PMATH351 - Real Analysis (Class Notes)

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September 30, 2017

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Lecture 1: Sep 8, 2017

1.1 Logistics

Course Website: http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~nspronk/math351/math351.html

1.2 Brief Introduction to the Course

1.2.1 Set Theory (Naive, for Real Analysis)

Sets whose existence that we shall take for granted:

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...\}$$

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{m}{n} : m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}, \gcd(m, n) = 1\}$$

Definition 1.2.1 (Inclusion)

Given two sets A, B, write

$$A \subseteq B, \quad A \subset B \text{ or } B \supseteq A, \quad etc.$$
 (1.1)

for "B contains A", i.e. $\forall x \in A \implies x \in B$. We shall write

$$A \subsetneq B \text{ if } A \subset B \land A \neq B \tag{1.2}$$

Definition 1.2.2 (Power Set)

Let X be a set. Let

$$\mathcal{P}(X) := \{ A : A \subseteq X \} \tag{1.3}$$

Note that if $X = \{1, ..., n\}$, notice that $\mathcal{P}(X)$ has 2^n elements.

Definition 1.2.3 (Unions and Intersections)

Let $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ where X is the universe, and $\{A_i\}_{i \in I} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ where $I \neq \emptyset$.

$$A \cup B = \{x \in X : x \in A \lor x \in B\} \qquad \bigcup_{i \in I} A = \{x \in X : x \in A \text{ for some } u \in I\}$$

$$A \cap B = \{x \in X : x \in A \land x \in B\} \qquad \bigcap_{i \in I} A = \{x \in X : x \in A \forall i \in I\}$$

If we do not have A, B in a common universe, we let the "external union" be

$$A \sqcup B = \{x : x \in A \lor x \in B\} \tag{1.4}$$

Example 1.2.1

Suppose $I \neq \emptyset$. What is the meaning of

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i, \quad \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i? \tag{1.5}$$

Definition 1.2.4 (Difference Set)

If $A, b \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. Let

$$A \backslash B = \{ x \in X : x \in A \land x \notin B \}$$
 (1.6)

In particular

$$X \backslash B = \{ x \in X : x \notin B \} \ (complement) \tag{1.7}$$

Proposition 1.2.1 (De Morgan's Laws)

If X is a set, with $\{A_i\} \in \mathcal{P}(X)$, then

$$X \setminus \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcap_{i \in I} (X \setminus A_i), \quad X \setminus \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcup_{i \in I} (X \setminus A_i)$$
 (1.8)

The proof is straightforward and should be done in two lines.

Definition 1.2.5 (Product Sets)

Let A, B be sets.

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\} \quad (ordered \ pairs) \tag{1.9}$$

Definition 1.2.6 (Function)

 $f \subseteq A \times B$ is called a function if

$$\forall a \in A \quad \exists! b = f(a) \in B \tag{1.10}$$

so that $(a,b) \in f$.

In practice, we write $f: A \to B$ and the ordered pairs are all denoted (a, f(a)).

If $X_1, ..., X_n$ are sets, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$X_1 \times ... \times X_n = \prod_{j=1}^n X_j = \{(x_1, ..., x_n) : x_j \in X_j \forall j \in \{1, ..., n\}\}$$
 (1.11)

is called the n-tuples of X.

IF $\{X_i\}_{i\in I, I\neq\emptyset}$, is a (or an infinite) family of sets

$$\prod_{i \in I} X_i \{ (x_i)_{i \in I} : x_i \in X \forall i \in I \}$$

$$\tag{1.12}$$

Axiom 1.2.1 (Axiom of Choice)

Given any non empty collection of nonempty sets $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$, we have $\prod_{i\in I} A_i \neq \emptyset$.

Remark (B. Russell)

- 1. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $S_n = \{l_n, r_n\}$ be a pair of shoes. Surely, $\prod_{i \in I}^{\infty} S_i \neq \emptyset$.
- 2. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $T_n = \{s_n, s'_n\}$ be a pair of socks. Why do we expect $\prod_{i \in I}^{\infty} T_i \neq \emptyset$?

Proposition 1.2.2 (AC')

The AC is equivalent to (AC') given any nonempty set A,

$$\exists f: \mathcal{P}(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \to A \qquad \forall B \in P(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \quad f(B) \in B \tag{1.13}$$

Proof

$$(AC) \implies (AC')$$

We assume there is

$$(x_B)_{B \in P(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\}} \in \prod_{B \in P(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\}} B$$
(1.14)

(which is nonempty by assumption).

Then we simply have to let $f(B) = x_B$ for each B.

$$(AC') \implies (AC)$$

Given a non-empty collection of nonempty sets $\{A_i\}_{i\in I}$, let

$$A = \bigsqcup_{i \in I} A_i \quad (external \ product) \tag{1.15}$$

We have a choice function $f: \mathcal{P}(A) \setminus \{\emptyset\} \to A, f(B) \in B$ for each B. Then

$$(f(A_i))_{i \in I} \in \prod_{i \in I} A_i \tag{1.16}$$

1.3 Relations, Ordering and Zorn

Definition 1.3.1 (Relation)

Let X be a nonempty set. A relation on X is any subset

$$R \subseteq X \times X \tag{1.17}$$

We write xRy provided that $(x, y) \in R$.

Example 1.3.1

- 1. A function $f \subseteq X \times X$ is a relation.
- 2. In $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, consider

$$mRn \iff \exists p \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N} \quad n = m + p$$
 (1.18)

We write $m \le n \iff mRn$.

- 3. On \mathbb{Z} , $m \leq n \iff n m \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$.
- 4. On \mathbb{Q} , $\frac{m}{n} \leqslant \frac{\mu}{\nu} \iff m\nu \leqslant \mu n \text{ in } (\mathbb{Z}, \leqslant).$
- 5. On $\mathcal{P}(X)$, we have relations

$$A \subseteq B$$

$$A \supseteq B$$

Lecture 2: Sep 11, 2017

2.1 More on Relations

Definition 2.1.1 (More on Relations)

A relation R on X is

- 1. Symmetric if $xRy \implies yRx$.
- 2. **Reflexive** if $\forall x \in X \ xRx$
- 3. Transitive if $xRy \wedge yRz \implies xRz$
- 4. Anti-Symmetric if $xRy \wedge yRx \implies x = y \in X$
- (i), (ii) and (iii) makes up the **Equivalence Relation**. We usually use notations like \sim, \approx .
- (ii), (iii) and (iv) makes up the **Partial Order** definition. We usually use notations like \leq, \geq

In Example 1.3.1, (ii), (iii), (iv) and (v) are all partial orders. In (i), f is an equivalence relation only if f is an identity function.

Definition 2.1.2 (Total Order)

A total order is a partial order where for x, y we have at least one of

$$x \leqslant y \quad or \quad y \leqslant x$$
 (2.1)

holds.

Notice that in Example 1.3.1, (ii), (iii) and (iv) are total orders. However, (v) is not if X has at least two elements.

If \sim is an equivalence relation on X, then we denote the equivalence class by $[x] = \{y \in X : y \sim x\}$

Example 2.1.1

On $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$, let $(m,n) \sim (\mu,v)$ if $m\nu = \mu n$ in \mathbb{Z} . Then equivalence classes [(m,n)] are elements of \mathbb{Q} . Generally,

$$\frac{m}{n} = [(m,n)] \tag{2.2}$$

2.2 Construction of the Real Numbers

We provide a sketch of Cantor's construction:

Notation: On
$$\mathbb{Q}$$
, define $\left|\frac{m}{n}\right| = \begin{cases} \frac{m}{n} & m > 0 \\ -\frac{m}{n} & m < 0 \end{cases}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

We have the usual properties (triangle inequalities): for $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$

$$|p+q| \le |p|+|q| \tag{2.3}$$

$$||p| - |q|| \le |p - q| \tag{2.4}$$

Let $\mathbb{Q}_+ = \{ q \in \mathbb{Q} : q > 0 \}$

$$X = \{ (q_n) = (q_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{Q}^{\mathbb{N}} : \forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}_+ \ \exists n_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall n, m \geqslant n_{\epsilon} \ |q_n - q_m| < \epsilon \}$$

(X is set of Cauchy sequences of rationals)

On X we define

$$(q_n) \sim (r_n) \text{ if } \forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q} \ \exists n_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \ |q_n - r_n| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } n \geqslant n_{\epsilon}$$
 (2.5)

(tails become closer together)

Then \sim is an equivalence relation (verify yourselves).

