## Propositions of solutions for Analysis II by Terence Tao

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## Contents

12 Metric spaces 2

**Remarks.** The numbering of the Exercises follows the fourth edition of  $Analysis\ II$ . In order to make the references to  $Analysis\ I$  easier, we consider that we begin with Chapter 12 here, as in earlier editions of the textbook. Thus, in particular, a reference to "Exercise 4.3.3" (for instance) will always mean "Exercise 4.3.3 from  $Analysis\ I$ ".

## 12. Metric spaces

Exercise 12.1.1. — Prove Lemma 12.1.1

Consider the sequence  $(a_n)_{n=m}^{\infty}$  defined by  $a_n := d(x_n, x) = |x_n - x|$  for all  $n \ge m$ . We have to prove that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$  if and only if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$ .

- Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . If  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$ , then there exists an  $N \ge m$  such that  $|a_n| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N$ . Thus, there exists an  $N \ge m$  such that  $|x_n x| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N$ , which means that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x$ .
- Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Conversely, if  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x$ , then there exists an  $N \ge m$  such that  $|x_n x| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N$ . But since  $|a_n| := |x_n x|$ , it means that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$ , as expected.

EXERCISE 12.1.2. — Show that the real line with the metric d(x,y) := |x-y| is indeed a metric space.

Using Proposition 4.3.3, this claim is obvious. All claims (a)–(d) of Definition 12.1.2 are satisfied because:

- (a) comes from Proposition 4.3.3(e)
- (b) also comes from Proposition 4.3.3(e)
- (c) comes from Proposition 4.3.3(f)
- (d) comes from Proposition 4.3.3(g).

EXERCISE 12.1.3. — Let X be a set, and let  $d: X \times X \to [0, \infty)$  be a function. With respect to Definition 12.1.2, give an example of a pair (X, d) which...

- (a) obeys the axioms (bcd) but not (a). Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , and d defined by d(x, x) = 1 and d(x, y) = 5 for all  $x \neq y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (b) obeys the axioms (acd) but not (b). Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , and d defined by d(x, y) = 0 for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (c) obeys the axioms (abd) but not (c). Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , and d defined by  $d(x, y) = \max(x - y, 0)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (d) obeys the axioms (abc) but not (d). Consider the finite set  $X := \{1, 2, 3\}$  and the application d defined by d(1, 2) = d(2, 1) = d(2, 3) = d(3, 2) := 1, and d(1, 3) = d(3, 1) := 5, and d(x, x) = 0 for all  $x \in X$ .

EXERCISE 12.1.4. — Show that the pair  $(Y, d|_{Y\times Y})$  defined in Example 12.1.5 is indeed a metric space.

By definition, since  $Y \subseteq X$ , we have  $x, y \in X$  whenever  $x, y \in Y$ . And furthermore, since  $d|_{Y \times Y}(x, y) := d(x, y)$ , then the application  $d|_{Y \times Y}$  obeys all four statements (a)–(d) of Definition 12.1.2. Thus,  $(Y, d|_{Y \times Y})$  is indeed a metric space.

EXERCISE 12.1.5. — Let  $n \ge 1$ , and let  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  and  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$  be real numbers. Verify the identity  $(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2$ , and conclude the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Then use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to prove the triangle inequality.

Let's prove these three statements.

(i) To prove the first identity, let's use induction on n.

The base case n = 1 is obvious: on the left-hand side, we just get  $(a_1b_1)^2$ , and on the right-hand side, we get  $a_1^2b_1^2$ , hence the statement.

Now let's suppose inductively that this identity is true for a given positive integer  $n \ge 1$ , and let's prove that it is still true for n + 1. We have to prove that

$$\underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} a_i b_i\right)^2}_{:=A} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2}_{:=B} = \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} b_j^2\right)}_{:=C}$$
(12.1)

where we gave a name to each part of the identity for an easier computation below. Indeed,

• for A, we have

$$A := \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} a_i b_i\right)^2$$

$$= \left(a_{n+1} b_{n+1} + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i\right)^2$$

$$= \left(a_{n+1} b_{n+1}\right)^2 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i\right)^2 + 2\left(a_{n+1} b_{n+1}\right) \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$$

• for B, we have

$$B := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} (a_{n+1} b_j - a_j b_{n+1})^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i b_{n+1} - a_{n+1} b_i)^2}_{:=1/2 \times S} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_{n+1} b_{n+1} - b_{n+1} a_{n+1})^2}_{=0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (a_i b_j - a_j b_i)^2 + \sum_{k=1}^{n} (a_k b_{n+1} - a_{n+1} b_k)^2$$

• and thus, for A + B, we now use the induction hypothesis (IH) to get:

$$\begin{split} A+B &:= (a_{n+1}b_{n+1})^2 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_ib_i\right)^2 + 2(a_{n+1}b_{n+1})\sum_{i=1}^n a_ib_i \\ &+ \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^n (a_ib_j - a_jb_i)^2 + \sum_{k=1}^n (a_kb_{n+1} - a_{n+1}b_k)^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_ib_i\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^n (a_ib_j - a_jb_i)^2}_{\text{apply (IH) here}} \\ &+ (a_{n+1}b_{n+1})^2 + 2(a_{n+1}b_{n+1})\sum_{i=1}^n a_ib_i + \sum_{k=1}^n (a_kb_{n+1} - a_{n+1}b_k)^2 \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2\right) \\ &+ (a_{n+1}b_{n+1})^2 + 2(a_{n+1}b_{n+1})\sum_{i=1}^n a_ib_i + \sum_{k=1}^n (a_kb_{n+1} - a_{n+1}b_k)^2 \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2\right) + (a_{n+1}b_{n+1})^2 \\ &+ 2\sum_{i=1}^n a_ia_{n+1}b_ib_{n+1} + \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i^2b_{n+1}^2 - 2a_ib_{n+1}a_{n+1}b_i + a_{n+1}^2b_i^2) \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n b_j^2\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i^2b_{n+1}^2 + a_{n+1}^2b_i^2) \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} b_j^2\right) \\ &= C \end{split}$$

so that the identity is indeed true for all natural number n.

(ii) We can use this identity to prove the Cauchy-Schwarz identity,

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i \right| \leqslant \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2 \right)^{1/2}. \tag{12.2}$$

Indeed, since  $B \ge 0$  in the identity (12.1), we have

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i\right)^2 \leqslant \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j^2\right)$$

and thus, taking the square root on both sides, we get (12.2), as expected.

(iii) Finally, we can use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to prove the triangle inequality.

We have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i^2 + b_i^2) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2 + 2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leq \left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2\right)^{1/2} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2\right)^{1/2}\right)^2$$
(by eq. (12.2))

and, since everything is positive, we get the triangle inequality by taking square roots on both sides.

Exercise 12.1.6. — Show that  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^2})$  in Example 12.1.6 is indeed a metric space.

We have to show the four axioms of Definition 12.1.2.

- (a) For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $d_{l^2}(x,x) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i x_i)^2} = 0$ , as expected.
- (b) Positivity: for all  $x \neq y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists at least one  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $x_i \neq y_i$ , so that  $(x_i y_i)^2 > 0$ , and  $d_{l^2}(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i y_i)^2} > 0$ , as expected.
- (c) Symmetry: for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$d_{l^2}(y,x) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - x_i)^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - y_i)^2} = d_{l^2}(x,y)$$

as expected.

(d) Triangle inequality: for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$d_{l^{2}}(x,z) := \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - z_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_{i} + b_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2} \quad \text{with } a_{i} := x_{i} - y_{i} \text{ and } b_{i} := y_{i} - z_{i}$$

$$\leqslant \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\right)^{1/2} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{i}^{2}\right)^{1/2} \quad \text{(Exercise 12.1.5(iii))}$$

$$\leqslant \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - y_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i} - z_{i})^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leqslant d_{l^{2}}(x, y) + d_{l^{2}}(y, z)$$

as expected.

Thus,  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^2})$  is indeed a metric space.

EXERCISE 12.1.7. — Show that  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^1})$  in Example 12.1.7 is indeed a metric space.

Once again, let's show the four axioms of Definition 12.1.2.

- (a) For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $d_{l^1}(x,x) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i x_i| = 0$ , as expected.
- (b) Positivity: for all  $x \neq y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists at least one  $1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $x_i \neq y_i$ , so that  $|x_i y_i| > 0$ , and  $d_{l^1}(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i y_i| > 0$ , as expected.
- (c) Symmetry: for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$d_{l^1}(y,x) = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - x_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i| = d_{l^1}(x,y)$$

as expected.

(d) Triangle inequality: we already know from Proposition 4.3.3(g) (generalized to real numbers) that we have the triangle inequality  $|a-c| \leq |a-b| + |b-c|$  for all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus, for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$d_{l^1}(x,z) := \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - z_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^n (|x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|) =: d_{l^1}(x,y) + d_{l^1}(y,z)$$

as expected.

