# Math 230A Notes

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## Chapter 1

# Basic Topology

### 1.1 Compactness

**Definition 1.1.1.** (Compact) Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $K \subseteq X$ . K is said to be compact if every open cover of K has a finite subcover. That is, if  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  is any open cover of K, then

$$\exists \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \text{ such that } K \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n}$$

**Example 1.1.1.** Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $E \subseteq X$ . If E is finite, then E is compact.

**Proof.** The reason is as follows:

Let  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  be any open cover of E. Our goal is to show that this open cover has a finite subcover. If  $E=\emptyset$ , there is nothing to prove.

If  $E \neq \emptyset$ , denote the elements of E by  $x_1, ...x_n$ :

$$E = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$$

. We have:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x_1 \in E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_\alpha \implies \exists \alpha_1 \in \Lambda \text{ such that } x_1 \in O_{\alpha_1} \\ \\ x_2 \in E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_\alpha \implies \exists \alpha_2 \in \Lambda \text{ such that } x_2 \in O_{\alpha_2} \\ \\ \vdots \\ \\ x_n \in E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_\alpha \implies \exists \alpha_n \in \Lambda \text{ such that } x_n \in O_{\alpha_n} \end{array}$$

Hence,

$$E = x_1, ..., x_n \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n}$$

So,  $O_{\alpha_1}, ..., O_{\alpha_n}$  is a finite subcover of E.

**Example 1.1.2.** Consider  $(\mathbb{R}, ||)$  and let  $E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{0\}$ . Prove that E is compact. (In general, if  $a_n \to a$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  then  $F = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{a\}$  is compact.)

**Proof.** Let  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{alpha\in\Lambda}$  be any open cover of E. Our goal is to show that this open cover has a finite subcover.

$$\begin{cases}
0 \in E \\
E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_{\alpha}
\end{cases} \implies 0 \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_{\alpha} \implies \exists \alpha_{0} \in \Lambda \text{ such that } 0 \in O_{\alpha_{0}}$$

$$\begin{cases}
0 \in O_{\alpha_{0}} \\
O_{\alpha_{0}} \text{ is open}
\end{cases} \implies \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \subseteq O_{\alpha_{0}}$$
(I)

By the archimedean property of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

 $\exists m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$ 

so

$$\forall n \ge m \quad \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon.$$

Hence

$$\forall n \ge m \quad \frac{1}{n} \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \subseteq O_{\alpha_0} \tag{II}$$

Notice that  $E = \{0, \frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, ..., \frac{1}{m-1}, \frac{1}{m}, \frac{1}{m+1}, \frac{1}{m+2}, ...\}$  for  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . All that remains is to find a subcover for the elements  $\frac{1}{1}, ..., \frac{1}{m-1}$ :

By (I), (II), and (III), we have

$$E \subseteq O_{\alpha_0} \cup \ldots \cup O_{\alpha_{m-1}}$$

Thus,  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  has a finite subcover. Therefore E is compact.

**Remark.** If X itself is compact, we say (X, d) is a compact metric space. If  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in \Lambda}$  is any collection of open sets such that  $X = \bigcup_{{\alpha} \in \Lambda} O_{\alpha}$ , then

$$\exists \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in \Lambda \text{ such that } X = O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n}.$$

#### **Theorem 1.1.1.** Compact subsets of metric spaces are closed.

**Proof.** Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $K \subseteq X$  be compact. We want to show that K is closed. It is enough to show that  $K^c$  is open. To this end, we need to show that every point of  $K^c$  is an interior point. Let  $a \in K^c$ . Our goal is to show that

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_{\epsilon}(a) \subseteq K^{c}.$$

That is, we want to show that

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_{\epsilon}(a) \cap K = \emptyset.$$

We have

$$a \in K^c \implies a \notin K$$
  
 $\implies \forall x \in K \ d(x, a) > 0.$ 

For all  $x \in K$ , let

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{1}{4}d(x, a).$$

Clearlly,

$$\forall x \in K \ N_{\epsilon_x}(x) \cap N_{\epsilon_x}(a) = \emptyset.$$

Notice that

$$\{N_{\epsilon_x}(x)\}_{x\in K}$$
 is an open cover of  $K$ .

