum_{j=0}^N a_{n-j} \beta_j \right| + \sum_{j=N+1}^n |a_{n-j}| \frac{\epsilon}{\alpha} \leq \left| \sum_{j=0}^N a_{n-j} \beta_j \right| + \epsilon$$

Letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ with N fixed, we have the first term goes to 0 as $a_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence, We have that:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_n| < \epsilon$$

And as ϵ is arbitrary, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_n| = 0$ and the claim follows. \square

4 Continuity

4.1 Limits and Continuity

Definition 4.1: Limits

Let X, Y be metric spaces. Let $E \subset X$, and let $f : E \mapsto Y$. Let $p \in X$ be a limit point of E . Then, we say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ or $f(x) \rightarrow q$ as $x \rightarrow p$ if there exists $q \in Y$ such that for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x \in E$ with $0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta$ we have that $d_Y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$.

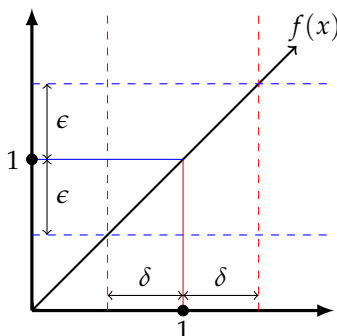


Figure 17: Visualization of the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 1$ for $f(x) = x$. For any $\epsilon > 0$, we can take $\delta = \epsilon$ and then we have that $|f(x) - 1| < \epsilon$ if $|x - 1| < \delta$.

Note in the above definition that we do not care about $f(p)$, that is, the actual value of f at p . In particular, if $p \notin E$, then $f(p)$ is not even necessarily defined. This distinction between the limit and the actual value of a function at a point becomes crucial later on when we want to define a derivative. Although we will discuss this in more detail in Chapter 5, the definition of a derivative of a function g at a point $p \in \mathbb{R}$ involves the function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that:

$$f(x) = \frac{g(x) - g(p)}{x - p}$$

Evidently, the domain of f does not contain the point p , but we are interested in the value of f in the limit of $x \rightarrow p$ (which, if it exists, is the value of the derivative).

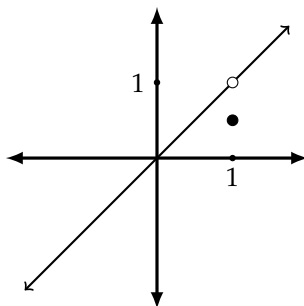


Figure 18: Visualization of the function $f(x) = x$ for $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$, $f(x) = 0$ for $x = 1$. In this case, we have that $f(1) = 0$ but $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 1$, demonstrating that the actual value of the function is irrelevant when defining the limit.

Theorem 4.2

Let X, Y be metric spaces. Let $E \subset X$ and $f : E \mapsto Y$. Suppose that for all sequences $\{p_n\} \subset E$ with $p_n \rightarrow p$ and $p_n \neq p$, we have that $f(p_n) \rightarrow q \in Y$. Then, this is equivalent to saying that $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$.

Proof

\Rightarrow Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$, and let $\{p_n\}$ be a sequence in E with $p_n \rightarrow p$ and $p_n \neq p$ for all n . We wish to show that $f(p_n) \rightarrow q$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. We show that there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d_Y(f(p_n), q) < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq N$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x \in E$ with $d_X(p, x) < \delta$, $d_Y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$. Since we know that $p_n \rightarrow p$, there exists some N such that $0 < d(p_n, p) < \delta$ for all $n \geq N$, so we have that $d_Y(f(p_n), q) < \epsilon$ as required.

