

MATH 5301 Elementary Analysis - Homework 7

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Problem 1 Provide examples of the sets $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ so that:

Definition 1. Set A is connected if it is not disconnected.

Definition 2. Set A is disconnected if $\forall U, V$ - open:

- a. $U \cap A \neq \emptyset, V \cap A \neq \emptyset$
- b. $(U \cap V) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ Note: this implies $U \neq \emptyset$ and $V \neq \emptyset$
- c. $A \subset U \cup V \neq \emptyset$

a) A and B are connected but $A \cup B$ is not.

Sets A and B are individually connected but that just aren't near each other. An example are these open balls:

$$A = \mathcal{B}_r((0, 0)) := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 < r^2\}$$
$$B = \mathcal{B}_r((-5r, 5r)) := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x + 5r)^2 + (y - 5r)^2 < r^2\}$$

b) A and B are connected but $A \cap B$ is not.

Sets A and B are individually connected, but they intersect in two areas resulting in a disjoint intersection... Such as this donut and square sets:

$$A = \mathcal{B}_R^{(2)}((0, 0)) \setminus \mathcal{B}_r^{(2)}((0, 0)) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : r^2 < x^2 + y^2 < R^2\}$$
$$B = \mathcal{B}_r^{(\infty)}((0, 0)) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x < r \wedge y < r\}$$

c) A and B are not connected but $A \cup B$ is connected.

A and B individually are disjoint shapes but each individual disjointed part intersects with one from the other set. An example would be a couple of disjoint (then connected when a union) regions.

$$A := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in [-1, 0] \cup [1, 2] \wedge y \in [-2, 2]\}$$
$$B := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in [-2, 1.25] \cup [1.75, 4] \wedge y \in [-1, 3]\}$$

d) A and B are not connected but $A \cap B$ is connected.

A and B individually are disjoint shapes, there is then only one connected region where they intersect. An example is two overlapping regions, each with random other disjoint parts.

$$A := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in [0, 1] \cup [15, 30], y \in [0, 1]\}$$
$$B := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in [-1, 1] \cup [-15, -20], y \in [0, 1]\}$$

e) A and B are not connected but $A \setminus B$ is connected.

A and B individually are disjoint shapes, with a part of B covering all but one disjoint region of A . An example is a two overlapping regions with disjoint parts and A having one (only one) disjoint part not fully covered by B .

$$A := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} : x \in [0, 1] \cup [15, 30], y \in [0, 1]\}$$

$$B := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} : x \in [-1, 0.5] \cup [15, 30], y \in [0, 1]\}$$

Problem 2

a) **Prove that every monotone bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} converge.**

Definition 3. The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called *monotone* if and only if it is either entirely non-increasing or non-decreasing.

a. f is non-decreasing if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} x \leq y \implies f(x) \leq f(y)$.

b. f is non-increasing if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} x \leq y \implies f(x) \geq f(y)$.

Definition 4. The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called *bounded* if

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{R} : \forall x \in \mathbb{R} |f(x)| \leq N$$

Definition 5. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to *converge* to limit a if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) : \forall n > N |a_n - a| < \epsilon$$

Theorem 1. Every monotone bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} converges.

Proof. Define sequence $\{a_n\}$ bounded and monotone. (i.e)

$$((\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N} : m > n a_n \geq a_m) \vee (\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N} : m > n a_n \leq a_m)) \wedge (\exists N \in \mathbb{R} \forall n \in \mathbb{N} |a_n| \leq N)$$

Taking only the positive case (non-decreasing and bounded from above), a proof can be made without loss of generality (as that's how $|\cdot|$ works...).

$$\begin{aligned} (\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N} : n > m a_n \leq a_m) \wedge (\exists a \in \mathbb{R} \forall n \in \mathbb{N} |a_n| \leq a) &\implies \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) : \forall n > N |a_n - a| < \epsilon \\ \exists a \in \mathbb{R} \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N} : n > m a_n \leq a_m \leq a &\implies \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) \forall n > N a - a_n < \epsilon \\ \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) \exists a \in \mathbb{R} \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N} : n > m a_n \leq a_m \leq a &\implies a - a_n < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Clearly since the sequence is non-decreasing and bounded from above it will converge to the upper boundary. This can then be applied again for below to fully prove this. \square

b) **Provide an example of the set $A \in \mathbb{R}$ having exactly four limit points.**

Definition 6. For a set $A \subset S$ in metric space (S, d) , $x \in S$ is called a *limit point* of A if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists y \in A : 0 < d(x, y) < \epsilon$$