Since K is compact, there is a finite subcover

$$\exists x_1, ..., x_n \in K \text{ such that } K \subseteq N_{\epsilon_{x_1}}(x_1) \cup ... \cup N_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(x_n)$$

and of course

$$\begin{cases} N_{\epsilon_{x_1}}(x_1) \cap N_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(a) = \emptyset \\ \vdots \\ N_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(x_n) \cap N_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(a) = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

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Let  $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_{x_1}, ..., \epsilon_{x_n}\}$ . Clearly,

$$N_{\epsilon}(a) \subseteq N_{\epsilon_{x,i}}(a) \ \forall 1 \le i \le n.$$

Hence

$$\begin{cases} N_{\epsilon_{x_1}}(x_1) \cap N_{\epsilon}(a) = \emptyset \\ \vdots \\ N_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(x_n) \cap N_{\epsilon}(a) = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Therefore

$$N_{\epsilon}(a) \cap [N_{\epsilon_{x_1}}(x_1) \cup \ldots \cup N_{\epsilon_{x_n}}(x_n)] = \emptyset.$$

So,

$$N_{\epsilon}(a) \cap K = \emptyset.$$

**Note.** So, it has been shown that compact  $\implies$  closed and bounded  $\checkmark$ . However, it is not necessarily the case that closed and bounded  $\implies$  compact.

**Theorem 1.1.2.** Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $K \subseteq X$  be compact. Let  $E \subseteq K$  be closed. Then E is compact.

**Proof.** Let  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  be an open cover of E. Our goal is to show that this cover has a finite subcover. Not that

 $E ext{ is closed} \implies E^c ext{ is open.}$ 

We have

$$E \subseteq K \subseteq X = E \cup E^c \subseteq \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_\alpha\right) \cup E^c$$

Therefore,  $E^c$  together with  $\{O_\alpha\}_{\alpha\in\Lambda}$  is an open cover for the compact set K. Since K is compact, this open cover has a finite subcover:

 $\exists \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in \Lambda \text{ such that } K \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n} \cup E^c.$ 

Considering  $E \subseteq K$ , we can write

$$E \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup O_{\alpha_n} \cup E^c.$$

However,  $E \cap E^c = \emptyset$ , so

$$E \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n}$$
.

So,  $O_{\alpha_1}, ..., O_{\alpha_n}$  can be considered as the finite subcover that we were looking for.

**Corollary 1.1.1.** If F is closed and K is compact, then  $F \cap K$  is compact.  $(F \cap K)$  is a closed subset of the compact set K)

Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $Y = [0, \infty)$  (Y is a subspace of X). Then

$$[0,\epsilon)$$
 is open in Y because  $[0,\epsilon)=(-\epsilon,\epsilon)\cap Y$ .

**Theorem 1.1.3.** Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $K \subseteq Y \subseteq X$  with  $Y \neq \emptyset$ . K is compact relative to X if and only if K is compact relative to Y.

**Proof.** ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose K is compact relative to Y. We want to show K is compact relative X. Let  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  be a collection of open sets in X that covers K. Our goal is to show that this cover has a finite subcover. Note that

$$K = K \cap Y \subseteq \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} O_{\alpha}\right) \cap Y = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \left(O_{\alpha} \cap Y\right).$$

By Theorem 2.30, for each  $\alpha \in \Lambda$ ,  $O_{\alpha} \cap Y$  is an open set in the metric space  $(Y, d^Y)$ . So,  $\{O_{\alpha} \cap Y\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$  is a collection of open sets in  $(Y, d^Y)$  that covers K. Since K is compact relative to Y, there exists a finite

subcover:

$$\begin{split} \exists \alpha_1,...,\alpha_n \in \Lambda \text{ such that } K \subseteq (O_{\alpha_1} \cap Y) \cup ... \cup (O_{\alpha_n} \cap Y) \\ \subseteq (O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n}) \cap Y \\ \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n} \\ \Longrightarrow K \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n} \text{(we have a finite subcover)} \end{split}$$

 $(\Rightarrow)$  Now suppose K is compact relative to X. We want to show K is compact relative to Y. Let  $\{G_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  be a collection of open sets in  $(Y,d^Y)$  that covers K. Our goal is to show that this cover has a finite subcover. It follows from Theorem 2.30 that

$$\forall \alpha \in \Lambda \ \exists O_{\alpha_{\text{open}}} \subseteq X \text{ such that } G_{\alpha} = O_{\alpha} \cap Y.$$

We have

$$K\subseteq\bigcup_{\alpha\in\Lambda}G_\alpha=\bigcup_{\alpha\in\Lambda}(O_\alpha\cap Y)=\left(\bigcup_{\alpha\in\Lambda}O_\alpha\right)\cap Y\subseteq\bigcup_{\alpha\in\Lambda}O_\alpha.$$

So,  $\{O_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  is an open cover for K in the metric space (X,d). Since K is compact,

$$\exists \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in \Lambda \text{ such that } K \subseteq O_{\alpha_1} \cup ... \cup O_{\alpha_n}.$$

Therefore,

$$K = K \cap Y \subseteq (O_{\alpha_1} \cup \ldots \cup O_{\alpha_n}) \cap y = (O_{\alpha_1} \cap Y) \cup \ldots \cup (O_{\alpha_n} \cap Y) = G_{\alpha_1} \cup \ldots \cup G_{\alpha_n}.$$

(We have found the finite subcover we were looking for)

Consider  $X = \mathbb{R}$  and  $Y = (0, \infty)$ .

