**WTS.** An open ball  $B_r(x)$ , where  $r \geq 0$  is equivalent to a bounded open interval.

$$B_r(x) = \{y, d(x,y) < r\}$$

*Proof.* A bounded open interval (a, b) where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  is defined

$$(a,b) = \{y, a < y < b\}$$

$$= \{y, m - b < y - m < b - m, m = (a+b)/2\}$$

$$= \{y, |y - m| < b - m, m = (a+b)/2\}$$

$$= \{y, d(y,m) < \max(b - m, 0)\}$$

$$= B_{\max(b-m,0)}(m)$$

Fix any ball centered at  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  with radius  $r \geq 0$ , then write b = m + r. The  $\max(b - m, 0)$  is to ensure that the equivalent radius of the ball does not go negative, if a > b then the open interval is equivalent to  $(a, a) = B_0(m)$ .  $\square$ 

WTS. Every metric space is  $T_2$ .

*Proof.* Fix two elements  $x \neq y$  then by definition of the metric d(x,y) = 2r > 0, then fix two open (balls) sets V(x,r) and V(y,r), for every element  $z \in V(x,r)$  we have

$$d(x,y) \le d(z,x) + d(z,y) \implies 2r < r + d(z,y)$$

Clearly this means that  $V(x,r) \subseteq V^c(y,r)$ , and  $V(x,r) \cap V(y,r) = \varnothing$ .

**WTS.** Let  $x_n$  be a sequence of real numbers, and

- 1. Prove that (i) is always true.
- 2. Prove that  $(iv) \iff (iii)$ .
- 3. Prove that  $(iii) \Longrightarrow (ii) \Longrightarrow (i)$
- 4. Give examples of sequences that satisfy: (iii), (ii) but not (ii), and do not satisfy (ii)

Where (i) to (iv) are given by

- (i)  $\forall n \exists M |x_n| \leq M$
- (ii)  $\exists M \exists^{\infty} n |x_n| \leq M$
- (iii)  $\exists M \forall^{\infty} n |x_n| \leq M$
- (iv)  $\exists \forall n |x_n| \leq M$

We begin by first taking the problem apart in the abstract. This is encompassed in the following lemma.

**Lemma 0.1.** If P is a proposition on the space of all sequences (onto, into? what is the right word) X, denoted by

$$\Omega = \{x_n : \mathbb{N} \to X\}$$

And if

- $P(\forall n \ge 0) = \{x_n \in \Omega, \ \forall n \ge 0, P(x_n)\}$
- $P(\forall^{\infty} n) = \{x_n \in \Omega, \exists N, \forall n \ge N, P(x_n)\}\$
- $P(\exists^{\infty} n) = \{x_n \in \Omega, \forall N, \exists n \ge N, P(x_n)\}$

Then

$$P(\forall n \ge 0) \subseteq P(\forall^{\infty} n) \subseteq P(\exists^{\infty} n) \subseteq \Omega$$

*Proof.* Suppose that  $x_n \in P(\forall n \geq 0)$ , then  $P(x_n)$  eventually is trivial, so

$$P(\forall n \ge 0) \subseteq P(\forall^{\infty} n)$$

Now fix  $x_n \in P(\forall^{\infty} n)$ , this induces some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for every  $n \geq N$  means that  $P(x_n)$ . To show that  $P(x_n)$  frequently, notice for every  $M \in \mathbb{N}$  we can choose some n = M + N such that  $P(x_n)$  holds, so

$$P(\forall^{\infty} n) \subseteq P(\exists^{\infty} n)$$

The last inclusion is obvious as all three are subsets of  $\Omega$ .

#### Problem 3a

*Proof.* For any sequence of reals  $x_n$ , and for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , since the set of natural numbers is unbounded above, there exists some  $M_n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x_n| \leq M$ .

#### Problem 3b

*Proof.* We define the proposition P on the reals

$$P(\alpha) \iff \exists M \in \mathbb{N}, \ |\alpha| \leq M$$

Then by Lemma 0.1,

$$P(\forall n \geq 0) \subseteq P(\forall^{\infty} n)$$
 means that (iv)  $\Longrightarrow$  (iii)

To prove the converse, suppose that (iii) holds, then there exists some  $M \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \geq N$ , then let

$$\overline{M} \ge M + \sum_{n \le N} |x_n|$$

Where we apply the Archimedean Property on the right member to obtain some  $\overline{M} \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then it is easy to verify that  $|x_n| \leq \overline{M}$  for every  $n \geq 0$ , and (iii)  $\Longrightarrow$  (iv). And therefore (iii)  $\Longleftrightarrow$  (iv).