Thus,  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^1})$  is indeed a metric space.

Exercise 12.1.8. — Prove the two inequalities in equation (12.1).

We have to prove that for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$d_{l^2}(x,y) \le d_{l^1}(x,y) \le \sqrt{n} \, d_{l^2}(x,y)$$
 (12.3)

• The first inequality, since everything is non-negative, is equivalent to  $d_{l^2}(x,y)^2 \leq d_{l^1}(x,y)^2$ , and we will prove it in this form.

Indeed, using a trivial product expansion, we have

$$d_{l_1}(x,y)^2 := \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|\right)^2$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|\right) \times \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 + \sum_{1 \le i, j \le n; i \ne j} |x_i - y_i| \times |x_j - y_j|$$

$$\geqslant \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 =: d_{l^2}(x,y)^2$$

as expected.

• For the second inequality, we use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, which says that

$$d_{l^{1}}(x,y) := \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} - y_{i}|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} - y_{i}| \times 1 \right|$$

$$\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i} - y_{i}|^{2} \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1^{2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leq d_{l^{2}}(x,y) \times \sqrt{n}$$

as expected.

Exercise 12.1.9. — Show that the pair  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^{\infty}})$  in Example 12.1.9 is a metric space.

Once again, let's show the four axioms of Definition 12.1.2.

- (a) For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we clearly have  $d_{l^{\infty}}(x,x) = \sup\{|x_i x_i| : 1 \le i \le n\} = 0$ , as expected.
- (b) Positivity: for all  $x \neq y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists at least one  $1 \leq j \leq n$  such that  $x_j \neq y_j$ . Thus  $|x_j y_j| > 0$ , and  $d_{l^{\infty}}(x, y) = \sup\{|x_i y_i| : 1 \leq i \leq n\} \geqslant |x_j y_j| > 0$ , as expected.
- (c) Symmetry: for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$d_{l^{\infty}}(x,y) = \sup\{|x_i - y_i| : 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\} = \sup\{|y_i - x_i| : 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\} = d_{l^{\infty}}(y,x)$$

as expected.

(d) Triangle inequality. Let be  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We have  $|x_i - z_i| \leq |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , by Proposition 4.3.3(g). But, by definition of the supremum, we have  $|x_i - y_i| \leq d_{l^{\infty}}(x, y)$  and  $|y_i - z_i| \leq d_{l^{\infty}}(y, z)$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Thus, we have  $|x_i - z_i| \leq d_{l^{\infty}}(x, y) + d_{l^{\infty}}(y, z)$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ; i.e.,  $d_{l^{\infty}}(x, y) + d_{l^{\infty}}(y, z)$  is an upper bound of the set  $\{|x_i - z_i| : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ . By definition of the supremum, it implies that

$$d_{l^{\infty}}(x,z) := \sup\{|x_i - z_i| : 1 \le i \le n\} \le d_{l^{\infty}}(x,y) + d_{l^{\infty}}(y,z)$$

as expected.

Thus,  $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_{l^1})$  is indeed a metric space.

Exercise 12.1.10. — Prove the two inequalities in equation (12.2).

We have to prove that for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}d_{l^2}(x,y) \leqslant d_{l^{\infty}}(x,y) \leqslant d_{l^2}(x,y).$$

First, a preliminary remark. By definition, we have  $d_{l^{\infty}}(x,y) := \sup\{|x_i - y_i| : 1 \le i \le n\}$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Since this distance is defined as the supremum of a finite set, we know (see Chapter 8 of *Analysis I*) that there exists a  $1 \le m \le n$  such that  $d_{l^{\infty}}(x,y) = |x_m - y_m|$  (the supremum belongs to the set). The index "m" will have this meaning below.

• Let's prove the first inequality.

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}d_{l^{2}}(x,y) := \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-y_{i})^{2}}$$

$$\leq \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{m}-y_{m})^{2}}$$

$$\leq \sqrt{\frac{n}{n}(x_{m}-y_{m})^{2}}$$

$$= |x_{m}-y_{m}| =: d_{l^{\infty}}(x,y)$$

as expected.

• Now we prove the second one. We have

$$d_{l^{2}}(x,y) := \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - y_{i})^{2}}$$

$$= \sqrt{(x_{m} - y_{m})^{2} + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n; i \neq m} (x_{i} - y_{i})^{2}}$$

$$\geqslant \sqrt{(x_{m} - y_{m})^{2}} = |x_{m} - y_{m}| =: d_{l^{\infty}}(x, y)$$

as expected.

EXERCISE 12.1.11. — Show that the discrete metric  $(X, d_{disc})$  in Example 12.1.11 is indeed a metric space.

Once again, let's show the four axioms of Definition 12.1.2.

- (a) For all  $x \in X$ , we have  $d_{\text{disc}}(x,x) := 0$  by definition, so that there is nothing to prove here.
- (b) Positivity: for all  $x \neq y \in X$ , we have  $d_{\text{disc}}(x,y) := 1 > 0$  by definition, so that there's still nothing to prove.
- (c) Symmetry: for all  $x, y \in X$ , we have  $d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) = d_{\text{disc}}(y, x) = 1$ , so that  $d_{\text{disc}}$  obeys the symmetry property.
- (d) Triangle inequality. Let be  $x, y, z \in X$ , and let's consider  $d_{\text{disc}}(x, z)$ .
  - If x = z, then  $d_{\text{disc}}(x, z) = 0$ . And since  $d_{\text{disc}}$  is a non-negative application, we clearly have  $0 =: d_{\text{disc}}(x, z) \leq d_{\text{disc}}(x, y) + d_{\text{disc}}(y, z)$  for all  $y \in X$ .
  - If  $x \neq z$ , then we cannot have both x = y and y = z (it would be a clear contradiction with  $x \neq z$ ). Thus, at least one of the propositions " $x \neq y$ ", " $y \neq z$ " is true. Another way to say that is  $d_{\text{disc}}(x,y) + d_{\text{disc}}(y,z) \geq 1$ . But since  $d_{\text{disc}}(x,z) := 1$ , we have actually  $d_{\text{disc}}(x,y) + d_{\text{disc}}(y,z) \geq d_{\text{disc}}(x,z)$ , as expected.

Exercise 12.1.12. — Prove Proposition 12.1.18.

First, recall that for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have, from Examples 12.1.7 and 12.1.9,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} d_{l^2}(x, y) \leqslant d_{l^{\infty}}(x, y) \leqslant d_{l^2}(x, y) \leqslant d_{l^1}(x, y) \leqslant \sqrt{n} d_{l^2}(x, y).$$

Note that n is a real constant here.

• Let's prove that  $(a) \Longrightarrow (b)$ . If  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^2}(x^{(k)},x) = 0$ , then by the limit laws, the sequence  $t_k := \sqrt{n} d_{l^2}(x^{(k)},x)$  also converges to 0 as  $k\to\infty$ , since  $\sqrt{n}$  is a constant real number. Thus, we have

$$d_{l^2}(x^{(k)}, x) \leq d_{l^1}(x^{(k)}, x) \leq \sqrt{n} d_{l^2}(x^{(k)}, x)$$

and, by the squeeze test, this implies that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^1}(x^{(k)}, x)$  as expected.

• Let's prove that  $(b) \implies (c)$ . If  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^1}(x^{(k)},x) = 0$ , then we have

$$0 \le d_{l^{\infty}}(x^{(k)}, x) \le d_{l^{1}}(x^{(k)}, x)$$

and, by the squeeze test, this implies that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^{\infty}}(x^{(k)}, x)$  as expected.

- Let's prove that  $(c) \Longrightarrow (d)$ . Suppose that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^{\infty}}(x^{(k)},x) = 0$ . Then, for all  $1 \leqslant j \leqslant n$ , we have  $0 \leqslant |x_j^k x_j| \leqslant d_{l^{\infty}}(x^{(k)},x)$ . Still by the squeeze test, this implies that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} |x_j^k x_j| = 0$ , i.e. that  $(x_j^k)_{k=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_j$  as  $k\to\infty$  (by Lemma 12.1.1), as expected.
- Finally, let's prove that  $(d) \implies (a)$ . Using the definition of convergence is more appropriate here. Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$  a positive real number, and let be  $1 \le j \le n$ . By definition, there exists a natural number  $N \ge m$  such that  $|x_j^{(k)} x_j| \le \varepsilon/\sqrt{n}$  whenever  $k \ge N$ . Thus, if  $k \ge N$ , we have

$$d_{l^2}(x^{(k)}, x) := \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j^{(k)} - x_j)^2} \leqslant \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\varepsilon^2}{n}} \leqslant \varepsilon$$

so that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^2}(x^{(k)}, x) = 0$ , i.e.,  $(x^k)_{k=m}^{\infty}$  converges to x as  $k\to\infty$  in the  $l^2$  metric (by Lemma 12.1.1), as expected.