(0,2] is closed and bounded in Y, but it is not closed and bounded in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$(0,2] = [-2,2] \cap Y$$

**Theorem 1.1.4.** If E is an infinite subset of a compact set K, then E has a limit point in K.  $E' \cap K \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** Assume foolishly that  $E' \cap K = \emptyset$ ; for every point you select in K, that point will not be a limit point of E. That is,

$$\begin{cases} \forall a \in E & a \notin E' \\ \forall b \in K \backslash E & b \notin E' \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{cases} \forall a \in E \ \exists \epsilon_a > 0 \text{ such that } N_{\epsilon_a}(a) \cap (E \setminus \{a\}) = \emptyset \\ \forall b \in K \setminus E \ \exists \delta_b > 0 \text{ such that } N_{\delta_b}(b) \cap (E \setminus \{b\}) = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Thus

$$\begin{cases} \forall a \in E \ \exists \epsilon_a > 0 \text{ such that } N_{\epsilon_a}(a) \cap E = \{a\} \\ \forall b \in K \backslash E \ \exists \delta_b > 0 \text{ such that } N_{\epsilon_b}(b) \cap E = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Clearly, 
$$K \subseteq \left(\bigcup_{a \in E} N_{\epsilon_a}(a)\right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{b \in K \setminus E} N_{\delta_b}(b)\right)$$
. Since  $K$  is compact,

 $\exists a_1,...,a_n \in E, b_1,...,b_n \in K \backslash E \text{ such that } E \subseteq K \subseteq \left(N_{\epsilon_{a_1}}(a_1) \cup ... \cup N_{\epsilon_{a_n}}(a_n)\right) \cup \left(N_{\delta_{b_1}}(b_1) \cup ... \cup N_{\delta_{b_n}}(b_n)\right)$ 

Since for all  $b \in K \setminus E$ ,  $N_{\delta_b}(b) \cap E = \emptyset$ , we can conclude that

$$E \subseteq (N_{\epsilon_{a_1}}(a_1) \cup \dots \cup N_{\epsilon_{a_n}}(a_n))$$

Hence,

$$\begin{split} E &= E \cap \left[ N_{\epsilon_{a_1}} a_1 \cup \ldots \cup N_{\epsilon_{a_n}} a_n \right] \\ &= \left[ E \cap N_{\epsilon_{a_1}} (a_1) \right] \cup \ldots \cup \left[ E \cap N_{\epsilon_{a_n}} (a_n) \right] \\ &= \left\{ a_1 \right\} \cup \ldots \cup \left\{ a_n \right\} \\ &= \left\{ a_1, \ldots, a_n \right\}. \end{split}$$

This contradicts the assumption that E is infinite.

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**Remark.** 1. K is compact

- 2. Every infinite subset of K has a limit point in K
- 3. Every sequence in K has a subsequence that converges to a point in K

$$\stackrel{A_1}{[1,\infty]}, \stackrel{A_2}{[2,\infty]}, \stackrel{A_3}{[3,\infty]}, \stackrel{A_4}{[4,\infty]}, \dots$$

$$A_2 \cap A_3 \cap A_4 = [4, \infty) = A_4$$

$$A_1 \cap A_3 \cap A_4 = A_4$$

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \emptyset$$

**Theorem 1.1.5.** Let (X,d) be a metric space, and let  $\{K_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  be a collection of compact sets. Every finite intersection is nonempty.

**Proof.** Assume for contradiction that  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} K_{\alpha} = \emptyset$ . Let  $\alpha_0 \in \Lambda$ . We have

$$K_{\alpha_0} \cap \left(\bigcap_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_a lpha\right) = \emptyset$$

So,

$$k_{alpha_0} \subseteq \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda, \alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_{\alpha}\right)^c \implies K_{\alpha_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{a\alpha \in Lambda, \alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_{\alpha}^c$$

So,  $\{K_{\alpha}^c\}_{\alpha\in\Lambda,\alpha\neq\alpha_0}$  is an open cover of  $K_{\alpha_0}$ . Since  $K_{\alpha_0}$  is compact,

$$\exists \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \text{ such that } K_{\alpha_0} \subseteq K_{\alpha_1}^c \cap ... \cap K_{\alpha_n}^c \subseteq \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i}\right)^c$$

So,

$$K_{\alpha_0} \cap \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i}\right) = \emptyset.$$

This contradicts the assumption that every finite intersection is nonempty.

