

# Solved selected problems of Real Analysis

## - Carothers

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### Chapter 8 - Compactness

*Proof. 1* If  $K$  is a non-empty compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  then  $K$  is bounded and closed therefore the  $\sup K \in K$  and  $\inf K \in K$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 2* Let  $E = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : 2 < x^2 < 3\}$  then the complement on  $\mathbb{Q}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E^c = & \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x > 0 \text{ and } x^2 > 3\} \cup \\ & \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < 0 \text{ and } x^2 > 3\} \cup \\ & \{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\} \end{aligned}$$

We see that  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x > 0 \text{ and } x^2 > 3\} = (\sqrt{3}, \infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}$  where  $(\sqrt{3}, \infty)$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are open sets hence  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x > 0 \text{ and } x^2 > 3\}$  is open. Also, we see that  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < 0 \text{ and } x^2 > 3\} = (-\infty, -\sqrt{3}) \cap \mathbb{Q}$  and that  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\} = (-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}) \cap \mathbb{Q}$  so both  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x < 0 \text{ and } x^2 > 3\}$  and  $\{x \in \mathbb{Q} : x^2 < 2\}$  are open sets. Therefore since  $E^c$  is the union of open sets it's also an open set hence  $E$  is closed.

On the other hand, if  $x \in E$  then  $x \in (\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) \cap \mathbb{Q}$  or  $x \in (-\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{3}) \cap \mathbb{Q}$  hence  $-2 < x < 2$  which implies that  $E$  is bounded.

Let us call the  $\sup E$  (that we know exists) as  $\sqrt{3}$  we want to prove that there is a sequence in  $E$  that tends to it. Let us form a sequence  $(x_n)$  where each element  $x_n \in B_{1/n}(\sqrt{3}) = (\sqrt{3} - 1/n, \sqrt{3} + 1/n)$  then we see that  $\sqrt{3} - 1/n < x_n < \sqrt{3}$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  which implies that  $x_n \rightarrow \sqrt{3}$  therefore we have a Cauchy sequence that converges to a point that is not in  $E$  hence  $E$  is neither complete nor compact.  $\square$

*Proof. 3* Let  $A$  be compact in  $M$  then  $A$  is totally bounded so given  $\epsilon > 0$  there are finitely many sets  $A_1, \dots, A_n \subset A$  with  $\text{diam}(A_i) < \epsilon$  such that  $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  so let  $B = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$  we see that  $\text{diam}(B) < \infty$  since every set is of diameter at most  $\epsilon$  also we have that  $\text{diam}(A) \leq \text{diam}(B) < \infty$  which implies that  $\text{diam}(A)$  is finite.

On the other hand, we know that  $\text{diam}(A) = \sup\{d(a, b) : a, b \in A\}$ . Let us define  $(x_n) \subseteq A$  and  $(y_n) \subseteq A$  where each  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  is defined such that  $\text{diam}(A) - 1/n < d(x_n, y_n) \leq \text{diam}(A)$  which we know it exists because otherwise  $\text{diam}(A) - 1/n$  would be an upper bound which is smaller than  $\text{diam}(A) = \sup\{d(a, b) : a, b \in A\}$ , implying a contradiction. This in turn implies that  $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow \text{diam}(A)$ .

Since  $A$  is compact from Theorem 8.2 we have that every sequence in  $A$  has a subsequence that converges to a point in  $A$  hence there is a subsequence  $(x_{n_k}) \subset A$  from  $(x_n)$  such that  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$  where  $x \in A$  also from  $(y_n)$  we can select a subsequence  $(y_{n_k}) \subset A$  where we took the  $n_k$ 's from the  $(x_{n_k})$  subsequence this implies that  $(y_{n_k})$  might not converge but we know there is a subsequence  $(y_{n_{k_t}})$  that converges to a point  $y \in A$  hence we can take  $(x_{n_{k_t}})$  from  $(x_{n_k})$  that also converges to  $x \in A$ . This implies that  $d(x_{n_{k_t}}, y_{n_{k_t}}) \rightarrow d(x, y)$ . Finally, since every subsequence must converge to the same limit as the main sequence therefore we have that  $d(x, y) = \text{diam}(A)$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 4* Let  $A$  and  $B$  be compact in  $M$ , we want to show that  $A \cup B$  is compact. Let  $(x_n) \subseteq A \cup B$  be a sequence then either  $(x_n) \subset A$  or  $(x_n) \subset B$  or in both for infinitely many points in any case we can take a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  that converges to a point in  $A$  and/or in  $B$  since they are compact. Therefore since  $(x_n)$  has a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k}) \subset A \cup B$  we get from Theorem 8.2 that  $A \cup B$  is compact.  $\square$

*Proof. 6* Let  $(a_n) \subset A$  and  $(b_n) \subset B$  be sequences, since  $A$  is compact then there is  $(a_{n_k}) \subset A$  such that it converges to  $a \in A$ . We can also take a sequence  $(b_{n_k}) \subset (b_n) \subset B$  which has a convergent subsequence  $(b_{n_{k_t}}) \subset B$  that converges to  $b \in B$  since  $B$  is compact, hence we can also take  $(a_{n_{k_t}}) \subset A$  which still converges to  $a \in A$ .