Exercise 12.1.13. — Prove Proposition 12.1.19.

Let be  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  a sequence of elements of a set X.

- First suppose that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is eventually constant. Thus, by definition, there exists an  $N \ge m$  and an element  $x \in X$  such that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty} = x$  for all  $n \ge N$ . This implies that we have  $d_{\text{disc}}(x^{(n)}, x) = 0$  for all  $n \ge N$ . In particular, for all  $n \ge 0$ , we have  $d_{\text{disc}}(x^{(n)}, x) \le \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N$ , so that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  indeed converges to  $n \ge N$  with respect to  $n \ge N$ .
- Conversely, suppose that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to x with respect to  $d_{\text{disc}}$ . Let be  $\varepsilon = 1/2$ . By definition, there exists an  $N \ge m$  such that  $d_{\text{disc}}(x^{(n)}, x) \le 1/2$  whenever  $n \ge N$ . Since  $d_{\text{disc}}(x^{(n)}, x)$  cannot be 1, it is necessarily equal to 0, so that  $x^{(n)} = x$  whenever  $n \ge N$ . Thus, the sequence  $x^{(n)}$  is indeed eventually constant.

Exercise 12.1.14. — Prove Proposition 12.1.20.

Suppose that we have  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x^{(n)}, x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x^{(n)}, x') = 0$ . Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that we have  $x \neq x'$ . Thus, the real number  $\varepsilon := \frac{d(x,x')}{3}$  is positive.

Since  $x^{(n)}$  converges to x, there exists a  $N_1 \ge m$  such that  $d(x^{(n)}, x) \le \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N_1$ . Similarly, since  $x^{(n)}$  converges to x', there exists a  $N_2 \ge m$  such that  $d(x^{(n)}, x') \le \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N_2$ .

By the triangle inequality, we thus have, for all  $n \ge \max(N_1, N_2)$ ,

$$d(x, x') \leqslant d(x, x^{(n)}) + d(x^{(n)}, x') \leqslant \varepsilon + \varepsilon = \frac{2}{3}d(x, x')$$

which is a contradiction (since d(x, x') > 0 by hypothesis).

Thus, the limit is unique, and we must have x = x'.

EXERCISE 12.1.15. — Let be  $X := \{(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} : \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n| < \infty \}$ . We define on this space the metrics  $d_{l^1}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n - b_n|$ , and  $d_{l^{\infty}}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) := \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n - b_n|$ .

We have to prove the following statements.

1.  $d_{l^1}$  is a metric on X.

We have to prove the four axioms of Definition 12.1.2.

- (a) Let be  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \in X$ . We have  $d_{l^1}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n a_n| = 0$ , as expected.
- (b) Let be  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  two distinct elements of X. Since they are distinct, there exists at least one  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such as  $|a_m b_m| > 0$ . Thus,  $d_{l^1}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n b_n| \ge |a_m b_m| > 0$ , as expected.
- (c) Symmetry: we clearly have

$$d_{l^1}((b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |b_n - a_n| = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n - b_n| = d_{l^1}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}).$$

(d) Finally, let's prove the triangle inequality. Let be  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $(c_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \in X$ . Since we have the triangle inequality for the usual distance d on  $\mathbb{R}$  (i.e., we have  $|a_n - c_n| \leq |a_n - b_n| + |b_n - c_n|$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ), we have immediately

$$d_{l^{1}}((a_{n})_{n=0}^{\infty}, (c_{n})_{n=0}^{\infty}) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_{n} - c_{n}|$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (|a_{n} - b_{n}| + |b_{n} - c_{n}|) \text{ (consequence of Prop. 7.1.11(h))}$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_{n} - b_{n}| + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |b_{n} - c_{n}| \text{ (by Proposition 7.2.14(a))}$$

$$\leqslant d_{l^{1}}((a_{n})_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_{n})_{n=0}^{\infty}) + d_{l^{1}}((b_{n})_{n=0}^{\infty}, (c_{n})_{n=0}^{\infty}).$$

Thus,  $d_{l^1}$  is indeed a metric on X.

2.  $d_{l^{\infty}}$  is a metric on X.

Once again, we have to prove the four axioms of Definition 12.1.2.

- (a) Let be  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \in X$ . We have  $d_{l^{\infty}}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n a_n| = 0$ , as expected.
- (b) Let be  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  two distinct elements of X. Since they are distinct, there exists at least one  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such as  $|a_m b_m| > 0$ . Thus,  $d_{l^{\infty}}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n b_n| \ge |a_m b_m| > 0$ , as expected.
- (c) Symmetry: we clearly have

$$d_{l^{\infty}}((b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n - a_n| = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n - b_n| = d_{l^{\infty}}((a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}).$$

(d) Finally, let's prove the triangle inequality. Let be  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (b_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}, (c_n)_{n=0}^{\infty} \in X$ . Since we have the triangle inequality for the usual distance d on  $\mathbb{R}$  (i.e., we have  $|a_n-c_n| \leq |a_n-b_n|+|b_n-c_n|$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ), we have immediately  $|a_m-c_m| \leq \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n-b_n|+\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n-c_n|$  for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , by definition of the supremum. In other words,  $(\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n-b_n|+\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n-c_n|)$  is an upper bound for the set  $\{|a_m-c_m|: m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Thus we have, still by definition of the supremum,  $\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n-c_n| \leq \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n-b_n|+\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n-c_n|$ , as expected.

Thus,  $d_{l^{\infty}}$  is indeed a metric on X.

3. There exist sequences  $x^{(1)}$ ,  $x^{(2)}$ , ..., of elements of X (i.e., sequences of sequences) which are convergent with respect to  $d_{l^{\infty}}$ , but are not convergent with respect to  $d_{l^{1}}$ .

Here we are dealing with sequences of sequences: we have a sequence  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  where each  $x^{(k)}$  is itself a sequence of real numbers. Thus, let's define  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  as follows:

$$x_n^{(k)} := \begin{cases} 1/(k+1) & \text{if } 0 \leqslant n \leqslant k \\ 0 & \text{if } n > k. \end{cases}$$

Just to make things clearer, we have for instance

$$x^{(1)} := \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0, 0, 0, \dots$$

$$x^{(2)} := \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, 0, 0, \dots$$

$$x^{(3)} := \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, 0, \dots$$

Also, let be the null sequence  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  defined by  $a_n := 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus:

•  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  w.r.t. the metric  $d_{l^{\infty}}$ . Indeed, if we consider a given positive integer k (fixed), we have

$$|x^{(k)} - a_n| = |x^{(k)}| = \begin{cases} 1/(k+1) & \text{if } 0 \le n \le k \\ 0 & \text{if } n > k. \end{cases}$$

so that  $d_{l^{\infty}}\left((x_n^{(k)})_{n=0}^{\infty}, (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}\right) := \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |x^{(k)} - a_n| = \frac{1}{k+1}.$ 

Thus,  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^{\infty}}\left((x_n^{(k)})_{n=0}^{\infty}, (a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}\right) = 0$ , or in other words,  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  w.r.t. the metric  $d_{l^{\infty}}$  in X.

• But  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  does not converges to  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  w.r.t. the metric  $d_{l^1}$ . Indeed, we have, for each given (fixed) k,

$$d_{l^1}\left((x_n^{(k)})_{n=0}^{\infty},(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}\right) = \sum_{n=0}^k \frac{1}{k+1} = 1$$

Thus, we clearly do not have  $\lim_{k\to\infty} d_{l^1}\left((x_n^{(k)})_{n=0}^{\infty},(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}\right)=0$ , i.e.,  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  does not converge to  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  w.r.t. the metric  $d_{l^1}$ .

4. Conversely, any sequence which converges with respect to  $d_{l^1}$  also converges with respect to  $d_{l^{\infty}}$ .

Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that  $(x^{(k)})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  does not converge to  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  w.r.t. the metric  $d_{l^{\infty}}$ , but does converge to  $(a_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  w.r.t. the metric  $d_{l^1}$ .

In this case, there exists a  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that, for all  $k \ge 1$ , we have  $(\sup_{n \ge 0} |x_n^{(k)} - a_n|) > \varepsilon$ . In particulier, for all  $k \ge 1$  and all  $n \ge 0$ , we have  $|x_n^{(k)} - a_n| > \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |x_n^{(k)} - a_n|$  is not even a convergent series, and we cannot have  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |x_n^{(k)} - a_n|\right) = 0$ .

Note that this exercise actually shows that in this space X, the metrics are not equivalent; instead, the convergence in the taxi cab metric is stronger than the convergence in the sup norm metric. Thus, Proposition 12.1.18 is not true for any metric space.