Define A as a simple union of simple single limit point sets:

$$A := \left\{ \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \cup \left\{ \sqrt{2} + \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \cup \left\{ \pi + \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \cup \left\{ e + \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$$

In this case the limit points are: 0, $\sqrt{2}$, π , and e .

c) **Provide an example of a sequence $\{a_n\}$, so that every point in the interval $[2019, 2021]$ is a limit point of it.**

Because sinusoidal functions are fun, let's use:

$$\{a_n\} := \{a_n = 2000 + \sin(n), n = 1, 2, \dots\}$$

Problem 3

a)

Provide an example of a sequence $\{a_n\}$ so that a_n diverges, but $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - a_{2n}) = 0$.
This is perhaps going too far with it, but how about:

$$\{a_n\} := \{a_n = \begin{cases} a_{n/2} + \frac{1}{n} & n \text{ : 2} \\ n^2 & \text{else} \end{cases}\}$$

b)

Provide an example of two sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ so that

$$\left(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right) < \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) < \left(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right) < \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) < \left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \right)$$

Definition 7. A Limit Superior, denoted as $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty}$, is the limit of an superior function on the extremes of a sequence. This is defined by

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup_{m \geq n} x_m \right)$$

Definition 8. A Limit Inferior, denoted as $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty}$, is the limit of an inferior function on the extremes of a sequence. This is defined by

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\inf_{m \geq n} x_m \right)$$

Defining two sinusoidal functions with the same frequency but with a phase shift to incur the strictness requirements.

$$\begin{aligned} \{a_n\} &:= \{a_n = \cos(\omega_1 n + \theta_1)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \\ \{b_n\} &:= \{b_n = \cos(\omega_2 n + \theta_2)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \end{aligned}$$

with $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = \frac{\pi}{25}$, $\theta_1 = 0$, and $\theta_2 = \frac{\pi}{8}$.

Problem 4

Show the equivalence of the norms $\|\cdot\|_1, \|\cdot\|_2, \|\cdot\|_p, p > 1$ and $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ on \mathbb{R}^n .

Definition 9. A norm is a function $\|\cdot\| : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ satisfying:

- a. $\|\vec{x}\| > 0, \vec{x} \neq 0$
- b. $\|\lambda\vec{x}\| = |\lambda|\|\vec{x}\|$
- c. $\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| \leq \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$

Definition 10. For $\|\cdot\|_a, \|\cdot\|_b$ on S , $\|\cdot\|_a$ is said to be stronger than $\|\cdot\|_b$ if

$$\forall \{x_n\} \subset S : x_n \xrightarrow{d_a} x \implies x_n \xrightarrow{d_b} x$$

Which is equivalent to

Definition 11. $\|\cdot\|_a$ and $\|\cdot\|_b$ are said to be equivalent, $\|\cdot\|_a \sim \|\cdot\|_b$, if $\|\cdot\|_a$ is stronger than $\|\cdot\|_b$ and $\|\cdot\|_b$ is stronger than $\|\cdot\|_a$. This means that

$$\|\cdot\|_a \sim \|\cdot\|_b \iff \exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} : \forall x \in S \alpha \|\cdot\|_b \leq \|\cdot\|_a \leq \beta \|\cdot\|_b$$

Definition 12. The standard norms are defined as

- a. $\|\cdot\|_1 := \|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|$
- b. $\|\cdot\|_2 := \|x\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} = \left(|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2 \right)^{1/2}$
- c. $\|\cdot\|_p := \|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} = \left(|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p}, p > 1$
- d. $\|\cdot\|_\infty := \|x\|_\infty = \max_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|)$

Theorem 2. The norms $\|\cdot\|_1, \|\cdot\|_2, \|\cdot\|_p$, and $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ are all equivalent on \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof.

Lemma 1. $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_2$

Proof. $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_2$ is true iff

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}_+ :$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \|x\|_2 &\leq \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2 \\ \alpha \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \leq \beta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

From the Holder's inequality we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\|_1 &= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| (1) \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |1|^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ &\leq n^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

So for $0 < \alpha \leq n^{1/2}$ and $\beta \geq n^{1/2}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| &&\leq \beta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} &\leq n^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} &&\leq n^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1 \leq n^{\frac{1}{1-p}} \|x\|_2$$

which proves $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_2$. □

Lemma 2. $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_p$

Proof. $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_p$ is true iff

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}_+ :$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \|x\|_p &\leq \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_p \\ \alpha \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \leq \beta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \end{aligned}$$

From the Holder's inequality we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\|_1 &= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| (1) \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |1|^{(1-p)} \right)^{1/(1-p)} \\ &\leq n^{1/(1-p)} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \end{aligned}$$