On the other hand, let us also define a sequence  $(a_n, b_n) \subset A \times B$ . We know because of problem 3.46 that the subsequence  $(a_{n_{k_t}}, b_{n_{k_t}}) \subset A \times B$  also converges in  $A \times B$  because each subsequence converges separately in  $A$  and  $B$ . Therefore  $A \times B$  is compact as well.  $\square$

*Proof. 8* Let  $K = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\|_1 = 1\}$  since  $K$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to show  $K$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  under the Euclidean norm we need to show that  $K$  is closed and bounded under the Euclidean norm.

Let  $x \in K$  we know that  $0 \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1 = 1$  hence  $K$  is bounded under the Euclidean norm.

Now let us define  $f(x) = \|x\|_1$  we see that  $K = f^{-1}(\{1\})$  since  $\{1\}$  is a closed set and  $f$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  under the 1-norm we see that  $K$  must be closed under the 1-norm. This implies that for some  $\epsilon > 0$  there is some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that when  $n \geq N$  we have that  $\|x_n - x\|_1 < \epsilon$  but also we know that  $\|x_n - x\|_2 \leq \|x_n - x\|_1 < \epsilon$  hence  $K$  is also closed under the Euclidean norm.

Therefore  $K$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  under the Euclidean norm.  $\square$

*Proof. 21* Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function, since  $[a, b]$  is a closed and bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  we know that  $[a, b]$  is compact hence  $f([a, b]) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is compact because of Theorem 8.4. then  $f([a, b])$  is bounded and closed so there is  $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $c \leq f(x) \leq d$  for every  $f(x) \in f([a, b])$  or  $f([a, b]) \subset [c, d]$  moreover there is  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(x_1) = c$  and  $f(x_2) = d$ .

Let us take  $J = [x_1, x_2]$  if  $x_1 \leq x_2$  or  $J = [x_2, x_1]$  if  $x_1 > x_2$  where  $J \subset [a, b]$ . Since  $f$  is continuous and because of the Intermediate Value Theorem we know that  $f$  takes any value between  $f(x_1)$  and  $f(x_2)$  which implies that  $[f(x_1), f(x_2)] = [c, d] \subset f([a, b])$ . Therefore  $f([a, b]) = [c, d]$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 22* Let  $E \subseteq M$  be a closed set (hence compact because of Corollary 8.3) and let us take a convergent sequence  $(y_n) \subseteq f(E)$  such that it converges to  $y \in N$  we want to prove that also  $y \in f(E)$  which would imply that  $f(E)$  is a closed set.

By definition, there is  $x_n \in E$  such that  $f(x_n) = y_n$  hence we can form a sequence  $(x_n) \subseteq E$ , but  $E$  is compact so there is  $(x_{n_k}) \subseteq E$  such that  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$  where  $x \in E$ . Also,  $f$  is continuous so  $f(x_{n_k}) \rightarrow f(x)$  or  $y_{n_k} \rightarrow f(x)$  but we knew that  $y_n \rightarrow y$  so by unicity of limits we have that  $y = f(x) \in f(E)$ . Therefore  $f(E)$  is closed and  $f$  is a closed map.  $\square$

*Proof. 23* Let  $E$  be a closed set from  $M$  since  $M$  is compact and  $f : M \rightarrow N$  is continuous then from proof 22 we know that  $f$  is a closed map hence  $f(E)$  is closed in  $N$  but also we know that  $f(E) = (f^{-1})^{-1}(E)$  since  $f$  is bijective therefore  $f^{-1}$  is continuous and  $f$  is a homeomorphism.  $\square$

*Proof. 25* Let  $V$  be a normed vector space and let a function  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow V$  defined as  $f(t) = x + t(y - x)$  where  $x \neq y \in V$ .