We let

$$\mathbb{R} = \{ [(q_n)] : (q_n) \in X \}$$
 (2.6)

Note

 \mathbb{R} is a field.

$$(q_n) \sim (s_n), (r_n) \sim (t_n) \implies (q_n + r_n) \sim (s_n + t_n), (q_n r_n) \sim (s_n t_n)$$
 (2.7)

(Check! To check for multiplication, observe that elements of X form bounded sets in \mathbb{Q}). $(r_n) \not\sim (0,0,...) \implies r_n = 0$ for at most finitely many $n \implies define$

$$t_n = \begin{cases} 1 & if \ r_n = 0\\ \frac{1}{r_n} & otherwise \end{cases}$$

$$\implies (r_n)(t_n) \sim (1, 1, 1, ...)$$

We can define mutliplication, addition, etc. on \mathbb{R} and it follows that \mathbb{R} is a field.

Note (Properties)

1. \mathbb{Q} is a subfield:

$$\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad q \mapsto [(q, q, \dots)] \tag{2.8}$$

(eq. class of const. seq.)

2. Total order: On X let $(q_n) \leq (r_n)$ if

$$\forall \epsilon \in \mathbb{Q}_+ \ \exists n_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall n \geqslant n_{\epsilon} \ q_n \leqslant r_n + \epsilon \tag{2.9}$$

$$(Eq. (1 - \frac{1}{n}) \le (1, 1, ...))$$

Then
$$(q_n) \leq (r_n), (q_n) \sim (s_n), (r_n) \sim (t_n) \implies (s_n) \leq (t_n)$$
 (check)

Hence, let

$$[(q_n)] \leqslant [(r_n)] \text{ if } (q_n) \leqslant (r_n).$$

3. Density of \mathbb{Q} : (HW 1)

If $[(q_n)] < [(r_n)]$ then there is q in \mathbb{Q} s.t.

$$\lceil (q_n) \rceil < \lceil (q, q, \dots) \rceil < \lceil (r_n) \rceil \tag{2.10}$$

4. Absolute value: $|[(q_n)]| = [(|q_n|)]$

This is the usual absolute value (check)

2.3 Dyadic representation of \mathbb{R}

Like the density of $\mathbb{Q} \in \mathbb{R}$, we can show that for $[(q_n)] \in \mathbb{R}$ there is q in \mathbb{Q} s.t. $[(q_n)] \leq [(q,q,\ldots)]$ (HW 1).

Let $X = [(q_n)] \in \mathbb{R}$. Suppose $x \ge 0$. Then there is unique $m \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$[(m, m, ...)] \le x < [(m+1, m+1, ...)]$$
(2.11)

Call m = |x|.

Define

$$x_1 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x - \lfloor x \rfloor < \frac{1}{2} = \left[\left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right] \\ 1 & \text{if } x - \lfloor x \rfloor \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$
 (2.12)

$$\vdots (2.13)$$

$$x_{n+1} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x - (\lfloor x \rfloor - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{x_k}{2^k} < \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}) \\ 1 & \text{if } x - (\lfloor x \rfloor - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{x_k}{2^k} \ge \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}) \end{cases}$$
 (2.14)

Then, check that

$$x \sim \left(\lfloor x \rfloor + \sum_{k=1}^{2^n} \frac{x_k}{2^k} \right)_{n=1}^{\infty} \tag{2.15}$$

Write $x = |x| . x_1 x_2 x_3 ...$

Similarly, we have decimal (base 10) or ternary representation (base 3).

Lecture 3: Sep 13, 2017

3.1 Last Time

Definition 3.1.1 (Partial Order)

A partial order is a relation \leq on X which is

- reflexive
- transitive
- ullet anti-symmetric

We write (X, \leq) as a "partially ordered set" or a poset.

3.2 Bounds and Completeness

Definition 3.2.1 (Upper Bound, Supremum)

Let X, \leq) be a partially ordered set (aka poset). Given $A \subset X$,

- an upper bound is any $u \in X$ s.t. $\forall x \in A \ x \leq u$
- a supremum (aka least lower bound) is an upper bound s s.t. $s \le u$ for any upper bound u.

Note

1. A supremum need not exist.

For example, in (\mathbb{Q}, \leq) ,

• N is not bounded above

- $A = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} : q^2 \leq 2\}$ is bounded above (e.g. 2 is an upper bound) but admits so supremum.
- 2. If a supremum exists, then it is unique (appeal to the anti-symmetry property of \leq), so we write $s = \sup A$.

Definition 3.2.2 (Complete)

We say that (X, \leq) is complete if any set $A \subset X$ which admits an upper bound has a supremum, $\sup A$.

Example 3.2.1

- 1. $X \neq \emptyset$, consider $(\mathcal{P}(X),\subseteq)$. Given $A = \{A_i\}_{i\in I} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$, we have $\sup A = \bigcup_{i\in I} A_i$, so $\mathcal{P}(X),\subseteq)$ is complete.
- 2. (\mathbb{R}, \leq) is complete.

(Sketch proof) Suppose $\emptyset \neq A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is bounded above. Based on (HW1), we can find $q_0, r_0 \in \mathbb{Q} \ [\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}, q \hookrightarrow [(q, q, ...)] \ s.t.$

- q₀ is not an upper bound for A
- r_0 is an upper bound for A

Inductively, define for $n \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}, (q_{n+1}, r_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{Q}^2$.

$$(q_{n+1}, r_{n+1}) = \begin{cases} (q_n, \frac{1}{2}(q_n + r_n)) & \frac{1}{2}(q_n + r_n) \text{ is an upper bound for } A\\ (\frac{1}{2}(q_n + r_n), r_n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(3.1)

Fact (check): $[(q_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}] = [(r_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}]$ and is $\sup A$.

Definition 3.2.3 (Maximum)

Further, we call $m \in A(A \subset X, (X, \leq))$ poset a maximum of A if

- $m = \sup A$
- m ∈ A

Definition 3.2.4 (Lower Bound, Infimum, Minimum)

We have symmetric definition for lower bounds, infimums (greatest lower bound) and minimums.

Note: The infimum of A is unique if it exists, denoted as inf A

Proposition 3.2.1 (Infimum of a subset of a space)

If (X, \leq) is a complete partially ordered space, then any $A \subseteq X$ which is bounded below, admits an infimum.

Proof

Let $L = \{x \in X : \forall a \in A \ x \leq a\}$. Notice that $L \neq \emptyset$ (by assumption on A). Also, L is bounded above, since any element of A is an upper bound.

Then $\sup L = \inf A$.

3.3 Chains and Zorn's Lemma

Definition 3.3.1 (Chain)

Let (X, \leq) be a poset. A chain is any subset $C \subseteq X$ s.t. (C, \leq) is totally ordered.

(Note: Strictly, we should have $(C, \leq \upharpoonright_{C \times C})$.

Definition 3.3.2 (Maximal)

We say an element $m \in X$ is maximal if we have that $\forall x \in X \ m \leq x \implies x = m$.

Axiom 3.3.1 (Zorn's Lemma)

Suppose in a poset (X, \leq) every chain $C \subseteq X$ admits an upper bound, i.e.

$$\exists u \in X \ \forall x \in C \ x \leqslant u \tag{3.2}$$

Then (X, \leq) admits a maximal element.