### Problem 3c

*Proof.* Using Lemma 0.1, since

$$P(\forall n \ge 0) \subseteq P(\forall^{\infty} n) \subseteq P(\exists^{\infty} n) \subseteq \Omega$$

Therefore

$$(iv) \implies (iii) \implies (ii) \implies (i)$$

### Problem 3d

*Proof.* Here are the sequences

- 1.  $x_n = 0$  for every  $n \ge 0$ , then  $x_n \in P(\forall n \ge 0) \subseteq P(\forall^{\infty} n)$ . Since  $|x_n| \le 0$ .
- 2.  $x_n = n \cdot (1 + (-1)^n)/2$ , so that  $x_n \in P(\exists^{\infty} n) \setminus P(\forall^{\infty} n)$ . Since  $x_n$  visits 0 frequently at odd n but grows unbounded at even n.
- 3.  $x_n = n$  is in  $P(\exists^{\infty} n)^c$ . Since for every natural M, we can choose some N = M + 1 such that for every  $n \ge N$  implies that  $x_n > M$ .

WTS. Show that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) = 0$$

*Proof.* Assume in good faith that we are indexing the sequence by  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  so that  $n \ge 1$ . Then for every fixed  $n \ge 1$ ,

$$0 \le x_n = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} < \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Now fix any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and find a large M with  $M \ge \varepsilon^{-1/2}$ . Then it follows that for every  $n \ge M$ ,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}} \le M \le n \implies \frac{1}{n^2} < \varepsilon$$

It immediately follows that

$$|x_n - 0| = \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} - 0 \right| < \left| \frac{1}{n^2} \right| < \varepsilon$$

And  $|x_n - 0| < \varepsilon$  eventually.

**WTS.** Show that  $x_n = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n+5}}$  diverges.

We begin with an important Lemma.

**Lemma 0.2.** Every convergent sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  is bounded.

*Proof.* Fix  $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1} \to x$ , also fix  $\varepsilon = 1 > 0$ , then there exists some  $N \geq 0$  so large with

$$d(x_n, x) \le 1 \quad \forall n \ge N$$

Then for every  $n \geq N$  we have

$$d(x_n, 0) \le d(x_n, x) + d(x, 0) \le 1 + d(x, 0)$$

Now for every  $n \geq 1$ , obviously  $d(x_n, 0) \leq 1 + d(x, 0) + \sum_{k \leq N} d(x_k, 0)$ , and this establishes the Lemma.

### Main Proof for Q5

*Proof.* We simply have to show that  $x_n$  is not bounded. Indeed, for any  $M \ge 0$ , take  $n > 2M^2 + 5$  and  $|x_n| > M$ . The reasoning is as follows, if for every  $n > 2M^2 + 5$ , then

$$(n/2)^{1/2} > |M| = M$$

Also note that  $n > 5 \implies 2n > n + 5$  therefore

$$(n+5)^{-1} > (2n)^{-1} \implies n(n+5)^{-1/2} > n(2n)^{-1/2}$$

And

$$x_n = |x_n| > n(2n)^{-1/2} = (n/2)^{1/2} > M$$

**WTS.** Let  $\binom{n}{k}$  denote the number of k-element subsets of an n-element set. Prove that if n < k, then  $\binom{n}{k} = 0$ , and that

$$\binom{n+1}{k+1} = \binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k}$$

*Proof.* We begin with some abstract notation.

- $J_n = \{1, 2 \cdots, n\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^+,$
- $|E| := \sum_{x \in E} 1$ , the counting measure on E.
- X is any set where  $|X| \ge 2$ ,
- $A \subseteq X$ ,  $|A||A^c| \neq 0$ , this implicitly means that neither set is empty,
- $\Omega_n = \{f: J_n \to X\},$
- For every  $f \in \Omega_n$ ,  $f_{J_{n-1}}$  denotes the restriction of f onto  $J_{n-1}$

With these definitions, it is clear that  $\binom{n}{k}$ , for every  $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\binom{n}{k} = \left| \left\{ f \in \Omega_n, |f^{-1}(E)| = k \right\} \right|$$

Clearly, if  $f \in \Omega_{n+1}$  and  $|f^{-1}(E)| = k+1$ ,

- If  $f^{-1}(E) \cap J_{n+1} \setminus J_n = \emptyset$ , then  $|f_{J_n}^{-1}(E)| = |f^{-1}(E)| = k+1$ ,
- If  $f^{-1}(E) \cap J_{n+1} \setminus J_n \neq \emptyset$ , then  $|f_{J_n}^{-1}(E)| = k$ ,

Then we can write  $E_1=\left\{f\in\Omega_{n+1},\;|f^{-1}(E)|=k+1\right\}$  as the disjoint union of  $E_2=\left\{f\in\Omega_{n+1},\;f^{-1}(E)\cap J_{n+1}\setminus J_n=\varnothing,\;f_{J_n}^{-1}(E)|=k+1\right\}$  and  $E_3=\left\{f\in\Omega_{n+1},\;f^{-1}(E)\cap J_{n+1}\setminus J_n\neq\varnothing,\;|f_{J_n}^{-1}(E)|=k\right\}.$ 

Also note that  $E_2 \equiv \{f \in \Omega_n, |f^{-1}(E)| = k+1\}$  and  $E_3 \equiv \{f \in \Omega_n, |f^{-1}(E)| = k\}$ . Since every  $f \in E_2$  induces some  $g \in \Omega_n$  with  $|g^{-1}(E)| = k+1$ , and respectively for  $f \in E_3$ . And for every  $g \in \Omega_n$ ,  $|g^{-1}(E)| = k+1$ , there is a corresponding  $f \in E_2$  with  $f_{J_n} = g$ .

