

# Real Variables

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# Chapter 1

## Number Systems

Natural numbers:  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Integers:  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Rational numbers:  $\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{a}{b} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$

**Remark.** Note for real numbers,  $\mathbb{Q}$  has holes in it.

**Example.**  $\nexists p \in \mathbb{Q}$  s.t.  $p^2 = 2$

**Proof.** Assume  $\exists p \in \mathbb{Q}$  s.t.  $p^2 = 2$ . Then  $p = \frac{a}{b}$  where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \neq 0$ . So,  $p^2 = \frac{a^2}{b^2} = 2 \Rightarrow a^2 = 2b^2$ . So,  $a^2$  is even  $\Rightarrow a$  is even. So,  $a = 2k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . So,  $4k^2 = 2b^2 \Rightarrow b^2 = 2k^2$ . So,  $b^2$  is even  $\Rightarrow b$  is even. So,  $b = 2l$  for some  $l \in \mathbb{Z}$ . So,  $a$  and  $b$  are both even, which contradicts the fact that  $a$  and  $b$  are coprime. So,  $\nexists p \in \mathbb{Q}$  s.t.  $p^2 = 2$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 1.1 (Order).** An order on a set  $S$  is a relation  $<$  such that:

- (a) If  $a, b \in S$ , then exactly one of  $a < b$ ,  $a = b$ , or  $b < a$  is true.
- (b) If  $a, b, c \in S$  and  $a < b$  and  $b < c$ , then  $a < c$ .

**Definition 1.2 (Ordered Set).** An ordered set  $S$  is a set with an order  $<$ .

**Definition 1.3.** Let  $S$  be an ordered set. A set  $E \subset S$  is bounded above if  $\exists \beta \in S$  s.t.  $\forall x \in E : x \leq \beta$ .

Similarly, a set  $S$  is bounded below if  $\exists \beta \in S$  s.t.  $\forall x \in E : x \geq \beta$ .

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**Definition 1.4 (LUB, GLB).** Let  $S$  be an ordered set and  $E \subset S$ ,  $E \neq \emptyset$ , with  $E$  bounded above. If  $\exists \alpha$  s.t.  $\alpha$  is an upper bound for  $E$  and  $\forall \gamma < \alpha$ :  $\gamma$  is not an upper bound for  $E$ , then such  $\alpha$  is called least upper bound (LUB), or *Supremum*. Similarly, if  $\exists \alpha$  s.t.  $\alpha$  is a lower bound for  $E$  and  $\forall \gamma > \alpha$ :  $\gamma$  is not a lower bound for  $E$ . Then such  $\alpha$  is called greatest lower bound (GLB), or *Infimum*.

**Definition 1.5 (LUB property).** An ordered set  $S$  has the least upper bound (LUB) property if  $\forall E \subset S$  if  $E \neq \emptyset$  and  $E$  bounded above implies  $\exists \sup E \in S$ ; i.e., Every bounded subset of  $S$  has the least upper bound (LUB).

**Example.**

- $\mathbb{Z}$  has the LUB property.
- $\mathbb{Q}$  does not have the LUB property.

**Theorem 1.1.** Let  $S$  be an ordered set. Then  $S$  has the LUB property if and only if  $S$  has the GLB property.

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $S$  has the LUB property. Let  $B \subset S$  be non-empty and bounded below. Let  $L$  be the set of all lower bounds of  $B$ . Then  $L$  is non-empty and bounded above. Let  $\alpha = \sup L$ . We claim that  $\alpha = \inf B$ . ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $S$  has the GLB property. Let  $E \subset S$  be non-empty and bounded above. Let  $U$  be the set of all upper bounds of  $E$ . Then  $U$  is non-empty and bounded below. Let  $\beta = \inf U$ . We claim that  $\beta = \sup E$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 1.6 (Fields).** Let  $F$  be a set with two operations, addition and multiplication. Then  $F$  is a field if the following axioms are satisfied:

- (a)  $a + b = b + a$  and  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$  for all  $a, b \in F$  (Commutative laws).
- (b)  $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$  and  $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$  (Associative laws).
- (c)  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$  for all  $a, b, c \in F$  (Distributive law).
- (d)  $\exists 0 \in F$  s.t.  $a + 0 = a$  for all  $a \in F$ .
- (e)  $\exists (-a) \in F$  s.t.  $a + (-a) = 0$  for all  $a \in F$ .
- (f)  $\forall x, y \in F : xy \in F$ .
- (g)  $\forall x, y \in F : xy = yx$ .
- (h)  $\exists 1 \in F$  s.t.  $a \cdot 1 = a$  for all  $a \in F$ .
- (i) If  $a \neq 0$ , then  $\exists a^{-1} \in F$  s.t.  $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1$ .

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- (j)  $\forall x, y, z \in F : x(y + z) = xy + xz$

**Example.**

- (a)  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a field, while  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not a field.  
(b)  $F_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$  with mod  $p$  arithmetic is a field.

Read Text book: 114, 115, 116, 118

**Definition 1.7 (Ordered Field).** An ordered field  $F$  is a field that is an ordered set such that the following properties are satisfied:

- (a) If  $a, b, c \in F$  and  $a < b$ , then  $a + c < b + c$ .  
(b) If  $a, b \in F$  and  $0 < a$  and  $0 < b$ , then  $0 < ab$ .

**Remark.** We say  $x$  is positive if  $x > 0$  and  $x$  is negative if  $x < 0$ .

**Example.**  $\mathbb{Q}$  is an ordered field.

**Theorem 1.2.**  $\exists$  an ordered field  $\mathbb{R}$  which has the LUB property and contains  $\mathbb{Q}$  as a subfield.

**Theorem 1.3.**

- (a) Arithmetic properties of  $\mathbb{R}$ : If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x > 0$  then  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $nx > y$ .  
(b)  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ : If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x < y$ , then  $\exists p \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x < p < y$ .  
(c)  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x < \alpha < y$ .

**Proof.** (a) Let  $A = \{nx \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Suppose  $\forall nx \in A : nx \leq y$ . Then  $y$  is an upper bound for  $A$ . So,  $A$  has a least upper bound  $\alpha$ . Since  $\alpha - x < \alpha$  as  $x > 0$ ,  $\alpha - x$  is not an upper bound for  $A$ . Thus,  $\exists m \in \mathbb{N} : mx > \alpha - x$ , so  $\alpha < (m+1)x \in A$ , contradicting the fact that  $\alpha$  is a supremum of  $A$ . Therefore,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $nx > y$ .

(b) Since  $y - x > 0$ , by (a),  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n(y - x) > 1$ .  $ny - nx > 1$  and therefore,  $1 + nx < ny$ . Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $(m - 1) \leq nx < m$ . Such  $m$  exists by the extended version of (a). This implies there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $nx < m \leq nx + 1 < ny$ . Therefore,  $x < \frac{m}{n} < y$ .

(c)  $\exists k \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $k^2 = 2$ ; i.e.,  $\exists \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $0 < \sqrt{2} < 2$  because if  $\sqrt{2} \geq 2$  then  $2 = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2} \geq 2 \cdot 2 = 4$ , which is a contradiction. By (b),  $\exists p \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x < p < y$  and  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x < p < q < y$ . Let  $\alpha = p + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(q - p)$ . Then  $x < p < \alpha < q < y$  and  $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$  since otherwise  $\sqrt{2} = 2 \cdot \frac{\alpha - p}{q - p}$  would be rational

Q.E.D.

**Note.** (a) can be improved to:

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x > 0, \exists n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } (n - 1)x \leq y < nx. \quad (1.1)$$

**Proof.** Case 1:  $y \geq 0$ . Let  $A = \{m \in \mathbb{N} : y < mx\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ . By (a),  $A \neq \emptyset$ . Every non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  has a smallest element. Let  $n = \text{smallest element of } A$ . Then the inequality holds true. Case 2: Let  $y < 0$ , then there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(n - 1)x \leq -y < nx$ , which implies that (by changing sign for all terms)  $-nx < y \leq -(n - 1)x$ . Hence, the statement holds.

Q.E.D.

**Lemma.** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 < a < b$ , then  $0 < b^n - a^n \leq nb^{n-1}(b - a)$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} b^n - a^n &= (b - a) \underbrace{(b^{n-1} + ab^{n-2} + \dots + a^{n-2}b + a^{n-1})}_{n \text{ terms}} \\ &< (b - a)nb^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

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**Theorem 1.4.**  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x > 0, n \in \mathbb{N} : \exists! (\text{unique}) y > 0 : y^n = x$  (we write  $y = x^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{x}$ , the  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of  $x$ ).

**Proof.** Uniqueness: For any  $y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $0 < y_1 < y_2$ , then  $0 < y_1^n < y_2^n$ , hence  $y_1^n$  and  $y_2^n$  cannot both be equal to  $x$ .

Existence: Let  $E_x = \{t \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \mid t^n < x\}$ . If  $E \neq \emptyset$ ,  $E$  is bounded above, hence (by the least-upper-bound property) there exists a  $\sup E$ . Choose  $y = \sup E$ . Consider two cases.

- (a) If  $x \leq 1$ , then  $t_0 = \frac{x}{2}$  and thereby  $t_0^n = \frac{x^n}{2^n} < x^n \leq x$  (by assumption that  $x \leq 1$ ).
- (b) If  $x > 1$ , then let  $t_0 = 1$ , leading to  $t_0^n = 1 < x$ .

In either case,  $t_0 \in E$ , and hence  $E$  is not empty. 1(a) ( $E$  is bounded above) Let  $\beta = x + 1$ . Then,  $\beta^n = (x + 1)^n > x + 1 > x$ . Then, for any  $t \in E$ , we have that  $t^n < x < \beta^n$ , hence  $t < \beta$ , making  $t$  an upper bound of  $E$ .

- (a) Assuming that  $y^n < x$ , we find  $0 < h < 1$  such that  $(y+h)^n < x$ , which leads to  $y + h \in E$ , something that contradicts with the fact that  $y = \sup E$ . This is equivalent to finding an  $0 < h < 1$  such that  $(y + h)^n - y^n < x - y^n$ . By the lemma, we have  $0 < (y+h)^n - y^n < n(y+1)^{n-1}h$  for any  $0 < h < 1$ . Choose  $h$  so that  $\frac{(x-y)^n}{n(y+1)^{n-1}}$ . Then  $0 < h < 1$  still holds and  $hn(y+1)^{n-1} < x - y^n$ , leading to  $(y + h)^n < x$ , and therefore  $y + h \in E$ . However, this contradicts the fact that  $y = \sup E$  as  $y + h > y$ .
- (b) Assuming that  $y^n > x$ , we find  $k > 0$  such that  $(y - k)^n > x$ , which leads to a contradiction since otherwise  $y - k$  would be an upper bound for  $E$  that's smaller than  $y$ , which is  $\sup E$ . By the lemma,  $y^n - (y - k)^n \leq ny^{n-1}k < y^n - x$  for any  $h < \frac{y^n - x}{ny^{n-1}}$ . Therefore,  $-(y - k)^n < -x$ , or  $x < (y - k)^n$ . Thus,  $y - k$  is also an upper bound of  $E$  and  $y - k < y = \sup E$ , which is a contradiction.

Since  $y^n < x$  and  $y^n > x$  are both contradictions,  $y^n = x$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 1.8 (Cut/Dedekind Cut).** The set  $\mathbb{R}$  elements are (Dedekind) cuts, which are sets  $\alpha \subset \mathbb{Q}$  such that

- $\forall p \in \alpha, q \in \mathbb{Q} : q < p \Rightarrow q \in \alpha$
- No greatest element in  $\alpha$

**Example.**  $\alpha = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid p < 0\}$ ,  $\alpha = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} \mid p \leq 0 \vee p^2 < 2\}$

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**Definition 1.9 (Order of cuts).** For  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\alpha < \beta := \alpha \subset \beta$

**Proof (test).** Let  $\gamma$  be set of cuts  $A$ , and show that  $\gamma$  is a cut and that  $\gamma = \sup A$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 1.5.** There exists an ordered field  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  has the LUB property.

**Proof.** Let  $\mathbb{R}$  be the set of all cuts with:

**order**  $a < b := a \subset b$ .

**addition**  $\alpha + \beta = \{p + q \mid p \in \alpha, q \in \beta\}$ .

**multiplication**  $\alpha \cdot \beta = \{p \cdot q \mid p \in \alpha, q \in \beta\}$ .

Q.E.D.

