

MATH 5301 Elementary Analysis - Homework 6

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Problem 1

a) Show that $\forall_{x>0} x \in \mathbb{R} \implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/n} = 1$

Definition 1. for $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$,
if $a \in \bar{S}_1$ then we say

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$$

if

$$\forall_{\epsilon>0} \exists_{\delta>0} \forall_{x \in S_1} : 0 < d_1(a, x) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), b) < \epsilon$$

or written in Ball form:

$$\forall_{\epsilon>0} \exists_{\delta(\epsilon)>0} : \forall_{x \in \dot{B}_\delta(a) \subset S_1} \implies f(x) \in B_\epsilon(b) \subset S_2$$

Theorem 1.

$$\forall_{x>0} x \in \mathbb{R} \implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/n} = 1$$

Proof.

$$\forall_{x>0} x \in \mathbb{R} = \forall_{x \in \mathbb{R}_+} \implies \forall_{\epsilon>0} \exists_{\delta>0} \forall_{x \in S_1} : 0 < d_1(a, x) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), b) < \epsilon$$

□

b) Show that for any bounded sequence $\{a_n\}$ and any sequence $\{b_n\}$, converging to zero, the sequence $\{a_n b_n\}$ converges to zero.

Theorem 2. $\forall \{a_n\}$ bounded $\wedge \forall \{b_n\}$ converging to zero $\implies \{a_n b_n\}$ converges to zero.

Proof.

$$(\exists_{N_1>0} : \forall_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n < N_1) \wedge (\forall_{\epsilon>0} \exists_{N_2(\epsilon)>0} \forall_{n>N_2} b_n < \epsilon) \implies \forall_{\epsilon>0} \exists_{N_3(\epsilon)>0} \forall_{n>N_3} a_n b_n < \epsilon$$
$$\forall_{\epsilon_{2,3}>0} \exists_{N_1, N_2, N_3>0} : \forall n > \max(N_2, N_3) ((a_n < N_1) \wedge (b_n < \epsilon_2) \implies a_n b_n < \epsilon_3)$$

Which clearly implies $\{a_n b_n\}$ converges to zero.

□

c) Find the limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$. Prove the convergence.

$$a_n = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \cdots + \sqrt{2}}}}$$

This is a pretty simple that it is just 2. This true for any of a similar type of problem.

d) Find the limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ where $a_n = 2 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{\ddots + \frac{1}{2}}}$. Prove the convergence.

This one just converges to around 2.4... not that that is the answer, I just ran out of time to do correctly...

Problem 2 True or False?

Definition 2. for $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$, $f(x)$ is a continuous function iff

$$\forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$$

a) If $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$ is continuous and $U \subset S_1$ is open then $f(U) \subset S_2$ is also open

Theorem 3. If $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$ is continuous and $U \subset S_1$ is open then $f(U) \subset S_2$ is also open.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon \wedge \\ \wedge \forall x \in U \exists \epsilon > 0 : B_\epsilon(x) \subset U \implies \\ \implies \forall f(x) \in F(U) \exists \epsilon > 0 : B_\epsilon(f(x)) \subset U \\ \forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \delta \wedge \\ \wedge \forall x \in U \exists \epsilon_1 > 0 : \forall y \in S_1 d(x, y) < \epsilon_1 \subset U \implies \\ \implies \forall f(x) \in F(U) \exists \epsilon_2 > 0 : \forall f(x) \in f(U) : \forall f(y) \in S_2 : d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon_2 \subset U \end{aligned}$$

which is clearly true. □

b) $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$ is continuous $\iff \forall C \subset S_2$ closed, the set $f^{-1}(C) \subset S_1$ is also closed.

Theorem 4. $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$ is continuous $\iff \forall C \subset S_2$ closed, the set $f^{-1}(C) \subset S_1$ is also closed.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon \iff \\ \iff \forall C \subset S_2 : \neg \text{open} \implies f^{-1}(C) \neg \text{open} \iff \forall c \in C \subset S_2 \exists ! x \in f^{-1}(C) \subset S_1 : f(x) = c \end{aligned}$$

By definition of a function, $\forall y \in Y \exists ! x \in f^{-1}(Y) : f(x) = y$ so there exists a one-to-one mapping and since f is continuous it therefore can maintain closeness. So true. □

c) If $f, g : (S, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous $\implies m(x) := \max(f(x), g(x))$ and $n(x) := \min(f(x), g(x))$ are both continuous.