### 1.2 K-Cells

Last time, we talked about:

- 1. Compact  $\implies$  closed and bounded.
- 2. Closed subsets of compact sets are compact.
- 3. If  $\{K_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  is compact and every finite intersection is nonempty, then  $\bigcap_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}K_{\alpha}\neq\emptyset$

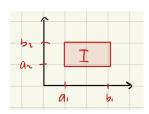
**Corollary 1.2.1.** If  $K_1 \supseteq K_2 \supseteq K_3 \supseteq K_4 \supseteq ...$  is a sequence of nonempty compact sets, then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} K_n$  is nonempty.

**Property 1.2.1.** (Nested Interval Property) If  $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$  is a sequence of closed intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \supseteq ...$ , then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$  is nonempty.

In  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , closed and bounded implies compactness.

**Definition 1.2.1.** (K-Cell) The set  $I = [a_1, b_1] \times ... \times [a_k, b_k]$  is called a k-cell in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

For example,  $I = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2]$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 



**Theorem 1.2.1.** (Nested Cell Property) If  $I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \supseteq ...$  is a nested sequence of k-cells, then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let

$$I_n = [a_1^{(1)}, b_1^{(1)}] \times \dots \times [a_k^{(k)}, b_k^{(k)}].$$

Also, let

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq k \ A_i^{(i)} = [a_i^{(n)}, b_i^{(n)}].$$

So,

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ I_n = A_1^{(n)} \times ... \times A_k^{(n)}.$$

Since for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $I_n \supseteq I_{n+1}$ , we have

$$\forall 1 \leq i \leq k \ A_i^{(n)} \supseteq A_i^{(n+1)}$$

That is,

$$\begin{split} I_1 &= A_1^{(1)} \times ... \times A_k^{(1)} \\ I_2 &= A_2^{(2)} \times ... \times A_k^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ I_n &= A_n^{(1)} \times ... \times A_n^{(n)} \\ \vdots \\ \end{split}$$

Hence, it follows from the nested interval property that

$$\exists x_1 \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_1^{(n)}, \exists x_2 \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_2^{(n)}, ... \exists x_k \in \bigcap n = 1^{\infty} A_k^{(n)}$$

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Thus,

$$(x_1, ..., x_n) \in \left[\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_1^{(n)}\right] \times \left[\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_2^{(n)}\right] \times ... \times \left[\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_k^{(n)}\right]$$

$$\subseteq \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[A_1^{(1)} \times ... \times A_k^{(n)}\right]$$

$$= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$$

So, 
$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$$
.

#### **Theorem 1.2.2.** Every k-cell in $\mathbb{R}^k$ is compact.

**Proof.** Here we will prove the claim for 2-cells. The proof for a general k-cell is completely analogous. Let  $I = [a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2]$  be a 2-cell. Let  $\overrightarrow{a} = (a_1, a_2)$  and  $\overrightarrow{b} = (b_1, b_2)$ . Let  $\delta = d(\overrightarrow{a}, \overrightarrow{b}) = ||\overrightarrow{a} - \overrightarrow{b}||_2 = sqrt(a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2$ . Noe that if  $\overrightarrow{x} = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $\overrightarrow{y} = (y_1, y_2)$  are any two points in I, then

$$\begin{cases} x_1, y_1 \in [a_1, b_1] & \Longrightarrow |x_1 - y_1| \le |b_1 - a_1| \\ x_2, y_2 \in [a_2, b_2] & \Longrightarrow |x_2 - y_2| \le |b_2 - a_2| \end{cases} \Longrightarrow \sqrt{|x_1 - y_1|^2 + |x_2 - y_2|^2} \le \sqrt{|a_1 - b_1|^2 + |a_2 - b_2|^2} = \delta$$
So

$$d(\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{y}) \leq \delta.$$

Let's assume for contradiction that I is not compact. So, there exists an open cover  $\{G_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$  of I that does not have a finite subcover. For each  $1 \leq i \leq 2$ , divide  $[a_i, b_i]$  into two subintervals of equal length:

$$c_i = \frac{a_i + b_i}{2}, \quad [a_i, b_i] = [a_i, c_i] \cup [c_i, b_i]$$

These subintervals determine four 2-cells. There is at least one of these four 2-cells that is not covered by any finite subcollection of  $\{G_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Lambda}$ . Let's call it  $I_1$ . Notice that

$$\forall \overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{y} \in I_1 \ ||\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{y}||_2 \le \frac{\delta}{2}$$

Now, subdivide  $I_1$  into four 2-cells and continue this process. We will obtain a sequence of 2-cells

$$I_1, I_2, I_3, \dots$$

such that

$$(i)I \supseteq I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq \dots$$

$$(ii) \forall \overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{y} \in I_n \ ||\overrightarrow{x} - \overrightarrow{y}|| \leq \frac{\delta}{2^n}$$