## Complex Numbers

**Definition 1.10 (Complex Field).** The underlying set is  $\mathbb{C} = \{(a, b) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$

Addition is defined as  $(a, b) + (c, d) = (a + c, b + d)$

Multiplication is defined as  $(a, b) \cdot (c, d) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$

Zero element is  $(0, 0)$

One element is  $(1, 0)$

**Theorem 1.6.**  $\mathbb{C}$  is a field.

**Proof.** Verify the 11 field axioms. For just a few axioms:

(M3):

$$x = (a, b), y = (c, d), z = (e, f). \quad x(yz) = (a, b)(ce - df, cf + de) = (a(ce - df) - b(cf + de), a(cf + de) + b(ce - df)) = (ac - bd, ad + bc)(e, f) = (xy)z$$

(M4):

$$(a, b)(1, 0) = (a \cdot 1 - b \cdot 0, a \cdot 0 + b \cdot 1) = (a, b)$$

(M5):

$$x \neq 0 \text{ means } x = (a, b) \text{ with } a \neq 0 \text{ or } b \neq 0. \text{ That is, } a^2 + b^2 > 0. \text{ Let } \frac{1}{x} = (\frac{a}{a^2+b^2}, \frac{-b}{a^2+b^2}). \text{ Then } x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = (a, b)(\frac{a}{a^2+b^2} + \frac{-b}{a^2+b^2}) = (\frac{a^2+b^2}{a^2+b^2}, \frac{-ab+ba}{a^2+b^2}) = (1, 0). \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

Identification of  $\mathbb{R}$  as a subfield of  $\mathbb{C}$ . Identify  $(a, 0) \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(a, 0) + (b, 0) = (a + b, 0)$ ,  $(a, 0)(b, 0) = (ab, 0)$ , so we can represent them by  $a + b = a + b$ ,  $a \cdot b = a \cdot b$ . Write  $i = (0, 1)$ .  $i^2 = (0, 1)(0, 1) = (-1, 0)$ . So,  $i^2 = -1$ .  $(a, b) \leftrightarrow a + bi$ . Usually write  $z = a + bi$  for  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .  $\text{Re}(z) = a, \text{Im}(z) = b$ .

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**Definition 1.11.** Complex conjugate of  $z = a + bi$  is defined as  $a - bi$  and denoted by  $\bar{z}$

**Note.**

- (a)  $\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$
- (b)  $\overline{zw} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{w}$
- (c)  $z + \bar{z} = 2 \cdot \operatorname{Re}(z)$
- (d)  $z - \bar{z} = 2i \cdot \operatorname{Im}(z)$
- (e)  $z\bar{z} = (a + bi)(a - bi) = a^2 + b^2 \geq 0$ , with  $=$  if and only if  $z = 0$
- (f)  $\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{z\bar{z}} = \frac{a-bi}{a^2+b^2}$

**Definition 1.12.**  $|z| = \sqrt{z\bar{z}} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

In particular, if  $z = a \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $|z| = \sqrt{a^2} = |a| = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \geq 0 \\ -a & \text{if } a < 0 \end{cases}$

**Theorem 1.7.** For  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ ,

- (a)  $|z| \geq 0$  with  $=$  iff  $z = 0$
- (b)  $|z| = |\bar{z}|$
- (c)  $|zw| = |z| \cdot |w|$
- (d)  $|\operatorname{Re}(z)| \leq |z|, |\operatorname{Im}(z)| \leq |z|$

**Proof.** Let  $z = a + bi$ . Then  $|\operatorname{Re}(z)| = |a| \leq \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = |z|$   
Q.E.D.

- (e)  $|z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$  (Triangle inequality)

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned}
 |z + w|^2 &= (z + w)(\overline{z + w}) \\
 &= z\bar{z} + z\bar{w} + w\bar{z} + w\bar{w} \\
 &= |z|^2 + z\bar{w} + w\bar{z} + |w|^2 \\
 &= |z|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(z\bar{w}) + |w|^2 \\
 &\leq (|z| + |w|)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.



**Theorem** (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality). If  $a_1, a_n, b_1, b_n \in \mathbb{C}$ , then

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \overline{b_j} \right| \leq \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |b_j|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Interpretation:  $(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \overline{b_j}$  defined on inner product on  $\mathbb{C}^n$  and  $|(\vec{a}, \vec{b})| \leq \sqrt{(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a})(\vec{b} \cdot \vec{b})}$ . (Note that  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \overline{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}}$ )

**Proof.** Let  $A = \sum |a_j|^2$ ,  $B = \sum |b_j|^2$ ,  $C = \sum a_j \overline{b_j}$ . We can assume 1.  $B \neq 0$  because  $B = 0$  is  $0 \leq 0$ , 2.  $C \neq 0$  because  $C = 0$ , LHS is 0. For any  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $0 \leq \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j + \lambda b_j|^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j + \lambda b_j)(\overline{a_j} + \overline{\lambda b_j}) = \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^n \overline{b_j} \overline{a_j} + \overline{\lambda} \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \overline{b_j} + |\lambda|^2 \sum_{j=1}^n |b_j|^2$ . Let  $\lambda = tC$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $0 \leq A + \lambda \overline{C} + \overline{\lambda} C + |\lambda|^2 B = A + 2|C|^2 t + B|C|^2 t^2 = p(t)$ .  $p(t)$  is a quadratic function in terms of  $t$  and it must be non-negative. Regardless of the value of  $t$ . Therefore, the discriminant of  $p(t) = (2|C|^2)^2 - 4AB|C|^2 = 4|C|^2(|C|^2 - AB) \leq 0$ . Since  $|C| \geq 0$ ,  $|C|^2 \leq AB$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 1.13 (Euclidean  $k$ -space).** For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^k := \{\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) : x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$  with the following properties:

Addition  $\vec{x} + \vec{y} = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_k + y_k)$

Scalar multiplication  $\lambda \vec{x} = (\lambda x_1, \lambda x_2, \dots, \lambda x_k)$

Inner(dot) product  $(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{j=1}^k x_j y_j$ , which is bilinear:  $(\alpha \vec{x} + \beta \vec{y}) \cdot \vec{z} = \alpha \vec{x} \cdot \vec{z} + \beta \vec{y} \cdot \vec{z}$ .

Norm  $|\vec{x}| = \sqrt{(\vec{x}, \vec{x})} = \sum_{j=1}^k |x_j|^2^{1/2}$

**Remark.** Addition and Scalar multiplication make  $\mathbb{R}^k$  into a vector space.

**Theorem 1.8.** Let  $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . Then

- (a)  $|\vec{x}| \geq 0$
- (b)  $|\vec{x}| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} = \vec{0}$
- (c)  $|\alpha \vec{x}| = |\alpha| |\vec{x}|$
- (d)  $|\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}| \leq |\vec{x}| |\vec{y}|$  (special case of Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)
- (e)  $|\vec{x} + \vec{y}| \leq |\vec{x}| + |\vec{y}|$  (Triangle inequality)

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof. } |\vec{x} + \vec{y}|^2 &= (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) \cdot (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = |\vec{x}|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} + |\vec{y}|^2 \leq \\ &|\vec{x}|^2 + 2|\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}| + |\vec{y}|^2 \leq (|\vec{x}| + |\vec{y}|)^2 \quad \text{Q.E.D.} \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\text{Proof. } |\vec{x} - \vec{y}| = |(\vec{x} - \vec{z}) + (\vec{z} - \vec{y})| \leq |\vec{x} - \vec{z}| + |\vec{z} - \vec{y}| \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

## Chapter 2

# Basic Topology

**Definition 2.1.** Sets  $A$  and  $B$  have the same cardinality, if  $\exists f : A \rightarrow B$  that is 1-1 and onto (i.e., bijective).

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $A \sim B$  be a relation between two sets having the same cardinality. Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation. That is,

- (a)  $A \sim A$  (Reflexive)
- (b)  $A \sim B \Rightarrow B \sim A$  (Symmetry)
- (c)  $A \sim B \& B \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$  (Transitivity)

**Definition 2.2.** Let  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ . Let  $J_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

- A set  $A$  is finite if  $A \sim J_n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  (or if  $A = \emptyset$ ).
- A set  $A$  is countably infinite if  $A \sim \mathbb{N}$ .
- A set  $A$  is countable if  $A$  is finite or countably infinite.

**Example.**  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a countably infinite. For  $n \in \mathbb{Z} = \{0, +1, -1, +2, -2, \dots\}$ ,

$$\text{Let } f(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 2n & \text{if } n > 0 \\ -2n + 1 & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

Then  $f$  is bijective and therefore  $|\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{N}|$

**Theorem 2.8.** A subset of a countably infinite set is countable.

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**Proof.** Let  $A$  be some countably infinite set and  $S$  be a infinite subset of  $A$ .

As  $A$  is a countably infinite set, we can remove duplicates and arrange  $A$  so that  $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}$ . Let  $n_1$  be the smallest positive integer such that  $x_{n_1} \in S$ . Let  $n_k$  be the smallest positive integer greater than  $n_{k-1}$  such that  $x_{n_k} \in S$  for  $k = 2, 3, \dots$ . Let  $f(k) = x_{n_k}$  for  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . Then this is a bijection from  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $S$ . Q.E.D.

**Remark.** Roughly speaking, countable sets represent the **smallest infinity**, as no uncountable set can be a subset of a countable set.

**Theorem 2.12.** Let  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  be countably infinite sets. Then  $S = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$  is countably infinite.

**Proof.** Write  $E_1 = \{x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, x_{14}, \dots\}$

$E_2 = \{x_{21}, x_{22}, x_{23}, x_{24}, \dots\}$

Form an array:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} & x_{14} & \dots \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} & x_{24} & \dots \\ x_{31} & x_{32} & x_{33} & x_{34} & \dots \\ x_{41} & x_{42} & x_{43} & x_{44} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}.$$

This matrix might have duplicates. Let  $T$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $t \in T$  if and only if  $t$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $x_t \in E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n$ .

Then a set  $\{x_t | t \in T \text{ and } \exists i \in \mathbb{N} : x_t \in E_i\}$  is  $S$ . Clearly,  $|S| = |T|$ , or  $S \sim T$ , and  $T$  is a subset of a countably infinite set,  $\mathbb{N}$ . Therefore,  $T$  is also countable, implying  $S$  is also countable. As  $S$  is infinite,  $S$  is countably infinite. Q.E.D.

**Corollary 2.13.** If  $A$  is countable and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) | a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in A\}$  is countable.

**Theorem 2.14.** Let  $A = \{(b_1, b_2, b_3 \dots) | b_i \in \{0, 1\}\}$ . I.e.,  $A$  is a set of all infinite binary strings. Then  $A$  is uncountable.

---

**Proof (Cantor's Diagonalization argument, 1891).** Let  $E \subset A$  be countably infinite.  $E = \{s^{(1)}, s^{(2)}, s^{(3)}, \dots \mid s^{(i)} \in A\}$ . It suffices to find some  $s \in A \setminus E$ , for this shows every countably infinite subset of  $A$  is proper construction of  $s$ . Write

$$s^{(1)} = b_1^1 b_2^1 \dots \quad (2.1)$$

$$s^{(2)} = b_1^2 b_2^2 b_3^2 \dots \quad (2.2)$$

$$s^{(3)} = b_1^3 b_2^3 b_3^3 \dots \quad (2.3)$$

$$\vdots$$

On diagonal, flip each bit, i.e.,  $0 \rightarrow 1$  and  $1 \rightarrow 0$  and represent the flipped bit of  $b_i^i$  by  $\tilde{b}_i^i$ . Let  $s = \tilde{b}_1^1 \tilde{b}_2^2 \tilde{b}_3^3 \dots$ . Then  $s \in A$  and  $s \notin E$  as  $s$  differs from each  $s^{(i)}$  in the  $i$ -th bit. Therefore,  $A$  is uncountable. Q.E.D.

**Corollary 2.15.** The set  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$  of subsets of  $\mathbb{N}$  is uncountable.

**Proof.** We can create  $f : \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \rightarrow A$  be a bijection, where  $A$  is the set of all infinite binary strings, by

$$f(S)_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \in S \\ 0 & \text{if } i \notin S \end{cases} \quad (2.4)$$

For example, if  $f(\{\text{odd natural numbers}\}) = (1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0 \dots)$ . This  $f$  is a bijection, and therefore  $A$  is uncountable.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.16.**  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.

---

**Proof.** This is a rough sketch of the proof:

- (a) It's enough to show that  $[0, 1]$  is uncountable.
- (b) Consider binary decimal representation of  $x \in [0, 1]$ . For example,  $x = 0.101001001\dots$ . Given  $x$ , choose maximal  $b_1 \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $\frac{b_1}{2} \leq x$ . Then choose  $b_2 \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $\frac{b_1}{2} + \frac{b_2}{2^2} \leq x$ . Continue this process to get  $b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots$ . Then  $x = \sup \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{b_i}{2^i} \right\}$ . Consider any dyadic rational of the form  $\frac{m}{2^n}$ . Let it be  $\frac{3}{2^4}$ . Then this maps  $\frac{3}{2^4} \rightarrow 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, \dots$  and never produce  $0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, \dots$ , which also represents  $\frac{3}{2^4}$ . Let  $A_1$  be a subset of  $A = \{\text{infinite binary strings}\}$  such that  $A_1$  does not contain any strings ending in  $1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$ . Then the decimal representation defines a bijection  $f : [0] \rightarrow A \setminus A_1$ .
- (c)  $A_1$  is countable because  $A = (A \setminus A_1) \cup A_1$ , which is uncountable.

