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B. Honohan, A. Johnson, S. McAlister, F. Mooney, K. O'Donnell, E. Quinn, R. Selbert, E. Wiley

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#### CHAPTER 1

#### Review

#### 1.1. Preliminaries and Definitions

DEFINITION 1.1.1 (binary operation). A binary operation on a set S is a function from  $S \times S$  into S.

Examples of binary operations:

- $\bullet$  + :  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  Addition of natural numbers
- $\bullet$   $\cdot$ :  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  Multiplication of natural numbers

Definition 1.1.2 (group). A group consists of:

- $\bullet$  A set G
- A binary operation  $+: G \times G \to G$  with the following properties:

```
\begin{array}{ll} x+(y+z)=(x+y)+z \ \forall x,y,z \in G & (associativity) \\ \exists 0 \in G \ such \ that \ a+0=0+a=a \ \forall a \in G & (identity) \\ \forall a \in G \ \exists \ a^{-1} \ such \ that \ a+a^{-1}=a^{-1}+a=0 & (inverse) \end{array}
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Definition 1.1.3 (field). A field consists of:

- A set F
- A binary operation  $+: F \times F \to F$  with the following properties:

```
\begin{array}{ll} x+y=y+x \ \forall x,y\in F & (additive \ commutativity) \\ x+(y+z)=(x+y)+z \ \forall x,y,z\in F & (additive \ associativity) \\ \exists 0\in F \ such \ that \ a+0=0+a=a \ \forall a\in F & (additive \ identity) \\ \forall a\in F \ \exists \ a^{-1} \ such \ that \ a+a^{-1}=a^{-1}+a=0 & (additive \ inverse) \end{array}
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• A binary operation:  $F \times F \to F$  with the following properties:

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\begin{array}{lll} xy = yx \ \forall x,y \in F & (multiplicative \ commutativity) \\ x(yz) = (xy)z \ \forall x,y,z \in F & (multiplicative \ associativity) \\ \exists 1 \in F \ such \ that \ a1 = 1a = a \ \forall a \in F & (multiplicative \ identity) \\ \forall a \in F \setminus 0 \ \exists \ a^{-1} \ such \ that \ aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1 & (multiplicative \ inverse) \\ x(y+z) = xy + xz \ \ \forall x,y,z \in F & (distributive \ property) \end{array}
```

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Definition 1.1.4 (vector space). A vector space or linear space consists of:

- A field F of elements called **scalars**
- A commutative group V of elements called **vectors** with respect to a binary operation +
- A binary operation:  $F \times V \to V$  called **scalar multiplication** that associates with each scalar  $\alpha \in F$  and vector  $v \in V$  a vector  $\alpha v$  in such a way that:

$$1v = v \quad \forall v \in V$$

$$(\alpha\beta)v = \alpha(\beta v) \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in F, \ v \in V$$

$$\alpha(v + w) = \alpha v + \alpha w \quad \forall \alpha \in F, \ v, w \in V$$

$$(\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in F, \ v \in V$$

DEFINITION 1.1.5 (norm). A nonnegative real-valued function  $\| \| : V \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a **norm** if:

- $||v|| \ge 0$  and  $||v|| = 0 \Leftrightarrow v = \vec{0}$
- $||v + w|| \le ||v|| + ||w||$  (triangle inequality)
- $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|x\| \quad \forall \alpha \in F, \ v \in V$

DEFINITION 1.1.6 (normed linear space). A linear space V together with a norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , denoted by the pair  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ , is called a **normed** linear space

DEFINITION 1.1.7 (inner product). Let the field F be either  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$  and a set V of vectors which together with F form a vector space. An inner product on V is a map

$$\cdot: V \times V \to \mathbb{F}$$

with the following properties:

$$\begin{array}{ll} (u+v)\cdot w = u\cdot w \ + \ v\cdot w & \forall u,v,w\in V \\ (\alpha u)\cdot v = \alpha(u\cdot v) & \forall \alpha\in F,\ u,v\in V \\ u\cdot v = (\overline{v\cdot u}) & \forall u,v\in V \\ u\cdot u\geq 0 & \forall u\in V \ \textit{with equality when } u=\vec{0} \end{array}$$

If the underlying field is  $\mathbb{R}$ , the fourth condition can be replaced by

$$u \cdot v = v \cdot u \quad \forall u, v \in V$$

since a real number is its own conjugate. In this case, the condition just says the inner product is commutative.