Definition 3.3.3 (Linearly Independent, Spanning, Basis)

Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{K} ($\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{Q}). A subset $L \subseteq V$ is **linearly** independent (aka lin. ind.) if for each finite $\{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq L$,

$$\forall \alpha_n \in \mathbb{K} \ 0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i \implies \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \ldots = \alpha_n = 0$$

A subset $S \subset V$ is **spanning** if for each $v \in V$ there are finite $\{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq S, \{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{K}$ s.t.

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_i$$

A basis is a set $B \subset V$ which is both linearly independent and spanning.

Theorem 3.3.1 (Vector space over \mathbb{K} has a basis)

A vector space V over \mathbb{K} always admits a basis.

Proof

Let $\mathcal{L} = \{L \subset V : L \text{ is linearly independent}\}$. We note that (\mathcal{L}, \subseteq) is a poset.

Furthermore, $\{\{v\}: v \in V \setminus \{0\}\} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$. So $\mathcal{L} \neq \emptyset$.

Let $C = \{L_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a chain in \mathcal{L} , and consider $L = \bigcup_{i \in I} L_i$. If $\{v_1, ... v_n\} \subseteq L$, we have $v_k \in L_{i_k}$ for some $k \in [0, n]$, and since C is a chain, we may relate so $L_{i_1} \subseteq L_{i_2} \subseteq ... \subseteq L_{i_k}$. Thus $\{v_1, ..., v_n\} \subseteq L_{i_n}$ and is lin. ind. It follows L is lin. ind. Hence, Axiom 3.3.1 tells us that \mathcal{L} admits a maximal element B.

WTP B is spanning. Suppose B is not spanning. Then there is $v_o \in V$ which cannot be written as a linear combination of finitely many vectors from B. Consider

$$0 = \alpha_0 v_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_i \tag{3.3}$$

for $\{v_1,...,v_n\}\subseteq B$, and $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n\in\mathbb{K}$. If we can have $\alpha_n\neq 0$, then

$$v_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(-\frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_n} v_i \right) \tag{3.4}$$

which contradicts our assumption on v_o . Hence $\alpha_n = 0$, and thus $0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i v_i$, so $\alpha_1 = \ldots = \alpha_n = 0$, as well. Hence $B \cup \{v_o\} \in \mathcal{L}$. But $B \subseteq B \cup \{v_o\}$, contradicting maximality.

Remark

An easy modification of the proof shows that any $L = \mathcal{L}$ is a subset of a basis.

Lecture 4: Sep 15, 2017

4.1 Logistics

Office Hours

• today: 1430 - 1520

• Wed, next week: 1430 - 1630

4.2 Cardinal arithmetic

Definition 4.2.1 (Injection, Surjection, Bijection)

Given nonempty sets X, Y, a function $f: X \to Y$ is called a(n)

- injection $x_1 \neq x_2 \in X \implies f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$
- *surjection* $\forall y \in Y \ \exists x \in X \ f(x) = y$
- bijection if it is both an injection and a surjection (aka invertible)

Of course, if $f: X \to Y$ is a bijection then we can define $f^{-1}: Y \to X$ by $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$.

We write $X \sim Y$ if there exists a bijection $f: X \to Y$.

Sometimes, we write

$$X \sim Y$$

Note (\sim as an equivalence relation)

• (reflexitivity) $X \underset{id}{\sim} X$ (id: $X \to X$ is the identity function)

- (symmetry) $X \sim Y \implies Y \sim X$
- $(transitivity) \ X \sim Y \wedge Y \sim Z \implies X \sim Z_{gf} Z$

Hence \sim is an equivalence relation on any given family of sets. We let |X| denote the equivalence class. We call this cardinality of X.

Note:
$$|\emptyset| = 0$$
, $|\{1, ..., n\}| = n \in \mathbb{N}$

Example 4.2.1

1.

$$\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Z}$$
 : $f(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{2} & n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{1}{n}(1-n) & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$

2.

$$\mathbb{R} \underset{f}{\sim} (-1,1) \quad \therefore f(x) = \frac{x}{|x|+1}$$

Execise: exhibit f^{-1}

Answer: $f^{-1}(x) = \frac{x}{1-|x|}$

3.
$$a < b \in \mathbb{R} (0,1) \sim_{q} (a,b), g(x) = a + x(b-a)$$

Note (Notation)

$$\aleph_0 = |\mathbb{N}|$$
 ("aleph-naught") $c = |\mathbb{R}|$ ("continuum")

Note (Arithmetic)

Let A, B be sets.

$$\begin{split} |A|+|B|&=|A\sqcup B|\\ |A||B|&=|A\times B| \end{split}$$

$$|A|^{|B|}=|A^B|\quad (B\neq\varnothing,\ A^B=\{f:B\to A\mid f\ is\ a\ fucntion\})$$

Note (Properties)

• (commutativity)

$$|A| + |B| = |B| + |A|$$

 $|A||B| = |B||A|$

• (distributivity)

$$|A|(|B| + |C|) = |A||B| + |A||C|$$

 $(A \times (B \sqcup C) \sim (A \times B) \sqcup (A \times C))$

• (exponential laws)

$$(B \neq \emptyset \neq C)$$
(1) $|A|^{|B|+|C|} = |A|^{|B|}|A|^{|C|}$ (2) $|A|^{|B||C|} = (|A|^{|B|})^{|C|}$

(1)
$$(A^{B \sqcup C} \sim A^B \times A^C \text{ via } \phi \mapsto (\phi|_B, \phi|_C))$$

(2) $A^{B \times C} \sim (A^B)^C \text{ via } \phi \mapsto (\phi(b, \cdot) : C \to A)_{b \in B}$

Definition 4.2.2 (Precedence)

For sets A, B, define

$$A \leq B$$
 if there is an injection $f: A \rightarrow B$

We sometimes write the above as $A \leq B$.

- $(reflexivity) A \leq A$
- $(transitivity) A \leq B, B \leq C \implies A \leq C$

We are one property short of making \leq as an order relation.

Note

It seems reasonable to write $|A| \leq |B|$, in this case, our question is: Is \leq in cardinal numbers anti-symmetric?

Theorem 4.2.1 (Cantor-Bernstein-Schröder)

If, for non-empty set A, B, we have

$$A \le B \land B \le A \implies A \sim B$$
 (4.1)

i.e.

$$|A| \leqslant |B| \land |B| \leqslant |B| \implies |A| = |B| \tag{4.2}$$

Proof

Our assumption is that we have injections

$$A \leq B, \quad B \leq A \tag{4.3}$$

To avoid triviality, let us suppose that neither ϕ or ψ is surjective. Thus

$$\phi(A) \subsetneq B \quad \psi \circ \phi(A) \subsetneq \psi(B) \subsetneq A \tag{4.4}$$

Let $A_0 = A$, $A_1 = \psi(B)$, $A_2 = \psi \circ \phi(A)$ and we inductively define

$$A_{n+1} = g(A_n) \text{ where } g = \psi \circ \phi$$
 (4.5)

Then $A_2 \subsetneq A_1 \subsetneq A_0$, so by applying injection g,

$$A_4 \subsetneq A_3 \subsetneq A_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A_{n+1} \subsetneq A_n \subsetneq A_{n-1}$$

Hence, we may decompose

$$A = A_0 = (A_0 \backslash A_1) \cup A_1$$

$$= (A_0 \backslash A_1) \cup (A_1 \backslash A_2) \cup A_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$= \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (A_{n-1} \backslash A_n) \cup A_{\infty}$$

where $A_{\infty} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=2}^{\infty} A_n$, we likewise observe

$$A_i = \bigcup_{n=2}^{\infty} (A_{n-1} \backslash A_n) \cup A_{\infty}$$

Using definitions of the sets A_n $(n \ge 2)$ we have

$$g(A_{n=1}\backslash A_n) = A_{n+1}\backslash A_{n+2}$$

Define

$$h: A_0 \to A_1 \quad h(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & x \in A_{n-1} \backslash A_n \text{ is odd} \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (4.6)

Then h is a bijection.

Thus
$$A = A_0 \sim_h A_1 - \phi(B)$$
, $B \sim_\phi \psi(B)$ so we conclude that $A \sim B$.