EXERCISE 12.1.16. — Let  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be two sequences in a metric space (X,d). Suppose that  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a point  $x \in X$ , and  $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to a point  $y \in X$ . Show that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n,y_n) = d(x,y)$ .

On the one hand, the triangle inequality applied two times to d gives us

$$d(x_n, y_n) \le d(x_n, x) + d(x, y) + d(y, y_n)$$

but this is only half of what we need to prove the result.

Similarly, we have

$$d(x,y) \leq d(x,x_n) + d(x_n,y_n) + d(y_n,y)$$

so that we can combine the previous two inequalities to get

$$-d(x_n, x) - d(y_n, y) \le d(x_n, y_n) - d(x, y) \le d(x_n, x) + d(y_n, y)$$

i.e.,

$$|d(x_n, y_n) - d(x, y)| \le d(x_n, x) + d(y_n, y).$$

Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By hypothesis, there exists a  $N_1 \ge 1$  such that  $d(x_n, x) \le \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $n \ge N_1$ . Similarly, there exists a  $N_2 \ge 1$  such that  $d(y_n, y) \le \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $n \ge N_2$ . Thus, if we set  $N := \max(N_1, N_2)$ , then for all  $n \ge N$  we have

$$|d(x_n, y_n) - d(x, y)| \le d(x_n, x) + d(y_n, y) \le 2\varepsilon/2 \log \varepsilon$$

which shows that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n) = d(x, y)$ , as expected.

Exercise 12.2.1. — Verify the claims in Example 12.2.8

Let be  $(X, d_{\text{disc}})$  a metric space, and E a subset of X.

- Let be  $x \in E$ . Then x is an interior point of E. Indeed, we have  $B(x, 1/2) = \{x\} \subseteq E$ .
- Let be  $y \notin E$ . Then y is an exterior point of E. Indeed, we have  $B(y, 1/2) \cap E = \{y\} \cap E = \emptyset$ .
- Finally, there are no boundary points of E in  $(X, d_{\text{disc}})$ . Indeed, let be r > 0 and any  $x \in X$ . We will always have  $B(x, r) = \{x\}$  by definition of the discrete metric  $d_{\text{disc}}$ . Thus, we have either  $x \in E$  and then  $x \in \text{int}(E)$ , or  $x \notin E$  and then  $x \in \text{ext}(E)$ . Thus, E has no boundary points.

Exercise 12.2.2. — Prove Proposition 12.2.10.

We have to prove the following implications:

- Let's show that  $(a) \Longrightarrow (b)$ . We will use the contrapositive, assuming that  $x_0$  is neither an interior point of E, nor a boundary point of E. By definition, it means that  $x_0$  is an exterior point of E, i.e. that there exists r > 0 such that  $B(x_0, r) \cap E = \emptyset$ . This is precisely the negation of  $x_0$  being an adherent point of E. Thus, we have showed that if  $x_0$  is an adherent of of E, it is either an interior point of a boundary point.
- Let's show that  $(b) \implies (c)$ . Let be a positive integer n > 0, and suppose that  $x_0$  is either an interior point of E, or a boundary point of E. In either case, the set  $A_n := B(x_0, 1/n) \cap E$  is non empty, i.e., there exists  $a_n \in X$  such that  $d(a_n, x_0) < 1/n$ . By the (countable) axiom of choice, we can define a sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $a_n \in A_n$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . There exists N > 0 such that  $1/N < \varepsilon$  (Exercise 5.4.4). Thus, for all  $n \ge N$ , we have

$$d(a_n, x_0) < \frac{1}{n} \leqslant \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$$

i.e., the sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$  with respect to the metric d, as expected.

• Finally, let's show that  $(c) \Longrightarrow (a)$ . Let be r > 0. If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in E converges to  $x_0$  with respect to d, then there exists a n such that  $d(x_0, a_n) < r$ . But since  $a_n \in E$ , it means that  $B(x_0, r) \cap E$  is non empty, i.e. that  $x_0$  is an adherent point of E.

Exercise 12.2.3. — Prove Proposition 12.2.5.

Let be (X, d) a metric space.

(a) Let be  $E \subseteq X$ . First suppose that E is open; this means that  $E \cap \partial E = \emptyset$ . Let be  $x \in E$ , then we have  $x \notin \partial E$ . But since  $x \in E$ , we have  $x \in \overline{E}$ , and thus  $x \in \operatorname{int}(E)$  by Proposition 12.2.10(b). We have shown that  $x \in E \implies x \in \operatorname{int}(E)$ , and since the converse implication is trivial (Remark 12.2.6), we have  $E = \operatorname{int}(E)$  as expected.

Now suppose that  $E = \operatorname{int}(E)$ . Let be  $x \in E$ . We thus have  $x \in \operatorname{int}(E)$ . By definition, x is thus not a boundary point of E, i.e.  $x \notin \partial E$ . This means that  $E \cap \partial E = \emptyset$ , i.e. that E is open, as expected.

- (b) Let be  $E \subseteq X$ . First suppose that E is closed; i.e. that  $\partial E \subseteq E$ . Let be  $x \in \overline{E}$ . By Proposition 12.2.10, we have  $\overline{E} = \operatorname{int}(E) \cup \partial E$ ; such that  $\overline{E}$  is the union of two subsets of E, and thus is itself a subset of E, as expected.
  - Conversely, suppose that  $\overline{E} \subseteq E$ . It means that  $\operatorname{int}(E) \cup \partial E \subseteq E$ , and in particular that  $\partial E \subseteq E$ , i.e. that E is closed, as expected.
- (c) Let be  $x_0 \in X$ , r > 0 and  $E := B(x_0, r)$ . To show that E is open, we must show that E = int(E) (by Proposition 1.2.15(a)), and in particular that  $E \subseteq \text{int}(E)$  (the converse inclusion being trivial). Let be  $x \in E$ , and let's show that  $x \in \text{int}(E)$ . By definition, we have  $d(x, x_0) < r$ , so that  $\varepsilon := r d(x, x_0)$  is a positive real number. Thus, let be  $y \in B(x, \varepsilon)$ . By the triangle inequality, we have

$$d(x_0, y) < d(x, x_0) + d(x, y)$$

$$< d(x, x_0) + \varepsilon$$

$$< d(x, x_0) + r - d(x, x_0) = r$$

so that  $y \in E$ . Thus, there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq E$ , i.e., x is an interior point of E. This shows that  $E \subseteq \text{int}(E)$ , as expected.

Now let be  $F:=\{x\in X:d(x,x_0)\leqslant r\}$ , and let be  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  a convergent sequence in F. To show that F is closed, we have to show that  $\ell:=\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n$  lies in F (Proposition 12.2.15(b)). Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that  $\ell\notin F$ . We thus have  $d(\ell,x_0)>r$ , so that  $\varepsilon:=d(\ell,x_0)-r$  is a positive real number. Since  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  converges to  $\ell$ , there exists a N>0 such that  $d(a_n,\ell)<\varepsilon$  whenever  $n\geqslant N$ . By the triangle inequality, for  $n\geqslant N$ , we have

$$d(x_0, \ell) \leq d(x_0, a_n) + d(a_n, \ell)$$

$$d(x_0, a_n) \geq d(x_0, \ell) - d(a_n, \ell)$$

$$\geq d(x_0, \ell) - \varepsilon$$

$$\geq d(x_0, \ell) + r - d(\ell, x_0)$$

$$\geq r$$

and thus,  $a_n \notin B(x_0, r)$ , a contradiction. Thus, we must have  $\ell \in F$ , so that F is indeed a closed set.

- (d) Let be  $\{x_0\}$  a singleton with  $x_0 \in X$ . To show that E is closed, we may use Proposition 12.2.15(b), and show that  $\{x_0\}$  contains all its adherent points. Let be  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  a convergent sequence in  $\{x_0\}$ ; it can only be the constant sequence  $x_0, x_0, \ldots$  Since it is a constant sequence, its limit can only be  $x_0$  itself, and this limit belongs to  $\{x_0\}$ . Thus,  $\{x_0\}$  is a closed set.
- (e) First we can form a lemma: for any subset  $E \subseteq X$ , we have  $\operatorname{int}(E) = \operatorname{ext}(X \backslash E)$ . This is a direct consequence of Definition 12.2.5. Indeed,  $x \in \operatorname{int}(E)$  iff there exists a r > 0 such that  $B(x,r) \subseteq E$ , which is equivalent to " $\exists r > 0 : B(x,r) \cap (X \backslash E) = \emptyset$ ", which is equivalent to  $x \in \operatorname{ext}(X \backslash E)$ .