\Leftarrow We show the contrapositive. Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) \neq q$. We wish to find a sequence $\{p_n\} \subset E$ with $p_n \rightarrow p$ and $p_n \neq p$ for all n such that $f(p_n)$ does not converge to q . Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) \neq q$, then there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that for all $\delta > 0$, there exists $x \in E$ such that $0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta$ but $d_Y(f(x), q) \geq \epsilon$. For each δ of the form $\frac{1}{n}$, let $p_n \in E$ be the corresponding value of x . Then, $p_n \rightarrow p$, $p_n \neq p$ for all n , and $f(p_n)$ does not converge to q as $d(f(p_n), q) \geq \epsilon$ for all n . \square

Theorem 4.4

When $Y = \mathbb{C}$ (i.e. the functions we consider are complex), then limits respect sums, differences, products, and functions. That is, let X is a metric space, $E \subset X$, and $f, g : E \mapsto \mathbb{C}$ with p a limit point of E . If $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = r$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f + g)(x) = q + r$. The same holds for subtraction, multiplication, and division (provided we do not divide by zero).

Proof

By Theorem 4.2, these properties of limits follow from the analogous properties of sequences (Theorem 3.3).

Definition 4.5: Continuity

Let X, Y be metric spaces, and $E \subset X$. Let $p \in E$, and define $f : E \mapsto Y$. We say that f is continuous at p if for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x \in E$ with $d_X(x, p) < \delta$, we have that $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$. Equivalently, $f(N_\delta^E(p)) \subset N_\epsilon^Y(f(p))$. If f is continuous at p for all $p \in E$, we say that f is continuous.

Note that this definition of continuity is heavily reliant on the particular metric of X and Y ; in particular, there can be functions that are continuous for some choices of metric but not others.

Let us consider some examples of continuous functions (while thinking about different possible metric spaces).

First, let us take consider $X = E = \mathbb{Z}$ and $Y = \mathbb{R}$. What functions $f : E \rightarrow Y$ are continuous at $p = 0$? The answer turns out to be all functions! To see this, fix $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $\epsilon > 0$. We then have that if $|n - m| < \frac{1}{2}$, then $|f(n) - f(m)| < \epsilon$ as the only point m contained in $N_{1/2}^{\mathbb{Z}}(n)$ is n itself (and hence $|f(n) - f(m)| = |f(n) - f(n)| = 0$). This argument applies to every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and hence all functions $f : \mathbb{Z} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ are continuous.

As further examples (that work for arbitrary metric spaces), If we have that $f : X \mapsto X$, $f(x) = x$, we have that f is continuous (pick $\delta = \epsilon$ in the definition of continuity). If we have that $f : X \mapsto Y$, $f(x) = c$

for some $c \in Y$, then f is also continuous (pick any $\delta > 0$ in the definition).

Finally, the above definition doesn't make a distinction between limit points and isolated points. However, it turns out that according to the definition, if $p \in E$ is isolated, then every function f with E as its domain is continuous. To see this, consider that for any $\epsilon > 0$, we can pick $\delta > 0$ such that the only point $x \in E$ for which $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ is $x = p$ (such a choice of δ is possible as p is isolated). It then follows that $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) = 0 < \epsilon$.

We now consider a Theorem which gives us a familiar notion of continuity (that may have been encountered in first year calculus).

Theorem 4.6

Suppose that p is a limit point of E in Definition 4.5. Then, f is continuous at p if and only if $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p)$.

Proof

The claim immediately follows by comparing Definitions 4.1 and 4.5. □

Theorem 4.7

Let X, Y, Z be metric spaces, and $E \subset X, F \subset Y$. Let $f : E \mapsto Y, g : F \mapsto Z$, and suppose $f(E) \subset F$. Let $p \in E$. If f is continuous at p and g is continuous at $f(p)$, then $g \circ f : E \mapsto Z$ is continuous at p .

Proof

Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since g is continuous at $f(p)$, there exists $\gamma > 0$ such that $d_Z(g(y), g(f(p))) < \epsilon$ if $d_Y(y, f(p)) < \gamma$. Since f is continuous at p , there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \gamma$ if $d_X(x, p) < \delta$. Hence, we have that $d_Z(h(x), h(p)) = d_Z(g(f(x)), g(f(p))) < \epsilon$ if $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ and $x \in E$. We conclude that h is continuous at p . □

4.2 Topological Characterization of Continuity

Theorem 4.8

Let X, Y be metric spaces, and $f : X \mapsto Y$. Then, f is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(V) \subset X$ is open for every open set $V \subset Y$.