 $(iii) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, I_n \text{ cannot be covered by a finite subcollection of } \{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}.$ 

By the nested cell property,

$$\exists \overrightarrow{x}^* \in I \cap I_1 \cap I_2 \cap ...$$

In particular,

$$\overrightarrow{x}^* \in I \subseteq \{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \implies \exists \alpha_0 \text{ such that } \overrightarrow{x}^* \in G_{\alpha_0}$$

We have

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \overrightarrow{x}^* \in G_{\alpha_0} \\ G_{\alpha_0} \text{ is open} \end{array} \right\} \implies \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } N_r(\overrightarrow{x}^*) \subseteq G_{\alpha_0}$$

Choose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\frac{\delta}{2^n} < r$ . We claim that  $I_n \in N_r(\overrightarrow{x}^*)$ . Indeed, suppose  $\overrightarrow{y} \in I_n$ , we have

$$\begin{cases} \overrightarrow{y} \in I_n \\ \overrightarrow{x}^* \in I_n \end{cases}$$

so  $||\overrightarrow{y} - \overrightarrow{x}|| \le \frac{\delta}{2^n} < r$ . Hence  $\overrightarrow{y} \in N_r(\overrightarrow{x}^*)$ . We have

$$\left. \begin{array}{l}
I_n \subseteq N_r(\overrightarrow{x}^*) \\
N_r(\overrightarrow{x}^*) \subseteq G_{\alpha_0}
\end{array} \right\} \implies I_n \subseteq G_{\alpha_0}$$

This contradicts (iii).

**Theorem 1.2.3.** (Heine-Borel Theorem) Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ . The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. E is closed and bounded.
- 2. E is compact.
- 3. Every infinite subset of E has a limit point in E.

**Proof.** We will show 1.  $\implies$  2.  $\implies$  3.  $\implies$  1.

1.  $\implies$  2. : Suppose E is closed and bounded. We want to show that E is compact. Since E is bounded, there exists a k-cell, I, that containes E. We have

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} E \subseteq I \\ I \text{ is compact} \\ E \text{ is closed} \end{array} \right\} \implies E \text{ is compact.}$$

2.  $\implies$  3. : Supposed E is compact. We want to show E is limit point compact. This was proved last time, in Theorem 2.37.

3.  $\implies$  1. Suppose E is limit point compact. We want to show that E is closed and bounded. This will be done in HW 6.

**Theorem 1.2.4.** (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem) If  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ , E is infinite, and E is bounded, then  $E' \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** If E is bounded, then there exists a k-cell I such that  $E \subseteq I$ . By Theorem 2.40, I is compact. By Theorem 2.41, I is limit point compact. So every infinite set in I has a limit point in I. In particular, E has a limit point in I. So,  $E' \neq \emptyset$ .

## Chapter 2

# Numerical Sequences and Series

### 2.1 Sequences and Convergence

**Definition 2.1.1.** (Convergence of a Sequence) Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X.  $(x_n)$  converges to a limit  $x \in X$  if and only if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that if n > N,  $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$ .

#### Notation 1.

- 1.  $x_n \to x$  as  $n \to \infty$
- $2. x_n \to x$
- 3.  $\lim_{x\to\infty} x_n = x$

**Remark.** (i)  $x_n \to x \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } \forall n > N \ d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$ .

- (ii) If  $(x_n)$  does not converge, we say it diverges.
- (iii)  $x_n \to x \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } \forall n > N \ d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$  $x_n \to x \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } \forall n > N \ d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$

**Definition 2.1.2.** (Bounded Sequence) Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X.  $(x_n)$  is said to be bounded if the set  $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a bounded set in the metric space X.

$$(x_n)$$
 is bounded  $\iff \exists q \in X \ \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subseteq N_r(q)$   
 $\iff \exists q \in X \ \exists r > 0 \text{ such that } d(x,q) < r$ 

**Example 2.1.1.** Consider  $\mathbb{R}$  equipped with the standard metric.

- (i)  $x_n = (-1)^n$ : this sequence is bounded, has a finite range  $\{-1,1\}$ , and diverges.
- (ii)  $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$ : this sequence is bounded, has an infinite range, and converges to 0.
- (iii)  $x_n = 1$ : this sequence is bounded, has a finite range, and converges to 1.
- (iv)  $x_n = n^2$ : this sequence is undbounded, has an infinite range, and diverges.

**Example 2.1.2.** Consider  $Y = (0, \infty)$  with the induced metric from  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$ : this sequence is bounded, has infinite range, and diverges.

**Theorem 2.1.1.** (An equivalent characterization of convergence) Let (X, d) be a metric space.

 $x_n \to x \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ N_{\epsilon}(x)$  contains  $x_n$  for all but at most finitely many n.