Example 4.2.2

1. Let $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$[a,b) \le \mathbb{R}$$
 obvious $\mathbb{R} \sim (-1,1) \sim (0,1) \sim (a,b) \le [a,b)$

i.e.
$$[a,b) \leq \mathbb{R}$$
 and $\mathbb{R} \leq [a,b)$ so $\mathbb{R} \sim [a,b)$.

Lecture 5: Sep 18, 2017

5.1 Continuing CBS with examples

Example 5.1.1

2. $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = c$

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \ via \ A \mapsto \chi(A) \tag{5.1}$$

where

$$\chi_A(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & n \in A \\ 0 & n \notin A \end{cases} \tag{5.2}$$

is the "characteristic indicator".

$$\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \le [0,1) \ via \ (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \mapsto \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{3^k} = 0.x_1 x_2 x_3...$$
 is the ternary rep'n (5.3)

which is injective.

Claim $[0,1) \leq \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, $0.x_1x_2x_3... = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x_k}{2^k} \mapsto (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}$ which is the binary rep'n. Note that this representation doesn't allow 0.1111... = 1 (see Lecture 2).

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \sim \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \leq [0,1) \leq \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \sim \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$$

Thus by Theorem 4.2.1,

$$|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})| = |[0,1)| = c = |\mathbb{R}| \tag{5.4}$$

3. $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q} \sim \mathbb{N}^2$

• $\mathbb{N} \leq \mathbb{Q}$ (obvious)

- $\mathbb{Q} \leq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$, which we pick $\frac{m}{n} \mapsto (m, n)$ with gcd(m, n) = 1 where $m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N}^2 = \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \text{ as } \mathbb{Z} \sim \mathbb{N}$
- $\mathbb{N}^2 \sim \mathbb{N} \ via \ (m,n) \mapsto 2^m 3^n$

Therefore

$$\mathbb{N} \le \mathbb{Q} \le \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N}^2 \le \mathbb{N} \tag{5.5}$$

Thus by Theorem 4.2.1, $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q} \sim \mathbb{N}^2$.

Note (Notation)

We say that a set A is

- countable if $A \leq \mathbb{N}$, i.e. $|A| \leq \aleph_0$
- denumerable if $A \sim \mathbb{N}$, i.e. $|A| = \aleph_0$

5.2 Comparison Theorem

Proposition 5.2.1 (Surjectivity)

Suppose X and Y are non-empty sets and there is a surjection $g: X \to Y$. Then $Y \leq X$.

Proof

Let $f: \mathcal{P}(X)\setminus\{\emptyset\} \to X$ be a choice function (by Axiom 1.2.1 AC). For each $y \in Y$, we have $g^{-1}(\{y\}) = \{x \in X : g(x) = y\} \neq \emptyset$, as g is surjective. Define $h: Y \to X$ be given by $h(y) = f(g^{-1}(\{y\}))$ and h is injective, as if $y_1 \neq y_2, \{y_1\} \cap \{y_2\} = \emptyset$, so we see that

$$g^{-1}(\{y_1\}) \cap g^{-1}(\{y_2\}) = \emptyset$$
(5.6)

too.

Theorem 5.2.1 (Comparison Theorem)

Let X and Y be sets. Then either $X \leq Y$ or $Y \leq X$.

Proof

If $X = \emptyset$ then $X \leq Y$; likewise if $Y = \emptyset$. Hence, assume $X \neq \emptyset \neq Y$. Let

$$\Delta = \{ (A, f) : A \in \mathcal{P}(X) \setminus \{ \emptyset \}, \ f \in Y^A \ is \ an \ injection \}$$
 (5.7)

We observe that $\Delta \neq \emptyset$. If $x \in X, y \in Y$, then $(\{x\}, x \mapsto y) \in \Delta$.

On Δ let

$$(A, f) \le (B, g) \iff \frac{A \subseteq B \subseteq X}{g|_A = f}$$
 (5.8)

Notice that \leq is reflexive, anti-symmetric, and transitive. Thus \leq is a partial order on Δ . Let $\Gamma = \{(A_i, f_i)\}_{i \in I}$ be a chain in (Δ, \leq) . We let

$$A = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \tag{5.9}$$

and $f \in Y^A$ be given by $f(x) = f_i(x)$ provided $x \in A_i$.

Notice that f is well-defined. Say $x \in A_i$ and $x \in A_j$, then since Γ is a chain, without loss of generality, $A_i \subseteq A_j$, and $f_j|_{A_i} = f_i$.

Furthermore, if $x_1 \neq x_2 \in A$, then $x_1 \in A_{i_1}, x_2 \in A_{i_2}$, and we may suppose $A_{i_1} \subseteq A_{i_2}$. Then $f(x_1) = f_{i_1}(x_1) = f_{i_2}(x_1) \neq f_{i_2}(x_2) = f(x_2)$.

So f is an injection. Thus $(A, f) \in \Delta$ and is an upper bound for Γ .

Thus there is a maximal element $(M, g) \in \Delta$, by Axiom 3.3.1 Zorn's Lemma.

- 1. Case 1: M = X. Then $X = M \leq Y$.
- 2. Case 2: $M \subseteq X$. We wish to see that g is surjective.

Suppose not, i.e. $\exists y_0 \in Y \backslash g(M)$. Since $M \subsetneq X$, $\exists x_0 \in X \backslash M$. Define $h : M \cup \{x_0\} \rightarrow Y$ by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & x \in M \\ y_0 & x = x_0 \end{cases}$$
 (5.10)

which is injective.

Then $(M \cup \{x_0\}, h) \in \Delta$, and $(M, g) \leq (M \cup \{x_0\}, h)$, contradicting the maximality of $(M, g) \in \Delta$. Thus g is surjective as desired.

Therefore,
$$Y \leq X$$
.

Proposition 5.2.2 (Alternative Definitions of an Infinite Set)

Let A be a set. Then TFAE:

- 1. $n \leq |A|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- 2. $\aleph_0 \leq |A|$, i.e. A is infinite
- $\exists B \subseteq A \text{ s.t. } |B| = |A|.$
- 4. 1 + |A| = |A| (Hilbert hotel)
- 5. $\aleph_0 + |A| = |A|$

Lecture 6: Sep 20, 2017

6.1 Continuing ordinal arithmetic

Proof

 $1. 1 \implies 2$

We have that for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there is an injection $\phi_n : \{1, ..., n\} \to A$. Inductively, define $f : \mathbb{N} \to A$ by

$$f(1) = \phi_1(1)$$

:

$$f(n+1) = \phi_{n+1}(k) \quad where \ k = \min\{j \in \{1, ..., n+1\} : \phi_{n+1}(j) \notin \{f(1), ..., f(n)\}\}$$

The f is injective by construction, i.e. $\mathbb{N} \leq A$ or $\aleph_0 \leq |A|$

 $2. 2 \implies 3$

We have $\mathbb{N} \leq A$. Let $B = A \setminus \{f(1)\}$.

Define $g: A \to B$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(n+1) & x = f(n), \ n \in \mathbb{N} \\ x & otherwise \end{cases}$$
 (6.1)

Then $A \sim_g B$, i.e. |A| = |B|.

 $3. \ 3 \implies 4$

We suppose that there is $x_0 \in A \backslash B$ and $B \sim A$. Thus,

$$A \sim B \le B \cup \{x_0\} \le A \tag{6.2}$$

Then by Theorem 4.2.1, $A \sim B$ and furthermore $A \sim B \cup \{x_0\} \sim A \sqcup \{1\}$, i.e. |A| = |A| + 1.

 $4.4 \implies 5$

We have $\{1\} \sqcup A \underset{\phi}{\sim} A$. Then $\phi(A) \subsetneq A$. Thus $\phi \circ \phi(A) \subsetneq \phi(A) \subsetneq A$, and by induction

$$\oint \phi^{\circ n} \qquad (A) \subsetneq \phi^{\circ (n-1)}(A) \subsetneq \ldots \subsetneq A \qquad (6.3)$$

$$\phi \text{ composed with itself } n \text{ times}$$

Hence $|A| \ge |A \setminus \phi^{\circ n}(A)| \ge n$ (at each stage above, we gain at least one point).