First, we want to prove that  $f$  is continuous. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and let  $s, t \in [0, 1]$  if  $|s - t| < \delta$  where  $\delta = \epsilon / \|y - x\|$  (we can do this since  $x \neq y$ ) we have that

$$\begin{aligned} |s - t| &< \frac{\epsilon}{\|y - x\|} \\ \|(s - t)(y - x)\| &< \epsilon \\ \|s(y - x) - t(y - x)\| &< \epsilon \\ \|x + s(y - x) - (x + t(y - x))\| &< \epsilon \\ \|f(s) - f(t)\| &< \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $f$  is continuous.

Now we want to prove that  $f$  is one-to-one and onto (i.e. bijective). Suppose  $f(t) = f(s)$  for some  $t, s \in [0, 1]$  hence

$$\begin{aligned} x + t(y - x) &= x + s(y - x) \\ t(y - x) &= s(y - x) \\ t &= s \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $f$  is one-to-one.

To prove that  $f$  is onto suppose  $z \in V$  we want to prove that there is  $t \in [0, 1]$  such that  $f(t) = z$  let us take  $t = (z - x)/(y - x)$  hence

$$f(t) = x + \frac{z - x}{y - x}(y - x) = z$$

Therefore  $f$  is onto as we wanted.

Finally, since  $[0, 1]$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}$  because it's closed and bounded and  $f$  is continuous and bijective from proof 23 we have that  $f$  is a homeomorphism from  $[0, 1]$  to  $V$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 30* We want to prove first that (a) is equivalent to (b). Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of closed sets in  $M$  such that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i \neq \emptyset$  for all choices of finitely many sets  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  let us suppose  $\bigcap \{F : F \in \mathcal{F}\} = \emptyset$  we want to arrive at a contradiction.

Now let us define  $\mathcal{G} = \{F^c : F \in \mathcal{F}\}$  we see that  $(\bigcap \{F : F \in \mathcal{F}\})^c = M$  also from De Morgan's law, we have that  $(\bigcap \{F : F \in \mathcal{F}\})^c = \bigcup \{F^c : F \in \mathcal{F}\}$  hence  $M \subseteq \bigcup \{G : G \in \mathcal{G}\}$  then from (a) we have that there are finitely many sets  $G_1, \dots, G_n \in \mathcal{G}$  such that  $M \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i$  where  $G_i = (F_i)^c$  then  $(\bigcup_{i=1}^n (F_i)^c)^c = \emptyset$  but we know that  $(\bigcup_{i=1}^n (F_i)^c)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n ((F_i)^c)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i$  hence  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i = \emptyset$  but we know that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i \neq \emptyset$  then we have a contradiction therefore it must be that  $\bigcap \{F : F \in \mathcal{F}\} \neq \emptyset$ .

Finally, we want to prove that (b) is equivalent to (a). Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a collection of open sets in  $M$  such that  $M \subseteq \bigcup \{G : G \in \mathcal{G}\}$  and let us suppose that for every combination of finitely many sets  $G_1, \dots, G_n \in \mathcal{G}$  we have that  $M \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i$  we want to arrive at a contradiction.

Let us define  $\mathcal{F} = \{(G_i)^c : G_i \in \mathcal{G}\}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (G_i)^c \neq \emptyset$  which we know it exists because if  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (G_i)^c = \emptyset$  then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n (G_i)^c = (\bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i)^c = \emptyset$  which implies that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i = M$  but we said that  $M \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i$ . Then because of (b) we have that  $\bigcap \{(G)^c : G \in \mathcal{G}\} \neq \emptyset$  but also from De Morgan's law, we have that  $(\bigcap \{(G)^c : G \in \mathcal{G}\})^c = \bigcup \{G : G \in \mathcal{G}\}$  so  $M \subseteq (\bigcap \{(G)^c : G \in \mathcal{G}\})^c$  hence it must happen that  $\bigcap \{(G)^c : G \in \mathcal{G}\} = \emptyset$  which is a contradiction to what we've got from (b), therefore it must happen that there are finitely many sets  $G_1, \dots, G_n \in \mathcal{G}$  such that  $M \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n G_i$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 36* Let us suppose that  $d(F, K) = \inf \{d(x, y) : x \in F, y \in K\} = 0$  we want to arrive at a contradiction. Let us take  $(x_n) \subseteq F$  and  $(y_n) \subseteq K$  such that  $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow 0$ . Since  $K$  is compact then  $(y_n)$  has a subsequence such that  $y_{n_k} \rightarrow y$  where  $y \in K$ . Also, let us take a subsequence  $(x_{n_k}) \subseteq (x_n)$  so we have that

$$0 \leq d(x_{n_k}, y) \leq d(x_{n_k}, y_{n_k}) + d(y_{n_k}, y)$$

We see that  $d(x_{n_k}, y_{n_k}) \rightarrow 0$  since it is a subsequence of  $d(x_n, y_n)$  hence both have the same limit and  $d(y_{n_k}, y) \rightarrow 0$  because  $K$  is compact as we just saw therefore  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow y$  but we know  $F$  is closed then  $y \in F$  but also  $K \cap F = \emptyset$  hence we have a contradiction and must be that  $d(F, K) = \inf \{d(x, y) : x \in F, y \in K\} > 0$ .

