

**MTH362 Spring 2016**

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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:*

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

DEFINITION 1.1.2 (group). A **group** consists of:

- A set  $G$
- A binary operation  $+: G \times G \rightarrow G$  with the following properties:
  - $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z \quad \forall x, y, z \in G$  (associativity)
  - $\exists 0 \in G$  such that  $a + 0 = 0 + a = a \quad \forall a \in G$  (identity)
  - $\forall a \in G \exists a^{-1}$  such that  $a + a^{-1} = a^{-1} + a = 0$  (inverse)

DEFINITION 1.1.3 (field). A **field** consists of:

- A set  $F$
- A binary operation  $+: F \times F \rightarrow F$  with the following properties:
  - $x + y = y + x \quad \forall x, y \in F$  (additive commutativity)
  - $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z \quad \forall x, y, z \in F$  (additive associativity)
  - $\exists 0 \in F$  such that  $a + 0 = 0 + a = a \quad \forall a \in F$  (additive identity)
  - $\forall a \in F \exists a^{-1}$  such that  $a + a^{-1} = a^{-1} + a = 0$  (additive inverse)
- A binary operation  $\cdot: F \times F \rightarrow F$  with the following properties:
  - $xy = yx \quad \forall x, y \in F$  (multiplicative commutativity)
  - $x(yz) = (xy)z \quad \forall x, y, z \in F$  (multiplicative associativity)
  - $\exists 1 \in F$  such that  $a1 = 1a = a \quad \forall a \in F$  (multiplicative identity)
  - $\forall a \in F \setminus \{0\} \exists a^{-1}$  such that  $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$  (multiplicative inverse)
  - $x(y + z) = xy + xz \quad \forall x, y, z \in F$  (distributive property)

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  $: F \times V \rightarrow V$  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:

$$\begin{aligned} 1v &= v \quad \forall v \in V \\ (\alpha\beta)v &= \alpha(\beta v) \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in F, v \in V \\ \alpha(v+w) &= \alpha v + \alpha w \quad \forall \alpha \in F, v, w \in V \\ (\alpha + \beta)v &= \alpha v + \beta v \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in F, v \in V \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

with the following properties:

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(x, y) &\geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y \\ \rho(x, y) &= \rho(y, x) \\ \rho(x, y) &\leq \rho(x, z) + \rho(z, y) \end{aligned}$$

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  $\mathcal{J}$
- The union of any subcollection of elements of  $\mathcal{J}$  belongs to  $\mathcal{J}$
- 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

$$|x_n - x|, \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad n \geq N$$

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

$$|x_n - x_m|, \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad n, m \geq N$$

### 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*

$$|a| \leq M \quad \text{for all } a \in A$$

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 complement  $A^c$  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  $a \notin A^c$ . 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

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

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  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$  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  $E = A \cup B$  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  $A$ .  $\square$

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

$$\rho(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad \rho(x, y) < \delta$$

LEMMA 1.1.1. *If  $(X, \rho)$  is a metric space and  $f : D \subseteq X \rightarrow X$  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

$$\rho(f(x_n), f(x)) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad n \geq N$$

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

$$\rho(f(x_n), f(x)) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad \rho(x, x_n) < \delta$$

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

$$\rho(x_n, x) < \delta \quad \text{whenever} \quad n \geq N$$

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

**THEOREM 1.1.4.** *If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  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  $(y_{n_k})$  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*

$$d(x_n, x) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad n \geq N$$

**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*

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad m, n \geq N$$

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

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

*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 Cauchy sequence in  $X$ . By definition, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } m, n \geq N$$

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

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

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  $n, m \geq N$ , and therefore all terms  $(x_n)$  with  $n \geq N$  are equal, and therefore the sequence is eventually constant and therefore convergent.  $\square$

### 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  $(f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots)$ .

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*

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

*and*

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

*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  $x \in [0, 1)$ ,*

$$g_n(x) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

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

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

*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*

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

*Then*

$$h_1(x) = x \cdot x, \quad h_2(x) = x \cdot x^{\frac{1}{3}}, \quad h_3(x) = x \cdot x^{\frac{1}{5}},$$

*For a fixed  $x$ ,*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_n(x) = x \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{\frac{1}{2n-1}} = |x|$$

*In this example, for each  $n$ ,  $h_n(x)$  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*

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } n, m \geq N \quad \text{and } x \in A$$

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

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

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

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

whenever  $n, m \geq N$  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

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad m, n \geq N \quad \text{and} \quad x \in A$$

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

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

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

$$|f_k(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad k \geq N_x \quad \text{with} \quad N_x \geq N$$

(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  $x \in A$ ,

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

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  $\epsilon/2$ .