This shows that  $[0, 1]$  is uncountable, and therefore  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.  
Q.E.D.

**Definition 2.3 (Metric Spaces).** A set  $X$  is a metric space with metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  if

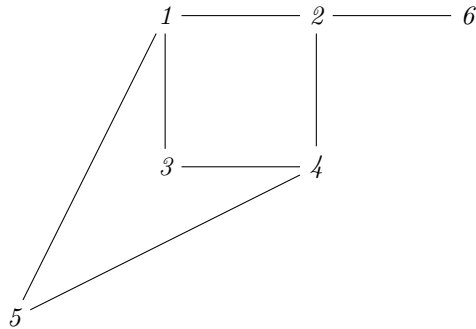
- (a)  $d(p, q) > 0$  if  $p \neq q$  and  $d(p, q) = 0$  if  $p = q$ ,  $\forall p, q \in X$
- (b)  $\forall p, q \in X : d(p, q) = d(q, p)$
- (c)  $\forall p, q, r \in X : d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$  (Triangle Inequality)

**Remark.** A metric space does not need to be an ordered set or to have addition or multiplication defined on it.

**Example (Metric Spaces).** (a)  $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{R}^k$  are metric spaces with  $d(p, q) = |p - q|$ . Note the meaning of  $|x|$  depends on the context.

(b) Every subset of a metric space is a metric space.

(c)  $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$



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**Definition 2.4 (Neighborhood).** A neighborhood in  $X$  is a set  $N_r(p) := \{q : d(q, p) < r\}$ , where  $p \in X, r > 0$ .

**Remark.** If  $r_1 \leq r_2$ , then  $N_{r_1}(p) \subset N_{r_2}(p)$ .

**Example.**

$\mathbb{R}^1$  intervals,  $N_r(x) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^1 : |x - y| < r\}$

$\mathbb{R}^2$  disks  $N_r(x) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |x - y| < r\}$

$\mathbb{R}^3$  balls,  $N_r(x) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |x - y| < r\}$

Given example (c),  $N_1(2) = \{2\} = N_{\frac{1}{2}}(2)$ ,  $N_2(2) = \{1, 2, 4, 6\}$ ,  $N_3(2) = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} = X$ .

**Definition 2.5.** Let  $E \subset X$ .  $p \in E$  is an interior point of  $E$  if  $\exists r > 0$  such that  $N_r(p) \subset E$ .

**Example.**

$X = \mathbb{R}^2, E = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x| \leq 1\}$

$X = \mathbb{N}, E \subset X$ .

**Definition 2.6.**  $E \subset X$  is an open set if  $\forall x \in E$  is an interior point of  $E$ .

**Theorem 2.19.** Every neighborhood is an open set.

**Proof.** Let  $g \in N_r(p)$ . Then we must find  $s > 0$ , such that  $N_s(g) \subset N_r(p)$ . We know  $d(p, q) < r$ . Choose  $s$  such that  $0 < s < r - d(p, q)$ . Let  $x \in N_s(g)$ , then  $d(q, x) < s < r - d(p, q)$ . By triangle inequality,  $d(p, x) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, x) < d(p, q) + r - d(p, q)$ , so  $x \in N_r(p)$ , so  $N_s(g) \subset N_r(p)$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 2.7.** Let  $E \subset X$  and  $p \in X$ .  $p$  is a limit point of  $E$  if  $\forall r > 0 \exists q \in E$  such that  $q \neq p$  and  $q \in N_r(p)$

**Example.**  $E = \{\frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset \mathbb{R}$  has exactly one limit point, 0. note  $0 \notin E$ .

**Theorem 2.20.** If  $p$  is a limit point of  $E \subset S$ , then every neighborhood of  $p$  contains infinitely many points of  $E$ .

**Proof.** Let  $N_r(p)$  be a neighborhood of  $p$ . Then  $N_r(p)$  contains at least one point  $q_1 \in E$  such that  $q_1 \neq p$ . Let  $r_1 = d(p, q_1)$ . Then  $N_{r_1}(p)$  contains some  $q_2 \in E$  such that  $q_2 \neq p$ . Let  $r_2 = d(p, q_2)$ . Then  $N_{r_2}(p)$  contains some  $q_3 \in E$  such that  $q_3 \neq p$ . Continue this process to get  $q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots$  Q.E.D.

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**Corollary 2.21.** If  $E \subset X$  is finite then  $E$  has no limit points.

**Definition 2.8 (Closed Set).** A set  $E \subset X$  is closed if every limit point of  $E$  is in  $E$ .

**Theorem 2.23.**  $E \subset X$  is open iff  $E^c = \{x \in X : x \notin E\}$  is closed.

**Proof.**

- $E$  is open  $\Rightarrow E^c$  is closed.  
Let  $p$  be a limit point of  $E^c$ . Then every neighborhood of  $p$  contains some  $q \in E^c$  such that  $q \neq p$ . If  $p \in E$ , then because  $E$  is open,  $p$  is an interior point, i.e., there exists some neighborhood of  $p$  that is a subset of  $E$ , which does not contain any points of  $E^c$ . This implies  $p \notin E$  and therefore  $p \in E^c$ .
- $E^c$  is closed  $\Rightarrow E$  is open.  
Let  $p \in E$ . Then  $p \notin E^c$ , so  $p$  is not a limit point of  $E^c$ . Therefore, there exists some neighborhood of  $p$  that contains no points of  $E^c$ , i.e., all points of the neighborhood are in  $E$ . Thus, Every  $p \in E$  is an interior point of  $E$ , and hence  $E$  is open.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.24 (De Morgan's Laws).**

- (a)  $(\bigcup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha})^c = \bigcap_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}^c$
- (b)  $(\bigcap_{\alpha} E_{\alpha})^c = \bigcup_{\alpha} E_{\alpha}^c$

**Theorem 2.24.**

- (a) For all collection  $\{G_{\alpha}\}$  of open sets :  $\bigcup_{\alpha} G_{\alpha}$  is open.
- (b) For all collection  $\{F_{\alpha}\}$  of closed sets :  $\bigcap_{\alpha} F_{\alpha}$  is closed.
- (c) For all finite collection  $\{G_1, G_2, \dots, G_n\}$  of open sets :  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$  is open.
- (d) For all finite collection  $\{F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n\}$  of closed sets :  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$  is closed.



- 
- Proof.** (a) Let  $x \in \bigcup_{\alpha} G_{\alpha}$ . Then  $x \in G_{\alpha_0}$  for some  $\alpha_0$ . So there exists a neighborhood  $N$  of  $x$  such that  $N \subset G_{\alpha_0} \subset \bigcup_{\alpha} G_{\alpha}$ .
- (b) it's suffice to prove that  $(\bigcap_{\alpha} F_{\alpha})^c$  is open. But  $(\bigcap_{\alpha} F_{\alpha})^c = \bigcup_{\alpha} F_{\alpha}^c$  is open by (a).
- (c) Let  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$ . Then  $x \in G_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . So there exists a  $r_i > 0$  such that  $N_{r_i}(x) \subset G_i$ . Let  $r = \min\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n\}$ . Then  $N_r(x) \subset N_{r_i}(x) \subset G_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and therefore  $N_r(x) \subset \bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i$ .
- (d)  $(\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n F_i^c$  is open by (c).

Q.E.D.

**Definition 2.9 (Closure).** Let  $E \subset X$ . Let  $E'$  be a set of limit points of  $E$  in  $X$ . The set  $\overline{E} = E \cup E'$  is the closure of  $E$ .

**Theorem 2.27.**

- (a)  $\overline{E}$  is closed.
- (b)  $E = \overline{E} \Leftrightarrow E$  is closed.
- (c) If  $F \subset X$  is closed and  $E \subset F$ , then  $\overline{E} \subset F$ . (i.e.,  $\overline{E}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $E$ , and  $\overline{E} = \bigcap_{F: \text{closed set with } E \subset F} F$ .)

- Proof.** (a) Let  $p$  be a limit point of  $\overline{E}$ . It suffices to show  $p \in E'$  since this implies that  $p \in E' \subset E \cup E' = \overline{E}$ . Let  $r > 0$ .  $\exists_{q \in \overline{E}, q \neq p} : q \in N_{\frac{r}{2}}(p)$ , i.e.,  $d(p, q) < \frac{r}{2}$ . Since  $q \in E \cup E'$ ,  $\exists_{s \in \overline{E}}$  such that  $d(q, s) < \frac{r}{2}$  (if  $q \in E$ , take  $s = q$ ). But  $d(p, s) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, s) < \frac{r}{2} + \frac{r}{2} = r$ .
- (b)  $(\Rightarrow)$  by (a)
- $(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose  $E$  is closed. Then  $E' \subset E$ , so  $\overline{E} = E \cup E' = E$ .
- (c) Suppose  $F$  is closed. Then  $F' \subset F$  and also  $F \supset F'$ . So  $F = \overline{F} = F \cup F' \supset E \cup E' = \overline{E}$

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.28.** Let  $E$  be a nonempty set of real numbers which is bounded above. Let  $y = \sup\{E\}$ . Then  $y \in \overline{E}$ . Hence,  $y \in E$  if  $E$  is closed.

**Example.** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $d(p, q) = |p - q|$ . Let  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  be nonempty and bounded above, and let  $y = \sup E$ . Then  $y \in \overline{E}$ .

**Proof.** Suppose for contradiction  $y \notin \overline{E}$ . Then  $y$  is neither a point in  $E$

nor a limit point of  $E$ , so  $\exists$  some interval  $N_r(y) = (y - r, y + r)$  such that  $(y - r, y + r) \cap E = \emptyset$ . However, then  $y - r$  is an upper bound for  $E$  since  $y$  is a least upper bound, which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $y \in \overline{E}$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 2.10 (Relative Openness).** Suppose  $X$  is a metric space, so  $Y \subset X$  is a metric space with the same metric. Let  $E \subset Y$ . Then  $E$  is open relative to  $Y$  if  $E$  is an open set in the metric space  $Y$ .

**Example.**  $X = \mathbb{R}^2 \supset \mathbb{R} = Y$ ,  $E = (0, 1) \subset Y$ . Then  $E$  is open relative to  $Y$ , but  $E$  is neither open nor closed in  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.30.** A set  $E \subset Y \subset X$  is open relative to  $Y \Leftrightarrow \exists$  open set  $G \subset X$  :  $E = G \cap Y$

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $E \subset Y$  is open relative to  $Y$ . Given  $p \in E$ ,  $\exists_{r_p > 0} : N_{r_p}^Y(p) \subset E$ , where  $N_r^Y(p) = \{q \in Y : d(p, q) < r\}$ . Then  $E \subset \bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^Y(p)$  and  $\bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^Y(p) \subset E$ . Therefore,  $E = \bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^Y(p)$ .

Let  $G = \bigcup_{p \in E} N_{r_p}^X(p)$ . This time, we are considering  $p$ 's neighborhood in  $X$ , so each  $N_{r_p}^X$  is open. Thus  $G$  is a union of open sets in  $X$ , and therefore open.

$\forall_{p \in E} : p \in N_{r_p}^X(p)$ , so  $E \subset G \cap Y$ .

Let  $p \in G \cap Y$ . Then  $p \in G$  and  $p \in Y$ . So  $p \in N_{r_p}^X(p)$  for some  $r_p > 0$ . But  $p \in Y$ , so  $p \in N_{r_p}^Y(p)$ . Therefore,  $p \in E$ . This implies  $G \cap Y \subset E$ , and therefore  $E = G \cap Y$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $G \subset X$  is open and  $E = G \cap Y$ . Then  $\forall_{p \in E} : \exists_{r_p > 0} : N_{r_p}^X(p) \subset G$ , so  $N_{r_p}^Y(p) = N_{r_p}^X(p) \cap Y \subset G \cap Y = E$ .

Q.E.D.

**Note:** Midterm 1 material ends here.

**Definition 2.11 (Open Cover).** An open cover of  $E \subset X$  is a collection  $\{G_\alpha\}$  of open subsets of  $X$  s.t  $E \subset \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$ .

**Definition 2.12 (Compact).** A set  $K \subset X$  is compact if every open cover has a finite subcover; i.e.,  $\exists_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n} : \text{s.t } K \subset G_{\alpha_1} \cup G_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup G_{\alpha_n}$

**Example.**

- If  $E$  is finite, then  $E$  is compact.
- $(0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}$  is not compact. Bad cover:  $(\frac{1}{n}, 1), n > 2$
- $[0, \infty) \subset \mathbb{R}$  is not compact. Bad cover:  $(-1, n)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$  is compact if and only if  $E$  is closed and bounded.