Theorem 5. If $f, g : (S, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous $\implies m(x) := \max(f(x), g(x))$ and $n(x) := \min(f(x), g(x))$ are both continuous.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x, y \in S \forall \epsilon_{1,2} > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 : d(x, y) < \delta \implies d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon_1 \wedge d(g(x), g(y)) < \epsilon_2 \implies \\ \implies \forall x, y \in S \forall \epsilon_{3,4} > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 : d(x, y) < \delta \implies \\ \implies d(\max(f(x), g(x)), \max(f(y), g(y))) < \epsilon_3 \wedge \\ \wedge d(\min(f(x), g(x)), \min(f(y), g(y))) < \epsilon_4 \end{aligned}$$

Upon inspection, $\epsilon_3, \epsilon_4 \leq \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2$ at the worst case (at least that's what I learned when doing uncertainty calculations in the past...), therefore the implication is obvious. □

d) If $f : (S, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous then for any Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\} \in S$, the sequence $f(x_n)$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R}

Definition 3. For the metric space (S, d) , a sequence $\{x_n\}$ is considered a Cauchy Sequence if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \forall m, n > N d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$$

Theorem 6. If $f : (S, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous then for any Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\} \in S$, the sequence $f(x_n)$ is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} .

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x, y \in S \forall \epsilon_1 > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon_1) > 0 : d(x, y) < \delta &\implies d(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon_1 \implies \\ \implies (\forall \epsilon_2 > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \forall m, n > N d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon_2) &\implies \\ \implies (\forall \epsilon_3 > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \forall m, n > N d(f(x_n), f(x_m)) < \epsilon_3) \end{aligned}$$

From the continuous implication that: $\delta \rightarrow 0 \implies d(f(x), f(y)) \rightarrow 0$, the fact that $\{x_n\}$ converges mean that $\epsilon_2 \rightarrow 0 \implies d(f(x_n), f(x_m)) \rightarrow 0$. Therefore the sequence $\{f(x_n)\}$ would be considered a Cauchy sequence. \square

Problem 3 Prove the following properties of continuous functions:

a) $\forall_{a,b \in \mathbb{R}} \forall_{f,g: S_1 \rightarrow S_2}$ **continuous** $\implies (af + bg)(x) := af(x) + bg(x) : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ **continuous**.

Theorem 7. $\forall_{a,b \in \mathbb{R}} \forall_{f,g: S_1 \rightarrow S_2}$ *continuous* $\implies (af + bg)(x) := af(x) + bg(x) : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ *continuous*.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \forall_{a,b \in \mathbb{R}} \forall_{f,g: S_1 \rightarrow S_2} : \\
 & \quad (\forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon) \wedge \\
 & \quad \wedge (\forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(g(x), g(y)) < \epsilon) \implies \\
 & \quad \implies (\forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(af(x) + bg(x), af(y) + bg(y)) < \epsilon) \\
 & \forall_{a,b \in \mathbb{R}} \forall_{f,g: S_1 \rightarrow S_2} : \\
 & \quad \forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon_{1,2,3} > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies \\
 & \quad \implies (d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon_1 \wedge (d_2(g(x), g(y)) < \epsilon_2)) \implies \\
 & \quad \implies d_2(af(x) + bg(x), af(y) + bg(y)) < \epsilon_3
 \end{aligned}$$

Which by the additive and multiplicative properties of a metric space, along with the triangular inequality, this is clearly true:

$$d_2(af(x) + bg(x), af(y) + bg(y)) \leq ad_2(f(x), f(y)) + bd_2(g(x), g(y))$$

Therefore this statement is true. □

b) $\forall_{f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2}$ **continuous** and $\forall_{h: S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}}$ **continuous** $\implies (hf)(x) := h(x) \cdot f(x) : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ **continuous**.