Finally, let  $F = \{(x, y) : y = 0\}$  and  $K = \{(x, y) : y = 1/x\}$  we see that both  $F$  and  $K$  are closed sets and disjoint but  $d(F, K) = \inf \{d(x, y) : x \in F, y \in K\} = 0$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 44* Let  $f : (M, d) \rightarrow (N, \rho)$  be a Lipschitz map then there is  $K < \infty$  such that  $\rho(f(x), f(y)) \leq Kd(x, y)$  for all  $x, y \in M$  hence given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta = \epsilon/K$  such that when  $d(x, y) < \delta = \epsilon/K$  we have that

$$\rho(f(x), f(y)) \leq Kd(x, y) < \epsilon$$

Therefore  $f$  is uniformly continuous.

Let us suppose now that  $f$  is isometric then we know that  $\rho(f(x), f(y)) = d(x, y)$  hence given  $\epsilon > 0$  if we take  $\delta = \epsilon$  we have that whenever  $d(x, y) < \delta = \epsilon$  we get that  $\rho(f(x), f(y)) = d(x, y) < \epsilon$ . Therefore an isometry is also uniformly continuous.  $\square$

*Proof. 45* Let  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and if we take  $\delta = 1/2$  we have that  $|n - m| < 1/2$  for every  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$  hence  $n = m$  so  $|f(n) - f(m)| < \epsilon$  no matter which  $\epsilon > 0$  we take since  $f(n) = f(m)$ . Therefore  $f$  is uniformly continuous.  $\square$

*Proof. 46* First, we want to prove that  $|d(x, z) - d(y, z)| \leq d(x, y)$ . From the triangle inequality we know that

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, z) &\leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) \\ d(x, z) - d(y, z) &\leq d(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

and that

$$\begin{aligned} d(y, z) &\leq d(y, x) + d(x, z) \\ d(y, z) - d(x, z) &\leq d(x, y) \\ -d(x, y) &\leq d(x, z) - d(y, z) \end{aligned}$$

Hence this implies that  $|d(x, z) - d(y, z)| \leq d(x, y)$  as we wanted to show.

Now we will prove that the map  $x \rightarrow d(x, z)$  for some fixed  $z \in M$  is a uniformly continuous map in  $M$ . Given some  $\epsilon > 0$ , let us take  $\delta = \epsilon$  then when  $d(x, y) < \delta = \epsilon$  from what we proved earlier we have that

$$|d(x, z) - d(y, z)| \leq d(x, y) < \delta = \epsilon$$

Therefore the map  $x \rightarrow d(x, z)$  is uniformly continuous.  $\square$

*Proof. 47* First, we want to prove that  $|d(x, A) - d(y, A)| \leq d(x, y)$ . From the triangle inequality for any  $a \in A$  we know that

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, A) = \inf\{d(x, a) : a \in A\} &\leq d(x, a) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, a) \\ d(x, A) - d(x, y) &\leq d(y, a) \end{aligned}$$

So we see that  $d(x, A) - d(x, y)$  is a lower bound for  $d(y, a)$  hence we have that

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, A) - d(x, y) &\leq \inf\{d(y, a) : a \in A\} = d(y, A) \\ d(x, A) - d(y, A) &\leq d(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} d(y, A) = \inf\{d(y, a) : a \in A\} &\leq d(y, a) \leq d(y, x) + d(x, a) \\ d(y, A) - d(x, y) &\leq d(x, a) \end{aligned}$$

So we see that  $d(y, A) - d(x, y)$  is a lower bound for  $d(x, a)$  hence we have that

$$\begin{aligned} d(y, A) - d(x, y) &\leq \inf\{d(x, a) : a \in A\} = d(x, A) \\ d(y, A) - d(x, A) &\leq d(x, y) \\ -d(x, y) &\leq d(x, A) - d(y, A) \end{aligned}$$

Hence this implies that  $|d(x, A) - d(y, A)| \leq d(x, y)$  as we wanted to show.