 $5. 2 \implies 5$

We have $\mathbb{N} \leq A$. Let

$$g: \mathbb{N} \sqcup A \to A, \ g(x) = \begin{cases} f(2n) & x = n, \ n \in \mathbb{N} \\ f(2n+1) & x = f(n) \in A, \ n \in \mathbb{N} \\ x & otherwise \end{cases}$$
(6.4)

 $6.5 \implies 2$

$$\aleph_0 \leqslant \aleph_0 + |A| = |A|$$

Note

Any set satisfying 1 to 5 of the above is called infinite.

Corollary 6.1.1 (A set is either finite or denumerable)

If $A \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$, then either A is finite or denumerable.

Proof

Either $n \leq |A|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, or |A| < n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 6.1.1 (Cantor)

For any set X

$$|X| \le |\mathcal{P}(X)|, i.e. \ X \le \mathcal{P}(X) \land X \ne \mathcal{P}(X)$$
 (6.5)

Proof

If
$$X = \emptyset$$
, $0 = |\emptyset| \le 1 = |\{\emptyset\}|$.

If $X \neq \emptyset$, then $x \mapsto \{x\} : X \to \mathcal{P}(X)$ shows $X \leq \mathcal{P}(X)$.

Now suppose $X \neq \emptyset$, $f: X \to \mathcal{P}(X)$. We will show that f cannot be surjective. Let

$$E = \{x \in X : x \notin f(x)\}\tag{6.6}$$

i.e. E is a set that is not in the range of f.

If we had $E \subseteq f(X)$, i.e. E = f(x) for some $x \in X$, then either

- $x \in E$, i.e. $x \notin f(x)$, which means that $E \neq f(x)$, or
- $x \notin E = f(x)$, so $x \in E$.

These contradictions show that $E \not\subset f(X)$.

Hence there is no surjection $f: X \to \mathcal{P}(X)$.

Example 6.1.1

$$\aleph_0 = |\mathbb{N}| < |\mathcal{P}(bbN)| = |\mathbb{R}| = c$$

Theorem 6.1.2 (Cantor's Continuum Hypothesis)

This is no set A such that

$$\aleph_0 < |A| < c \tag{6.7}$$

Remark

This theorem has recently been proven (about a month ago from Sep 20, 2017). This theorem is independent of ordinary set theory.

Theorem 6.1.3 (Generalized Continuum Hypothesis)

Given an infinite set C, there is no set A such that

$$|C| < |A| < |\mathcal{P}(C)| \tag{6.8}$$

Theorem 6.1.4 (Cantor's Paradox)

There is no "set" of all sets.

Suppose there was a universal set \mathcal{U} , i.e. any set $A \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. But then,

$$|\mathcal{U}| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U})|, \text{ so } \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) \le \mathcal{U}$$
 (6.9)

so U cannot exist.

Axiom 6.1.1 (Well-Ordering)

Given a non-empty set X, a **well-order** is a partial order on X such that any $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq X$ admits a minimal element, i.e.

$$\exists m_A \in A \ \forall a \in A \ m_A \leqslant a \tag{6.10}$$

Remark

Well-order VS total order: $x, y \in X$ consider $A = \{x, y\}$.

Example 6.1.2

- 1. (\mathbb{N}, \leq) is well-ordered (principle of mathematical induction).
- 2. \mathbb{N}^2 . Let us consider two well-orders.

$$(pyramid) (m,n) \leq (\mu,\nu) \iff$$

$$\begin{cases} either \ m+n < \mu + \nu \\ m+n = \mu + \nu \ and \ m \leq \mu \end{cases}$$
 (6.11)

(lexicographic) $(m,n) \leqslant (\mu,\nu) \iff$

$$\begin{cases} either \ m < \mu \ or \\ m = \mu \ and \ n \leqslant \nu \end{cases}$$
 (6.12)

Notice that $(m,n) \leqslant (\mu,\nu) \iff 2m - \frac{1}{n} \leqslant 2\mu - \frac{2}{\nu} \in (\mathbb{Q},\leqslant)$

Lecture 7: Sep 22, 2017

7.1 Metric Spaces

Note

We can use \mathbb{R} in any reasonable manner.

Definition 7.1.1 (Metric and Metric Space)

Let X be a nonempty set. A metric $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function which satisfies, for $x, y, z \in X$

- (non-negativity) $d(x,y) \ge 0$
- (non-degeneracy) $d(x,y) = 0 \iff x = y$
- (symmetry) d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- (triangle inequality) $d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$

We often call the pair (X, d) a metric space.

Example 7.1.1

- 1. $On \mathbb{R}, d(x, y) = |x y|$
- 2. Let $X \neq \emptyset$ any set. Define the "discrete" metric

$$d: X \times X \to \{0, 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \quad d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y \\ 1 & x \neq y \end{cases}$$
 (7.1)

Note that non-degeneracy and symmetry are obvious. The triangle inequality is sat-

isfied since

Case:
$$x \neq y \neq z \neq x$$

$$1 = d(x, z) \leq 2 = d(x, y) + d(y, z)$$

3. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be strictly increasing. Let

$$d_f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to [0, \infty) \ d_f(x, y) = |f(x) - f(y)|$$
 (7.2)

E.g. $f(x) = \frac{x}{|x|+1}$.

Exercise: check for its properties.

Proof

By definition of d_f , it is non-negative and symmetric.

If x = y, then $d_f(x, y) = |f(x) - f(y)| = |f(x) - f(x)| = 0$. Suppose $x \neq y$. Since f is strictly increasing, without loss of generality, suppose f(x) < f(y). Then $d_f(x, y) > 0$ since f(y) - f(x) > 0. Thus d_f is non-degenerate.

Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

$$d_f(x, z) = |f(x) - f(z)|$$

$$= |f(x) - f(y) + f(y) - f(z)|$$

$$\leq |f(x) - f(y)| + |f(y) - f(z)|$$

$$= d_f(x, y) + d_f(y, z)$$

4. (French railroad metric) Suppose we have a set $X \neq \emptyset$, and a function $f: X \rightarrow [0,\infty)$ which satisfies $f^{-1}(\{0\}) = \{p_0\}$. Notice that f(x) > 0 if $x \in X \setminus \{p_0\}$.

$$d_f: X \times X \to [0, \infty) \ d_f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = y \\ f(x) + f(y) & x \neq y \end{cases}$$
 (7.3)

Easy exercise: This is a metric.

Proof

Non-negativity and non-degeneracy are embedde in the function, since $\forall x, y \in X$, since $f(x), f(y) \in [0, \infty)$, we have that $d_f(x, y) = f(x) + f(y) \ge 0$, and if x = y, $d_f(x, y) = 0$.

The function is also symmetric, since

$$\forall x, y \in X$$

$$x \neq y \implies d_f(x, y) = f(x) + f(y) = f(y) + f(x) = d_f(y, x)$$

$$x = y \implies d_f(x, y) = 0 = d_f(y, x)$$

To prove the triangle inequality, let $x, y, z \in X$. If x = y = z, d_f is trivially a metric. Without loss of generality, suppose $x = y \neq z$, then $d(x, z) = f(x) + f(z) \stackrel{(1)}{=} f(y) + f(z) = d(x, y) + d(y, z)$, where (1) is since f(x) = f(y), and d(x, y) = 0. Suppose $x \neq y \neq z$, then

$$d_f(x,z) = f(x) + f(z)$$

$$\leq f(x) + f(y) + f(y) + f(z) \quad since \ f(y) \geq 0$$

$$= d_f(x,y) + d_f(y,z)$$

Definition 7.1.2 (Norm, Normed Vector Space)

Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{R} . A **norm** is a function $\|\cdot\|: V \to \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies, for $x, y \in V$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

- 1. (non-negativity) $||x|| \ge 0$
- 2. (non-degeneracy) $||x|| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- 3. ($\|\cdot\|$ -homogeneity) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$
- 4. (subadditivity) $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$

We call the pair $(V, ||\cdot||)$ a normed vector space.