**Theorem 2.34.** If  $K$  is compact then  $K$  is closed.

**Proof.** Suppose  $K$  is compact. It suffices to prove that  $K^c$  is open. Let  $p \in K^c$ . We need to produce  $r > 0$  s.t.  $N_r(p) \subset K^c$ . For  $q \in K$ , let  $W_q = N_{r_q}(q)$ , where  $r_q = \frac{1}{2}d(p, q) > 0$ .  $\forall x \in N_{r_q}(p) : x \in W_q \Rightarrow d(x, p) + d(x, q) < 2r_q = d(p, q)$ . However,  $X$  is a metric space and  $p, q, x \in X$ , so  $d(p, q) \leq d(p, x) + d(x, q)$ , leading to  $d(p, q) \leq d(p, x) + d(x, q) < d(p, q)$ , which is a contradiction. Hence,  $\forall x \in N_{r_q}(p) : x \notin W_q$ .  $N_{r_q}(p) \subset W_q^c$  for  $\forall q \in K$ . Note that  $\{W_q\}_{q \in K}$  is an open cover of  $K$ .  $K$  compact  $\Rightarrow \exists$  finite number of open sets  $W_{q_1}, W_{q_2}, \dots, W_{q_n}$  s.t.  $K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n W_{q_i}$ . Let  $r = \min\{r_{q_1}, r_{q_2}, \dots, r_{q_n}\} > 0$ .

$$\therefore N_r(p) \subset \left( \bigcap_{i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}} N_{r_{q_i}}(p) \right) \subset \left( \bigcap_{i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}} W_{q_i}^c \right) = \left( \bigcup_{i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}} W_{q_i} \right)^c \subset K^c$$

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.35.** If  $K \subset X$  is compact then  $K$  is bounded; i.e.,  $\exists M < \infty$  s.t.  $\forall p, q \in K : d(p, q) \leq M$

**Proof.** Fix  $p \in K$ . An open cover of  $K$  is  $\{N_n(p)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . In fact, this is an open cover of  $X$ .  $K$  compact  $\Rightarrow \exists$  finite subcover  $N_{n_1}(p), N_{n_2}(p), \dots, N_{n_m}(p)$ . Let  $R = \max\{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m\}$ .  $K \subset N_R(p)$ . Let  $M = 2R$ .  $\forall q, r \in K : d(q, r) \leq d(q, p) + d(p, r) < R + R = 2R = M$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.35.** If  $F$  is closed,  $K$  is compact, and  $F \subset K$  then  $F$  is compact.

**Proof.** Suppose  $F \subset K$ . Let  $\{V_\alpha\}$  be an open cover of  $F$ . It suffices to produce a finite subcover: Consider  $\{V_\alpha\}$  together with  $F^c$ . This gives an open cover of  $X$ , hence of  $K$ , so  $\exists$  subcover of  $K$ . Drop  $F^c$  from this finite subcover. The result is a finite subcover of  $\{V_\alpha\}$ , which covers  $F$ . Q.E.D.

**Corollary 2.36.** If  $F$  is closed and  $K$  is compact then  $F \cap K$  is compact.

**Theorem 2.33.** Suppose  $K \subset Y \subset X$ . Then  $K$  is compact relative to  $X$  iff  $K$  is compact relative to  $Y$ .

**Note.** This is not true for open sets. For instance, let  $K = Y = [0, 1] \subset X = \mathbb{R}$ .  $Y$  is open and closed relative to  $Y$ , but  $Y$  is not open relative to  $X$ .

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**Proof.**

- ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $K$  is compact relative to  $X$ . Let  $\{V_\alpha\}$  be an open cover of  $K$  relative to  $Y$ . For any subset of a metric space, there always exists an open cover relative to the whole space, as the whole metric space is trivially an open cover of itself. Then  $\{V_\alpha\}$  is an open cover of  $K$  relative to  $X$ . Since  $K$  is compact relative to  $X$ ,  $\exists$  finite subcover.
- ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $K$  is compact relative to  $Y$ . Let  $\{V_\alpha\}$  be an open cover of  $K$  relative to  $X$ . Then  $\{V_\alpha \cap Y\}$  is an open cover of  $K$  relative to  $Y$ . Since  $K$  is compact relative to  $Y$ ,  $\exists$  finite subcover.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.36.** Suppose  $\{K_\alpha\}$  is a collection of compact sets such that  $\bigcap_{i \in \{1,2,\dots,n\}} K_{\alpha_i} \neq \emptyset$  for any  $n < \infty, \alpha_i$ . Then,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bigcap_{i \in \{1,2,\dots,n\}} K_{\alpha_i} \neq \emptyset$ , or equivalently,  $\bigcap_\alpha K_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ .

**Example.** Let  $G_j = (0, \frac{1}{j}) \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\{G_j\}$  is a collection of open sets, but none of them are compact. (compact sets are closed) Then  $\{G_j\}$  satisfies non-empty finite intersection property but  $\bigcap_{j \in \mathbb{N}} G_j = \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** Suppose for contradiction  $\bigcap_{i \in \{1,2,\dots,n\}} K_{\alpha_i} \neq \emptyset$  for any  $n < \infty, \alpha_i$  and  $\bigcap_\alpha K_\alpha = \emptyset$ . For any  $\alpha_0$ ,  $K_{\alpha_0} \cap \left(\bigcap_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_\alpha\right) = \emptyset$ . Hence,  $K_{\alpha_0} \subset \left(\bigcap_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} K_\alpha\right)^c = \bigcup_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0} (K_\alpha)^c$  and  $\{(K_\alpha)^c\}_{\alpha \neq \alpha_0}$  is an open cover of  $K_{\alpha_0}$ , so  $\exists$  a finite subcover of  $K_{\alpha_0} \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n (K_{\alpha_i})^c$ , which implies  $K_{\alpha_0} \cap \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n K_{\alpha_i}\right) = \emptyset$ , contradiction. Q.E.D.

**Corollary 2.37.** If  $\{K_1, K_2, \dots\}$  are non-empty compact sets with  $\forall_n : K_n \supset K_{n+1}$ , then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^\infty K_n \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** If  $n_1 < n_N$  then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n_N} K_{n_i} = K_{n_N} \neq \emptyset$  Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.37.** If  $K$  is compact and  $E \subset K$  is infinite, then  $E$  has a limit point in  $K$ .

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**Proof.** Contrapositive of the statement is : *if  $E \subset K$  has no limit point in  $K$ , then  $E$  is finite.*

Suppose every point  $q \in K$  is not a limit point of  $E$ . Then

$$\exists_{V_q = N_{r_q}(q)} : V_q \cap E = \begin{cases} \emptyset & \text{if } q \notin E \\ \{q\} & \text{if } q \in E \end{cases}.$$

$\{V_q\}_{q \in K}$  is an open cover of  $K$ , so  $\exists$  finite subcover  $V_{q_1} \cup V_{q_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{q_n}$ . Then  $E = E \cap K \subset (\bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{q_i} \cap E) \subset \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n\}$ , so  $E$  is finite.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.38.** Let  $I_n = [a_n, b_n] \subset \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $\forall_n : I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** Since  $I_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ,  $\forall_{n,m} : a_n \leq a_{n+m} \leq b_{n+m} \leq b_n$ . Let  $E = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ . Then  $E \neq \emptyset$ , every  $b_k$  is an upper bound for  $E$ , so  $\exists x = \sup E$  and  $a_k \leq x \leq b_k$  for all  $k$ . Therefore,  $x \in I_k$  for all  $k$ , so  $x \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.39.** Let  $\{I_n\}$  be a sequence of  $k$ -cells such that  $i_n \supset I_{n+1}$ ; i.e.,  $I_n = \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k : a_{nj} \leq x_j \leq b_{nj}, a_{nj} \leq a_{n+1,j} \leq b_{n+1,j} \leq b_{nj} \text{ for } j = 1, 2, \dots, k\}$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .

**Proof.** Apply previous theorem to each component. Q.E.D.

**Note.**  $k$ -cell is a higher dimensional analog of a rectangle or rectangular solid, which is a Cartesian product of  $k$  closed intervals on the real line.

Formally, Given real numbers  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  such that  $a_i < b_i$  for every integer  $i$  from 1 to  $k$ ,

$$I = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k : a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k\}$$

**Theorem 2.40.** Let  $I \subset \mathbb{R}^k$  be a  $k$ -cell. Then  $I$  is compact.

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**Proof.** Let  $I = I_0 = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k), a_j \leq x_j \leq b_j\}$ .

Let  $\Delta = \{\sum_{j=1}^k (b_j - a_j)^2\}^{1/2}$ . Then  $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}| \leq \Delta$  for  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in I$ .

Suppose for contradiction  $\{G_\alpha\}$  is an open cover of  $I$  that has no finite subcover.

Let  $c_j = \frac{1}{2}(a_j + b_j)$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Using  $[a_j, c_j], [c_j, b_j]$ , we get  $2^k$   $k$ -cells  $Q_i$  with  $I = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} Q_i$ . At least one  $Q_i$ , call it  $I_1$ , has no finite subcover. Otherwise, every  $Q_i$  has a finite subcover, and  $I$  would have a finite subcover, namely the union of the finite subcovers of each  $Q_i$ . Repeat this step to construct  $I_0 = I, I_1, I_2, \dots$ . Then the sequence  $\{I_n\}$  constructed by this process satisfies the following properties:

- (a)  $I_0 = I \supset I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \dots$
- (b)  $\forall n : I_n$  has no finite subcover from  $\{G_\alpha\}$
- (c) if  $x, y \in I_n$  then  $|x - y| \leq 2^{-n}\Delta$ , where  $\Delta = \text{diagonal of } I = \left(\sum_{j=1}^k (b_j - a_j)^2\right)^{1/2}$ .

By theorem 2.38 and (a),  $\exists x^* \in \bigcap_{n=1}^\infty I_n$ . Since  $x^* \in I$ ,  $x^* \in G_{\alpha_0}$  for some  $\alpha_0$ , so  $\exists r > 0$  such that  $N_r(x^*) \subset G_{\alpha_0}$ . But by (c),  $I_n \subset N_{2^{-n}\Delta}(x^*)$ . As soon as  $n$  is large enough that  $2^{-n}\Delta < r$ , we have  $I_n \subset N_{2^{-n}\Delta}(x^*) \subset G_{\alpha_0}$ , which contradicts (b). Q.E.D.



**Note.** Reverse triangle inequality

$\forall a, b, c \in X : d(a, b) \geq d(a, c) - d(c, b)$  because  $d(a, c) \leq d(a, b) + d(b, c)$ .

**Theorem 2.41.** For  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ , the following are equivalent:

- (a)  $E$  is closed and bounded.
- (b)  $E$  is compact.
- (c) Every infinite subset of  $E$  has a limit point in  $E$ .

**Proof.**

(a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b) Because  $E$  is bounded, i.e.,  $\exists_M$  s.t.  $\forall_{x,y \in E} : |x - y| \leq M$ , there exists a  $k$ -cell  $I$  such that  $E \subset I$ . Since every  $k$ -cell is compact, this implies  $E$  is a closed subset of a compact set. Hence,  $E$  is also compact.

(b)  $\Rightarrow$  (c) by theorem 2.37

(c)  $\Rightarrow$  (a) To see that  $E$  is bounded, suppose it were not. Then  $E$  has an infinite subset  $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$  with  $\forall_n : |x_n| \geq n$ .  $S$  has no limit point in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Let  $S = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) \in E : |x_n - x_0| < \frac{1}{n}\}$ . Then  $S$  is an infinite set because if  $S$  is finite, there exists a point  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  such that  $|\mathbf{x}| \geq |\mathbf{x}'|$  for  $\mathbf{x}' \in S$ . However, there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n > |\mathbf{x}|$  and by definition of  $S$ , there exists  $x_n \in S$  such that  $|x_n| \geq n > |\mathbf{x}|$ , which is a contradiction. Thus,  $S$  is infinite. This  $S$  however, cannot have a limit point in  $E$ . By triangle inequality, for any  $y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $|x_n| \leq |x_n - y| + |y|$ , and from archimedean property,  $\exists_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$  s.t.  $m > |x_n - y| + |y|$ , which implies for any  $y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $r > 0$ ,  $\exists_{m \in \mathbb{N}} : |x - y| < r < m$ . However, by the definition of  $S$ , there are at most  $m$  such elements in  $S$ . Since a limit point  $y$  of  $E$  must contain an infinite number of points of  $E$  such that  $d(x, y) < r$  for any  $r > 0$ ,  $y$  cannot be a limit point, which contradicts the assumption that any infinite subset of  $E$  contains a limit point in  $E$ . Therefore,  $E$  must be bounded.

To see that  $E$  is closed, suppose it were not closed. Then  $\exists_{x_0 \in E' \setminus E}$ . If  $T$  has no limit point in  $E$  except  $x_0 \notin E$ , it contradicts (c) because  $T$  is infinite and there must be a limit point of  $T$  in  $E$ .