Now we will prove that the map  $x \rightarrow d(x, A)$  is a uniformly continuous map in  $M$ . Given some  $\epsilon > 0$ , let us take  $\delta = \epsilon$  then when  $d(x, y) < \delta = \epsilon$  from what we proved earlier we have that

$$|d(x, A) - d(y, A)| \leq d(x, y) < \delta = \epsilon$$

Therefore the map  $x \rightarrow d(x, A)$  is uniformly continuous.  $\square$

*Proof. 48* Let  $f : (M, d) \rightarrow (N, \rho)$  be a uniformly continuous map and let  $(x_n) \subseteq M$  be a Cauchy sequence. We want to prove that  $f((x_n))$  is also a Cauchy sequence.

Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous given some  $\epsilon > 0$  there is some  $\delta > 0$  (which depends on  $\epsilon$  and/or  $f$ ) such that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(x_m)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $x_n, x_m \in (x_n)$  satisfy  $d(x_n, x_m) < \delta$  but since  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  where this will be satisfied for every  $n, m \geq N$  hence we have that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(x_m)) < \epsilon$  is also satisfied for every  $n, m \geq N$  which implies that  $f((x_n))$  is also a Cauchy sequence.  $\square$

*Proof. 49* Let  $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be two uniformly continuous maps hence for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta_f > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x, y \in M$  satisfy  $d(x, y) < \delta_f$  and there is  $\delta_g > 0$  such that  $|g(x) - g(y)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x, y \in M$  satisfy  $d(x, y) < \delta_g$ . We want to prove that  $f + g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is also a uniformly continuous map. Let us take  $\delta = \min(\delta_f, \delta_g)$  and let's notice that  $|(f(x) + g(x)) - (f(y) + g(y))| = |f(x) - f(y) + g(x) - g(y)|$  and by triangle inequality, we have that

$$|f(x) - f(y) + g(x) - g(y)| < |f(x) - f(y)| + |g(x) - g(y)|$$

If  $x, y \in M$  satisfy that  $d(x, y) < \delta$  then  $d(x, y) < \delta_g$  and  $d(x, y) < \delta_f$  so we can claim that

$$|f(x) - f(y) + g(x) - g(y)| < |f(x) - f(y)| + |g(x) - g(y)| < 2\epsilon$$

This implies that  $f + g$  is uniformly continuous too.

Lastly, we will give a counterexample of why the product of a uniformly continuous map is not a uniformly continuous map. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $f(x) = x$  we see that taking  $\delta = \epsilon$  we have that  $|x - y| = |f(x) - f(y)| < \delta = \epsilon$  hence  $f$  is a uniformly continuous map.

Now, if we take  $h(x) = f(x)f(x) = x^2$  we see that only taking  $\delta = \epsilon/|x + y|$  when  $|x - y| < \delta$  we have that

$$\begin{aligned} |x - y| &< \frac{\epsilon}{|x + y|} \\ |x^2 - y^2| &= |x - y||x + y| < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $h$  is not a uniformly continuous map.  $\square$

*Proof. 51* Let  $(x_n) \subseteq (0, 1)$  be a Cauchy sequence that converges to 0 since  $f$  is uniformly continuous we know that  $f((x_n))$  is also a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  hence  $f((x_n))$  converges to some  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  this implies that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = L$ .

Let us suppose now that  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  are two Cauchy sequences converging to 0 since  $f$  is uniformly continuous we know that  $f((x_n))$  and  $f((y_n))$  are also Cauchy sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$  we want to show that both of them converge to the same limit. Let us build another sequence  $(z_n)$  such that  $z_{2n} = x_n$  and  $z_{2n+1} = y_n$  where  $(z_n)$  is also a Cauchy sequence that converges to 0 hence  $f((z_n))$  is a convergent Cauchy sequence. We see that  $f((x_n))$  and  $f((y_n))$  are subsequences of the convergent sequence  $f((z_n))$  therefore they must converge to the same limit i.e.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(y_n)$ .

What we did for 0 can also be applied to 1 hence both limits  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x)$  exists so we have extended  $f$  to a continuous function  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and since  $[0, 1]$  is a compact set then by the Corollary 8.5. we have that  $f$  is bounded.  $\square$



*Proof. 53* We know that given some  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $R > 0$  such that  $|f(x)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|x| > R$ .

Let us consider the closed interval  $[-R, R]$  we know that this closed interval is compact in  $\mathbb{R}$  and also  $f$  is continuous here hence because of Theorem 8.15 we have that  $f$  is uniformly continuous in  $[-R, R]$ . This implies that given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x, y \in [-R, R]$  satisfy that  $|x - y| < \delta$ .

Let us preserve the  $\delta > 0$  we found and let us take  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$ . Also, let  $|x| > R$  and  $|y| > R$  then we have that  $|f(x)| < \epsilon$  and  $|f(y)| < \epsilon$  since  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$  therefore  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x)| + |f(y)| < 2\epsilon$ .