Definition 1.1.8 (metric). A metric on a set S is a function

$$\rho: S \times S \to \mathbb{R}$$

where  $\rho$  has the following three properties for any  $x, y, z \in S$ :

$$\rho(x,y) \ge 0 \text{ and } \rho(x,y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$$
  
$$\rho(x,y) = \rho(y,x)$$
  
$$\rho(x,y) \le \rho(x,z) + \rho(z,y)$$

DEFINITION 1.1.9 (metric space). A **metric space** is a pair  $\{S, \rho\}$  where S is a set and  $\rho$  is a metric defined on S.

DEFINITION 1.1.10 (topology). A **topology** is a set X and a collection  $\mathcal{J}$  of subsets of X having the following properties:

- $\emptyset$  and X are in  $\mathcal{J}$
- ullet The union of any subcollection of elements of  ${\mathcal J}$  belongs to  ${\mathbb J}$
- ullet The intersection of any finite subcollection of  ${\mathcal J}$  belongs to  ${\mathcal J}$

#### Convergence

Definition 1.1.11 (sequence). A sequence is a function whose domain is  $\mathbb{N}$ .

DEFINITION 1.1.12 (convergent sequence). A sequence  $x_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  converges to x if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|x_n - x|, \epsilon \quad whenever \quad n \ge N$$

DEFINITION 1.1.13 (Cauchy sequence). A sequence  $x_n$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  is said to be a Cauchy sequence if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|x_n - x_m|, \epsilon \quad whenever \quad n, m \ge N$$

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### **Topology Review**

DEFINITION 1.1.14 ( $\epsilon$ -neighborhood). If  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , the  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $V_{\epsilon}(x)$  is defined by

$$V_{\epsilon} = \{ y \in \mathbb{R} : |x - y| < \epsilon \}$$

DEFINITION 1.1.15 (limit point). A real number  $x \in A$  is a limit point of A if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $V_{\epsilon}(x)$  contains elements of A other than x.

DEFINITION 1.1.16 (isolated point). A element  $x \in A$  is an isolated point of A if  $x \in A$  and x is not a limit point of A.

DEFINITION 1.1.17 (open set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is open if, for every  $a \in A$ , there is an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that

$$V_{\epsilon}(a) \subseteq A$$

That is, there is an  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of every element of A that is contained entirely in A.

Definition 1.1.18 (closed set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is closed if it contains all of its limit points.

DEFINITION 1.1.19 (closure). The closure of a set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  denoted by  $\overline{A}$  is the union of A and its limit points.

DEFINITION 1.1.20 (compact set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact if every sequence in A has a convergent subsequence whose limit is in A.

DEFINITION 1.1.21 (perfect set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is perfect if it is closed and has no isolated points.

DEFINITION 1.1.22 (bounded set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is bounded if there exists an M > 0 such that

$$|a| < M$$
 for all  $a \in A$ 

DEFINITION 1.1.23 (separated sets). Two nonempty sets  $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  are separated if

$$A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset = \overline{A} \cap B$$

DEFINITION 1.1.24 (disconnected set). A set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is disconnected if it can be written as

$$E = A \cup B$$

where A and B are nonempty separated sets.

DEFINITION 1.1.25 (connected set). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is connected if it is not disconnected.

THEOREM 1.1.1. A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is open if and only if its compliment  $A^c$  is closed.