□

CONJECTURE 1.3.1. *If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise on a compact set  $K$ , then  $f_n \rightarrow f$  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  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise on  $K$  with*

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

*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  $f_n \rightarrow f$  on  $A$  and  $g$  is bounded on  $A$ , then  $f_n g \rightarrow f g$  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

$$|g(x)| \leq M \quad \text{for all } x \in A$$

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

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

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

$$|f_n - f| < \frac{\epsilon}{M} \quad \text{whenever } n \geq N$$

Then for  $n \geq N$ ,

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

□

CONJECTURE 1.3.3. *If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $A$  and each  $f_n$  is bounded, then  $f$  is bounded.*

PROOF. By hypothesis,  $f_n \rightarrow f$  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  $n \geq N$ )  
By hypothesis,  $f_N$  is bounded, so there is an  $M \in (0, \infty)$  such that

$$|f_N(x)| < M \quad \text{for all } x \in A$$



Then for all  $x \in A$ ,

$$|f(x)| = |-f(x)| = |f_N(x) - f(x) + f_N(x)| \leq |f_N(x) - f(x)| + |f_N(x)| < 1 + M$$

so  $f$  is bounded.  $\square$

CONJECTURE 1.3.4. *If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $A$  and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $B$ , then  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $A \cup B$ .*

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

$$|f_n - f| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq N_A$$

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

$$|f_n - f| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq N_B$$

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

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq N$$

$\square$

CONJECTURE 1.3.5. *If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  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

$$f_n(a) \leq f_n(b) \quad \text{for all } n$$

By the order limit theorem, this means

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

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

$$f(a) \leq f(b)$$

$\square$

CONJECTURE 1.3.6. *If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  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.  $\square$

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

Now let

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

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

CONJECTURE 1.3.8. Let

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

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

#### 1.4. The Differentiable Limit Theorem

In this section we will show that if we start with a pointwise-convergent sequence of differentiable functions  $f_n \rightarrow f$ , and the sequence of derivatives  $(f'_n)$  converges uniformly to a function  $g$ , then  $g$  is differentiable and  $f' = g$ .

THEOREM 1.4.1 (Differentiable Limit Theorem). Let  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , and assume that each  $f_n$  is differentiable. If the sequence  $(f'_n) \rightarrow g$  uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  is differentiable and  $f' = g$ .

PROOF. Choose a fixed  $c \in [a, b]$ . To show that  $f'(c)$  exists and is equal to  $g(c)$ , where

$$f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

To show this, we need to show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = g(c)$$

(Note that this statement implies that  $f'(c)$  exists and is equal to  $g(c)$ .)

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then we need to show there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - g(c) \right| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - c| < \delta$$

As usual we employ a clever substitution and the triangle inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - g(c) \right| = \\ & \left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(c)}{x - c} + \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(c)}{x - c} - f'_n(c) + f'_n(c) - g(c) \right| \\ & \left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - g(c) \right| \leq \left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(c)}{x - c} \right| + \\ & \left| \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(c)}{x - c} - f'_n(c) \right| + |f'_n(c) - g(c)| \end{aligned}$$

This equality holds no matter what the value of  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is, i.e, it holds for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We will show that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  and a  $\delta > 0$  that makes each of the three terms on the right hand side less than  $\epsilon/3$  when  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$

By hypothesis,  $(f'_n) \rightarrow g$  uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , so by the definition of uniform convergence for sequences of functions, there is an  $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f'_n(c) - g(c)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{whenever} \quad n \geq N_1 \quad \text{for any} \quad c \in [a, b]$$

Furthermore, the Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence, there is an  $N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f'_m(x) - f'_n(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{when} \quad m, n \geq N_2 \quad \text{for every} \quad x \in [a, b]$$

Let  $N$  be the larger of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . By hypothesis,  $f_n$  is differentiable on  $[a, b]$  for each  $n$ , so  $f_N$  is differentiable, and so by definition

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f_N(c) - f_N(x)}{x - c} \rightarrow f'_N(c)$$

for any  $c \in [a, b]$ , so for any  $c$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\left| \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(c)}{x - c} - f'_N(c) \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - c| < \delta$$

It remains to show that for this  $\delta$  and this  $N$ ,

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(c)}{x - c} \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

Let  $x$  be any value for which  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$ . Without loss of generality, assume  $x > c$ . By hypothesis, each  $f_n$  is differentiable on  $[a, b]$ , so  $f_N$  is differentiable on  $[x, c]$ , and we can apply the mean value theorem to the function  $f_m - f_N$ , where  $m > N$ , to establish that there is an  $\alpha \in (x, c)$  such that

$$f'_n(\alpha) - f'_N(\alpha) = \frac{(f_m(x) - f_N(x)) - (f_m(c) - f_N(c))}{x - c}$$