Finally, we want to check the case where we still have that  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$  but now  $|x| < R$  and  $|y| > R$  then

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f(R)| + |f(R) - f(y)| < \epsilon + 2\epsilon = 3\epsilon$$

Where we used that  $|f(x) - f(R)| < \epsilon$  since  $x, R \in [-R, R]$  and  $|f(R) - f(y)| \leq |f(R)| + |f(y)| < 2\epsilon$  since  $y, R \in [R, \infty)$ .

Therefore  $f$  is uniformly continuous in every condition as we wanted.  $\square$

*Proof. 56*

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $f : (M, d) \rightarrow (N, \rho)$  be uniformly continuous and let  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  be two sequences of  $M$  such that  $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow 0$ .

Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous we have that given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\rho(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $x, y \in M$  satisfy  $d(x, y) < \delta$ . Let us grab this  $\delta > 0$  then we know there is  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  such that  $d(x_n, y_n) < \delta$  since  $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow 0$  but this implies that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) < \epsilon$  which implies that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \rightarrow 0$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let us suppose  $f : (M, d) \rightarrow (N, \rho)$  is not a uniformly continuous map we want to arrive at a contradiction. If  $f$  is not a uniformly continuous map then there is some  $\epsilon_0 > 0$  where it doesn't matter which  $\delta > 0$  we take we can always find  $x, y \in M$  such that  $d(x, y) < \delta$  but we always have that  $\rho(f(x), f(y)) > \epsilon_0$ .

Let us take two sequences  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  of  $M$  such that  $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow 0$  then we know that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \rightarrow 0$  which implies that if we take  $\epsilon_0 > 0$  there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that when  $n \geq N$  we have that  $\rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) < \epsilon_0$  so there must be some  $\delta_0 > 0$  such that  $d(x_n, y_n) < \delta_0$  which is a contradiction to the first statement. Therefore  $f$  is a uniformly continuous map.  $\square$

*Proof. 58* Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be some function where we know that for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we have that  $|f'(x)| \leq K$  where  $K > 0$  since  $f'$  is bounded.

On the other hand, from the mean value theorem, let us take an interval  $(x, y) \subset \mathbb{R}$  where there must be  $c \in (x, y)$  such that  $f'(c) = (f(y) - f(x))/(y - x)$  then it must also happen that

$$|f'(c)| = \left| \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \right| \leq K$$

which implies that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq K|x - y|$$

Therefore  $f$  is Lipschitz of order 1.  $\square$

*Proof. 61* Let  $f : (M, d) \rightarrow (N, \rho)$  be a uniform homeomorphism we want to prove that if  $M$  is complete then  $N$  is also complete.

Given that  $f$  is one-to-one and onto let  $(f(x_n)) \subseteq N$  be a Cauchy sequence. Since  $f^{-1}$  is a uniformly continuous map it sends Cauchy sequences to Cauchy sequences hence we know that  $(f^{-1}(f(x_n))) = (x_n) \subseteq M$  must be a Cauchy sequence and since  $M$  is complete we have that  $(x_n)$  must converge to some  $x \in M$ . On the other hand, since  $f$  is a uniform homeomorphism and  $x_n$  converges to  $x$  then  $(f(x_n)) \subseteq N$  converges to  $f(x)$ .

Therefore a Cauchy sequence  $(f(x_n)) \subseteq N$  converges to  $f(x) \in N$  which implies that  $N$  is a complete space.  $\square$

*Proof. 62* Let  $i : (M, d) \rightarrow (M, \rho)$  be the identity map between  $(M, d)$  and  $(M, \rho)$ , we want to prove it's uniformly continuous knowing that there are constants  $0 < c, C < \infty$  such that  $c\rho(x, y) \leq d(x, y) \leq C\rho(x, y)$  for every point  $x, y \in M$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , let us take  $\delta = c\epsilon$  and let us suppose that  $d(x, y) < \delta = c\epsilon$  then because  $c\rho(x, y) \leq d(x, y)$  we have that  $\rho(x, y) < \epsilon$  as we wanted. Therefore  $i$  is a uniformly continuous map.

On the other hand, let  $i^{-1} : (M, \rho) \rightarrow (M, d)$  be the identity map between  $(M, \rho)$  and  $(M, d)$ , we want to prove it's uniformly continuous knowing that there are constants  $0 < c, C < \infty$  such that  $c\rho(x, y) \leq d(x, y) \leq C\rho(x, y)$  for every point  $x, y \in M$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , let us take  $\delta = C\epsilon$  and let us suppose that  $\rho(x, y) < \delta = C\epsilon$  then because  $d(x, y) \leq C\rho(x, y)$  we have that  $d(x, y) < \epsilon$  as we wanted. Therefore  $i^{-1}$  is a uniformly continuous map.