PROOF. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be open. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that  $a \in A$  is a limit point of  $A^c$ . By definition, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $V_{\epsilon}(a)$  contains points of  $A^c$ . This means that no  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of a is entirely contained in A, contradicting the assumption that A is open.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Now suppose  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  with  $A^c$  closed. Let a be an element of  $(A^c)^c = A$ . By hypothesis,  $A^c$  is closed, so a cannot be a limit point of  $A^c$  because  $a \notin A$ . By definition, this means there must be an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $V_{\epsilon}(a)$  contains no points of  $A^c$ . Therefore,  $V_{\epsilon}(a) \subseteq A$ . Since a was arbitrarily chosen, we can find an  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of every element of A that is entirely contained in A, so by definition A is open.  $\square$ 

THEOREM 1.1.2 (Heine-Borel Theorem). A set  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

PROOF. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be compact. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that K is not bounded. By definition, for any  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists an element  $x_M$  of K with  $|x_M| > M$ . We will use this fact to construct a sequence in K that has no convergent subsequence. If K is unbounded, there must be an  $x_1 \in K$  with  $|x_1| > 1$ . By the same argument, there must be an element  $x_2$  in K with  $|x_2| > 2$ . Continuing in this fashion, we may construct a sequence

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n, \dots$$
 with  $|x_n| > n$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ 

Now suppose  $(x_{n_k})$  is a subsequence of  $(x_n)$ . Since  $|x_{n_k}| > n_k$  and  $n_k$  is unbounded, every subsequence is unbounded. Since all convergent sequences are bounded, this means that no subsequence is convergent, contradicting the assumption that K is compact.

This establishes that K is bounded. To show that K is closed, suppose x is a limit point of K. Then there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  in K that converges to x. By hypothesis, K is compact, so by definition  $(x_n)$  has a convergent subsequence whose limit is in K. However, by an earlier theorem, any subsequence of a convergent sequence is also convergent, and has the same limit x. Therefore both  $(x_n)$  and its subsequence have the same limit, which must belong to K. Since x was arbitrarily chosen, this is true of any limit point, so K must contain all of its limit points and therefore is closed.

 $(\Leftarrow)$  Now suppose K is closed and bounded. Let  $(x_n)$  be an arbitrary sequence in K. Then  $(x_n)$  must be bounded, and by the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, it must have a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$ . The limit of this subsequence is, by definition, a limit point of K, and by hypothesis K is closed and therefore contains its limit points. Therefore, every sequence in K has a subsequence that converges to a point in K, and by definition, K is compact.

THEOREM 1.1.3. A set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is connected if and only if, for all nonempty disjoint sets A and B satisfying  $E = A \cup B$  there always exists a convergent sequence  $(x_n) \to x$  with  $(x_n)$  contained in one of A and B, and x an element of the other.

PROOF.  $(\Rightarrow)$  Let E be a connected set. Suppose  $E = A \cup B$  where A and B are disjoint, nonempty sets. By hypothesis, E is connected, so A and B are not separated. This means that one of  $A \cap \overline{B}$  and  $\overline{A} \cap B$  is not empty. Without loss of generality, assume that  $x \in \overline{A} \cap B$ . Then  $x \in \overline{A}$  and  $x \in B$ . But A and B are disjoint, so  $x \notin A$ . By definition,  $\overline{A}$  is the union of A and its limit points, and since  $x \notin A$ , x must be a limit point of A. By an earlier theorem, there is a sequence in A that converges to x.

 $(\Leftarrow)$  (contrapositive argument) Suppose  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is disconnected. We need to find two nonempty, disjoint sets A and B such that  $E = A \cap B$  and there does not exist a convergent sequence  $(x_n)$  in A with its limit x in B, or vice-versa. By hypothesis, E is separated, so there exist separated sets A and B with  $E = A \cup B$ . Now suppose  $(x_n)$  is a convergent sequence contained in A whose limit is x. By definition, since x is a limit of a sequence in A, x belongs to  $\overline{A}$ . Because A and B are disconnected, by definition  $\overline{A} \cap B$  is empty, so  $x \notin B$ . Since  $(x_n)$  was an arbitrary sequence, no convergent sequence in A has its limit in B. A similar argument shows that no convergent sequence in B has its limit in A.