Our choice of  $m$  and  $N$  together with the Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence guarantees that

$$|f'_n(\alpha) - f'_N(\alpha)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

so by substitution

$$\left| \frac{(f_m(x) - f_N(x)) - (f_m(c) - f_N(c))}{x - c} \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

which we can write as

$$\left| \frac{(f_m(x) - f_N(x))}{x - c} - \frac{(f_m(c) - f_N(c))}{x - c} \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

By hypothesis  $f_n \rightarrow f$  so can apply the Order Limit Theorem to write

$$\left| \frac{(f(x) - f_N(x))}{x - c} - \frac{(f(c) - f_N(c))}{x - c} \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

Now we combine these results to write

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - g(c) \right| &\leq \left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(c)}{x - c} \right| + \\ &\left| \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(c)}{x - c} - f'_N(c) \right| + |f'_N(c) - g(c)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

□

### 1.5. Series of Functions

**DEFINITION 1.5.1** (pointwise convergence of a series). *Let  $f_n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f$  be functions defined on a set  $a \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . The infinite series*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) + f_3(x) + \cdots$$

*converges pointwise on  $A$  to  $f(x)$  if the sequence  $s_k(x)$  of partial sums,*

$$s_k(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) + \cdots + f_k(x)$$

*converges pointwise to  $f(x)$ .*

*The series converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $A$  if the sequence  $s_k(x)$  converges uniformly to  $f(x)$  on  $A$ .*

Adapting the Cauchy criterion for sequences of functions to series:

**THEOREM 1.5.1** (Cauchy Criterion for Uniform Convergence of Series). *A series*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$$

*converges uniformly on  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  if and only if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that*

$$|f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_n(x)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad m, n \geq N \quad \text{for all} \quad x \in A$$

**THEOREM 1.5.2** (Weierstrass M-Test). *For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $f_n$  be a function defined on a set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , and let  $M_n > 0$  be a real number satisfying*

$$|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$$

*for all  $x \in A$ . If*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$$

*converges, then*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$$

*converges uniformly on  $A$ .*

**PROOF.** Suppose

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$$

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

$$|f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_n(x)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } m, n \geq N \quad \text{for all } x \in A$$

By hypothesis,  $\sum M_n$  converges, so by the Cauchy Criterion there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$M_{m+1} + M_{m+2} + \cdots + M_n < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } m, n \geq N$$

Then by the triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} |f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_n(x)| &\leq |f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_{n-1}(x)| + |f_n(x)| \\ &\leq |f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_{n-1}(x)| + M_n \end{aligned}$$

Applying the triangle inequality again gives

$$|f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_n(x)| \leq |f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_{n-2}(x)| + M_{n-1} + M_n$$

And eventually

$$|f_{m+1}(x) + f_{m+2}(x) + \cdots + f_n(x)| \leq M_{m+1} + M_{m+2} + \cdots + M_n < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } m, n \geq N$$

for all  $x \in A$ . □

**DEFINITION 1.5.1** (power series). *A function of the form*

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \cdots$$

*is called a power series.*

THEOREM 1.5.3. *The power series*

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \cdots$$

converges to  $a_0$  if  $x = 0$ .

PROOF. The result follows by substitution of  $x = 0$  into the power series:

$$f(0) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + \cdots$$

□

THEOREM 1.5.4. *If a power series*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

converges at some point  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  then it converges uniformly on the closed interval  $[-c, c]$  where

$$c = |x_0|$$

PROOF. Set

$$M_n = |a_n x_0^n|$$

By hypothesis, the series converges absolutely, so we can write

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n x_0^n| = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M_n$$

so  $\sum M_n$  converges. For any  $x \in [-c, c]$ ,

$$|a_n x^n| \leq |a_n x_0^n| = M_n$$

so the Weierstrass M-test guarantees that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges uniformly on  $[-c, c]$ . □





## 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  $\mathbb{R}$ :*

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

- *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  $[-1, 1]$ :*

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

- *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  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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

- 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  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$P = \{ p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ such that for } x \in \mathbb{R}, p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n \}$   
 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

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

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 complement,  $O^c$ , is closed.*

PROBLEM 2.2.6. *Prove that a set  $F$  is closed if and only if its complement  $F^c$  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 complement,  $O^c$ , is closed.*

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

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

- a) *Is each  $f_n$  continuous at zero?*
- b) *Does  $f_n \rightarrow f$  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*

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

- a) *Is each  $f_n$  continuous at zero?*
- b) *Does  $f_n \rightarrow f$  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*

$$|f_n(x)| \leq M \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } x \in [0, 1]$$

*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  $A = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ . 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 the 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*

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

*Part c): Using this delta, let  $r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_n$  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*

$$|g_s(r_i) - g_t(r_i)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{for all } s, t \geq N \quad \text{and } r_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

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

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