Therefore, we can show that  $E$  is closed by showing that  $T$  has no limit point in  $E$  except  $x_0$ . Form an infinite sequence  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots), x_n \in E$  with  $|x_n - x_0| < \frac{1}{n}$ . Let  $y \in E$ ,  $y \neq x_0$ . We'll show that  $y$  cannot be a limit point of  $T$ .  $|y - x_n| \geq |y - x_0| + |x_0 - x_n| > |y - x_0| - |x_0 - x_n| > |y - x_0| - \frac{1}{n}$ . Choose  $n \geq \frac{2}{|y - x_0|}$ , so  $\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{|y - x_0|}{2}$ . Then  $|y - x_n| \geq |y - x_0| - \frac{1}{2}|y - x_0| = \frac{1}{2}|y - x_0|$ . So only finitely many  $x_n$  can lie in  $N_{\frac{1}{2}|y - x_0|}(y)$ . So  $y$  cannot be a limit point of  $S$ . Therefore,  $E$  is closed.

Q.E.D.

**Remark.** (b) and (c) are equivalent in any metric space, but (a) does not, in general, imply (b) or (c) in a metric space other than  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

**Example.** Failure of Heine-Borel theorem in general metric spaces.

some infinite set, discrete metric  $d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = y \\ 1 & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$ . Then  $E$  is bounded

and closed but not compact.

**Theorem 2.42.** [Weirstrass's theorem] Every bounded infinite subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^k$  has a limit point in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

**Proof.** Choose a  $k$ -cell  $I \supset E$ . Since  $I$  is compact, by theorem 2.41,  $E$  has a limit point in  $I$ . Q.E.D.

**Example.** Let

$$E_0 = [0, 1] \quad (2.5)$$

$$E_1 = [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1] \quad (2.6)$$

$$E_2 = [0, \frac{1}{9}] \cup [\frac{2}{9}, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{9}] \cup [\frac{8}{9}, 1] \quad (2.7)$$

$$\vdots \quad (2.8)$$

This gives  $E_0 \supset E_1 \supset E_2 \supset E_3 \supset \dots$ , where each  $E_n$  is the union of  $2^n$  closed intervals of length  $\frac{1}{3^n}$ .

**Definition 2.13 (Perfect Sets).** A set  $P$  is perfect if there is no isolated point in  $P$ ; i.e.,

$$P = P'.$$

**Theorem 2.43.** Let  $P$  be a non-empty perfect set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . Then  $P$  is uncountable.

**Proof.** Suppose for contradiction  $P$  is countable. Since  $P$  is non-empty, there exists some  $p_1 \in P$ .  $p_1$  is then also a limit point of  $P$ . Let  $p_2 \in P (\neq p_1)$  be a point in  $V_1 = N_{r_1}(p_1)$  for some  $r_1$  such that  $d(p_1, p_2) > r_1/2$ . Let  $r_2 = r_1 - d(p_1, p_2)$ ,  $V_2 = N_{r_2}p_2$ . Then  $\forall x \in V_2 : d(p_1, x) \leq d(p_1, p_2) + d(p_2, x) < d(p_1, p_2) + r_2 = r_1$ . Hence,  $V_2 \subset V_1$ .  $\overline{V_2} \subset V_1$  as well. Also, note that  $d(p_1, p_2) > r_1/2$ , so  $r_2 = r_1 - d(p_1, p_2) < r_1/2 < d(p_1, p_2)$ . So  $p_1 \notin V_2$ . Repeat this process, and let  $K_n = \overline{V_n} \cap P$ .  $K_n \subset \overline{V_n}$ . Since  $\overline{V_n}$  is closed and bounded, it's compact.  $\overline{V_n} \cap P$  is a closed subset of  $\overline{V_n}$ , so  $K_n$  is also compact. However, for any  $p_n$ ,  $p_n \notin K_{n+1}$ , so  $\bigcap_{1 \in \infty} K_n \cap P = \emptyset$ . Since  $K_n \subset P$ , this implies  $\bigcap_{1 \in \infty} K_n = \emptyset$ , but each  $K_n$  is not empty,  $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$ , and  $K_n$  is compact. Thus,  $\bigcap_{1 \in \infty} K_n \cap P$  can't be empty, so this is a contradiction. Q.E.D.

**Definition 2.14 (Cantor Set).** The cantor set  $P := \bigcap_n^\infty E_n$ .



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**Proposition.**  $P$  is compact, non-empty and contains no open intervals  $(a, b)$  and uncountable.

**Proof. Compactness**  $P$  is compact because  $P \subset E_0 = [0, 1]$  and  $E_0$  is compact.

**Non-emptiness**  $P$  is non-empty because  $P \subset E_0$  and  $E_0$  is non-empty.

**No open intervals**  $P$  contains no open intervals  $(a, b)$  because any  $(a, b)$  contains some  $(\frac{3k+1}{3^n}, \frac{3k+2}{3^n})$  and these are all removed.

**Uncountability**  $P$  is uncountable because  $P$  is a perfect set. Equivalently,  $P$  consists of points in  $[0, 1]$  whose ternary, i.e., base 3, representation contains only 0's and 2's.

**Note.** ternary representation:  $0.a_1a_2a_3\dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{3^n}$  where  $a_n \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ .

Q.E.D.

**Example (Cantor Set).** Let  $E = [0, 1]$ ,  $E_1 = [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1]$ .  $E_2 = [0, \frac{1}{9}] \cup [\frac{2}{9}, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{9}] \cup [\frac{8}{9}, 1]$ , etc. Keep removing open middle third. This gives  $E_0 \supset E_1 \supset E_2 \dots$ . Each  $E_n$  is the union of  $2^n$  closed intervals of length  $\frac{1}{3^n}$ .

**Definition 2.15 (Separated Sets).** Separated Sets  $A, B \subset X$  are separated if  $\overline{A} \cap B = A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset$ .

**Connected Sets**  $E \subset X$  is connected if there is no non-empty separated sets  $A, B \subset E$ .

**Example (Separated Sets).** In  $\mathbb{R}^1$ ,  $[0, 1)$  and  $(1, 2]$  are separated so  $[0, 1) \cup (1, 2]$  is not connected. Every interval is connected (open, closed, semi-open).

**Theorem 2.47.**  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^1$  is connected if and only if  $E$  is an interval; i.e.,  $\forall x, y \in E, x < y$  s.t.  $\forall z \in (x, y) : z \in E$

**Proof.** Let  $x, y \in E$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 2.48.** A metric space  $X$  is connected if and only if the only nonempty subset of  $X$  which is both open and closed is  $X$  itself.  $|\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_n|| \leq 0 + \varepsilon\alpha$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, this implies  $|\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_n|| = 0$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma_n| = 0$ .

## Chapter 3

# Sequence and Series

### 3.1 Sequences

**Definition 3.1.** In a metric space  $(X, d)$ , a sequence  $\{p_n\}$  converges to  $p$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N$  s.t.  $n \geq N \Rightarrow d(p_n, p) < \varepsilon$ .  
We write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$  or  $p_n \rightarrow p$ .

If  $\{p_n\}$  does not converge to any  $p$  then it is said to diverge.

**Theorem 3.3.** If  $s_n$  and  $t_n$  are sequences in  $\mathbb{C}$  with  $s_n \rightarrow s$  and  $t_n \rightarrow t$ , then the following hold:

- (a)  $s_n + t_n \rightarrow s + t$
- (b)  $cs_n \rightarrow cs$ ,  $c + s_n \rightarrow c + s$  for any  $c \in \mathbb{C}$
- (c)  $s_n t_n \rightarrow st$
- (d)  $\frac{1}{s_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{s}$  if  $s \neq 0$

**Lemma (Squeeze Lemma).** In  $\mathbb{R}$ , if  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : 0 \leq x_n \leq s_n$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N$  such that  $n \geq N \Rightarrow 0 \leq s_n < \varepsilon$ . Then  $0 \leq x_n \leq s_n < \varepsilon$  for  $n \geq N$ , so  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.20.** (a) If  $p > 0$  then  $\frac{1}{n^p} \rightarrow 0$ .

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**Proof.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N$  such that  $\frac{1}{N^p} < \varepsilon$ ; i.e.,  $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{p}}}$ .

Then for  $n \geq N$ ,  $\frac{1}{n^p} \leq \frac{1}{N^p} < \varepsilon$ .

Q.E.D.

(b) If  $p > 0$  then  $\sqrt[p]{p} \rightarrow 1$ .

**Proof.**  $p = 1$  is obvious.

Suppose  $p > 1$ . Let  $x_n = \sqrt[p]{p} - 1 > 0$ . Want to show  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ .

Since  $(x_n + 1)^n$ , we have  $p = (x_n + 1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x_n^k > \binom{n}{1} x_n' = n x_n$ .

Therefore,  $x_n \leq \frac{p}{n}$ , so  $x_n \rightarrow 0$  by the Squeeze Lemma.

Suppose  $p \in (0, 1)$ . Let  $q = \frac{1}{p} > 1$ . Then  $\sqrt[q]{q} \rightarrow 1$  by the previous case. By 3.3,  $\sqrt[p]{p} = \frac{1}{\sqrt[q]{q}} \rightarrow 1$ .

Q.E.D.

(c)  $\sqrt[n]{n} \rightarrow 1$

**Proof.** Let  $x_n = \sqrt[n]{n} - 1 > 0$ , for  $n \geq 2$ .  $n = (x_n + 1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (x_n)^k > \binom{n}{2} x_n^2 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} x_n^2$ . Therefore,  $x_n \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{n-1}}$ .

Q.E.D.

(d) If  $p > 0$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n} \rightarrow 0$ ; i.e., Exponentials beat powers.

**Proof.** We want an upper bound on  $\frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n}$ , so seek a lower bound on  $(1+p)^n$ .

$(1+p)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k > \binom{n}{k} p^k$  for  $k \leq n$

$(1+p)^n > \binom{n}{k} p^k = \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!} p^k$ . Then for  $k \leq \frac{n}{2}$ ,  $\binom{n}{k} p^k >$

$(\frac{n}{2})^k \frac{p^k}{k!}$ . Therefore,  $\frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n} < (\frac{2}{p})^k k! \frac{1}{n^{k-\alpha}}$ . Let  $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $k > \alpha$ . Then for  $n \geq 2k_0$ , RHS  $\rightarrow 0$  by (a).

If  $|x| < 1$  then  $x^n \rightarrow 0$ .

**Proof.**  $|x^n - 0| = |x|^n$ , so  $x^n \rightarrow 0 \Leftrightarrow |x|^n \rightarrow 0$  and  $|x|^n = \frac{n_0}{(\frac{1}{|x|})^n} \rightarrow 0$  by (d) with  $\alpha = 0$  and  $1 + p = \frac{1}{|x|} > 1$ , so  $p = \frac{1}{|x|} - 1 > 0$ .

Q.E.D.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.2.** (a)  $p_n \rightarrow p \Leftrightarrow \forall_{r>0} : N_r(p)$  contains all but finitely many  $p_n$ .

**Proof.**  $\forall_{n \geq N} : p_n \in N_r(p)$

Q.E.D.

(b) If  $p_n \rightarrow p$  and  $p_n \rightarrow p'$  then  $p = p'$ .

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**Proof.**  $d(p, p') \leq d(p_n, p) + d(p_n, p')$  for all  $n$ . Fix  $\varepsilon$ . Choose  $N$  such that  $d(p_n, p) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  and  $d(p_n, p') < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  for  $n \geq N$ . Then  $d(p, p') < \varepsilon$ . Then for  $n \geq \max\{N, N'\}$ ,  $d(p, p') < \varepsilon$ . This is true for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , so  $d(p, p') = 0$ . Q.E.D.

(c) If  $\{p_n\}$  converges, then  $p_n$  is bounded, in a sense that  $\exists_{M>0, q \in X}$  s.t.  $d(p_n, q) \leq M$  for all  $n$ .

**Proof.** If  $p_n \rightarrow p$ , then  $\exists N$  s.t.  $d(p_n, p) < 1$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Thus,  $\forall_{n \geq 1} : d(p_n, p) \leq \max\{1, d(p, p_1), \dots, d(p, p_{N-1})\} = M$  Q.E.D.

(d) If  $E \subset X$  has a limit point  $p$ , then  $\exists_{p_n \in E}$  s.t.  $p_n \rightarrow p$ .

**Proof.** We need to choose  $p_n \in E$  s.t.  $d(p, p_n) < \frac{1}{n}$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $d(p, p_n) < \varepsilon$  if  $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$  Q.E.D.

**Definition 3.2.** Given  $p_n, n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$ , we say  $p_{n_i} = (p_{n_1}, p_{n_2}, \dots)$  is a subsequence of  $p_n$ .

**Lemma.**  $p_n \rightarrow p \Leftrightarrow$  every subsequence of  $\{p_n\}$  converges to  $p$

**Proof.** Look at assignment 6 Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.6.** (a)  $\{p_n\}$  in  $X$ ,  $X$  compact, then  $\exists$  convergent subsequence.

**Proof.** Let  $E = \text{range of } \{p_n\}$ . If  $E$  is finite, then  $\exists p \in X$  and  $n_1 < n_2 < \dots$  s.t.  $p_n = p$  for  $\forall i$ . This subsequence converges to  $p$ . If  $E$  is infinite then by Theorem 2.37,  $E$  has a limit point  $p \in X$ ; i.e., every neighborhood of  $p$  contains infinitely many points of  $E$ . Choose  $n_1$  s.t.  $d(p, p_{n_1}) < 1$ .