Theorem 8. $\forall_{f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2}$ *continuous* and $\forall_{h: S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}}$ *continuous* $\implies (hf)(x) := h(x) \cdot f(x) : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ *continuous*.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \forall_{f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2} : \forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon \wedge \\
 & \quad \wedge \forall_{h: S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} : \forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(h(x), h(y)) < \epsilon \implies \\
 & \quad \implies (\forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2(h(x) \cdot f(x), h(y) \cdot f(y)) < \epsilon) \\
 & \forall_{f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2} \wedge \forall_{h: S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} : \forall_{x \in S_1} \forall_{\epsilon_{1,2,3} > 0} \exists_{\delta(x, \epsilon) > 0} \forall_{y \in S_1} : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies \\
 & \quad \implies (d_2(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon_1 \wedge d_2(h(x), h(y)) < \epsilon_2 \implies d_2(h(x) \cdot f(x), h(y) \cdot f(y)) < \epsilon_3)
 \end{aligned}$$

Which by the multiplicative properties of a metric space this is clearly true:

$$d_2(h(x) \cdot f(x), h(y) \cdot f(y)) \leq d_2(h(x), h(y)) \cdot d_2(f(x), f(y))$$

Therefore this statement is true. □

c) $h(x) \neq 0 \forall x \in S_1 \implies \frac{1}{h(x)}$ **is continuous.**

Note: assuming $h : S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and continuous.

Theorem 9. $\forall h : S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ *continuous* $\implies (h(x))^{-1} := \frac{1}{h(x)} : S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ *continuous*.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall h : S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} : \forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta &\implies d_2(h(x), h(y)) < \epsilon \implies \\ &\implies \left(\forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta \implies d_2\left(\frac{1}{h(x)}, \frac{1}{h(y)}\right) < \epsilon \right) \\ \forall h : S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} : \forall x \in S_1 \forall \epsilon_{1,2} > 0 \exists \delta(x, \epsilon) > 0 \forall y \in S_1 : d_1(x, y) < \delta &\implies d_2(h(x), h(y)) < \epsilon \implies \\ &\implies d_2(h(x), h(y)) < \epsilon_1 \wedge d_2\left(\frac{1}{h(x)}, \frac{1}{h(y)}\right) < \epsilon_2 \end{aligned}$$

Within $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, d_2)$,

$$d_2(a, b) < \epsilon_1 \implies \exists \epsilon_2 > 0 : d_2\left(\frac{1}{a}, \frac{1}{b}\right) < \epsilon_2$$

Therefore it's true. □

Problem 4 Prove the following statement:

If A and B are two closed nonempty disjoint sets in the metric space (S, d) then there exists a continuous function $\mathcal{X}(x)$ such that $\mathcal{X}(x) = 0$ for all $x \in A$ and $\mathcal{X} = 1$ for all $x \in B$.

Definition 4. A function $f : (S_1, d_1) \rightarrow (S_2, d_2)$ is considered **Lipschitz Continuous Function** if

$$\exists_{L>0} : \forall_{x,y \in S_1} d_2(f(x), f(y)) \leq L d_1(x, y)$$

Theorem 10.

$$A, B \neq \emptyset \in (S, d) : A \cap B = \emptyset \implies \exists_{\mathcal{X}: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ continuous}} : (\forall_{x \in A} \mathcal{X} = 0) \wedge (\forall_{x \in B} \mathcal{X} = 1)$$

Proof. Define the distance from the point x to the set A as

$$\rho_A(x) := \inf_{y \in A} d(x, y)$$

Lemma 1.

$$\rho_A(x) = 0 \iff x \in \bar{A}$$

Proof. The lower bound of $d(x, y)$ for $y \in A$ will never be zero unless $x \in \bar{A}$, so clearly the inf will be zero if and only if $x \in \bar{A}$. \square

Lemma 2. $\rho_A(x)$ is lipshits with $L = 1$

Proof.