DEFINITION 1.1.26 (continuous function). In a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  a function  $f: D \subseteq X \to X$  is continuous if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\rho(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $\rho(x, y) < \delta$ 

LEMMA 1.1.1. If  $(X, \rho)$  is a metric space and  $f : D \subseteq X \to X$  is continuous, and  $(x_n)$  is a convergent sequence in D whose limit x is also in D, then  $\lim f(x_n) = f(x)$ .

PROOF. Let  $\epsilon>0$  be given. We need to show that there is an  $N\in\mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\rho(f(x_n), f(x)) < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $n \ge N$ 

By hypothesis, f is continuous, so by definition for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\rho(f(x_n), f(x)) < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $\rho(x, x_n) < \delta$ 

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Also by hypothesis,  $(x_n)$  is convergent with limit x, so by definition there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\rho(x_n, x) < \delta$$
 whenever  $n \ge N$ 

But by the continuity of f, this is equivalent to saying that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(x)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $n \geq \mathbb{N}$ .

THEOREM 1.1.4. If  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact, then f[K], the image of K under f, is also compact.

PROOF. Let  $y_n$  be a sequence in f[K]. By hypothesis,  $y_n \in f[K]$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  so there is at least one  $x \in K$ , call it  $x_n$ , with  $f(x_n) = y_n$ . Because K is compact, the sequence  $(x_n)$  in K must have a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  whose limit x is in K. By the previous lemma, with the hypothesis that f is continuous it must be true that that  $(y_{n_k})$  is convergent with limit y = f(x). Since  $(y_n)$  was an arbitrary sequence in f(K), it follows that every sequence in f(K) has a convergent subsequence whose limit is in f(K), and therefore f(K) is compact.  $\square$ 

#### 1.2. Metric Spaces

The following definitions are straightforward generalizations of definitions we have previously encountered.

DEFINITION 1.2.1 (convergence). A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space (X,d) is said to converge to a limit x if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d((x_n, x) < \epsilon \quad whenever \quad n \ge N$$

DEFINITION 1.2.2 (Cauchy sequence). A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a metric space (X, d) is said to be Cauchy if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d((x_n, x_m) < \epsilon \quad whenever \quad m, n \ge N$$

DEFINITION 1.2.3 (discrete metric). If X is a set, the function  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}^+$  defined by:

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

is a metric on X.

Theorem 1.2.1. The metric space consisting of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with the discrete metric is complete.

PROOF. To show that  $X = (\mathbb{R}^2, d)$  is complete, we must show that every Cauchy sequence in X converges to a limit in X. Suppose  $(x_n)$  is a Caucy sequence in X. By definition, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $m, n \ge N$ 

Let  $\epsilon = 1/2$ . Then there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \frac{1}{2}$$
 whenever  $n, m \ge N$ 

But  $d(x_n, x_m) < 1/2$  can only be true if  $x_n = x_m$ , so we can say that  $x_n = x_m$  whenever  $n, m \ge N$ , and therefore all terms  $(x_n)$  with  $n \ge N$  are equal, and therefore the sequence is eventually constant and therefore convergent.

#### 1.3. Sequences and Series of Functions

We will consider how to extend the idea of a sequence of numbers to a sequence of functions  $(f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots)$ .

To simplify things, we'll let the domain of each function  $f_n$  is the same set A.

DEFINITION 1.3.1 (pointwise convergence). For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  let  $f_n$  be a function defined on a set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . The sequence  $(f_n)$  of functions converges pointwise on A to a function f if, for all  $x \in A$ , the sequence of real numbers  $f_n(x)$  converges to f(x).