Proof.

$$\begin{array}{lll} x_n \to x &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \text{such that} \ \forall n > N \ d(x_n,x) < \epsilon \\ &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \text{such that} \ \forall n > N \ x_n \in N_\epsilon(x) \\ &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \text{such that} \ N_\epsilon(x) \ \text{contains} \ x_n \ \forall n > N \\ &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ N_\epsilon(x) \ \text{contains} \ x_n \ \text{for all but at most finitely many} \ n. \end{array}$$

**Theorem 2.1.2.** (Uniqueness of a Limit) Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. If  $x_n \to x$  in X and  $x_n \to \overline{x}$  in X, then  $x = \overline{x}$ .

To prove this theorem, we make use of the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.1.1.** Suppose  $a \ge 0$ . If  $a < \epsilon \ \forall \epsilon > 0$ , then a = 0.

**Proof.** In order to prove that  $x = \bar{x}$ , it is enough to show that  $d(x, \bar{x}) = 0$ . To this end, according to Lemma 2.1.1, it is enough to show that

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ d(x, \bar{x}) < epsilon.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given.

$$x_n \to x \implies \exists N_1 \text{ such that } \forall n > N_1 \ d(x_n, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$
  
 $x_n \to \bar{x} \implies \exists N_2 \text{ such that } \forall n > N_2 \ d(x_n, \bar{x}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ 

Let  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ . Pick any n > N. We have

$$d(x, \bar{x}) \le d(x, x_n) + d(x_n, \bar{x})$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$= \epsilon.$$

**Theorem 2.1.3.** (Convergent  $\Longrightarrow$  bounded) Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. If  $x_n \to x$  in X, then  $(x_n)$  is bounded.

**Proof.** By definition of convergence with  $\epsilon = 1$ , we have

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall n > N \ x_n \in N_1(x).$$

Now, let  $r = \max\{1, d(x_1, x), d(x_2, x), ..., d(x_n, x)\} + 1$ . Then, clearly,

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ d(x_n, x) < r$$

Hence,

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ x_n \in N_r(x).$$

Therefore,  $(x_n)$  is bounded.

**Corollary 2.1.1.** (contrapositive) If  $(x_n)$  is NOT bounded in X, then  $(x_n)$  diverges in X.

**Theorem 2.1.4.** (Limit Point is a Limit of a Sequence) Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $E \subseteq X$ . Suppose  $x \in E'$ . Then there exists a sequence  $x_1, x_2, ...$  of distinct points in  $E \setminus \{x\}$  that converges to x.

**Proof.** Since  $x \in E'$ ,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ N_{\epsilon}(x) \cap (E \setminus \{x\})$$
 is infinite.

In particular,

for 
$$\epsilon=1$$
  $\exists x_1\in E\backslash\{x\}$  such that  $d(x_1,x)<1$  for  $\epsilon=\frac{1}{2}$   $\exists x_2\in E\backslash\{x\}$  such that  $x_2\neq x_1\wedge d(x_2,x)<\frac{1}{2}$  for  $\epsilon=\frac{1}{3}$   $\exists x_3\in E\backslash\{x\}$  such that  $x_3\neq x_2\wedge d(x_3,x)<\frac{1}{3}$   $\vdots$  for  $\epsilon=\frac{1}{n}$   $\exists x_n\in E\backslash\{x\}$  such that  $x_n\neq x_1,x_2,x_3,\ldots\wedge d(x_n,x)<\frac{1}{n}$   $\vdots$ 

In this way we obtain a sequence  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots$  of distinct points in  $E \setminus \{x\}$  that converges to x. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. We need to find N such that if n > N then  $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$ . Let N be such that  $\frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$  (archimedean property). Then  $\forall n > N$   $d(x_n, n) < \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$  as desired.

### 2.2 Subsequences

**Definition 2.2.1.** (Subsequences) Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. Let  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < ...$  be a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers. Then  $(x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, x_{n_3}, ...)$  is called a subsequence of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, ...)$ , and is denoted by  $(x_{n_k})$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  indexes the subsequence.

**Example 2.2.1.** Let  $(x_n) = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, ...)$ .

- (i)  $(1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{7}, ...)$  is a subsequence.
- (ii)  $(\frac{1}{100}, \frac{1}{1000}, \frac{1}{10000}, \dots)$  is a subsequence.
- (iii)  $(1, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{1}{2}, ...)$  is not a subsequence (we do not have  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < ...$ ).

**Remark.** Suppose  $(x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, x_{n_3}, ...)$  is a subsequence of  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, ...)$ . Notice that  $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < ...$  so

- (i)  $n_1 \ge 1$
- (ii) For each  $k \geq 2$ , there are at least k-1 natural numbers, namely  $n_1, ..., n_{k-1}$ , strictly less than  $n_k$ , so  $n_k \geq k$ .