This implies that the interior points of E are the exterior points of  $X \setminus E$ , and conversely, that the exterior points of E are the interior points of E. Thus, in particular, we have this useful fact:

$$\partial E = \partial(X \setminus E). \tag{12.4}$$

Now we go back to the main proof. First suppose that E is open. Thus, by Definition 12.2.12, we have  $E \cap \partial E = \emptyset$ , so that  $\partial E \subseteq X \setminus E$ , which means that  $X \setminus E$  is a closed set. The converse also applies: if we suppose that  $X \setminus E$  is closed, then  $\partial(X \setminus E) \subseteq X \setminus E$ . By equation (12.4) above, this is equivalent to  $\partial E \subseteq X \setminus E$ , and thus we have  $\partial E \cap E = \emptyset$ . This means that E is open, as expected.<sup>1</sup>

- (f) Let  $E_1, \ldots, E_n$  be open sets. Thus, for all  $1 \le i \le n$ , if  $x \in E_i$ , there exists a  $r_i > 0$  such that  $B(x, r_i) \subseteq E_i$ . Let's define  $r := \min(r_1, \ldots, r_n)$ . We have  $B(x, r) \subseteq B(x, r_i) \subseteq E_i$  for all  $1 \le i \le n$ , i.e.  $B(x, r) \subseteq E_1 \cap \ldots \cap E_n$ . Thus,  $E_1 \cap \ldots \cap E_n$  is an open set. Also, let  $F_1, \ldots, F_n$  be closed sets. By the previous result (e), the complementary sets  $X \setminus F_1, \ldots X \setminus F_n$  are open sets. Thus, we have just proved that  $(X \setminus F_1) \cap \ldots \cap (X \setminus F_n)$  is an open set. But we have  $(X \setminus F_1) \cap \ldots \cap (X \setminus F_n) = X \setminus (F_1 \cup \ldots \cup F_n)$ , and this set is open. Thus, by (e), its complementary set,  $F_1 \cup \ldots \cup F_n$ , is closed, as expected.
- (g) Let  $(E_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I}$  be open sets. Suppose that we have  $x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} E_{\alpha}$ . By definition, there exists a  $i \in I$  such that  $x \in E_i$ . Since  $E_i$  is an open set, there exists  $r_i > 0$  such that  $B(x, r_i) \subseteq E_i \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} E_{\alpha}$ . Thus, by (a),  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} E_{\alpha}$  is an open set, as expected. Now let be  $(F_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in I}$  be closed sets. Suppose that we have a convergent sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $x_n \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha}$  for all  $n \ge 1$ . Thus, for all  $\alpha \in I$ , the sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  entirely belongs to the closed set  $F_{\alpha}$ , so that its limit  $\ell$  also lies in  $F_{\alpha}$  according to (b). Thus,  $\ell \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha}$ , so that  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} F_{\alpha}$  is a closed set, as expected.
- (h) Let be  $E \subseteq X$ .
  - Let's show that  $\operatorname{int}(E)$  is the largest open set included in E. It has not clearly be proved in the main text that  $\operatorname{int}(E)$  is an open set, so we begin by proving it. Let be  $x \in \operatorname{int}(E)$ . By definition, there exists r > 0 so that  $B(x,r) \subseteq E$ . But by (c), we know that B(x,r) is an open set, so that any point y of B(x,r) is an interior point of this open ball, and thus an interior point of E. Thus,  $\operatorname{int}(E)$  is open. Now consider another open set  $V \subseteq E$ , and let's show that  $V \subseteq \operatorname{int}(E)$ . If  $x \in \operatorname{int}(V)$ , then there exists r > 0 such that  $B(x,r) \subseteq V \subseteq E$ , so that  $x \in \operatorname{int}(E)$ . This shows that  $V \subseteq \operatorname{int}(E)$ , as expected.
  - Similarly, let's show that  $\overline{E}$  is the smallest closed set that contains E. First we show that  $\overline{E}$  is closed, i.e. that  $\overline{E} \subseteq \overline{E}$ . (Hint: see Exercise 9.1.6 for an intuition.) Let be  $x \in \overline{E}$ . By definition, for all r > 0,  $B(x,r) \cap \overline{E} \neq \emptyset$ . Thus, there exists  $y \in B(x,r)$  such that  $y \in \overline{E}$ . Thus, because B(x,r) is an open set and y is adherent to E, there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $B(y,\varepsilon) \subseteq B(x,r)$  and  $B(y,\varepsilon) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ ; i.e., there exists  $z \in B(y,\varepsilon) \subseteq B(x,r)$  such that  $z \in E$ . We have showed that whenever  $x \in \overline{E}$ , we have  $B(x,r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$  for all r > 0, i.e. that x is an adherent point of E, as expected. Thus,  $\overline{E}$  is closed.

Now we consider a closed set K such that  $E \subseteq K$ , and we have to show that  $\overline{E} \subseteq K$ . Let be  $x \in \overline{E}$ . By definition, for all r > 0, we have  $B(x,r) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ . But since  $E \subseteq K$ , we also have  $B(x,r) \cap K \neq \emptyset$  for all r > 0. Thus, x is an adherent point of K, i.e.,  $x \in \overline{K}$ . But since K is closed, we have  $K = \overline{K}$ , and thus  $x \in K$ . This shows that  $\overline{E} \subseteq K$ , as expected.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This important result will be used in future proofs to turn any statement on closed sets into a statement on open sets.

EXERCISE 12.2.4. — Let (X,d) be a metric space,  $x_0$  be a point in X, and r > 0. Let B be the open ball  $B := B(x_0,r) = \{x \in X : d(x,x_0) < r\}$ , and let C be the closed ball  $C := \{x \in X : d(x,x_0) \le r\}$ .

Let's prove the following claims:

(a) Show that  $\overline{B} \subseteq C$ .

Let be  $x \in \overline{B}$ . By definition, since x is an adherent point of B, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  we have  $B(x,\varepsilon) \cap B \neq \emptyset$ . In other words, there exists y such that we have both  $d(x,y) < \varepsilon$  and  $d(x_0,y) < r$ . Thus, by the triangle inequality, we have

$$d(x, x_0) \le d(x, y) + d(y, x_0)$$
  
 $\le \varepsilon + r \text{ for all } \varepsilon > 0$ 

which is equivalent (as a quick proof by contradiction would show) to  $d(x, x_0) \leq r$ . Thus,  $x \in C$ .

We have indeed proved that  $\overline{B} \subseteq C$ .

(b) Give an example of a metric space (X, d), a point  $x_0$ , and a radius r > 0 such that  $\overline{B}$  is *not* equal to C.

Let's take  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $d = d_{\text{disc}}$ , x = 0 and r = 1. One the one hand, we have  $B := \{0\}$  and  $C := \mathbb{R}$ . Now let's work out  $\overline{B}$ . By Proposition 12.2.15(bd), B is closed, so that we have  $\overline{B} = B$ . Thus, we clearly do not have  $\overline{B} \neq C$  here. (Note however that any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  would be convenient here; there is nothing special about 0.)

Exercise 12.3.1. — Prove Proposition 12.3.4(b).

Let's show each direction of the equivalence.

• First suppose that E is relatively closed w.r.t. Y, and let's show that there exists a closed subset  $K \subseteq X$  such that  $E = K \cap Y$ .

Since E is closed w.r.t. Y, the set  $Y \setminus E$  is open w.r.t. Y (by Proposition 12.2.15(e)). Thus, by (a), there exists an open subset  $V \subseteq X$  such that  $Y \setminus E = V \cap Y$ .

Let be  $K := X \setminus V$ ; this subset  $K \subseteq X$  is closed w.r.t. X by Proposition 12.2.15(e) since it is the complementary set of an open set. We have to show that  $E = K \cap Y$ .

- Let be  $x \in E$ . Thus, we have  $x \in Y$ , since  $E \subseteq Y$ . And since  $x \in E$ , by definition, we have  $x \notin Y \setminus E$ . Thus,  $x \notin V \cap Y$ , which implies that  $x \notin V$  (since  $x \in Y$ ). Thus, by definition,  $x \in K$ , and thus,  $x \in K \cap Y$ .
- Conversely, let be  $x \in K \cap Y$ . By definition,  $x \in Y$  and  $x \notin V$ . Thus,  $x \notin V \cap Y$ , or, in other words,  $x \notin Y \setminus E$ . We finally get  $x \in E$ , as expected.

Thus, we have indeed  $E = K \cap Y$ , for some closed subset  $K \subseteq X$ , as expected.

• Now let's prove the converse implication: suppose that  $E = K \cap Y$  for some closed subset  $K \subseteq X$ , and let's prove that E is relatively closed w.r.t. Y.

Still by Proposition 12.2.15(e), we know that the subset  $V := X \setminus K$  is open w.r.t. X. Thus, by the previous result from this exercise,  $V \cap Y$  is relatively open w.r.t. Y. Thus, its complementary set  $Y \setminus (V \cap Y) = Y \setminus V$  is relatively closed w.r.t. Y. Now we want to show that  $E = Y \setminus V$  to close the proof.