Finally, since the identity map  $i : (M, d) \rightarrow (M, \rho)$  is a uniform homeomorphism then  $d$  and  $\rho$  are uniformly equivalent.  $\square$

*Proof. 65* Let  $F : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined as  $F(0) = f(0+)$ ,  $F(1) = f(1-)$  and  $F(x) = f(x)$ . We know that  $F$  is continuous on  $(0, 1)$  since  $f$  is continuous there, we want to prove that  $F$  is also continuous at 0 and 1. By definition, we know that  $f(0+) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} f(x)$  hence  $F(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} F(x)$  which implies that  $F$  is continuous at 0. In the same way, we can get that  $F$  is continuous at 1.

Therefore,  $F$  is continuous on  $[0, 1]$  and since  $[0, 1]$  is compact because of Theorem 8.15. we have that  $F$  is also uniformly continuous.  $\square$

*Proof. 77* Let  $k \geq 1$  and let us define  $f : l_\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(x) = x_k$ . We want to show first that  $f$  is linear.

Let us consider  $f(x + y)$  where  $x, y \in l_\infty$  and  $x + y \in l_\infty$  then we have that  $f(x + y) = (x + y)_k = x_k + y_k = f(x) + f(y)$  where we used that the sum of two sequences is applied coordinate by coordinate.

On the other hand, let us consider  $f(\alpha x)$  where  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $f(\alpha x) = \alpha x_k = \alpha f(x)$ , thus we have proven that  $f$  is linear. Finally, we want to prove there is a constant  $C < \infty$  such that  $\|f(x)\|_1 \leq C\|x\|_\infty$  for every  $x \in l_\infty$ . Let us take  $C = 1$  then we have that  $|f(x)| = |x_k| \leq \sup_n |x_n|$  which is true because of the supremum definition.

Now let us suppose we take  $C < 1$  and let us build a sequence  $(x_n) \in l_\infty$  such that  $x_n = 2$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  then  $\sup_n |x_n| = 2$  then for any  $k \geq 1$  happens that  $|x_k| = 2 > C \cdot 2 = C \sup_n |x_n|$ .

Therefore we have that

$$\|f\| = \inf\{C : \|f(x)\|_1 \leq C\|x\|_\infty\} = 1$$

as we wanted.  $\square$

*Proof. 80* Let  $I(f) = \int_a^b f(t)dt$  we know  $I(f)$  is linear and monotone. We want to prove it's continuous, for this, we want to find a constant  $C < \infty$  such that  $\|I(f)\| \leq C\|f\|$  for every  $f \in C[a, b]$ .

Let us note that

$$\left| \int_a^b f(t)dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(t)|dt \leq \int_a^b \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|dt$$

Hence we have that

$$\left| \int_a^b f(t)dt \right| \leq (b-a) \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|$$

so if we take  $C = b - a$  we are done. Therefore  $I(f)$  is continuous.

Finally, we want to find

$$\|I\| = \inf\{C : \|I(f)\| \leq C\|f\| \text{ for all } f \in C[a, b]\}$$

Let us consider  $f(x) = 1$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$  then we have that

$$\left| \int_a^b 1 \cdot dt \right| = (b-a) = (b-a) \max_{x \in [a, b]} |1|$$

Since we are looking for the infimum value of  $C$  such that  $\|I(f)\| \leq C\|f\|$  for all  $f \in C[a, b]$  therefore it must happen because of what we showed for  $f(x) = 1$  that  $\|I\| = (b-a)$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 85* First, we want to check  $S = \{x \in V : \|x\| = 1\}$  is compact in  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ . There is a correspondence between a set of scalars  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x \in V$  since  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i$  so  $\|x\| = \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i| = 1$  implies that it is enough to show that  $B = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i| = 1\}$  is compact in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which we know it is since  $B$  is a closed ball on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and they are compact.