**Theorem 2.2.1.** Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$ , then every subsequence of  $(x_n)$  converges to x.

**Proof.** Let  $(x_{n_k})$  be a subsequence of  $(x_n)$ . Our goal is to show that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} x_{n_k} = x$ . That is, we want to show

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall k > N \ d(x_{n_k}, x) < \epsilon.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Our goal is to find N such that

if 
$$k > N$$
, then  $d(x_{n_k}, x) < \epsilon$  (I)

Since  $x_n \to x$ , we have

$$\exists \hat{N} \text{ such that } \forall n > \hat{N} \ d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$$
 (II)

We claim that this  $\hat{N}$  can be used as the N we are looking for. Indeed, if we let  $N = \hat{N}$ , then if k > N we can conclude that  $n_k \ge k > N$  and so, by (II)

$$d(x_{n_k}, x) < \epsilon$$

**Corollary 2.2.1.** (contrapositive)

- (i) If a subsequence of  $(x_n)$  does not converge to x, then  $(x_n)$  does not converge to x.
- (ii) If  $(x_n)$  has a pair of subsequences converging to different limits, then  $(x_n)$  does not converge.

**Example 2.2.2.** Let  $x_n = (-1)^n$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- 1. The subsequence  $(x_1, x_3, x_5, ...) = (-1, -1, -1, ...)$  converges to -1.
- 2. The subsequence  $(x_2, x_4, x_6, ...) = (1, 1, 1, ...)$  converges to 1.

By (i) and (ii),  $(x_n)$  does not converge.

Theorem 2.2.2. Let (X,d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. The subsequential limits of  $(x_n)$  form a closed set in X.

**Proof.** Let  $E = \{b \in X : b \text{ is a limit of a subsequence of } x_n\}$ . Our goal is to show that  $E' \subseteq E$ . To this end, we pick an arbitrary element  $a \in E'$  and we will prove that  $a \in E$ . That is, we will show that there is a subsequence of  $(x_n)$  that converges to a. We may consider two cases:

Case 1:  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ x_n = a$ . In this case,  $(x_n)$  and any subsequence of  $(x_n)$  converges to a. So  $a \in E$ .

Case 2:  $\exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } x_{n_1} \neq a. \text{ Let } \delta = d(a, x_{n_1}) > 0. \text{ Since } a \in E', N_{\frac{\delta}{2^2}}(a) \cap (E \setminus \{a\}) \neq \emptyset. \text{ So,}$ 

$$\exists b \in E \backslash \{a\} \text{ such that } d(b,a) < \frac{\delta}{2^2}$$

Since  $b \in E$ , b is a limit of a subsequence of  $(x_n)$ , so

$$\exists n_2 > n_1 \text{ such that } d(x_{n_2}, b) < \frac{\delta}{2^2}.$$

Now note that

$$d(x_{n_2}, a) \le d(x_{n_2}, b) + d(b, a) < \frac{\delta}{2^2} + \frac{\delta}{2^2} = \frac{\delta}{2}.$$

Since  $a \in E'$ ,  $N_{\frac{\delta}{23}}(a) \cap (E \setminus \{a\}) \neq \emptyset$ . So,

$$\exists b \in E \backslash \{a\} \text{ such that } d(b,a) < \frac{\delta}{2^3}.$$

Since  $b \in E$ , b is a limit of a subsequence of  $(x_n)$ , so

$$\exists n_3 > n_2 \text{ such that } d(x_{n_3}, b) < \frac{\delta}{2^3}.$$

Now note that

$$d(x_{n_3}, a) \le d(x_{n_3}, b) + d(b, a) < \frac{\delta}{2^3} + \frac{\delta}{2^3} = \frac{\delta}{2^2}.$$

In this way, we obtain a subsequence  $x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, x_{n_3}, \dots$  of  $(x_n)$  such that

$$\forall k \ge 2 \ d(x_{n_k}, a) < \frac{\delta}{2^{k-1}}$$

so, clearly,  $x_{n_k} \to a$ . Hence,  $a \in E$ .

**Theorem 2.2.3.** (Compactness  $\implies$  Sequential Compactness) Let (X, d) be a compact metric space. Then every sequence in X has a convergent subsequence.

**Proof.** Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in the compact metric space X. Let  $E = \{x_1, x_2, ...\}$ . If E is infinite, then there exists  $x \in X$  and  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < ...$  such that

$$x_{n_1} = x_{n_2} = x_{n_3} = \dots = x.$$

Clearly, the subsequence  $(x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, ...)$  converges to x. If E is infinite, then since X is compact, by Theorem 2.37, E has a limit point  $x \in X$ . Since  $x \in E'$ ,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ N_{\epsilon}(x) \cap (E \setminus \{x\})$$
 is infinite.