Therefore  $|E_2| = \binom{n}{k+1}$  and  $|E_3| = \binom{n}{k}$ . Since  $|\cdot|$  is just the counting measure on finite sets, and  $E_1$  is the disjoint union, it follows that

$$|E_1| = \binom{n+1}{k+1} = |E_2| + |E_3| = \binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k}$$

WTS. Prove three things

(a) The Binomial formula, for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k\geq 0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n-k}$$

(b) The Generalized Bernoulli inequality, for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ ,  $k \leq n$ 

$$(1+b)^n \ge 1 + \binom{n}{k} b^k$$

(c) A special case of the Generalized Bernoulli inequality, for any  $b \geq 0$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ 

$$(1+b)^n \ge 1 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}b^2$$

*Proof.* We begin by showing that (a)  $\Longrightarrow$  (b). For every  $n \ge 1$ , we have

$$(1+b)^n = \sum_{j\geq 0}^n \binom{n}{j} b^j = 1 + \binom{n}{k} b^k + \sum_{j\geq 1, j\neq k}^n \binom{n}{j} b^j$$

Since  $\binom{n}{k}b^j \geq 0$ , (b) holds.

Now to show that (b)  $\Longrightarrow$  (c), simply substitute k=2 if  $2 \ge n$ , if n=1 then the inequality is trivial.

The proof for (a) also quite straight forward, if n = 0 then

$$(a+b)^0 = 1 = \sum_{k=0}^{0} {n \choose k} a^k n^{n-k} = {0 \choose 0} a^0 b^{0-0} = 1$$

Assume that (a) holds for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

$$(a+b)^{n+1} = \sum_{k\geq 0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} \left( a^{k+1}b^{n-k} + a^{k}b^{(n+1)-k} \right)$$

$$= \binom{n}{0} a^{0}b^{(n+1)-0} + \sum_{k\geq 1}^{n} \binom{n}{k-1} \left( a^{k}b^{(n+1)-k} \right) + \sum_{k\geq 1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} \left( a^{k}b^{(n+1)-k} \right)$$

$$= \binom{n+1}{0} a^{0}b^{(n+1)-0} + \sum_{k\geq 1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} \left( a^{k}b^{(n+1)-k} \right)$$

$$= \binom{n+1}{0} a^{0}b^{(n+1)-0} + \sum_{k\geq 1}^{n} \binom{n+1}{k} \left( a^{k}b^{(n+1)-k} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{k\geq 0}^{n} \binom{n+1}{k} a^{k}b^{(n+1)-k}$$

For the third equality we used the fact that  $\binom{\alpha}{0} = \binom{\beta}{0}$  for every  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}^+$ .

WTS. Prove two things.

- (a) Prove that for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , a > 1 we have  $\lim na^{-n} = 0$
- (b) Prove that  $\lim n^{1/n} = 1$

*Proof.* Let us start with (a). Assume that there exists some a > 1 with  $\lim na^{-n} \neq 0$ . So that there exists some  $\varepsilon > 0$  and for every  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , some  $n \geq N$  with

$$\varepsilon \le |na^{-n}| \implies (1 + n(n-1)(a-1)^2/2)\varepsilon \le a^n \varepsilon \le n$$

Dividing by n across both sides and noting that  $1/n \ge 0$ ,

$$\varepsilon(n-1)(a-1)^2/2 \le 1 \implies n \le \left(\varepsilon(a-1)^2/2\right)^{-1} + 1$$

Which is obviously false, because  $\mathbb{R}$  is Archemedian. This establishes (a).

For (b), we write  $x_n = n^{1/n}$ , where  $x_n \ge 1$  for every  $n \ge 1$ . Indeed, if  $x_n < 1$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  then  $x_n^n < 1$  by induction on n.

By applying Bernoulli's Inequality again,

$$x_n^n = n \ge 1 + n(n-1)(1-x_n)^2/2 \implies 2/n \ge (1-x_n)^2$$

So that  $(1-x_n)^2 = |1-x_n|^2 \to 0$ . We claim that if any sequence  $|a_n|^2 \to 0$  then  $a_n \to 0$ . Fix an arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$  then

$$|a_n - 0|^2 < \varepsilon^2 \implies |a_n - 0| < \varepsilon, \exists N \forall n \ge N$$

Therefore  $|1 - x_n| \to 0$ , and  $x_n = n^{1/n} \to 1$ .