$$\exists_{L>0} : \forall_{x,y \in S} d(\rho_A(x), \rho_A(y)) \leq L d(x, y)$$

Let $L = 1$,

$$\forall_{x,y \in S} d(\rho_A(x), \rho_A(y)) \leq d(x, y)$$

By definition of $\rho_A(x)$,

$$\rho_A(x) = \inf_{y \in A} d(x, y) \leq d(x, y) \forall y \in A$$

Therefore, $d(\rho_A(x), \rho_A(y)) \leq d(x, y)$ and $\rho_A(x)$ is lipshits with $L = 1$. \square

Consider $\mathcal{X}(x) = \frac{\rho_B(x)}{\rho_A(x) + \rho_B(x)}$, Although I believe it has merit I will actually be using the similar version:

$\mathcal{X}(x) = \frac{\rho_A(x)}{\rho_A(x) + \rho_B(x)}$ From lemma 2 it is clear that $\rho_A(x)$ and $\rho_B(x)$ are Lipschitz and therefore this rational combination of these will still be continuous within its defined regions. From Lemma 1, it is clear that $\frac{\rho_A(x)}{\rho_A(x) + \rho_B(x)} = 0 \forall_{x \in \bar{A}}$ and $\frac{\rho_A(x)}{\rho_A(x) + \rho_B(x)} = 1 \forall_{x \in \bar{B}}$. \square

Problem 5 Which of following sets in \mathbb{R}^2 are compact?

Definition 5. 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 $\forall_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$ 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 6. For $A \subset (S, d)$, A is compact if for every open cover of A there exists a finite sub cover.

a) $A = \{(x, y) : x^2 - y^2 \leq 1\}$

This set (a cone I believe) is not bounded and therefore no, through contradiction of the necessary (but insufficient) condition of boundedness, it is not compact.

b) $B = \{(x, y) : 0 < x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$

This set is a disk, but because it excludes the origin it is no longer closed which is a necessary (but insufficient) condition of boundedness, therefore it is not compact.

c) $C = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^4 \leq 1\}$

This set is compact. Although it is technically not a disk, it follows the same principle because it contains its boundary (meaning it is closed), but generally it is both complete and totally bounded, which is equivalent to being compact.

d) $D = \{(1, \frac{1}{n}) : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup (1, 0)$

For the one single dimension $(1/n)$ it is clear that it is closed and bounded (which are necessary but not sufficient conditions). Similarly, the dimension where $1 = 1$ is also both closed and bounded. To prove compactness, one could use the equivalency of compactness with: $\forall_{a_k \in \mathbb{N}} \exists_{a_{n_k}} : a_{n_k} \rightarrow a \in A$.

Problem 6 Let $A \subset S$ be a compact set. Show the following:

Note: it is assumed that $B, C \subset S$ as well as I believe that was the intent.

a) ∂A is compact.

When A is compact, it will be closed meaning $\partial A \subset A$. Additionally, every sequence within A will have a converging subsequence and since ∂A will maintain both its completeness and its total boundedness. From the original definition of a compact set, it is known that a finite subcover exists around the entirety of the set A , and from $\partial A \subset A$ it can be concluded that a finite subcover will exist for this boundary itself; therefore ∂A is compact.

b) For any closed B , $A \cap B$ is compact.

When A is compact, it will also be closed and so since B is closed, $A \cap B$ is also closed. Additionally, by definition of an intersection of sets, $A \cap B \subset A$. Since A is compact, it is both complete and totally bounded which I believe means that closed subsets of A will remain complete and totally bounded. Since $A \cap B$ is closed and $A \cap B \subset A$, $A \cap B$ is complete and totally bounded $\iff A \cap B$ is compact.

c) For any compact C , $A \cup C$ is compact.

From the original definition of a compact set, it is known that a finite subcover exists around the entirety of sets A and C . $A \cup C$ will be closed (because it is a finite union of closed sets) and I believe the completeness and boundedness from each compact set will be maintained. Since both A and C individually were covered by finite subcovers, $A \cup C$ could then also be covered by a finite number of subcovers. Therefore $A \cup C$ satisfies the criteria to be a compact set.

d) Union of infinitely many compact sets may be not compact.

One of the necessary (but not sufficient) conditions of a compact set is that it is bounded. If an infinitely many compact sets are structured so that they become unbounded this could violate that necessary condition.