- First suppose that  $x \in E$ . Since  $E = K \cap Y$ , we thus have  $x \in Y$  and  $x \in K$ , i.e.  $x \notin V$ . Thus,  $x \in Y \setminus V$ .
- Now suppose that  $x \in Y \setminus V$ . We thus have  $x \in X$  (since  $Y \subseteq X$ ) and  $x \notin V$ , so that we necessarily have  $x \in K$ . Thus  $x \in Y \cap K$ , i.e.  $x \in E$ .

Thus  $E = Y \setminus V$  is relatively closed w.r.t. Y, as expected.

## Exercise 12.4.1. — Prove Lemma 12.4.3.

We have to prove that any subsequence  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  of a convergent sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to the same limit as the whole sequence itself.

Suppose that the whole sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$ . Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By definition, we have a positive integer  $N \ge m$  such that  $n \ge N \implies d(x^{(n)}, x_0) \le \varepsilon$ . Our aim here is to show that there exists a positive integer  $J \ge 1$  such that  $j \ge J \implies d(x^{(n_j)}, x_0) \le \varepsilon$ .

By Definition 12.4.1, we know that we have  $m \le n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$  Thus, as a quick induction would show, we have  $n_j \ge m+j-1$  for all  $j \ge 1$ . Let's take J := N. In this case, if  $j \ge J$ , i.e. if  $j \ge N$ , we have  $n_j \ge m+N-1 \ge N$ . Thus:

$$j \geqslant J \implies n_i \geqslant N \implies d(x^{(n_j)}, x_0) \leqslant \varepsilon.$$

Since this is true for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , it means that  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$ , as expected.

Exercise 12.4.2. — Prove Proposition 12.4.5.

Let  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of points in a metric space. We have to prove that the following two statements are equivalent:

- (a) L is a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ .
- (b) There exists a subsequence  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  of the original sequence which converges to L.

We will prove the two implications, but first, note that (with the notations from Definition 12.4.1) if we have  $1 \le m \le n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$ , then a quick induction shows that we have  $n_j \ge j$  for all  $j \ge 1$ .

• First we prove that (b) implies (a). If some subsequence  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  converges to L, then we have by definition:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists J \geqslant 1: j \geqslant J \implies d(x^{(n_j)}, L) \leqslant \varepsilon$$
 (12.5)

Now, consider any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and any  $N \ge m$ . For this particular choice of  $\varepsilon$ , consider the corresponding real number J given by equation (12.5), and let's define  $p := \max(N, J)$ . Thus, we have  $n_p \ge p \ge J$ , and by equation (12.5), we thus have  $d(x^{(n_p)}, L) \le \varepsilon$ . If we set  $n := n_p$ , we have indeed found an  $n \ge N$  such that  $d(x^{(n)}, L) \le \varepsilon$ . Thus, L is a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ , as required.

• Now we prove that (a) implies (b). Suppose that L is a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ . By definition, there exists a natural number  $n_1 \ge m$  such that  $d(x^{(n_1)}, L) \le 1$ . Now, for j > 1, let's define inductively  $n_j := \min\{n > n_{j-1} : d(x^{(n)}, L) \le 1/j\}$ . This set is non-empty (by definition of a limit point), so that the well-ordering principle

(Proposition 8.1.4) ensures that it has a (unique) minimal element, i.e. that  $n_j$  indeed exists. Let's define the subsequence  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  obtained following this process. We thus have  $d(x^{(n_j)}, L) \leq 1/j$  for all  $j \geq 1$ , by construction.

Thus, let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . There exists a  $j \ge 1$  such that  $0 < 1/j < \varepsilon$  (Exercise 5.4.4). Thus, for this positive integer j, we have  $d(x^{(n_j)}, L) \le 1/j < \varepsilon$ . By construction, for all other natural numbers  $k \ge j + 1$ , we have  $d(x^{(n_k)}, L) \le 1/k \le 1/j \le \varepsilon$ .

In summary, for our arbitrary choice of  $\varepsilon$ , we have showed that there exists  $j \ge 1$  such that, for all  $k \ge j$ , we have  $d(x^{(n_k)}, L) \le \varepsilon$ . Thus, the subsequence  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  constructed in this way converges to L, as expected.

Exercise 12.4.3. — Prove Lemma 12.4.7.

Suppose that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a convergent sequence of points in a metric space (X, d), and that its limit is  $x_0$ . Let's show that it is a Cauchy sequence.

By the triangle inequality, we know that for all  $j, k \ge m$ , we have:

$$d(x^{(j)}, x^{(k)}) \le d(x^{(j)}, x_0) + d(x^{(k)}, x_0).$$

Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$ , there exists an  $N \ge m$  such that we have  $d(x^{(n)}, x_0) \le \varepsilon/3$  for all  $n \ge N$ . Thus, if we take  $j, k \ge N$ , we have:

$$d(x^{(j)}, x^{(k)}) \leq d(x^{(j)}, x_0) + d(x^{(k)}, x_0)$$
$$\leq \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3$$
$$< \varepsilon$$

which means that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence, as expected.

Exercise 12.4.4. — Prove Lemma 12.4.9.

Let be an arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since the subsequence  $(x^{(n_j)})_{j=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$ , there exists a  $J \ge 1$  such that  $d(x^{(n_j)}, x_0) \le \varepsilon/3$  whenever  $j \ge J$ .

But the whole sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is supposed to be a Cauchy sequence. Thus, there also exists a  $N \ge m$  such that  $d(x^{(j)}, x^{(k)}) < \varepsilon/3$  whenever  $j, k \ge N$ .

Now, let be  $K := \max(J, N)$ . If  $k \ge K$ , we have

$$d(x^{(k)}, x_0) \leq d(x^{(k)}, x^{(n_k)}) + d(x^{(n_k)}, x_0)$$
$$< \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3$$
$$< \varepsilon$$

which means that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x_0$ , as expected.

EXERCISE 12.4.5. — Let  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of points in a metric space (X,d) and let  $L \in X$ . Show that if L is a limit point of the sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ , then L is an adherent point of the set  $\{x^{(n)}: n \ge m\}$ . Is the converse true?

First suppose that L is a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ . By definition, it means that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \forall N \geqslant m, \ \exists n \geqslant N : \ d(x^{(n)}, L) \leqslant \varepsilon$$
 (12.6)

Let be an arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and let's take N = m. By formula (12.6) above, there exists an  $n \ge N$  such that  $d(x^{(n)}, L) \le \varepsilon$ . Thus, this  $x^{(n)}$  belongs to both sets  $\{x^{(n)} : n \ge m\}$  and  $B(L, \varepsilon)$ . We have just proved that for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , the intersection  $B(L, \varepsilon) \cap \{x^{(n)} : n \ge m\}$  is always non-empty. In other words, L is thus an adherent point of  $\{x^{(n)} : n \ge m\}$ .

However, the converse is not true. Indeed, consider the sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  defined in  $(\mathbb{R},d)$  by  $x^{(1)}=1$  and  $x^{(n)}=0$  for all  $n\geq 2$ , i.e. the sequence  $1,0,0,0,\ldots$  It is clear that L:=1 is an adherent point of  $\{x^{(n)}:n\geq 1\}$  (which is just the set  $\{0,1\}$ ). But 1 is not a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , since we have  $d(x^{(n)},1)>1/2$  for all  $n\geq 2$ .

Exercise 12.4.6. — Show that every Cauchy sequence can have at most one limit point.

Suppose that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in a metric space (X, d), such that L, L' are limit points. Then we have L = L'. We will give two different proofs for this fact.

- **Proof 1** (short proof using previous results). By Proposition 12.4.5, since L is a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ , there exists a subsequence that converges to L. But by Lemma 12.4.9, it means that the whole original sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  also converges to L. The same argument can be used to show that the whole sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges to L'. But by uniqueness of limits (Proposition 12.1.20), we must have L = L', as expected.
- **Proof 2** (a more "manual" proof). Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence, there exists  $N \ge m$  such that  $d(x^{(p)}, x^{(q)}) \le \varepsilon/3$  for all  $p, q \ge N$ .

If L is a limit point of  $(x^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$ , then for this  $N \ge m$ , there exists  $p \ge N$  such that  $d(x^{(p)}, L) \le \varepsilon/3$ . Similarly, there exists  $q \ge N$  such that  $d(x^{(q)}, L') \le \varepsilon/3$ .

We thus have, by triangle inequality:

$$d(L, L') \leq d(L, x^{(p)}) + d(x^{(p)}, x^{(q)}) + d(x^{(q)}, L')$$
  
$$\leq \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3$$
  
$$\leq \varepsilon$$

Thus,  $d(L, L') \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , which implies L = L'.

Exercise 12.4.7. — Prove Proposition 12.4.12.