Example 1.3.1. Let

$$f_n(x) = (x^2 + nx)/n \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Then

$$f_1(x) = x^2 + x$$
,  $f_2(x) = \frac{x^2 + 2x}{2}$ ,  $f_3(x) = \frac{x^2 + 3x}{3}$ , ...

and

$$f_n(x) = \frac{x^2 + nx}{n} = \frac{x^2}{n} + x \to x \quad as \quad n \to \infty$$

Therefore,  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to f(x) = x.

EXAMPLE 1.3.2. Let  $g_n(x) = x^n$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ . For  $x \in [0, 1)$ ,

$$g_n(x) \to 0$$
 as  $n \to 0$ 

but if x = 1,  $g_n(1) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} g_n(x) = g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Note that each  $g_n$  is continuous on [0,1], but g is not. This illustrates the fact that the pointwise limit of a sequence of continuous functions may not be continuous.

Example 1.3.3. Let

$$h_n(x) = x^{1 + \frac{1}{2n-1}}$$
  $x \in [-1, 1]$ 

Then

$$h_1(x) = x \cdot x$$
,  $h_2(x) = x \cdot x^{\frac{1}{3}}$ ,  $h_2(x) = x \cdot x^{\frac{1}{5}}$ ,

For a fixed x,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}=x\lim_{n\to\infty}x^{\frac{1}{2n-1}}=|x|$$

In this example, for each n,  $g_n(x)$  is differentiable on [-1,1], but the pointwise limit g(x) is not.

THEOREM 1.3.1 (Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence). A sequence of functions  $(f_n)$  defined on  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  converges uniformly on A if and only if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $n, m \ge N$  and  $x \in A$ 

PROOF.  $(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose  $(f_n)$  is a series of functions on  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  that converges uniformly on A to f. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then by the definition of uniform convergence there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_k(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$
 whenever  $k \ge N$  and  $x \in A$ 

and, for  $n, m \geq N$ ,

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| = |f_n(x) - f(x) + f(x) - f_m(x)| \le |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f_m(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$
 whenever  $n, m \ge N$  and  $x \in A$ .

 $(\Rightarrow)$  Now suppose  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of functions defined on  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  with the property that, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $m, n \ge N$  and  $x \in A$ 

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By hypothesis there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$
 whenever  $n \ge N$  and  $x \in A$ 

For any  $x \in A$ , we can say that  $(f_n(x))$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ , and by the Cauchy criterion for real sequences, for any fixed  $x \in A$ , the sequence  $(f_n(x))$  converges. For every  $x \in A$ , define f(x) to be the limit of the sequence  $f_n(x)$ . Then because f(x) is the limit of the sequence  $(f_n(x))$ , there is an  $N_x \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_k(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $k \ge N_x$  with  $N_x \ge N$ 

(note: we can assume without loss of generality that  $N_x \geq N$  because even if a smaller value will work, so will any larger value, so we can always increase the original  $N_x$  to N)

Then for  $n \geq N$ , for any  $x \in A$ ,

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |f_n(x) - f_{N_x}(x) + f_{N_x}(x) - f(x)|$$
  

$$\leq |f_n(x) - f_{N_x}(x)| + |f_{N_x} - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

Since this is true for any  $x \in A$ ,  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to f. (Note: the  $N_x$  values may depend on x, but they are always greater than or equal to N, and for this reason no matter what  $N_x$  is,

$$|f(x_n) - f_{N_x}| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

for any  $N_x > N$ . The particular choice of  $N_x$  does not matter, and we can always choose  $N_x$  large enough to make the other term smaller than  $\epsilon/2$ .

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Conjecture 1.3.1. If  $f_n \to f$  pointwise on a compact set K, then  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on K.