Proof

\Rightarrow Suppose f is continuous, and $V \subset Y$ is open. Let $p \in f^{-1}(V)$, so $f(p) \in V$. V is open, so it follows that $f(p)$ is an interior point of V . So, there exists $r > 0$ such that $N_r^Y(f(p)) \subset V$. Next, f is continuous, so there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x \in X$ with $d_X(x, p) < \delta$, $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < r$. Hence, we obtain that $f(x) \in N_r^Y(f(p)) \subset V$. In particular, $N_\delta^X(p) \subset f^{-1}(V)$, so p is an interior point of $f^{-1}(V)$. Hence every point of $f^{-1}(V)$ is an interior point, and $f^{-1}(V)$ is open.

\Leftarrow Suppose $f^{-1}(V)$ is open for every open set $V \subset Y$. Let $p \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Let $V = N_\epsilon^Y(f(p))$ which is open, so by assumption $f^{-1}(V)$ is open. $p \in f^{-1}(V)$, so p is an interior point. Hence, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $N_\delta^X(p) \subset f^{-1}(V)$. In other words, if $d_X(x, p) < \delta$, then $f(x) \in V$, so $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$. f is then continuous by definition. □

Corollary

$f : X \mapsto Y$ is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(F) \subset X$ is closed for every closed set $F \subset Y$.

Proof

Let $V = F^c$ with V open. Then, the above statement is equivalent to saying that a function $f : X \mapsto Y$ is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(V^c) = \left(f^{-1}(V)\right)^c$ is closed for every open set $V \subset Y$. This is equivalent to the statement that $f^{-1}(V)$ is open for every open set $V \subset Y$, and the claim follows by the previous theorem. \square

Theorem 4.9

Let $f : X \mapsto \mathbb{C}$ and $g : X \mapsto \mathbb{C}$ be continuous functions. Then, $f + g$, fg are continuous, and $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous if $g(x) \neq 0$.

Proof

At isolated points there is nothing to prove (as any choice of function that is defined at an isolated p will be continuous there). For limit points, the claim follows from Theorems 4.4 and 4.6. \square

Theorem 4.10

(a) Let $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, and define $\mathbf{f} : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$ by:

$$\mathbf{f}(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_k(x))$$

Then, \mathbf{f} is continuous if and only if every f_i is continuous.

(b) If $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_k) : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$ and $\mathbf{g} = (g_1, \dots, g_k) : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$ are continuous, then the functions:

$$\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g} = (f_1 + g_1, \dots, f_k + g_k)$$

$$\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{g} = f_1 g_1 + \dots + f_k g_k$$

are continuous.

Proof

- (a) \Rightarrow Suppose \mathbf{f} is continuous. Then, let $\epsilon > 0$. For each $p \in X$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ implies $|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{f}(p)| < \epsilon$. We then observe that for any $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$:

$$|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{f}(p)| = \left(\sum_{j=1}^k |f_j(x) - f_j(p)|^2 \right)^{1/2} \geq |f_i(x) - f_i(p)|$$

Where the inequality follows by just keeping one term from the sum of non-negative terms. So for any $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ we therefore have that $|f_i(x) - f_i(p)| < \epsilon$, and hence each f_i is continuous.

\Leftarrow Suppose each of f_1, \dots, f_k is continuous. Then let $\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}} > 0$. For each $p \in X$, there exists δ_i such that $d_X(x, p) < \delta_i$ implies that $|f_i(x) - f_i(p)| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}}$. Take $\delta = \min \{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_k\}$. Then, if $d_X(x, p) < \delta$, we have that:

$$|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{f}(p)| = \left(\sum_{j=1}^k |f_j(x) - f_j(p)|^2 \right)^{1/2} < \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}} \right)^2 \right)^{1/2} = \epsilon$$

So it follows that \mathbf{f} is continuous.