Note

If $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is a normed vector space, then

$$d: V \times V \to [0, \infty) \ d(x, y) = ||x - y|| \tag{7.4}$$

is always a metric on V. Everything is easy to check; subadditivity of $\|\cdot\| \implies$ triangle inequality of d.

Example 7.1.2

- 1. $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ is a normed vector space.
- 2. On \mathbb{R}^n , for $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$

$$||x||_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \ldots + x_n^2} \tag{7.5}$$

This is the Euclidean norm.

Consider, also

$$||x||_1 = |x_1| + \ldots + |x_n|$$

 $||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|, \ldots, |x_n|\}$

Note

non-degeneracy and $|\cdot|$ -homogeneity are obvious for $||\cdot||_1$, $||\cdot||_{\infty}$

Let us consider subadditivity

$$||x + y||_1 = |x_1 + y_1| + \dots + |x_n + y_n|$$

$$\leq |x_1| + |y_1| + \dots + |x_n| + |y_n|$$

$$= |x_1| + \dots + |x_n| + |y_1| + \dots + |y_n|$$

$$= ||x||_1 + ||y||_1$$

$$\begin{split} \|x+y\|_{\infty} &= \max\{|x_i+y_i|: i=1,...,n\} \\ &= \max\{|x_i|+|y_i|: i=1,...,n\} \\ &= \max\{|x_i|+|y_j|: i,j=1,...,n\} \\ &= \max\{|x_i|: i=1,...,n\} + \max\{|y_j|: j=1,...,n\} \\ &= \|x\|_{\infty} + \|y\|_{\infty} \end{split}$$

Now for 1 consider

$$x^p = \begin{cases} e^{p\log x} & x > 0\\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases} \tag{7.6}$$

$$||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + \ldots + |x_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Remark (Cauchy-Bunyakovsky-Schwartz)

 $|x \cdot y| \leqslant ||x||_2 ||y||_2$

Lemma 7.1.1 $(\alpha \beta \leqslant \frac{\alpha^p}{p} + \frac{\beta^q}{q})$

Let $\alpha, \beta \leq 0 \in \mathbb{R}$, 1 and <math>q is chosen such that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ (i.e. $q = \frac{p}{p-1}$) then

$$\alpha\beta \leqslant \frac{\alpha^p}{p} + \frac{\beta^q}{q} \tag{7.7}$$

with the equality when $\alpha^p = \beta^q$.

Proof

Consider the graph of $y = x^{p-1}$ (assume $p \ge 2$). Then

$$\alpha\beta \leqslant \int_0^\alpha x^{p-1} dx + \int_0^b y^{q-1} dy$$
$$= \frac{\alpha^p}{p} \frac{\beta^q}{q}$$

Equality holds only if $\beta = \alpha^{p-1} \implies \beta^{\frac{1}{p-1}} = \alpha \implies \beta^q = \alpha^p$

Theorem 7.1.1 (Holder's Inequality) Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, 1 and <math>q be so $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, then

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j y_j \right| \leqslant \sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_j| |y_j| \leqslant \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_j|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |y_j|^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} = \|x\|_p \|y\|_q$$
 (7.8)

Chapter 8

Lecture 8: Sep 25, 2017

8.1 Logistics

Expect assignment 2 to be up tonight!

8.2 Continuing Normed Vector Space

Proof (Holder's Inequality)

 $||x||_p ||y||_q = 0 \implies (x = 0 \lor y = 0) \land \text{ the inequality is trivial. Let us assume } ||x||_p ||y||_q \neq 0.$ For j = 1, ..., n

$$\alpha_j = \frac{|x_j|}{\|x\|_p}, \quad \beta_j = \frac{|y_j|}{\|y\|_q}$$

Then

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{\|x\|_p \|y\|_q} \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j| |y_j| &= \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \beta_j \overset{(1)}{\leqslant} \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\alpha_j^p}{p} + \frac{\beta_j^q}{q} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j^p + \frac{1}{q} \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^q \\ &= \frac{1}{p \|x\|_p^p} \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^p + \frac{1}{q \|y\|_q^q} \sum_{j=1}^n |y_j|^q \\ &= \frac{1}{p \|x\|_p^p} \|x\|_p^p + \frac{1}{q \|y\|_q^q} \|y\|_q^q = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \overset{(2)}{=} 1 \end{split}$$

where (1) is by Lemma 7.1.1 and (2) is by choice of q.

Hence, we multiply by $||x||_p ||y||_q$ and see that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_j| |y_j| \le ||x||_p ||y||_q \tag{8.1}$$

Theorem 8.2.1 (Minkowski's Inequality)

Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and 1 . Then

$$||x + y|| \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p \tag{8.2}$$

Proof

If x + y = 0, this is trivial, hence suppose $x + y \neq 0$. Compute

$$||x + y||_p^p = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^p = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j| |x_j + y_j|^{p-1}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n (|x_j| + |y_j|) |x_j + y_j|^{p-1}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j| |x_j + y_j|^{p-1} + \sum_{j=1}^n |y_j| |x_j + y_j|^{p-1}$$

$$\leq \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

$$+ \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |y_j|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

$$= (||x||_p + ||y||_p) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^{(p-1)q}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

We have $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \implies \frac{1}{q} = 1 - \frac{1}{p} = \frac{p-1}{p} \implies p = q(p-1)$, and thus

$$||x + y||_p^p \le (||x||_p + ||y||_p) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j + y_j|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$
$$= (||x||_p + ||y||_p)||x + y||_p^{\frac{p}{q}}$$

Now divide $||x + y||_p^{\frac{p}{q}} \neq 0$, we get

$$||x+y||_p = ||x+y||_p^{p-\frac{p}{q}} \le ||x||_p + ||y||_p \quad (since \ p - \frac{p}{q} = p(1 - \frac{1}{q}) = \frac{p}{p} = 1)$$
 (8.3)

Corollary 8.2.1 ($\|\cdot\|_p$ is a norm)

Given $1 , <math>\|\cdot\|_p$ is a norm on \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof

Clearly, $\|\cdot\|_p$ is non-negative and non-degenerate. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then

$$\|\alpha x\|_{p} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |\alpha x_{j}|_{p}^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |\alpha|^{p} |x_{j}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
$$= |\alpha| \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} |x_{j}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = |\alpha| \|x\|_{p}$$

Finally, subadditivity is provided by Theorem 8.2.1.

8.3 ℓ_p -spaces

Consider $\mathbb{R}^n = \{x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} : x_k \in \mathbb{R} \}$ which is a \mathbb{R} -vector space:

$$(x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} + (y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} = (x_k + y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty}, \quad \alpha(x_k)k = 1^{\infty} = (\alpha x_k)k = 1^{\infty}$$
 (8.4)

We let, for $1 \le p < \infty$,

• $\ell_p = \{x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^p = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p < \infty \}$

$$\ell_{\infty} = \{ x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} : \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k| < \infty \}$$

On ℓ_p we define

$$||x||_p = \begin{cases} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} & 1 \leq p < \infty \\ \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k| & p = \infty \end{cases}$$

$$(8.5)$$

Theorem 8.3.1 $(\ell_p \text{ is a } \mathbb{R}\text{-subspace})$

Let $1 \leq p < \infty$. Then ℓ_p is a \mathbb{R} -subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ and $\|\cdot\|_p$ is a norm.

Proof

We shall prove these statements together. Suppose that $x, y \in \ell_p$. Then

$$||x + y||_{p} = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_{k} + y_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad (may \ be \ \infty, \infty^{\frac{1}{p}} = \infty)$$

$$= \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_{k} + y_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_{k} + y_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \left(x \mapsto x^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ is } cts \text{ on } [0, \infty) \atop x \to \infty \implies x^{\frac{1}{p}} \to \infty\right)$$

$$\leqslant \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |y_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}\right] \quad by \ Theorem \ 8.2.1 \text{ on } each \ n$$

$$= \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |x_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} |y_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad cty \ again$$

$$= \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |y_{k}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} = ||x||_{p} + ||y||_{p} < \infty$$

Thus $x + y \in \ell_p$, and we get subaddivity of $\|\cdot\|_p$.