In particular,

for 
$$\epsilon=1,\ \exists n_1\in\mathbb{N}$$
 such that  $d(x_{n_1},x)<1$  for  $\epsilon=2,\ \exists n_2\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_{n_2},x)<\frac{1}{2}$  for  $\epsilon=3,\ \exists n_3\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_{n_3},x)<\frac{1}{3}$  :
for  $\epsilon=m,\ \exists n_m\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_{n_m},x)<\frac{1}{m}$ 

:

In this way, we obtain a subsequence  $x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, x_{n_3}, \dots$  of  $(x_n)$  that converges to x.

Corollary 2.2.2. (Bolzano-Weierstrass) Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  has a convergent subsequence.

**Proof.** Let  $(x_n)$  be a bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

$$\implies \exists q \in \mathbb{R}^k \text{ and } r > 0 \text{ such that } \{x_1, x_2, x_3, ...\} \subseteq N_r(q).$$

Note that  $N_r(q)$  is bounded and so  $\overline{N_r(q)}$  is closed and bounded. So,  $\overline{N_q(r)}$  is a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . So,  $\overline{N_q(r)}$  is a compact metric space and  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $\overline{N_q(r)}$ . By Theorem 2.2.3, there exists a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  of  $(x_n)$  that converges in the metric space  $\overline{N_r(q)}$ . Since the distance function in  $\overline{N_r(q)}$  is the same as the distance function in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , we can conclude that  $(x_{n_k})$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  as well.

Recall:

$$x_n \to x \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \text{ such that } \forall n > N \ d(x_n, x) < \epsilon.$$

This is useful IF we know that a sequence converges. How do we first determine that a sequence converges? Perhaps, given a sequence  $(x_n)$ , we can determine convergence by comparing two consecutive terms:

If 
$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \ \text{such that} \ d(x_{n+1}, x_n) < \epsilon$$
, then the sequence converges.

Unfortunately, this will not do. Consider  $\mathbb{R}: x_n = \sqrt{n}$  diverges (it is unbounded) yet

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} = \frac{n+1-n}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}} \to 0.$$

Cauchy proposed that instead of comparing the distance between two consecutive terms, we compare the distance between any two terms after a certain index:

If  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \; \exists N \text{ such that } \forall n, m > N \; d(x_m, d_n) < \epsilon$ , then the sequence converges.

**Definition 2.2.2.** (Cauchy Sequence) Let (X, d) be a metric space A sequence  $(x_n)$  in X is said to be a Cauchy Sequence if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \; \exists N \; \text{such that} \; \; \forall n, m > N \; d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon.$$

**Theorem 2.2.4.** (Convergent  $\implies$  Cauchy) Let (X, d) be a metric space and let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in X. Then

$$(x_n)$$
 converges  $\implies$   $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence

**Proof.** Assume there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $x_n \to x$ . Our goal is to show that

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \; \exists N \; \text{such that} \; \forall n, m > N \; d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$$
 (I)

#### Informal Discussion

We want to make  $d(x_n, x_m)$  less than  $\epsilon$  using the fact that  $d(x_n, x)$  and  $d(x_m, x)$  can be made as small as we like for large enough m and n. It would be great if we could bound  $d(x_n, x_m)$  with a combination of  $d(x_n, x)$  and  $d(x_m, x)$ . Note that

$$d(x_n, x_m) \le d(x_n, x) + d(x, x_m)$$

so it is enough to make each piece on the RHS less than  $\epsilon/2$ 

We have

$$x_n \to x \implies \exists \hat{N} \text{ such that } \forall n > \hat{N} \ d(x_n, x) < \epsilon/2.$$

We claim that this  $\hat{N}$  can be used as the N that we were looking for. Indeed, if we let  $N = \hat{N}$ , (I) will hold because  $\forall n, m > \hat{N}$ ,

$$d(x_m, x_n) \le d(x_m, x) + d(x, x_n)$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$

$$= \epsilon$$

as desired.

**Remark.** The converse in general is not true. Eg, consider  $\mathbb{Q}$  as a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$ . In  $\mathbb{Q}$ , it is not true that every Cauchy sequence is convergent. For example, let  $(q_n)$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{Q}$  such that  $q_n \to \sqrt{2}$ .

$$q_n \to \sqrt{2}$$
 in  $\mathbb{R} \implies (q_n)$  is convergent in  $\mathbb{R}$   
 $\implies (q_n)$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$   
 $\implies (q_n)$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{Q}$ 

but  $(q_n)$  does not converge in Q.

It is desirable to define a metric space in which Cauchy sequences imply convergence.

**Definition 2.2.3.** (Complete Metric Space) A metric space in which every Cauchy sequence is convergent is called a complete metric space.