For statement (a), consider a convergent sequence  $(y^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  of elements of  $Y \subseteq X$ . Since it is convergent, it is a Cauchy sequence (Lemma 12.4.7). Saying that  $(Y, d_{Y \times Y})$  is complete means that  $(y^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  converges in  $(Y, d_{Y \times Y})$ . Thus, every convergent sequence in Y has its limit in Y: this is exactly the characterization of closed sets given by Proposition 12.2.15(b).

For statement (b), consider a Cauchy sequence  $(y^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  of elements of a given closed subset  $Y \subseteq X$ . Since (X,d) is complete,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=m}^{\infty}$  must converge to some value  $L \in X$ . But since Y is closed, we have  $L \in Y$  by Proposition 12.2.15(b). Thus, every Cauchy sequence in Y converges in Y. This means that  $(Y, d_{Y \times Y})$  is complete, as expected.

EXERCISE 12.4.8. — The following construction generalizes the construction of the reals from the rationals in Chapter 5. In what follows, we let (X, d) be a metric space.

We have to prove the following statements. Note that this is a generalization of the process of construction of the real numbers, so that we can use all results relative to the real numbers below.

- (a) Given any Cauchy sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in X, we denote  $\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n$  its formal limit. We say that two formal limits  $\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n$ ,  $\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n$  are equal iff  $\lim_{n\to\infty}d(x_n,y_n)=0$ . Then, this equality relation obeys the reflexive, symmetry and transitive axioms.
  - This relation is reflexive: for every Cauchy sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , we have  $d(x_n, x_n) = 0$  for all  $n \ge 1$ , by definition of a metric. Thus,  $d(x_n, x_n)$  is constant and equal to zero, so that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, x_n) = 0$ .
  - By the property of symmetry of the metric d, we have  $d(x_n, y_n) = d(y_n, x_n)$  for all  $n \ge 1$  and all Cauchy sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}, (y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . Thus,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n$  iff  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$ , iff  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(y_n, x_n) = 0$ , which is equivalent to  $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$ .
  - For transitivity, suppose that  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $(z^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are Cauchy sequences in X. If  $\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n=\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n$  and  $\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n=\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}z_n$ , then by definition we have  $\lim_{n\to\infty}d(x_n,y_n)=0$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty}d(y_n,z_n)=0$ . Let be  $\varepsilon>0$ . By definition, there exists  $N_1\geqslant 1$  such that  $d(x_n,y_n)\leqslant \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $n\geqslant N_1$ . Similarly, there exists  $N_2\geqslant 1$  such that  $d(y_n,z_n)\leqslant \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $n\geqslant N_2$ . Thus, if  $n\geqslant N:=\max(N_1,N_2)$ , we have by the triangle inequality  $d(x_n,z_n)\leqslant d(x_n,y_n)+d(y_n,z_n)\leqslant \varepsilon$ . It means that  $\lim_{n\to\infty}d(x_n,z_n)$ , i.e. that  $\lim_{n\to\infty}x_n=\lim_{n\to\infty}x_n$ , as expected.
- (b) Let  $\overline{X}$  be the space of all formal limits of Cauchy sequences in X, with the above equality relation. Define a metric  $d_{\overline{X}}: \overline{X} \times \overline{X} \to \mathbb{R}^+$  by setting

$$d_{\overline{X}}(\mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n,\mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n) := \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n,y_n).$$

Then this function is well-defined and gives  $\overline{X}$  the structure of a metric space.

• First we have to show that the limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n)$  exists (in  $\mathbb{R}^+$ ) for all Cauchy sequences  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . We already know that  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete, thus  $\mathbb{R}^+$  is complete as a closed subset of the complete space  $\mathbb{R}$  (Proposition 12.4.12(b)).

Let be the sequence defined by  $u_n := d(x_n, y_n)$  for all  $n \ge 1$ . Obviously, this sequence is in  $\mathbb{R}^+$ , which is a complete space. Thus, to show that it converges, we just have to show that it is a Cauchy sequence.

Consider the usual metric on  $\mathbb{R}^+$ . We have, for all  $p, q \ge 1$ ,

$$|u_p - u_q| = |d(x_p, y_p) - d(x_q, y_q)|$$

$$\leq |d(x_p, x_q) + d(x_q, y_q) + d(y_q, y_p) - d(x_q, y_q)|$$

$$\leq |d(x_p, x_q)| + |d(y_p, y_q)|.$$

Now let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are Cauchy sequences, there exists  $N_1, N_2 \ge 1$  such that  $d(x_p, x_q) \le \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $p, q \ge N_1$ , and  $d(y_p, y_q) \le \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $p, q \ge N_2$ . Thus, if  $p, q \ge N := \max(N_1, N_2)$ , we have

$$|u_p - u_q| \le |d(x_p, x_q)| + |d(y_p, y_q)| \le \varepsilon.$$

This shows that  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence, and thus, that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n)$  exists.

• Now we must show that the axiom of substitution is obeyed. In other words, consider a Cauchy sequence  $(z^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in (X,d) such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} z_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$ . We must show that  $d_{\overline{X}}(\lim_{n\to\infty} z_n, \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n) = d_{\overline{X}}(\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n, \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n)$ , i.e. that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(z_n, y_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, y_n)$$
(12.7)

By the previous bullet point, we know that both limits in (12.7) do exist. Thus, the limit laws apply. We have:

$$d(z_n, y_n) \leqslant d(z_n, x_n) + d(x_n, y_n)$$

but since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(z_n, x_n) = 0$  by definition, we obtain

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(z_n, y_n) \leqslant \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, y_n)$$

if we take the limits of both sides in the previous inequality.

But similarly, we have  $d(x_n, y_n) \leq d(x_n, z_n) + d(z_n, y_n)$ , so that a similar argument gives

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n) \leqslant \lim_{n\to\infty} d(z_n, y_n).$$

Thus, we have indeed  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(z_n, y_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n)$ , as expected.

- Finally, we must show that  $d_{\overline{X}}$  is a metric on  $\overline{X}$ . To prove this statement, we must show that  $d_{\overline{X}}$  obeys all four axioms that define a metric.
  - First, it is clear that  $d_{\overline{X}}(LIM_{n\to\infty}x_n, LIM_{n\to\infty}x_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, x_n) = 0$  for all Cauchy sequence  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in (X, d).
  - Now let be two Cauchy sequences  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in X, such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n \neq \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n$ . This latest property implies that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n,y_n) > 0$ , by definition. Thus,  $d_{\overline{X}}(\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n, \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n) > 0$ .
  - Symmetry: we have

$$d_{\overline{X}}(\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n, \text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n)$$

$$= \lim_{n\to\infty} d(y_n, x_n) \text{ (symmetry of } d \text{ on } \mathbb{R}^+)$$

$$= d_{\overline{X}}(\text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n, \text{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n)$$

for all Cauchy sequences  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

- Triangle inequality: by the limit laws, we have

$$\begin{split} d_{\overline{X}}(\mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n, \mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}z_n) &= \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, z_n) \\ &\leqslant \lim_{n\to\infty} (d(x_n, y_n) + d(y_n, z_n)) \\ &\leqslant \lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, y_n) + \lim_{n\to\infty} d(y_n, z_n) \\ &\leqslant d_{\overline{X}}(\mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}x_n, \mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n) + d_{\overline{X}}(\mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}y_n, \mathrm{LIM}_{n\to\infty}z_n) \end{split}$$

for all Cauchy sequences  $(x^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(y^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $(z^{(n)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

Thus,  $d_{\overline{X}}$  is indeed a metric on  $\overline{X}$ .

(c) The metric space  $(\overline{X}, d_{\overline{X}})$  is complete.

To prove this statement, consider a Cauchy sequence  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $\overline{X}$ : we have to prove that this sequence converges in  $(\overline{X}, d_{\overline{X}})$ .

By definition,  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence of formal limits of Cauchy sequences that take their values in X; i.e., for all  $k \ge 1$ , there exists a Cauchy sequence  $(x_n^{(k)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of elements of X such that  $u_k := \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_n^{(k)}$ .

Since all  $(x_n^{(k)})_{n=1}^{\infty}$  are Cauchy sequences, then for all  $k \ge 1$ , there exists a threshold  $N_k$  such that  $d(x_n^{(k)}, x_{N_k}^{(k)}) < 1/k$  whenever  $n \ge N_k$ . Thus, (using the countable axiom of choice) we can build a sequence  $(z_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  defined by

$$z_k := \left(x_{N_k}^{(k)}\right)$$

for all  $k \ge 1$ . Now:

• We claim that  $(z_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is itself a Cauchy sequence. Indeed, consider an arbitrary positive real number  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We must prove that  $d(z_p, z_q) := d(x_{N_p}^{(p)}, x_{N_q}^{(q)})$  is eventually lesser than  $\varepsilon$ .