We note that non-negativity and non-degeneracy of $\|\cdot\|_p$ are obvious properties. Liekwise, the $|\cdot|$ -homogeneity is straightforward.

Theorem 8.3.2 $((\ell_{\infty}, \|\cdot\|_{\infty}))$ is a normed vector space) $(\ell_{\infty}, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is a normed vector space.

Proof

$$x, y \in \ell_{\infty} \implies$$

$$\begin{split} \|x+y\|_{\infty} &= \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k+y_k| \leqslant \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} (|x_k|+y_k|) \\ &\leqslant \sup_{j,k \in \mathbb{N}} (|x_j|+|y_k|) \\ &= \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |x_j| + \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |y_k| = \|x\|_{\infty} + \|y\|_{\infty} \end{split}$$

Other properties are easy (exercise).

Chapter 9

Lecture 9: Sep 27, 2017

9.1 Last Time

Note

$$1 \leq p < \infty$$

$$\ell_p = \left\{ x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : ||x||_p = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \right\}$$

$$\ell_{\infty} = \left\{ x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : ||x||_{\infty} = \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k| \right\}$$

9.2 Continuing with ℓ_p

$$c_0 = \{x = (x_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : \lim_{k \to \infty} x_k = 0\}$$

Note that c_0 is a \mathbb{R} -subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} : x, y \in c_0$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$x + y = (x_k + y_k)_{k=1}^{\infty} \in c_0 \left[x_k + y_k \stackrel{k \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0 \right], \ \alpha x \in c_0$$

. Also $(0) = (0,0,...) \in c_0$. Also, $c_l \subset \ell_\infty$. Indeed, let $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$n \geqslant n_1 \implies |x_n - 0| = |x_k| < 1 \quad \text{(here, } \epsilon = 1\text{)}$$

Then for $h \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$|x_k| \le \max\{x_1|, ..., |x_{n_1-1}|, 1\} = M$$

i.e. $||x||_{\infty} = \sup_{h \in \mathbb{N}} |x_k| \leq M$.

Definition 9.2.1 (C[a,b])

Let $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$, and

$$C[a,b] = \{ f \in \mathbb{R}^{[a,b]} : f \text{ is continuous } \}$$

$$(9.1)$$

Note that C[a,b] is a \mathbb{R} -vector space $f,g\in C[a,b],\ \alpha\in\mathbb{R}$, define $f+g,\alpha f\in\mathbb{R}^{[a,b]}$ by

$$(f+g)(t) = f(t) + g(t), \ (\alpha f)(t) = \alpha f(t)$$
 (9.2)

for all $t \in [a, b]$

Theorem 9.2.1 (Extreme Value Theorem)

if $f \in C[a, b]$ then there exists $t_{\min}, t_{\max} \in [a, b]$ for which

$$f(t_{\min}) \leqslant f(t) \leqslant f(t_{\max}) \quad \text{for all } t \in [a, b]$$
 (9.3)

Consequently from the Theorem 9.2.1, if $f \in C[a,b]$, $|f(\cdot)| \in C[a,b]$ and there is $t_{\max} \in [a,b]$ for which $|f(t)| \leq |f(t_{\max})|$ for $r \in [a,b]$. Define, for $f \in C[a,b]$, $||f||_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [a,b]} |f(t)|$.

Just like for $(\ell_{\infty}, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, we have that $(C[a, b], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ is a normed vector space.

We note that $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ is not the only norm on C[a,b]. Let $1 \leq p < \infty$ and let, for $f \in C[a,b]$

$$||f||_p = \left(\int_a^b |f(t)|^p dt\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \text{(good ol' Riemann integral)} \tag{9.4}$$

Theorem 9.2.2 $((C[a,b], \|\cdot\|_p)$ as a normed vector space)

 $(C[a,b], \|\cdot\|_p), \ (1 \leq p < \infty) \ is \ a \ normed \ vector \ space.$

Proof

First, let us recall right endpoint Riemann sums: $f, g \in C[a, b]$, then

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(t)dt = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} g\left(a + \frac{k}{n}(b-a)\right) \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$\tag{9.5}$$

Hence if $f \in C[a, b]$, then

$$||f||_p = \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n |f(b_k)|^p \frac{b-a}{n}\right) \quad \text{where } b_k = a + \frac{k}{n}(b-a)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^n |f(b_k)|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\frac{b-a}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Now, suppose, $f, g \in C[a, b]$

$$||f + g||_{p} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |f(b_{k}) + g(b_{k})|^{p} \right) \left(\frac{b - a}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$\leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |f(b_{k})|^{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |g(b_{k})|^{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \right] \left(\frac{b - s}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad Theorem 8.2.1$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |f(b_{k})|^{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\frac{b - a}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} |g(b_{k})|^{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\frac{b - a}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= ||f||_{p} + ||g||_{p}$$

hence we have subadditivity of $\|\cdot\|_p$. It is routine to verify that for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $f \in C[a,b]$ we have

$$\|\alpha f\|_{p} = |\alpha| \|f\|_{p} \tag{9.6}$$

and $||f||_p \ge 0$ as $|f(\cdot)|^p \ge 0$ and finally

$$||f||_p = 0 \iff \int_a^b |f(t)|^p dx = 0 \iff |f(t)|^p = 0 \text{ for all } t \in [a, b] \iff f = 0$$
 (9.7)

((1) as $|f(t)|^p \ge 0$ for all t).

Note (Summary thus far about Normed Vector Spaces)

$$(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$$

$$(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}, \|\cdot\|_{p}), \ 1 \leq p < \infty$$

$$(\ell_{p}, \|\cdot\|_{p}), \ 1 \leq p < \infty$$

$$(c_{0}, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$$

$$(C[a, b], \|\cdot\|_{p}), \ 1 \leq p < \infty$$

9.3 Topology of metric spaces

Definition 9.3.1 (Open and Closed Balls (It's Balls AGAIN!!))

Let (X,d) be a metric space, $x_0 \in X$, and $\epsilon > 0$. We define

- (open ball) $B(x_0, \epsilon) = \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) < \epsilon\}$
- (closed ball) $B[x, \epsilon] = \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) \le \epsilon\}$

Example 9.3.1

In \mathbb{R} we have for a < b

$$(a,b) = B\left(\frac{1}{2}(a+b), \frac{1}{2}(b-a)\right)$$
$$[a,b] = B\left[\frac{1}{2}(a+b), \frac{1}{2}(b-a)\right]$$

Definition 9.3.2 (Open and Closed Sets)

Let X, d be a metric space.

• $A \ set \ U \subseteq X \ is \ open \ if$

$$\forall x \in U \ \exists \epsilon_x > 0 \ B(x, \epsilon_x) \subseteq U \tag{9.8}$$

• A set $F \subseteq X$ is closed if $X \setminus F$ is open.

Proposition 9.3.1 (Open/Closed Balls are Open/Closed Sets)

Let $(X,d), x_0, \epsilon$ as above.

- 1. $B(x_0, \epsilon)$ is open.
- 2. $B[x_0, \epsilon]$ is closed.

Proof

1. Let $x \in B(x_0, \epsilon)$. Let $\epsilon_x = \epsilon - d(x_0, x) > 0$. Then for $y \in B(x, \epsilon_x)$ and we have

$$d(x_0, y) \le d(x_0, x) + d(y, x) < d(x_0, x) + \epsilon_x$$

= $d(x_0, x) + \epsilon - d(x_0, x) = \epsilon$

So $y \in B(x_0, \epsilon)$, i.e. $B(x, \epsilon_x) \subseteq B(x_0, \epsilon)$.