Remark 1. The conjecture is false. Consider the sequence from an earlier example:

$$f_n(x) = x^n \quad x \in [0, 1]$$

In this case K = [0,1] is compact, and  $f_n \to f$  pointwise on K with

$$f(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & if & x < 1 \\ 1 & if & x = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

In this case the limit of a sequence of continuous functions on a compact set is not continuous. We have a theorem stating that the uniform limit of a sequence of continuous functions is continuous, so the convergence cannot be uniform.

Conjecture 1.3.2. If  $f_n \to f$  on A and g is bounded on A, then  $f_n g \to f g$  on A.

PROOF. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By hypothesis, g is bounded on A, so there is an  $M \in (0, \infty)$  such that

$$|g(x)| \le M$$
 for all  $x \in A$ 

We have to show that there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that when  $n \geq N$ ,

$$|f_n g - fg| < \epsilon$$

By hypothesis,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on A, so there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_n - f| < \frac{\epsilon}{M}$$
 whenever  $n \ge N$ 

Then for  $n \geq N$ ,

$$|f_n g - f g| = |g||f_n - f| \le M|f_n - f| < M\frac{\epsilon}{M} = \epsilon$$

Conjecture 1.3.3. If  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on A and each  $f_n$  is bounded, then f is bounded.

PROOF. By hypothesis,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on A. By definition, for  $\epsilon = 1$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_N - f| < 1$$

(this is a special case of the statement than  $|f_n - f| < \epsilon$  when  $n \ge N$ ) By hypothesis,  $f_N$  is bounded, so there is an  $M \in (0, \infty)$  such that

$$|f_N(x)| < M$$
 for all  $x \in A$ 

Then for all  $x \in A$ ,

$$|f(x)| = |-f(x)| = |f_N(x) - f(x) + f_N(x)| \le |f_N(x) - f(x)| + |f_N(x)| < 1 + M$$
 so  $f$  is bounded.

Conjecture 1.3.4. If  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on A and  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on B, then  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on  $A \cup B$ .

PROOF. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By hypothesis,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on A, so there is an  $N_A \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $x \in A$ ,

$$|f_n - f| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $n \ge N_A$ 

Also by hypothesis,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on B, so there is an  $N_B \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $x \in B$ ,

$$|f_n - f| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $n \ge N_B$ 

Let N be the larger of  $N_A$  and  $N_B$ . Then for all  $x \in A \cup B$ ,

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $n \ge N$ 

Conjecture 1.3.5. If  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on an interval A and if each  $f_n$  is increasing, then f is increasing.

PROOF. Let a, b be arbitrary points in A with a < b. By hypothesis,  $f_n$  is increasing for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , so we can write

$$f_n(a) \le f_n(b)$$
 for all  $n$ 

By the order limit theorem, this means

$$\lim f_n(a) \le \lim f_n(b)$$

But  $\lim f_n = f$ , so  $f_n(a) \to f(a)$  and  $f_n(b) \to f(b)$ , and therefore

$$f(a) \le f(b)$$

Conjecture 1.3.6. If  $f_n \to f$  pointwise on an interval A and if each  $f_n$  is increasing, then f is increasing.

PROOF. The proof in the case of uniform convergence did not use uniform convergence, only pointwise convergence, so this is true by the same proof.  $\hfill\Box$ 

Conjecture 1.3.7. Let  $f_0(x) = x$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

 $Now \ let$ 

$$f_1(x) = \begin{cases} (3/2)x & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1/3\\ 1/2 & \text{if } 1/3 < x < 1/3\\ (3/2)x - 1/2 & \text{if } 2/3 \le x \le 1 \end{cases}$$

Then f is continuous and increasing on [0,1], and constant on the middle third.

Conjecture 1.3.8. Let

$$f_2(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(3x)/2 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1/3\\ f_1(x) & \text{if } 1/3 < x < 1/3\\ f_1(3x-2)/2 - 1/2 & \text{if } 2/3 \le x \le 1 \end{cases}$$

If we continue this process,  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on [0,1].

#### CHAPTER 2

#### Homework Problems

# 2.1. Week 1 Homework (assignment 1)

Team 1 (Ali, Emily, Frank).