Q.E.D.

(b)  $\{p_n\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , bounded, then  $\exists$  convergent subsequence.

**Proof.** Choose a  $k$ -cell  $I$  that contains  $\{p_n\}$ .  $I$  is compact. Apply (a).

Q.E.D.

**Definition 3.3 (Cauchy Sequence).**  $\{p_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  if  $\forall \varepsilon : \exists_{N \in \mathbb{N}}$  s.t.  $d(p_m, p_n) < \varepsilon \forall m, n \geq N$ .

---

**Definition 3.4.** For  $E \subset X$ ,  $E \neq \emptyset$ , we define  $\text{diam } E = \sup \{d(p, q) : p, q \in E\}$ .  $\text{diam } E = \infty$  if the set is not bounded above.

**Example.** For a sequence  $p_n$  in  $X$ , let  $E_n = \{p_n, p_{n+1}, \dots\}$ . Then  $\{p_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence iff  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } E_N = 0$ .

**Theorem 3.11.** (a) If  $p_n \rightarrow p$  then  $\{p_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence.  
 (b) If  $X$  is a compact metric space and  $\{p_n\}$  in  $X$  is a Cauchy sequence, then  $\exists p \in X$  s.t.  $p_n \rightarrow p$ .  
 (c) In  $\mathbb{R}^K$  every Cauchy sequence converges.

**Remark.** If a Cauchy sequence has a convergent subsequence in a metric space, then the full sequence itself converges to the same point the subsequence converges to.

**Proof.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N$  s.t.,  $d(p_n, p) < \varepsilon/2$  if  $n \geq N$ . Then for  $m, n \geq N$ ,  $d(p_m, p_n) \leq d(p_m, p) + d(p, p_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$ .

Suppose  $\{p_n\}$  is Cauchy. Let  $E_N = \{p_N, p_{N+1}, \dots\}$ . Then  $\overline{E_N}$  is closed, hence compact. Also  $\overline{E_N} \supset \overline{E_{N+1}}$  and  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } \overline{E_N} = 0$  (use Theorem 3.10(a) to see  $\text{diam } \overline{E_N} = \text{diam } E_N$ ) By theorem 3.10(b),  $\exists! p \in \bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} \overline{E_N}$ . Claim:  $p_n \rightarrow p$ .

Proof of the claim: Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N_0$  s.t.  $\text{diam } \overline{E_{N_0}} < \varepsilon$ , so  $d(p, q) < \varepsilon \forall q \in \overline{E_{N_0}}$ , and hence  $\forall q \in E_{N_0}$ ; i.e.,  $d(p, p_n) < \varepsilon$  if  $n \geq N_0$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N$  s.t.,  $d(p_n, p) < \varepsilon/2$  if  $n \geq N$ . Then for  $m, n \geq N$ ,  $d(p_m, p_n) \leq d(p_m, p) + d(p, p_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$ .

Suppose  $\{p_n\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is Cauchy. Cauchy sequences are bounded in any metric space. Therefore,  $\exists k$ -cell  $I$ , which is compact, containing  $\{p_n\}$ . Then (b) applies Q.E.D.

**Note.** The converse of Theorem 3.11(a) does not hold in general.

**Example.**  $X = \mathbb{Q}$  has a Cauchy sequence with no limit in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . (see assignment 6). Converse does hold if  $X$  is compact.

**Theorem 3.12.** (a)  $\text{diam } \overline{E} = \text{diam } E$   
 (b) If  $K_n \subset X$ ,  $K_n \neq \emptyset$ ,  $K$  compact,  $K_n \supset K_{n+1} \forall n$  and if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } K_n = 0$ , then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  is a single point.

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**Proof.** (a)  $E \subset \overline{E} \Rightarrow \text{diam } E \leq \text{diam } \overline{E}$ . For the opposite inequality, let  $\varepsilon > 0, p, q \in \overline{E}$ . Choose  $p', q' \in E$  s.t.  $d(p, p') < \varepsilon, d(q, q') < \varepsilon$ . Then  $d(p, q) \leq d(p, p') + d(p', q') + d(q', q) < \varepsilon + \varepsilon = 2\varepsilon$ .  $\text{diam } \overline{E} \leq \text{diam } E + 2\varepsilon$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $\text{diam } \overline{E} \leq \text{diam } E$ .

(b) Let  $K = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$ . By Theorem 2.36,  $K \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $K \subset K_n \forall n$ ,  $\text{diam } K \leq \text{diam } K_n \forall n$ , so  $\text{diam } K = 0$ . Therefore,  $d(p, q) = 0 \forall p, q \in K$ , so  $K$  is a simple point.

Q.E.D.

**Definition 3.5 (Complete Metric Space).** A metric space  $(X, d)$  is complete if every Cauchy sequence in  $X$  converges to a point in  $X$ .

**Example.** (a)  $X$  compact  $\Rightarrow X$  complete.

(b)  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is complete, so is  $\mathbb{C}$ .

(c)  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete. (see assignment 6)

(d) See assignment 6 for reference to completion of a metric space.

We've seen that convergent sequences are bounded.  $p_n = (-1)^n$  shows the converse is false. However the converse does hold for monotonic sequences.

**Definition 3.6 (Monotone).** • A sequence  $\{s_n\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  is monotonically increasing if  $s_n \leq s_{n+1} \forall n$ .

• A sequence  $\{s_n\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  is monotonically decreasing if  $s_n \geq s_{n+1} \forall n$ .

**Theorem 3.14.** A monotone sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  converges if and only if it is bounded.

**Proof.**  $\Rightarrow$  all convergent sequences are bounded in any metric space.

$\Leftarrow$  **Increasing case** Let  $\{s_n\}$  be monotonically increasing and  $s_n \leq M \forall n$ . Let  $s = \sup\{s_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Then  $s_n \leq s \forall n$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .  $\exists N$  s.t.  $s - \varepsilon < s_N \leq s$ . But then  $s - \varepsilon < s_N \leq s_{N+1} \leq s_{N+2} \leq \dots \leq s$ , so  $|s - s_n| < \varepsilon \forall n \geq N$ , and therefore  $s_n \rightarrow s$ .

Q.E.D.

**Definition 3.7 (Infinite Limits).** We say

- $s_n \rightarrow \infty$  if  $\forall M \in \mathbb{R} : \exists N$  s.t.  $s_n \geq M \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $s_n \rightarrow -\infty$  if  $\forall M \in \mathbb{R} : \exists N$  s.t.  $s_n \leq M \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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**Definition 3.8.** Let  $\{s_n\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . We define  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} \{\sup_{m \geq n} \{s_m\}\} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{m \geq n} \{s_m\}$ .  
 $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} \{\inf_{m \geq n} \{s_m\}\} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} \{s_m\}$ .

**Note.** Alternate definition; see ass 7 for equivalence

**Remark.** (a) If  $a_n \leq b_n \forall n$  and  $a_n \rightarrow a$  and  $b_n \rightarrow b$ , then  $a \leq b$ .

(b)  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$

**Example.** (a)  $s_n = (-1)^n(1 + \frac{1}{n^2})$   $1 \leq \sup_{m \geq n} s_m \leq 1 + \frac{1}{n^2}$ , so  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 1$ . Similarly,  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = -1$

(b) If  $\{s_n\}$  has no upper bound, then  $\sup_{m \geq n} s_m = \infty$  and in this case we say  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \infty$ ; e.g.,

$$s_n = \begin{cases} n & n \text{ odd} \\ -n & n \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

has  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \infty$ ,  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = -\infty$

**Lemma.**  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L \Leftrightarrow s_n \rightarrow L$ .

**Proof** ( $L$  finite).

$\Rightarrow$  This follows from  $\inf_{m \geq n} s_m \leq s_n \leq \sup_{m \geq n} s_m$ .  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{m \geq n} s_m = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$ , and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{m \geq n} s_m = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$ . Therefore,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$ .

$\Leftarrow$  If  $s_n \rightarrow L$ , then  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists N$  s.t.  $s_m \in [L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon] \forall m \geq N$ . Therefore,  $\forall n \geq N : L - \varepsilon \leq \inf_{m \geq n} s_m \leq \inf_{m \geq n} s_m \leq \sup_{m \geq n} s_m \leq \sup_{m \geq n} s_m \leq L + \varepsilon$ . Let  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :  $L - \varepsilon \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq L + \varepsilon$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, so  $L \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq L$ .

Q.E.D.

## 3.2 Series

**Definition 3.9 (Series).** Let  $\{a_n\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Form a new sequence  $\{s_n\}$ , the sequence of partial sums, by  $s_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ . If  $s_n \rightarrow s$ , we say **the series**  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  **converges** and that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = s$ . If  $\{s_n\}$  diverges then we say  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges.

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**Theorem 3.15.**  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n$  converges if and only if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists N$  s.t.  $\forall n \geq m \geq N : |\sum_{k=m}^n a_k| < \varepsilon$ .

**Proof.**  $\sum_n a_n$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow \{s_n\}$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow \{s_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence ( $\because \mathbb{C}$  is compact). Use  $s_n - s_{m-1} = \sum_{k=m}^n a_k$ . Q.E.D.

**Corollary 3.16.** If  $\sum_n a_n$  converges then  $a_n \rightarrow 0$ .

**Proof.** Take  $m = n$  in Theorem 3.22.  $\sum_n a_n$  converges  $\Rightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists N$  s.t.  $|a_n| < \varepsilon$  if  $n \geq N$ . Q.E.D.

**Remark.**  $n$ -th term test for divergence: If  $a_n \not\rightarrow 0$  then  $\sum_n a_n$  diverges.

**Example.**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1}$  diverges because  $\frac{n}{n+1} \rightarrow 1 \neq 0$ .

Converse to Corollary 3.16 is false! E.g.,  $\sum_n \frac{1}{n}$  diverges but  $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ .

**Theorem 3.24.** If  $a_n \geq 0$ , then  $\sum_n a_n$  converges if and only if  $\{s_n\}$  is bounded.

**Proof.**  $\{s_n\}$  is monotone increasing, so by Theorem 3.14, it converges if and only if it is bounded. Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.25.** [Comparison Test]

(a) If  $|a_n| \leq c_n \forall n \geq N_0$  and  $\sum_n c_n$  converges, then  $\sum_n a_n$  converges.

**Proof.** Suppose  $|a_n| \leq c_n \forall n \geq N_0$  and  $\sum_n c_n$  converges. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By theorem 3.22,  $\exists N$  s.t.  $\sum_{k=m}^n c_k < \varepsilon$  if  $n \geq m \geq N$ . Can take  $N \geq N_0$ . Then  $|N \geq N_0| \cdot |\sum_{k=m}^n a_k| \leq \sum_{k=m}^n |a_k| \leq \sum_{k=m}^n c_k < \varepsilon$  if  $n \geq m \geq N$ . By theorem 3.22 again,  $\sum_n a_n$  converges. Q.E.D.

(b) If  $a_n \geq d_n \geq 0 \forall n \geq N_0$  and if  $\sum_n d_n$  diverges, then  $\sum_n a_n$  diverges.

**Proof.** This follows from (a): if  $\sum_n a_n$  converges then  $\sum_n d_n$  converges. Thus it's contrapositive, (b) is true. Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.26.** [Geometric Series]  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-x} & \text{if } -1 < x < 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



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**Proof.** Let  $S_n = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n$ ,  $xS_n = x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n + x^{n+1}$ . Then

$$S_n - xS_n = 1 - x^{n+1} \Rightarrow S_n = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

If  $|x| < 1$  ( $\Leftrightarrow -1 < x < 1$ ), then  $x^{n+1} \rightarrow 0$  and  $S_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{1-x}$ . If  $|x| \geq 1$ , then  $x^{n+1}$  does not converge to 0, so  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$  diverges. Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.27.** Suppose  $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \cdots \geq 0$ . Then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$  converges.

**Proof.** ( $\Leftarrow$ ) We show that if  $\sum_n a_n$  diverges, then  $\sum_k 2^k a_{2^k}$  diverges.

For this, note that  $a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n \leq a_1 + (a_2 + a_3) + (a_4 + a_5 + a_6 + a_7) + \cdots + (a_{2^k} + a_{2^k+1} + \cdots + a_{2^{k+1}-1})$  if  $2^{k+1} > n$ .

$a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n \leq a_1 + 2a_2 + 4a_4 + \cdots + 2^k a_{2^k}$ . LHS unbounded as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , so RHS is also unbounded as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

( $\Rightarrow$ )  $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n \geq a_1 + a_2 + (a_3 + a_4) + (a_5 + a_6 + a_7 + a_8) + \cdots + (a_{2^{k-1}+1} + a_{2^{k-1}+2} + \cdots + a_{2^k})$  if  $2^k \leq n$ .  $a_1 + a_2 + (a_3 + a_4) + (a_5 + a_6 + a_7 + a_8) + \cdots + (a_{2^{k-1}+1} + a_{2^{k-1}+2} + \cdots + a_{2^k}) \geq a_1 + a_2 + 2a_4 + 4a_8 + \cdots + 2^{k-1} a_{2^k} \geq \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + 2a_2 + 4a_4 + \cdots + 2^k a_{2^k})$ .