So for $0 < \alpha \leq n^{1/(1-p)}$ and $\beta \geq n^{1/(1-p)}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| && \leq \beta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \\ \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} &\leq n^{1/(1-p)} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} && \leq n^{1/(1-p)} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\|x\|_p \leq \|x\|_1 \leq n^{\frac{1}{1-p}} \|x\|_p$$

which proves $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_p$. □

Lemma 3. $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_\infty$

Proof. $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_\infty$ is true iff

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}_+ :$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \|x\|_\infty &\leq \|x\|_1 \leq \beta \|x\|_\infty \\ \alpha \max_{i=1}^n |x_i| &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \leq \beta \max_{i=1}^n |x_i| \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, this is true for when $\alpha \in (0, 1]$. Similarly, when $\beta \geq n$ then $\sum_{i=1}^n \max_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ and then clearly greater than the $\|x\|_1$; therefore $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_\infty$. \square

From, Lemma 1, Lemma 2, and Lemma 3, it is clear that $\forall_{p>1}$ (which implies $\|x\|_2$ as well):

$$\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_p \leq \|x\|_1 \leq n^{1/1-p} \|x\|_p \leq n \|x\|_\infty$$

Therefore, $\|\cdot\|_1 \sim \|\cdot\|_2 \sim \|\cdot\|_p \sim \|\cdot\|_\infty$ on \mathbb{R}^n ($\forall_{p>1}$). \square

Problem 5

Are there any open sets A and B in \mathbb{R}^4 so that $\text{dist}(A, B) = 0$ but $A \cap B = \emptyset$?

Definition 13. For sets $A, B \subset S$ in metric space (S, d) ,

$$\text{dist}(A, B) := \inf\{d(x, y) : x \in A, y \in B\}$$

Proposition 1. There exists open sets A and B in \mathbb{R}^2 so that $d(A, B) = 0$ but $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Proof. $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ open means

$$\forall x \in A \exists \epsilon > 0 \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^4 d(x, y) < \epsilon \implies y \in A$$

and

$$\forall x \in B \exists \epsilon > 0 \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^4 d(x, y) < \epsilon \implies y \in B$$

$\text{dist}(A, B) = 0$ means that

$$\text{dist}(A, B) = \inf\{d(x, y) : x \in A, y \in B\} = 0$$

Additionally, $A \cap B = \emptyset$ implies that $\forall x \in A \forall y \in B x \neq y$.

In order for $\text{dist}(A, B) = 0$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$,

$$\exists x \in A : \inf_{y \in B} \{d(x, y)\} = 0 \wedge x \notin B$$

One solution to this is that

$$\exists x \in \partial A, y \in \partial B : d(x, y) = 0$$

Therefore, it is possible for open sets A and B in \mathbb{R}^4 so that $\text{dist}(A, B) = 0$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Essentially, $\partial A \cap \partial B \neq \emptyset$.

An example would be:

$$A := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 < r_1^2\}$$

and

$$B := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x + 2r_2)^2 + y^2 < r_2^2\}$$

with $r_1 = r_2 = r \in \mathbb{R}$.

□

Problem 6

Let $\mathcal{B}([0, 1])$ denote the set of all bounded functions from $[0, 1]$ to \mathbb{R} . Define the metric on $\mathcal{B}([0, 1])$ as $d(f, g) = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)|$.

Definition 14. For ordered field S and A bounded from above, $c \in S$ is a supremum of A , $c = \sup A$, if:

$$c = \sup A \iff (\forall a \in A, a \leq c) \wedge (\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists a \in A : c - \epsilon < a)$$

a) Show that this is indeed a metric.

Theorem 3. The metric $d : \mathcal{B}([0, 1]) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$d(f, g) := \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)|$$

is a metric on $\mathcal{B}([0, 1])$.

Proof. A metric must satisfy (i) non-negativity, (ii) Symmetry, and (iii) Triangle Inequality.

i) Non-negativity

$$d(f, g) = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)| \geq 0$$

Since $|f(x) - g(x)| \geq 0$, $\sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)| \geq 0$ and therefore $d(f, g) \geq 0$.

ii) Symmetry

$$d(f, g) = d(g, f)$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(f, g) &= \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)| = d(g, f) = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |g(x) - f(x)| \\ \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)| &= \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |(-1)(f(x) - g(x))| \\ \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)| &= \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |(f(x) - g(x))| \end{aligned}$$

Therefore it is symmetric.