PROBLEM 2.1.1. Let S be the set of ordered n-tuples in  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$S = \{ (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}, \quad 1 \le i \le n \}$$

- a) Define a binary operation on  $S \times S$ , an identity element, and an inverse that makes S into an Abelian group.
- b) Define a multiplication operation on  $\mathbb{R} \times S$  that makes S into a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

PROBLEM 2.1.2. Let S be set of real-valued functions on [-1, 1]:

$$S = \{ f : [-1, 1] \to \mathbb{R} \}$$

- a) Define a binary operation on  $S \times S$ , an identity element, and an inverse that makes S into an Abelian group.
- b) Define a multiplication operation on  $\mathbb{R} \times S$  that makes S into a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

PROBLEM 2.1.3. Let V be  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the set of ordered triples of real numbers, with addition defined in the usual way:

$$u + v = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, u_3 + v_3) \quad \forall u, v \in V$$

Define the **sum norm** on this vector space as:

$$||v||_1 = |v_1| + |v_2| + |v_3|$$

Show that the sum norm satisfies the triangle inequality.

Presenters:

• 2.1.1 Ali

- 2.1.2 Frank
- 2.1.3 Emily

# Team 2 (Blaine, Katie, Siobhan, Rachel).

PROBLEM 2.1.4. Let  $S^{m \times n}$  be the set of all  $m \times n$  matrices over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$S = \{ x_{i,j} : 1 \le i \le m, \ 1 \le j \le n, x_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

- a) Define a binary operation on  $S \times S$ , an identity element, and an inverse that makes S into an Abelian group.
- b) Define a multiplication operation on  $\mathbb{R} \times S$  that makes S into a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

PROBLEM 2.1.5. Let P be set of polynomial functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ :  $P = \{ p : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \text{ such that for } x \in \mathbb{R}, \ p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n \}$ where  $a_1, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

- a) Define a binary operation on  $P \times P$ , an identity element, and an inverse that makes P into an Abelian group.
- b) Define a multiplication operation on  $\mathbb{R} \times P$  that makes P into a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

PROBLEM 2.1.6. Let V be  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the set of ordered triples of real numbers, with addition defined in the usual way:

$$u + v = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, u_3 + v_3) \quad \forall u, v \in V$$

Define the **max norm** on this vector space as:

$$||v||_{\infty} = \max(|v_1|, |v_2|, |v_3|)$$

Show that the max norm satisfies the triangle inequality.

PROBLEM 2.1.7. Let V be  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the set of ordered triples of real numbers, with zero element:

$$\vec{0} = (0, 0, 0)$$

Define the **sum norm** on this vector space as:

$$||v||_1 = |v_1| + |v_2| + |v_3|$$

Show that the sum norm satisfies the required condition

$$||v|| = 0$$
 if and only if  $v = \vec{0}$ 

#### Presenters:

- 2.1.4 Blaine
- 2.1.5 Katie
- 2.1.6 Rachel
- 2.1.7 Siobhan

# 2.2. Week 1 Homework (assignment 2)

# Team 1 (Ali, Emily, Frank).

Problem 2.2.1. Prove that arbitrary unions of open sets are open.

Problem 2.2.2. Prove that a finite union of closed sets is closed.

PROBLEM 2.2.3. Prove that a point x is a limit point of A if and only if  $x = \lim a_n$  for some sequence  $(a_n)$  in A satisfying  $a_n \neq x$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

#### Presenters:

- 2.2.1 Ali
- 2.2.2 Frank
- 2.2.3 Emily

# Team 2 (Blaine, Katie, Siobhan, Rachel).

Problem 2.2.4. Prove that finite intersections of open sets are open.

Problem 2.2.5. Prove that a set O is open if and only if its compliment,  $O^c$ , is closed.