2. Let $x \in X \setminus B[x_0, \epsilon]$, and let $\epsilon_x = d(x, x_0) - \epsilon > 0$. Now if $y \in B(x, \epsilon_x)$ then

$$d(x, x_0) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, x_0)$$
$$< \epsilon_x + d(y, x_0)$$
$$= d(x, x_0) - \epsilon + d(y, x_0)$$

 $\implies \epsilon < d(y, x_0), i.e. \ y \notin B[x_0, \epsilon], i.e. \ y \in X \setminus b[x_0, \epsilon], so \ B(x, \epsilon_x) \subseteq X \setminus B[x_0, \epsilon].$

Remark

We may let

$$B[x_0, 0] = \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) \le 0\} = \{x_0\}$$

$$(9.9)$$

As above, singleton sets $\{x_0\}$ are closed.

Chapter 10

Lecture 10: Sep 27, 2017

10.1 Continuing with Balls

Note (Recall)

(X,d) be a metric space, $x_0 \in X$, $\epsilon > 0$

$$B(x_0, \epsilon) = \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) < \epsilon\}$$

$$B[x_0, \epsilon] = \{x \in X : d(x_0, x) \le \epsilon\}$$

Example 10.1.1

1. $X \neq \emptyset$, $|X| \geqslant 2$, the discrete metric

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

We have for $x_0 \in X$,

$$B(x_0\epsilon) = \begin{cases} \{x_0\} & 0 < \epsilon \le 1 \\ X & \epsilon > 1 \end{cases}$$
$$B[x_0, \epsilon] = \begin{cases} \{x_0\} & 0 < \epsilon < 1 \\ X & \epsilon \geqslant 1 \end{cases}$$

2. (Geometry of balls in \mathbb{R}^2)

$$1 \le p < \infty$$
, $B_p(0,1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2, d_p(0,x) = ||x||_p < 1\}$

Pictures

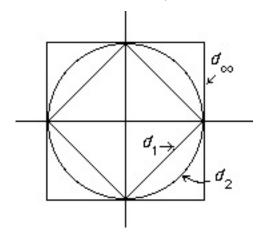
 $B_1(0,1): x_1 + x_2 = 1$ is a diamond-shaped "ball"

 $B_2(0,1)$ is a round "ball"

 $B_{\infty}(0,1)$ is a squared "ball"

 $B_p(0,1)$ 1 < p < 2 the "ball" is inscribed inside the circle

 $B_p(0,1)$ 2 < $p < \infty$: circle is inscribed within (a square with rounded corners)



Proposition 10.1.1

Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- 1. X, \emptyset are both open and closed.
- 2. If $\{U\}_{i\in I}$ is a family of open sets, then

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \quad is \ open \tag{10.1}$$

3. If $\{U_1, ..., U_n\}$ is a finite family of open sets, then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} U_{i} \quad is \ open \tag{10.2}$$

4. If $\{F_i\}_{i\in I}$ is a family of closed sets, then

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} F_i \quad is \ closed \tag{10.3}$$

5. Of $\{F_1, ..., F_n\}$ is a finite family of closed sets, then

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} F_i \quad is \ closed \tag{10.4}$$

[Recall that singleton sets are closed, hence (5) implies that finite sets are closed]

Proof

1. Let $x \in X$. Then $x \in B(x,1) \subseteq X$, so X is open. The test for openness of \emptyset is vacuously true (i.e. there are no points to speak of: there are no $x \in \emptyset$ at all, hence for any such x, we have x is "contained" in a ball in \emptyset).

We have $\emptyset = X \setminus X$, $X = X \setminus \emptyset$ are closed.

2. Let $x \in U = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$. Then there is some $i_0 \in I$ so $x \in U_{i_0}$, which is open, so there is an $\epsilon_x > 0$ such that

$$x \in B(x, \epsilon_x) \subseteq U_{i_0} \subseteq U \tag{10.5}$$

3. Let $x \in V = \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$. Then for each i = 1, ..., n, there is $\epsilon_i > 0$ so $B(x, \epsilon_i) \subseteq U_i$. Let $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_1, ..., \epsilon_n\} > 0$ and $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n B(x, \epsilon_i) \subseteq V$

For (4) and (5), use De Morgan's Laws and (2) & (3) from above.

Definition 10.1.1 (Boundary)

Given a metric space (X,d), $A \subseteq X$, we define the boundary of A as

$$\partial A = \{ x \in X : \forall \epsilon > 0 \ B(x, \epsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset, \ \underbrace{B(x, \epsilon) \setminus A}_{B(x, \epsilon) \cap (X \setminus A)} \neq \emptyset \}$$
 (10.6)

Remark

 $\partial A = \partial (X \backslash A)$

Definition 10.1.2 (Interior)

We let the interior of A

$$A^{\circ} = \bigcup \{ U \subseteq X : U \subseteq A \land U \text{ is open} \}$$
 (10.7)

Proposition 10.1.2 (Characterizations of the Interior)

If (X,d), A are as above, then

$$A^{\circ} = \{ x \in X : \exists \epsilon_x > 0 \ B(x, \epsilon_x) \subseteq A \}$$
 (10.8)

$$= A \backslash \partial A \tag{10.9}$$

Proof

Let $x \in A$. Then we have either

- for some $\epsilon_x > 0$, $x \in \underbrace{B(x, \epsilon_x)}_{open} \subseteq A \implies x \in A^\circ$; or
- $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $B(x.\epsilon) \setminus A \neq \emptyset \implies since \ x \in A \cap B(x,\epsilon)$, we have $x \in \partial A$. Since $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$, we see that the two equalities in Equation 10.9 coincide.

Definition 10.1.3 ()

Let (X,d) be a metric space, $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ and $x_0 \in X$. Then we say that $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to the limit x_0 , written

$$x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n \tag{10.10}$$

or

$$x_n \underset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} x_0 \tag{10.11}$$

if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists n_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$$
$$n \geqslant n_{\epsilon} \implies d(x_0, x_n) < \epsilon$$

Remark

The limit, if it exists, is unique. Indeed, since

$$x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n \wedge y_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$$

then

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \; \exists n_{\epsilon}, n'_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$n \geqslant n_{\epsilon} \implies d(x_{0}, x_{n}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$n \geqslant n'_{\epsilon} \implies d(y_{0}, x_{n}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

But then if $n \ge \max\{n_{\epsilon}, n'_{\epsilon}\}$ we have

$$d(x_0, y_0) \leqslant d(x_0, x_n) + d(x_n, y_0) < \epsilon$$

If this holds for all $\epsilon > 0$, $d(x_0, y_0) = 0$ so $x_0 = y_0$.

Example 10.1.2

Let $(V, ||\cdot||)$ be a normed vector space. A subset $\{e_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq V$ is a **Schauder basis** provided that

$$\forall x \in V \exists ! \{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
$$x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k e_k \in V$$

Example: In ℓ_p $(1 \le p < \infty)$, let $e_n = (0, ..., 0, \frac{1}{n\text{-th place}}, 0, ...)$

Definition 10.1.4 (Accumulation points)

We let (X, d) is a metric space, $A \subseteq X$ as above, the set of accumulation points (or cluster points) be given

$$A' = \{ x \in X : \forall \epsilon > 0 \ (B(x, \epsilon) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A \neq \emptyset \}$$
 (10.12)

(aka a punctured ball).

Furthermore, we call elements of $A \setminus A'$ as isolated points.

Proposition 10.1.3

Given (X,d) as a metric space, $A \subseteq X$ as above, the set of all accumulation points

$$A' = \{x \in X : x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n, \text{ where } (x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x\}\}$$

Proof

If $x \in A'$, let $x_1 \in (B(x,1) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A$, and inductively let

$$x_{n+1} \in (B(x, \epsilon_n) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A$$

where $\epsilon + m = \min\{\frac{1}{n}, d(x, x_n).$

Then we have (exercise) that $x = \lim_{n\to\infty}$, while $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A\setminus\{x\}$. [Notice the points $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ are distinct]

The converse inclusion just uses the definition of limits.