- (b) The claim follows from (a) and Theorem 4.9. \square

Example 4.11

We will now explore some interesting examples of continuous functions.

- (a) For each index $i = 1, \dots, k$, define $\phi_i : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ by $\phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = x_i$. Then, ϕ_i is continuous.

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then, for $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, if $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}| < \delta$ with $\delta = \epsilon$, we have that:

$$\epsilon > |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}| = \left(\sum_{j=1}^k |x_j - p_j|^2 \right)^{1/2} \geq (|x_i - p_i|^2)^{1/2} = |x_i - p_i|$$

So for $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}| < \delta$, we have that $|\phi_i(\mathbf{x}) - \phi_i(\mathbf{p})| < \epsilon$. We conclude that ϕ_i is continuous. \square

We could also use the topological characterization of continuity to prove this claim. If $V \subset \mathbb{R}$ is open, then $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times V \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}$ is open, showing again that ϕ_i is continuous (a much easier proof)!

- (b) Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be given by $f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_k^{n_k}$ with $n_i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. f is continuous, and hence so is any polynomial $P : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.
- (c) Rational functions P/Q where P, Q are polynomials are continuous everywhere except where Q is zero.
- (d) $f : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(\mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{x}|$ is continuous.
- (e) Suppose $f : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$ is continuous. Then so is $g : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$ with $g(x) = |f(x)|$.

4.3 Continuity and Compactness

Theorem 4.14

Let $f : X \mapsto Y$ be continuous, and suppose X is compact. Then, the image $f(X)$ is compact.

Proof

Let $\{V_\alpha\}$ be an open cover of $f(X)$. For each α , Let $O_\alpha = f^{-1}(V_\alpha)$. Then, $\{O_\alpha\}$ is an open cover of X . to see this, we recognize that each O_α is open due to the continuity of f (Theorem 4.8) and each $p \in X$ satisfies V_β for some β , so $p \in O_\beta$. X is compact, so there exists a finite subcover $\{O_{\alpha_1}, \dots, O_{\alpha_n}\}$. But it then follows that $\{V_{\alpha_1}, \dots, V_{\alpha_n}\}$ is a finite subcover of $f(X)$. Hence $f(X)$ is compact. \square

Definition 4.13

Let X be a metric space, and $E \subset X$. We say that $f : E \mapsto Y$ is bounded if $f(E)$ is a bounded set. In particular, if $Y = \mathbb{R}^k$, then f is bounded if and only if there exists $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in E$.

Theorem 4.15

Let X be a compact metric space, and $f : X \mapsto Y$ be continuous. Then, $f(X)$ is bounded.

Proof

By Theorem 4.14, we have that $f(X)$ is compact. $f(X)$ is therefore bounded (see Discussion preceding Theorem 2.41). \square

An interesting special case in the above theorem to think about is when $Y = \mathbb{R}$; this yields the Extreme Value Theorem, below.

Theorem 4.16: Extreme Value Theorem

Let X be a compact metric space, and let $f : X \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then, there exist $p, q \in X$ such that $f(p) \leq f(x) \leq f(q)$ for all $x \in X$. In other words, f attains its minimum (infimum) and maximum (supremum) on X .

Proof

By Theorems 4.15 and 4.16, $f(X)$ is closed and bounded. In particular, $m = \inf f(X)$ and $M = \sup f(X)$ exist (as the set is bounded), and $m, M \in f(X)$ as $f(X)$ contains all of its limit points. Hence, there exist $p, q \in X$ such that $f(p) = m, f(q) = M$. \square

Theorem 4.17

Proof

4.4 Uniform Continuity, Connectedness, and IVT

5 Differentiation

5.1 Derivatives

5.2 MVT

5.3 Taylor's Theorem

5.4 Local Behavior of Functions

6 The Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

7 Sequences and Series of Functions

8 Some Special Functions

9 Functions of Several Variables