Since  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\overline{X}$ , there exists a  $N \ge 1$  such that, if  $p, q \ge N$ , we have  $d_{\overline{X}}(u_p, u_q) < \varepsilon/3$ , i.e.:

$$\varepsilon/3 > d_{\overline{X}}(u_p, u_q)$$

$$\geqslant d_{\overline{X}}(\text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_n^{(p)}, \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_n^{(q)})$$

$$\geqslant \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n^{(p)}, x_n^{(q)})$$

Thus, there exists a  $N' \ge 1$  such that, if  $n \ge N'$ , we have  $d(x_n^{(p)}, x_n^{(q)}) \le \varepsilon/3^2$ . Also, by Exercise 5.4.4, there exists a k > 0 such that  $1/k \le \varepsilon/3$ . Thus, if  $n, p, q \ge \max(k, N', N_p, N_q)$ , we have

$$\begin{split} d(z_p,z_q) &= d(x_{N_p}^{(p)},x_{N_q}^{(q)}) \\ &\leqslant \underbrace{d(x_{N_p}^{(p)},x_n^{(p)})}_{\leqslant 1/p \leqslant \varepsilon/3} + \underbrace{d(x_n^{(p)},x_n^{(q)})}_{\leqslant \varepsilon/3} + \underbrace{d(x_n^{(q)},x_{N_q}^{(q)})}_{\leqslant 1/q \leqslant \varepsilon/3} \\ &\leqslant \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 \\ &\leqslant \varepsilon \end{split}$$

Thus,  $(z_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is indeed a Cauchy sequence in X.

• Consequently, we can take the formal limit  $L := \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} z_n$ , and this formal limit L lies in  $\overline{X}$  by definition. We claim that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} u_n = L \in \overline{X}$ ; proving this claim will close the proof of (c).

Let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $(z_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in X, there exists a  $N_1 \ge 1$  such that  $d(z_p, z_q) \le \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $p, q \ge N_1$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Indeed, for any sequence  $(v_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  that converges to  $\ell$ , if we have  $0 \le \ell < \varepsilon$ , then there exists an  $N \ge 1$  such that  $v_n \le \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N$  (why? use a proof by contradiction.).

Once again, by Exercise 5.4.4, there exists a  $K' \ge 1$  such that  $1/K' < \varepsilon/2$ . Thus, if  $k \ge K$  and  $n > N_k$ , we have

$$d(x_n^{(k)}, z_k) := d(x_n^{(k)}, x_{N_k}^{(k)}) < \frac{1}{k} \leqslant \frac{1}{K} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Thus, by the triangle inequality, we have, for all  $n > \max(N_k, N_1)$ ,

$$d(x_n^{(k)}, z_n) \le d(x_n^{(k)}, z_k) + d(z_k, z_n) \le \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 \le \varepsilon.$$

Consequently, we have, for all k > K',

$$d_{\overline{X}}(u_k, L) := \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n^{(k)}, b_n) < \varepsilon.$$

This shows that  $(u_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \to L$  in  $(\overline{X}, d_{\overline{X}})$ , which closes the proof.

- (d) We identify an element  $x \in X$  with the corresponding formal limit  $LIM_{n\to\infty}x$  in  $\overline{X}$ .
  - This is legitimate since we have  $x = y \iff \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x = \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} y$ . Indeed, it is clear that if x = y, then we have  $\text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x = \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} y$  by definition. Conversely, if  $\text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x = \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} y$ , then we have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} d(x, y) = 0$ , i.e. d(x, y) = 0, i.e. x = y. Thus, this identification is legitimate.
  - With this identification, we have  $d(x,y) = d_{\overline{X}}(x,y)$ . Indeed:

$$d_{\overline{X}}(x,y) = d_{\overline{X}}(\text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x, \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} y)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x,y)$$
$$= d(x,y).$$

Thus, (X, d) can be thought of as a subspace of  $(\overline{X}, d_{\overline{X}})$ .

(e) The closure of X in  $\overline{X}$  is  $\overline{X}$ .

Indeed, let be C the closure of X in  $\overline{X}$ . We clearly have  $C \subseteq \overline{X}$ , by definition. Thus we just have to show that  $\overline{X} \subseteq C$ .

Let be  $x \in \overline{X}$ , and let's show that  $x \in C$ . By definition,  $x \in C$  means that x is an adherent point of X in  $\overline{X}$ , i.e. that for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $B_{(\overline{X},d_{\overline{X}})}(x,\varepsilon) \cap X \neq \emptyset$ . In other words, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we must show that there exists a  $y \in X$  such that  $d_{\overline{X}}(x,y) < \varepsilon$ .

Thus, let be  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By definition, x is the formal limit of a Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of elements of X, so that  $x := \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_n$ . Since  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence, there exists an  $N \ge 1$  such that  $d(x_n, x_N) < \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $n \ge N$ . Thus:

$$d_{\overline{X}}(x, x_N) := d_{\overline{X}}(\text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_n, \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_N)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, x_N)$$
$$\leq \varepsilon/2 < \varepsilon$$

so that  $y := x_N$  is a convenient choice. This shows that x is an adherent point of X in  $\overline{X}$ , as expected.

(f) Finally, the formal limit agrees with the actual limit, i.e.,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = \text{LIM}_{n\to\infty} x_n \in \overline{X}$  for all Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in X.

Indeed, let be  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  a Cauchy sequence of elements of X. We know that (X,d) can be thought of as a subspace of  $(\overline{X}, d_{\overline{X}})$ , so that  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  can be thought of as a sequence of elements of  $\overline{X}$ . But we have showed that  $(\overline{X}, d_{\overline{X}})$  is complete. Thus, the sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges in  $\overline{X}$  to a certain limit  $L \in \overline{X}$ ; i.e., we have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = L$  for some  $L \in \overline{X}$ .

Consider this limit L. By definition of  $\overline{X}$ , there exists a Cauchy sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of elements of X such that  $L := \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} a_n$ . What we need to prove is that we have

$$L = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} a_n = \text{LIM}_{n \to \infty} x_n \tag{12.8}$$

and thus, it is sufficient to show that  $LIM_{n\to\infty}a_n = LIM_{n\to\infty}x_n$ , since we already have the other equalities. And, by definition of the equality relation established in (a), in order to prove that  $LIM_{n\to\infty}a_n = LIM_{n\to\infty}x_n$ , we just have to show that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_n, a_n) = 0$ . Or, in yet another equivalent way, we have to show that for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \ge 1$  such that  $d(x_n, a_n) \le \varepsilon$  whenever  $n \ge N$ .

Thus, let be an arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let's unfold our hypotheses.

- We know that the sequence  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to L in  $\overline{X}$ . Thus, by definition, there exists a  $N_1 \geqslant 1$  such that  $d_{\overline{X}}(x_k, L) \leqslant \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $k \geqslant N_1$ . In other words,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} d(x_k, a_n) \leqslant \varepsilon/3 < \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $k \geqslant N_1$ .

  Thus, there exists a  $N_2$  such that  $d(x_k, a_n) \leqslant \varepsilon/2$  whenever  $k \geqslant N_1$  and  $n \geqslant N_2$  (see footnote 2 p. 22 from the present document).
- We also know that  $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence. It means that there exists a  $N_3 \ge 1$  such that  $d(x_p, x_q) \le \varepsilon/2$  for all  $p, q \ge N_3$ .

Let be  $N := \max(N_1, N_2, N_3)$ . Using the triangle inequality, we finally get, for all  $n \ge N$ ,

$$d(x_n, a_n) \leq d(x_n, x_N) + d(x_N, a_n)$$
  
$$\leq \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2$$
  
$$\leq \varepsilon$$

This closes the proof.

Exercise 12.5.1. — Show that Definitions 9.1.22 and 12.5.3 match when talking about subsets of the real line with the standard metric.

Consider  $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and the standard metric d(x,y) = |x-y| for all  $x,y \in \mathbb{R}$ . We have to show that both definitions of boundedness are equivalent in this case.

• First, suppose that Y is bounded in the sense of Definition 12.5.3. Thus, there exists a real number x and a positive real number r > 0 such that  $Y \subseteq B(x,r)$ . In other words, we have  $Y \subseteq ]x - r, x + r[\subseteq [x - r, x + r]]$ . Let be M := |x| + |r|. We clearly have  $x + r \le M$ , and  $-M \le x - r$ . Thus, we have  $Y \subseteq [-M, M]$ , and Y is bounded in the sense of Definition 9.1.22.

• Conversely, suppose that Y is bounded in the sense of Definition 9.1.22. Thus, there exists a positive real M>0 such that  $Y\subseteq [-M,M]\subset ]-2M,2M[$ . But this later interval is simply B(0,2M), so that Y is bounded in the sense of Definition 12.5.1, taking x:=0 and r:=2M.