PROBLEM 2.2.6. Prove that a set F is closed if and only if its compliment  $F^c$  is open.

Problem 2.2.7. Prove that arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.

#### Presenters:

- 2.2.4 Blaine
- 2.2.5 Katie
- 2.2.6 Rachel
- 2.2.7 Siobhan

# 2.3. Homework (assignment 3)

# Team 1 (Ali, Emily, Frank).

PROBLEM 2.3.1. Prove that in a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  arbitrary unions of open sets are open.

PROBLEM 2.3.2. Prove that in a metric space  $(x, \rho)$  a finite union of closed sets is closed.

PROBLEM 2.3.3. Prove that a point x is a limit point of A if and only if  $x = \lim a_n$  for some sequence  $(a_n)$  in A satisfying  $a_n \neq x$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

#### Presenters:

- 2.3.1 Ali
- 2.3.2 Frank
- 2.3.3 Emily

# Team 2 (Blaine, Katie, Siobhan, Rachel).

PROBLEM 2.3.4. Prove that in a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  finite intersections of open sets are open.

PROBLEM 2.3.5. Prove that in a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  a set O is open if and only if its compliment,  $O^c$ , is closed.

PROBLEM 2.3.6. Prove that in a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  a set F is closed if and only if its compliment  $F^c$  is open.

PROBLEM 2.3.7. Prove that in a metric space  $(X, \rho)$  arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.

#### Presenters:

- 2.3.4 Blaine
- 2.3.5 Katie
- 2.3.6 Rachel
- 2.3.7 Siobhan

#### 2.4. Homework (assignment 4)

### Team 1 (Ali, Emily, Frank).

PROBLEM 2.4.1. Define a sequence of functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & if & x = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

- a) Is each  $f_n$  continuous at zero?
- b) Does  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ ?
- c) Is f continuous at zero?

#### Team 2 (Blaine, Katie, Siobhan, Rachel).

PROBLEM 2.4.2. Define a sequence of functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} x & if & x = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

- a) Is each  $f_n$  continuous at zero?
- b) Does  $f_n \to f$  uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ ?
- c) Is f continuous at zero?

#### 2.5. Homework (assignment 5)

#### Teams 1 and 2.

PROBLEM 2.5.1 (Arzela-Ascoli Theorem). For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $f_n$  be a function defined on [0,1]. If  $(f_n)$  is bounded on [0,1], i.e., if there exists an M > 0 such that

$$|f_n(x)| < M$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  ane  $x \in [0, 1]$ 

and if the collection  $(f_n)$  is equicontinuous, show that  $(f_n)$  contains a uniformly convergent subsequence.

Part a): Assume the results of problem 6.2.13 (2nd edition), which states the following:

Let A be a countable set  $A = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots\}$ . For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $h_n$  be a bounded, real-valued function defined on A. Then there exists a subsequence of  $(h_n)$  that converges pointwise on A.

Show that there exists a subsequence of  $(f_n)$  that converges pointwise at every rational point in [0,1]. To simplify te notation, let

$$g_k = f_{n_k}$$

Part b): Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By hypothesis,  $(f_n)$  is equicontinuous. Argue that there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|g_k(x) - g_k(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$
 whenever  $|x - y| < \delta$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ 

Part c): Using this delta, let  $r_1, r_2, r_3, \ldots, r_n$  be a finite collection of rational points with the property that

$$[0,1] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} V_{\delta}(r_i)$$

(i.e., the union of the  $\delta$ -neighborhoods of the  $r_i$  contains the entire interval [0,1].

Argue that there must exist an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|g_s(r_i) - g_t(r_i)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$
 for all  $s, t \ge N$  and  $r_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, /ldots, n$ 

Part d): Complete the argument by showing that for arbitrary  $x,y\in[0,1],$ 

$$|g_s(x) - g_t(y)| < \epsilon \quad for \ all \quad s, t \in \mathbb{N}$$