Lastly, we want to prove that if  $\|x\| \geq c$  whenever  $\|x\| = 1$  and this minimum  $c$  is actually attained then it must be that  $c > 0$ . Since  $\|\cdot\|$  is a norm by definition we have that  $\|x\| \geq 0$  for any  $x \in V$  so must be at least that  $c \geq 0$  but also by definition  $\|x\| = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$  which we know cannot be since  $\|x\| = 1$  therefore must be that  $c > 0$ .  $\square$

*Proof.* **86** Let  $V$  be an  $n$ -dimensional vector space with basis  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  then if  $x \in V$  we can write  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i$  for some  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  so we can define  $T : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $T(x) = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$  i.e.  $T$  is a map that sends some  $x \in V$  to an  $n$ -tuple in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let us show now  $T$  is linear. Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  be some constant then we see that

$$T(cx) = (c\alpha_1, \dots, c\alpha_n) = c(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$$

Also, let  $y \in V$  we have that

$$T(x + y) = (\alpha_1 + \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_n + \beta_n) = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) + (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$$

where  $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$  is the  $n$ -tuple of  $y$ . Hence  $T$  is linear.

On the other hand, let  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let us define  $\|y\| = \|T^{-1}(y)\|$  we want to prove this is a norm.

Since  $T$  is a bijection we have that  $T^{-1}$  is a function so for every  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  there is  $x \in V$  such that  $\|y\| = \|T^{-1}(y)\| = \|x\|$  and hence  $0 \leq \|y\| < \infty$ .

Let  $\|y\| = 0$  then  $\|T^{-1}(y)\| = \|x\| = 0$  which implies that  $x = 0$  then  $y = T(x) = T(0) = 0$ .

If  $y = 0$  then we have that  $x = T^{-1}(y) = T^{-1}(0) = 0$  hence this implies that  $\|x\| = 0$  so  $\|T^{-1}(y)\| = \|y\| = 0$ .

Let us consider  $\|\beta y\| = \|\beta T^{-1}(y)\| = \|\beta x\|$  for some scalar  $\beta$  then we have that

$$\|\beta x\| = |\beta| \|x\| = |\beta| \|T^{-1}(y)\| = |\beta| \|y\|$$

Finally, let  $y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \|y + z\| &= \|T^{-1}(y + z)\| = \|T^{-1}(y) + T^{-1}(z)\| = \|x + w\| \\ &\leq \|x\| + \|w\| = \|T^{-1}(y)\| + \|T^{-1}(z)\| = \|y\| + \|z\| \end{aligned}$$

where we used that  $T^{-1}$  is also linear.

Therefore  $\|\cdot\|$  as defined above is also a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $T$  is linearly isometric.  $\square$

*Proof. 87* Let  $V$  and  $W$  be two normed  $n$ -dimensional vector spaces and let  $T : V \rightarrow W$  be a linear isomorphism which exists since  $V$  and  $W$  are finite-dimensional. By Corollary 8.23 we know that  $T$  is uniformly continuous since  $V$  is finite-dimensional. In the same way  $T^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$  since  $W$  is finite-dimensional we have that  $T^{-1}$  is also uniformly continuous. Finally,  $T$  is a bijection so  $T$  is a uniform homeomorphism between  $V$  and  $W$ .  $\square$

*Proof. 88* Let  $V$  be a normed finite-dimensional vector space with a basis  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ . Let  $x \in V$  then  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i$ . Also, let us define a norm for  $V$  as  $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|$  which we know is a norm because this was shown in Theorem 8.22 proof. Finally, let  $(x_n) \subseteq V$  be a Cauchy sequence with respect to a norm  $\|\cdot\|$  we want to prove  $x_n \rightarrow x$  where  $x \in V$ .

Since any two norms on a finite-dimensional vector space are equivalent then there is  $0 < c, C < \infty$  such that

$$c\|x_n - x_m\|_1 \leq \|x_n - x_m\| \leq C\|x_n - x_m\|_1$$

Where  $x_m = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{i,m} v_i \in V$ , but also since  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy with respect to  $\|\cdot\|$  then given  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that when  $n, m \geq N$  we see that

$$c \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_{i,n} - \alpha_{i,m}| \leq \|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon$$

If we take  $\epsilon' = \epsilon/c$  we see that  $\sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_{i,n} - \alpha_{i,m}| < \epsilon'$  which implies that a sequence  $(\alpha_n) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is also Cauchy with respect to  $\|\cdot\|_1$  and we know that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete so there is some  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\alpha_n \rightarrow \beta$  then given some  $\epsilon' = \epsilon/C > 0$  there must be some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that when  $n \geq N$  we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_{i,n} - \beta_i| &< \epsilon' \\ C \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_{i,n} - \beta_i| &< \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Also, there must be some  $x \in V$  such that  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i v_i$  hence by using the equivalence between metrics, we have that

$$\|x_n - x\| \leq C \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_{i,n} - \beta_i| < \epsilon$$

Therefore we have shown that  $(x_n)$  converges to  $x \in V$  and thus  $V$  is complete.  $\square$