iii) Triangle Inequality

$$d(f, h) \leq d(f, g) + d(g, h)$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(f, h) &\leq d(f, g) + d(g, h) \\ \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - h(x)| &\leq \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)| + \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |g(x) - h(x)| \\ \forall_{x \in [0, 1]} (|f(x) - h(x)| < d(f, h)) &\leq \forall_{x \in [0, 1]} (|f(x) - g(x)| < d(f, g)) + \forall_{x \in [0, 1]} (|g(x) - h(x)| < d(g, h)) \\ \forall_{x_1, x_2, x_3 \in [0, 1]} (|f(x_1) - h(x_1)| &\leq |f(x_2) - g(x_2)| + |g(x_3) - h(x_3)|) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose this is false

$$\begin{aligned} \exists_{x_1, x_2, x_3 \in [0, 1]} (|f(x_1) - h(x_1)| &> |f(x_2) - g(x_2)| + |g(x_3) - h(x_3)|) \\ \exists_{x_1, x_2, x_3 \in [0, 1]} : \left(|f(x_1) - h(x_1)| &> |f(x_1)| + |h(x_1)| > |f(x_2) - h(x_2)| + |h(x_3) - g(x_3)| \right. \\ &\left. > |f(x_2)| - |g(x_2)| + |g(x_3)| - |g(x_3)| \right) \end{aligned}$$

Which due to the triangular inequality property of $|\cdot|$, is clearly not possible and therefore the metric satisfies the Triangular inequality. \square

b) Prove that the space $(\mathcal{B}([0, 1]), d)$ is a complete metric space.

Definition 15. Metric space (S, d) is called a complete metric space if every cauchy sequence $\{a_n\} \subset S$ converges in S .

$$\forall \{a_n\} \subset S : \{a_n\} \text{ cauchy} \implies \exists a \in S : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$$

Theorem 4. $(\mathcal{B}([0, 1]), d)$ is a complete metric space.

Proof. Let $\{a_n\}$ be a cauchy sequence (i.e.)

$$\{a_n\} : \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N : \forall n, m > N \implies d(a_n, a_m) < \epsilon$$

Consider set $D_N = \{x \in S : \forall n < N a_n < x\}$

a. D is bounded (i.e $x \in D < a_N + \epsilon$)

b. D is nonempty (i.e $a_N - \epsilon \in D$)

For a fixed ϵ ,

$$\exists_N : \forall n > N+1 \implies d(a_n, a_{N+1}) < \epsilon$$

We then take $a = \sup\{D\}$.

Claim $a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists_N : \forall n > N \implies d(a, a_n) < \epsilon$$

Claim $y < a \implies y \in D$,

$$y \in D \wedge z < y \implies z \in D$$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists_{N(\epsilon)} : \forall n > N a_n > a - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

However, it is also true by definition of cauchy sequence:

$$d(a_m, a_n) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \forall_{m, n > \hat{N}}$$

Also,

$$n > \max[N, \hat{N}] : d(a_n, a) \leq d(a_n, a_m) + d(a_m, a) \leq \epsilon$$

Since $\epsilon > 0$ is arbitrarily selected and $d(a_n, a) < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$, this implies $\{a_n\}$ converges to a . \square

c) Is the unit ball $\mathcal{B}_1(0) = \{f(x) : d(f, 0) \leq 1\}$ compact?

Definition 16. Let (S, d) be a metric space with $A \subset S$,

a. For $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$, $U_\alpha \subset S$, is a cover of the set A if

$$A \subset \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$$

b. A cover $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ of A is an open cover if $\forall \alpha \in A$ U_α is an open set.

c. $\{V_\beta\}_{\beta \in B}$ is called a subcover of $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ if

(a) $\{V_\beta\}_{\beta \in B}$ is a cover of A

(b) $\forall \beta \in B \exists \alpha \in A V_\beta = U_\alpha$

d. A cover with a finite number of sets is called a finite cover.

Definition 17. For $A \subset (S, d)$, A is compact if for every open cover of A there exists a finite sub cover.

Proposition 2. $\mathcal{B}_1(0) = \{f(x) : d(f, 0) \leq 1\}$ is compact.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{B}_1(0) &= \{f(x) : d(f, 0) \leq 1\} \\ &= \left\{ f(x) : \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x) - 0| \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ f(x) : \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f(x)| \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \{f(x) : \forall x \in [0,1] |f(x)| \leq 1\} \\ &= \{f(x) : \forall x \in [0,1] -1 \leq f(x) \leq 1\} \end{aligned}$$

In other words, the ball is totally bounded. Since it is also known that this bounded subset of $\mathcal{B}([0, 1])$ is complete, it is therefore also compact. \square