If  $\sum_n a_n$  converges, then LHS is bounded for all  $n$  so RHS is bounded for all  $k$ . Hence RHS converges since it is monotone.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.28.** [ $p$ -series]  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

**Proof.** For  $p \leq 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{n^p} \not\rightarrow 0$ , so series diverges. For  $p > 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{n^p}$  is decreasing, so  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  converges iff  $\sum_k 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{(2^k)^p}$  converges. But  $\sum_k 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{(2^k)^p} = \sum_k (\frac{1}{2^{p-1}})^k$  converges iff  $\frac{1}{2^{p-1}} < 1$  ( $\Leftrightarrow p - 1 > 0$ ), which is equivalent to  $p > 1$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.29.**  $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$  converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges if  $p \leq 1$ . (log is to base  $e$ .)

**Proof.** If  $p \leq 0$ , then  $\frac{1}{n(\log n)^p} \geq \frac{1}{n}$ , so  $\sum_n \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$  diverges by the comparison test. If  $p > 0$  then  $\frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$  decreases since  $\log n$  increases. By theorem 3.27,  $\sum_n \frac{1}{n(\log n)^p}$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow \sum_k 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^k(\log 2^k)^p}$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow \sum_k \frac{1}{(\log 2)^p} \cdot \frac{1}{k^p}$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow p > 1$  Q.E.D.

**Definition 3.10 (e).**  $e := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$ .

**Remark. Convergence**  $\frac{1}{n!} = \frac{1}{(n(n-1)(n-2)\dots 3\cdot 2\cdot 1)} \leq \frac{1}{2\cdot 2\cdot 2\dots 2\cdot 1} = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$ .  
Therefore,  $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \leq 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} < 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{1-1/2} = 3$ . Then  $S_n$  is a monotonically increasing sequence that's also bounded. Hence,  $e \leq 3$

**Rate of Convergence**

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < e - S_n &= \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} < \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^{k-n+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \\ &= \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^{k-(n+1)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{1}{1-1/(n+1)} = \frac{1}{(n!) \cdot n}. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 3.32.**  $e \notin \mathbb{Q}$ .

**Proof.** For contradiction, suppose  $e = \frac{p}{q}, p, q \in \mathbb{N}$ . As  $0 < e - S_q < \frac{1}{q \cdot q!}$ ,  $0 < q! \cdot e - q! \cdot S_q < \frac{1}{q}$ . Since  $S_q = \sum_{k=0}^q \frac{1}{k!}$ ,  $q! \cdot e$  and  $S_q \cdot q!$  are both integers. However, then  $q! \cdot e - q! \cdot S_q$  is an integer between 0 and  $\frac{1}{q} < 1$ , which is a contradiction. Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.31.**  $e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ .

**Proof.** Let  $t_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ . Then  $t_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cdot \frac{1}{n^k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \cdot (\frac{n}{n} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \dots \frac{n-k+1}{n}) \leq S_n$ . So  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = e$ . On the other hand, for fixed  $m$  and  $n \geq m$ ,  $t_n \geq \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{n}{k} \cdot \frac{1}{n^k} = \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{k!} (1 - \frac{1}{n})(1 - \frac{2}{n}) \dots (1 - \frac{k-1}{n})$ . Let  $n \rightarrow \infty$  with  $m$  fixed.  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \geq \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{k!} \cdot 1 = S_m$ . This is true for any  $m$ . Now let  $m \rightarrow \infty$ .  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \geq \limsup_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_m = e$ .  $e \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n \leq e$ . Therefore,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n$  exists and equals  $e$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.33.** [Root test] Let  $\alpha = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$ . Then,

$$\sum a_n \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } \alpha < 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } \alpha > 1 \\ \text{inconclusive} & \text{if } \alpha = 1 \end{cases}$$

**Proof (Just outline).**  $\alpha < \beta < 1$  Eventually  $|a_n| \leq \beta^n$ , thus convergence.

$\alpha > 1$   $|a_n| > 1$  for infinitely many  $n$ , thus divergence.

$\alpha = 1$   $\frac{1}{n}$  diverges,  $\frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.34.** [Ratio test] The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  with  $a_n \neq 0$  converges if  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| < 1$  and diverges if  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\forall n \geq N : |\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| \geq 1$ . Otherwise, inconclusive.

**Proof.** (see textbook).

$$\text{Convergence } \sum a_n \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| < 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| > 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| > 1 \\ \text{inconclusive} & \text{otherwise. e.g., } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| = 1 \end{cases}$$

**Note.** Note that we cannot replace  $\liminf$  with  $\limsup$  in the third case. For inconclusive case, check  $\sum 1/n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\sum 1/n^2 \rightarrow \pi^2/6$

Q.E.D.

**Example.** Let  $s_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = \frac{1}{2} + 1 + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{128} + \frac{1}{64} + \dots$ . First, note that  $a_{2k} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4^k}$ ,  $a_{2k+1} = 2a_{2k} = \frac{1}{4^k}$  for  $k \geq 0$ .

**Ratio test** Then the ratio  $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$  is the sequence  $2, \frac{1}{8}, 2, \frac{1}{8}, 2, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$ . Therefore,  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{1}{8}$ ,  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = 2$ . The ratio test is inconclusive for  $s_n$ .

**Root test**  $a_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} & n \text{ even} \\ \frac{2}{2^n} & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$ , so  $(\frac{1}{2})^{1/n} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \leq \sqrt[n]{a_n} \leq \frac{2^{1/n}}{2}$ , thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} = \frac{1}{2} < 1$ . Therefore,  $s_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

This is an example where the ratio test is inconclusive but the root test is conclusive.

**Theorem 3.47.** If  $\sum a_n = A$  and  $\sum b_n = B$ , then  $\sum a_n + b_n = A + B$  and  $\sum c \cdot a_n = cA$ .

### 3.3 Power Series

**Definition 3.11 (Power Series).** For  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  and a complex sequence  $\{c_n\}$ ,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$  is a power series.

**Remark.** As  $z^0 = 1$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , by convention we write  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n = c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ .

**Theorem 3.39.** Let  $R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}}$ , where

$$R = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} = \infty \\ \infty & \text{if } \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} = 0 \end{cases}.$$

Then  $\sum c_n z^n$   $\begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } |z| < R \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } |z| > R. \\ \text{inconclusive} & \text{if } |z| = R \end{cases}$ . Note  $R = 0$  implies the series diverges for  $z \neq 0$ , and  $R = \infty$  implies the series converges for any  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Proof.**  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n z^n|} = |z| \cdot \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} = \frac{|z|}{R}$ . By root test, the series converges if  $\frac{|z|}{R} < 1$  and diverges if  $\frac{|z|}{R} > 1$ .

**Note.** In practice, often use the ratio test to find  $R$ .

Q.E.D.

**Example.** (a)  $\sum n! \cdot z^n$  has  $R = 0$ .

**By ratio test**  $\forall z \neq 0 : \left| \frac{(n+1)! \cdot z^{n+1}}{n! \cdot z^n} \right| = |z| \cdot (n+1) \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence, the series diverges.

**By root test** Note  $n \neq \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2}{3} \right)^2 \left( \frac{3}{4} \right)^3 \dots \left( \frac{n-1}{n} \right)^{n-1} n^n$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Then  $n \neq \frac{n^n}{(1+1)^1 (1+\frac{1}{2})^2 (1+\frac{1}{n-1})^{n-1}}$ . In the proof of Theorem 3.31, we saw  $(1 + \frac{1}{j}) \leq e$ . So  $n! \geq \frac{n^n}{e^{n-1}} = e \cdot \left( \frac{n}{e} \right)^n$ .  $\sqrt[n]{n!} \geq e^{1/n} \cdot \frac{n}{e} \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore,  $R = \frac{1}{\infty} = 0$ .

**Note.** Cf. Stirling's formula:  $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left( \frac{n}{e} \right)^n$ .

**Definition 3.12 (Absolute Convergence, Conditional Convergence).**

- (a)  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely if  $\sum |a_n|$  converges.
- (b)  $\sum a_n$  converges conditionally if  $\sum a_n$  converges but  $\sum |a_n|$  diverges.

---

**Remark.** All other convergence tests seen so far are actually tests for absolute convergence.

**Example.** •  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n}$  converges conditionally by the alternating series test of assignment 7's practice problem 1. See also Theorem 3.43. (MUST TAKE A LOOK!)

- Given  $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \cdots \geq 0$  and  $a_n \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\sum (-1)^n a_n$  converges.
- $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! 2^n$  has  $R = 0$
- $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n^n}$  has  $R = \infty$  since  $R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}} = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}} = 1/0 = \infty$ , or use ratio test,  $|\frac{z^{n+1}/(n+1)^{n+1}}{z^n/n^n}| = |z| = \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^{n+1}} = |z| \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{1}{(1+\frac{1}{n})^n}$ . Since  $(1 + \frac{1}{n})^n \rightarrow \frac{1}{e}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $|z| \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{1}{(1+\frac{1}{n})^n} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$  so  $R = \infty$ .

**Theorem 3.45.** If  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.

**Theorem 3.54.** Suppose  $\sum a_n$  converges conditionally. Let  $-\infty \leq \alpha \leq \beta \leq +\infty$ . Then  $\exists$  bijection  $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that with  $a'_n = a_{f(n)}$  and  $S'_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a'_k$ ,  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s'_n = \alpha$  and  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s'_n = \beta$ . In other words, there exists a rearrangement of  $\sum a_n$ , say  $\sum a'_n$ , such that  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum a'_n = \alpha$ ,  $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum a'_n = \beta$ .

**Proof.** Take a look at the textbook Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.55.** If  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely, then every rearrangement of  $\sum a_n$  converges to the same sum.

**Proof.** Take a look at the textbook Q.E.D.

## 3.4 Products of Series

**Motivation** Consider  $z^N$  in  $(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n)(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n)$ . Since  $(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n)(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n) = (a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \cdots)(b_0 + b_1 z + b_2 z^2 + \cdots) = (a_0 b_0) + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0)z + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0)z^2 + \cdots$ ,  $z^N$  has coefficient  $\sum_{k=0}^N a_k b_{N-k}$ .

**Definition 3.13.** The product of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  is  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n$  where  $c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$ .

**Note.** This is a discrete convolution.

**Question** If  $\sum a_n = A$  and  $\sum b_n = B$  both converge, does  $\sum c_n$  converge and if so, does it converge to  $AB$ ?

---

**Answer**  $\sum c_n$  converges if  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  converge absolutely. (Theorem 3.50). Moreover, if  $\sum c_n$  does converge, then it must converge to  $AB$  (Theorem 3.51). Maybe no otherwise (ref: Example 3.49).

**Theorem 3.50.** Suppose  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely to  $A$  and  $\sum b_n$  converges to  $B$ . Then  $\sum c_n$  converges to  $AB$ .

**Proof.** Let  $A_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$ ,  $B_n = \sum_{k=0}^n b_k$ ,  $C_n = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k$ . Then  $A_n \rightarrow A, B_n \rightarrow B$ . By definition,  $C_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^k a_j b_{k-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=j}^n a_j b_{k-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \sum_{k=j}^n b_{k-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j B_{n-j} = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j B + \sum_{j=0}^n a_j (B_{n-j} - B)$ . Let  $\beta_{n-j}$ , where  $\beta_k = B_k - B$ . Then  $C_n = A_n B + \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \beta_{n-j}$ . Let  $\gamma_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j \beta_{n-j}$ . Note that  $A_n B \rightarrow AB, \beta_k \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $\alpha = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| < \infty$  ( $\because a_n$  converges absolutely by assumption). Rewrite  $\gamma_n$  as  $\gamma_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_{n-j} \beta_j$ . We know  $\beta_j \rightarrow 0$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $N$  s.t.  $|\beta_j| < \varepsilon$  if  $j \geq N$ . Then for  $n \geq N+1$ ,  $|\gamma_n| \leq |\sum_{j=0}^N a_{n-j} \beta_j| + |\sum_{j=N+1}^n a_{n-j} \beta_j|$ . Note  $|\sum_{j=N+1}^n a_{n-j} \beta_j| \leq \varepsilon \sum_{j=N+1}^n |a_{n-j}| \leq \varepsilon \alpha$ . Let  $n \rightarrow \infty$  with  $N$  fixed. Then  $a_{n-j} \rightarrow 0$  for  $0 \leq j \leq N$  since  $|a_n| \rightarrow 0$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 3.51.** If the series  $\sum a_n, \sum b_n, \sum c_n$  converge to  $A, B, C$  respectively and  $c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$ , then  $C = AB$ .

Midterm 2 covers up to this point (TB p.36-82, A.5-8)

## Chapter 4

# Continuity

Assume general metric spaces  $X, Y$  and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ .

**Definition 4.1 (4.1).** Suppose  $X, Y$  are metric spaces,  $E \subset X$ ,  $f : E \rightarrow Y$ ,  $p \in E'$ , where  $E'$ : set of limit points in metric space  $X$ . We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ , or  $f(x) \rightarrow q$  as  $x \rightarrow p$ , if  $\forall_{\varepsilon > 0} : \exists_{\delta > 0}$  s.t.  $(0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta \text{ and } x \in E) \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), q) < \varepsilon$ .

**Note.** We don't say anything about  $x = p$ ,  $f(p)$  may not even be defined.

**Theorem 4.2.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q \Leftrightarrow \forall_{\{p_n\} \text{ in } E} : \text{if } p_n = p \text{ or } p_n \rightarrow p, \text{ then}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q,$$

where the RHS is the limit of Definition 3.1.

**Note.** This implies uniqueness of  $q$  in Definition 4.1.

**Proof.**  $\Rightarrow$  Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_Y(f(x), q) < \varepsilon$  if  $0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta$ . Let  $\{p_n\}$  be a sequence in  $E$  such that  $p_n \rightarrow p$  and  $p_n \neq p$ . Then  $\exists_N$  s.t.  $0 < d_X(p_n, p) < \delta$  if  $n \geq N$ ; i.e.,  $f(p_n) \rightarrow q$ .

$\Leftarrow$  Consider the contrapositive of  $(\Leftarrow)$ :  $\neg(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q) \Rightarrow \neg(\forall_{\{p_n\} \text{ in } E} : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q)$ . Suppose  $\neg(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q)$ . Then  $\exists_{\varepsilon > 0}$  s.t.  $\forall_{\delta > 0} : \exists_{x \in N_\delta^E(p)} \text{ s.t. } x \neq p \text{ and } d_Y(f(x), q) \geq \varepsilon$ . Take  $\delta = \delta_n = \frac{1}{n}$  and let  $p_n$  be an  $x$  as above for  $\delta_n$ . Then  $p_n \rightarrow p$ , but  $d_Y(f(p_n), q) \geq \varepsilon \forall n$ , so  $f(p_n) \not\rightarrow q$ .

Q.E.D.

**Theorem 4.4.** When  $Y = \mathbb{C}$ , limit as defined in Definition ?? respects sums, products and quotients.

**Proof.** By Theorem 4.2, it suffices to show that the theorem holds for sequences. Q.E.D.

**Definition 4.2.** Suppose  $X, Y$  are metric spaces,  $p \in E \subset X$ ,  $f : E \rightarrow Y$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $p$  if  $\forall_{\varepsilon > 0} : \exists_{\delta > 0}$  s.t.  $d_X(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \varepsilon$ ; i.e.,  $f(N_\delta^E(p)) \subset N_\varepsilon^Y(f(p))$ . We say  $f$  is continuous if  $f$  is continuous at  $p$  for all  $p \in E$ .

**Note.** If  $p$  is an isolated point; i.e.,  $\exists_{\delta > 0}$  s.t.  $N_\delta^E(p) = \{p\}$ , then every  $f : E \rightarrow Y$  is continuous at  $p$ .

**Theorem 4.6.** Suppose  $E \subset X, p \in E \cap E', f : E \rightarrow Y$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $p$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p)$ .

**Proof.** By Definition ?? and Definition 4.2 with  $q = f(p)$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 4.7.** For  $E \subset X, f : E \rightarrow Y, g : f(E) \rightarrow Z$ , let  $h = g \circ f : E \rightarrow Z$ . If  $f$  is continuous at  $p \in E$  and if  $g$  is continuous at  $f(p) \in Y$ , then  $h$  is continuous at  $p$ .

**Proof.** Choose  $\eta > 0$  such that  $d_Y(f(p), y) < \eta \Rightarrow d_Z(g(f(p)), g(y)) < \varepsilon$  (continuity of  $g$  at  $f(p)$ ). Choose  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_E(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \eta$  (continuity of  $f$  at  $p$ ). Then  $d_E(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Z(g(f(x)), g(f(p))) = d_Z(h(x), h(p)) < \varepsilon$ . Q.E.D.



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**Theorem 4.8.** [Topological Characterization of Continuity]  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous  $\Leftrightarrow f^{-1}(V)$  is open for every open  $V \subset Y$ .

**Proof.** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $f$  is continuous. Let  $V \subset Y$  be open. Then  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open. Let  $p \in f^{-1}(V)$ . We need to show  $\exists_{\delta>0}$  s.t.  $N_{\delta}^X(p) \subset f^{-1}(V)$ . Since  $V$  is open,  $\exists_{\varepsilon>0}$  s.t.  $N_{\varepsilon}^Y(f(p)) \subset V$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,  $\exists_{\delta>0}$  s.t.  $f(N_{\delta}^X(p)) \subset N_{\varepsilon}^Y(f(p)) \subset V$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open for every open  $V \subset Y$ . Let  $p \in X$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $N_{\varepsilon}^Y(f(p))$  is open, so  $f^{-1}(N_{\varepsilon}^Y(f(p)))$  is open. Take  $V = N_{\varepsilon}^Y(f(p))$ , which is open. Since  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open and  $p \in f^{-1}(V)$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $N_{\delta}^X(p) \subset f^{-1}(V)$ . Then  $f(N_{\delta}^X(p)) \subset V = N_{\varepsilon}^Y(f(p))$ ; i.e.,  $f$  is continuous at  $p$ .

Q.E.D.

**Remark.**

- (a)
- (b) Continuity is determined by the open sets, not the metric. For instance, if metrics  $l_1, l_2, l_{\infty}$  have the same open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , hence the same continuous functions.

$$l_1(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^k |x_i - y_i|$$

$$l_2(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

$$l_{\infty}(x, y) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq k} |x_i - y_i|$$

- (c)  $f$  with open  $U \subset X \Rightarrow f(U)$  is open are called open maps. Continuous maps need not be open (e.g.,  $f(x) = \text{some constant}$ ,  $f(x) = x^2$ ), and open maps need not be continuous (e.g., floor function:  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ ).

**Corollary 4.9.**  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if and only if  $f^{-1}(F)$  is closed for every closed  $F \subset Y$ .

**Proof.** Let  $V \subset Y$  be open and  $F = V^c$ . Then the above condition (RHS) is the same as  $f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(F^c) = (f^{-1}(F))^c$  is open. Q.E.D.

---

**Theorem 4.9.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous. Then  $f + g, f \cdot g, f/g$  (at points  $p$  where  $g(p) \neq 0$ ) are also continuous.

**Theorem 4.10.** Given  $f_i : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} (i = 1, 2, \dots, k)$ , define  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  by  $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_k(x))$ . Then

- (a)  $f$  is continuous if and only if each  $f_i$  is continuous.
- (b) if  $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  are continuous, then so are  $f + g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k, f \cdot g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$

**Example.** (a) For  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , define  $\varphi_i : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $\varphi_i(x) = x_i$ , where  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ . Then  $|\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_i(y)| = |x_i - y_i| \leq \left( \sum_{j=1}^k |x_j - y_j|^2 \right)^{1/2} = |x - y|$ , so  $\varphi_i$  is continuous (take  $\delta = \varepsilon$ . If  $|x - y| < \delta = \varepsilon$ , then  $|\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_i(y)| < \varepsilon$ ).

(b) The functions  $\mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $x \mapsto x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_k^{n_k} (n_i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\})$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and so is any polynomial  $P(x) = \sum C_{n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots, n_k} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_k^{n_k}$ , where  $C_{n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots, n_k}$  is a constant (function) in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

(c) Rational functions  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  are continuous at points where  $Q(x) \neq 0$ .

(d) The function  $\mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $x \mapsto |x|$  is continuous.

**Proof.**  $|x| = |y + (x - y)| \leq |y| + |x - y|$ , so  $|x| - |y| \leq |x - y|$ . Similarly,  $|y| - |x| \leq |y - x|$ , so  $||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y|$ . Thus by taking  $\delta = \varepsilon$ ,  $|x - y| < \delta \Rightarrow ||x| - |y|| < \varepsilon$ . Q.E.D.

(e) Suppose  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is continuous. Then  $p \mapsto |f(p)|$  is continuous.

**Proof.**  $p \mapsto |f(p)| = (y \mapsto |y|) \circ (p \mapsto f(p))$ . Since both  $(y \mapsto |y|)$ ,  $(p \mapsto f(p))$  are continuous,  $p \mapsto |f(p)|$  is continuous by Theorem 4.7. Q.E.D.

**Note.** A function is said to be continuous on the *domain*, not on the *range*.

**Theorem 4.14.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be continuous and  $X$  be compact. Then  $f(X)$  is compact.

**Proof.** Let  $\{V_\alpha\}$  be an open cover of  $f(X)$ . We need to find a finite subcover of  $f(X)$ . By Theorem 4.8, each set  $O_\alpha = f^{-1}(V_\alpha)$  is open and  $\bigcup_\alpha O_\alpha = \bigcup_\alpha f^{-1}(V_\alpha) = f^{-1}(\bigcup_\alpha V_\alpha) = f^{-1}(f(X)) = X$ . Hence,  $\{O_\alpha\}$  is an open cover of  $X$ , so there exists a finite subcover  $X = O_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup O_{\alpha_n}$ . However, then  $f(X) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n f(O_{\alpha_i}) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n f(f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_i})) \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n V_{\alpha_i}$ . Therefore,  $\{V_{\alpha_i}\}_{i=1}^n$  is a finite subcover of  $f(X)$ . Q.E.D.

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**Definition 4.3 (4.13).**  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is bounded if  $\exists_{M>0}$  s.t.  $|f(x)| \leq M \forall x \in E$ .

**Theorem 4.15.** If  $X$  is compact and  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ , then  $f(X)$  is closed and bounded (so  $f$  is bounded).

**Proof.**  $f(X)$  is compact by Theorem 4.14, and since  $f(X) \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ , it is closed and bounded. Q.E.D.

**Theorem 4.16.** If  $X$  is compact and  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$  is continuous, then  $\exists_{p,q \in X}$  s.t.  $f(p) \leq f(x) \leq f(q)$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Proof.** By Theorem 4.15,  $f(X)$  is closed and bounded. By Theorem 2.28,  $M \in f(X)$  and similarly  $m \in f(X)$ . Q.E.D.

**Example.** Let  $X = (0, 1)$ , not compact, let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ , continuous. However,  $\nexists_{p \in X}$  s.t.  $\forall_{x \in X} : f(p) \leq f(x)$  and  $\nexists_{q \in X}$  s.t.  $\forall_{x \in X} : f(x) \leq f(q)$ .

**Theorem 4.17.** Suppose  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is one-to-one, onto, continuous, where  $X$  is compact. Define  $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$  by  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ . Then  $f^{-1}$  is continuous.

**Proof.** By Theorem 4.8, it suffices to prove that if  $V \subset X$  is open then  $(f^{-1})^{-1}(V) (= f(V))$  is open. However,  $V^c \subset X$  is closed, hence  $V^c$  is compact by Theorem 4.14 and  $(f(V^c))^c = f(V)$  is open. Q.E.D.

**Example** (Compactness is needed in Theorem 4.17). Let  $X = [0, 2\pi)$ ,  $Y = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ . Define  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  by  $f(\theta) = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ . This  $f$  is 1-1, onto, and continuous, but  $f^{-1}$  is not continuous as  $X$  is not compact.

**Proof.** (1)  $[0, 1) \subset X$  is open but  $(f^{-1})^{-1}([0, 1)) = f([0, 1))$  is not open because  $(1, 0)$  is not an interior point of  $Y$ .

(2) In  $Y$ , as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (1, 0)$  from above,  $f((x, y)) \rightarrow 0$ . As  $(x, y) \rightarrow (1, 0)$  from below,  $\lim f^{-1}(x, y)$  does not exist in  $X$ . (Wants to be  $2\pi \notin X$ ), so  $f^{-1}$  is not continuous at  $(1, 0) \in Y$ .

Q.E.D.

**Definition 4.18.** Let  $X, Y$  be metric spaces and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ .  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $X$  if  $\forall_{\varepsilon>0} : \exists_{\delta>0}$  s.t. for all  $p, q \in X$  with  $d_X(p, q) < \delta$ , we have  $d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \varepsilon$ .

**Remark.** The point is for any  $\varepsilon$ , there is some  $\delta$  that works for every  $p, q \in X$  such that  $d(p, q) < \delta$ .

**Example.** (a)  $X = (0, 1)$ ,  $Y = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ .  $f$  is continuous on  $X$  but is not

*uniformly continuous.*

**Proof.** For  $x \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ ,  $|f(x) - f(2x)| = |\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{2x}| = \frac{1}{2x} \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ . Then for  $\varepsilon = 1$ , given any  $\delta \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ , we can pick  $x < \delta$  s.t.  $d_X(x, 2x) = x < \delta$ , but  $d_Y(f(x), f(2x)) = \frac{1}{2x} > \frac{1}{2\delta} > 1$ . Q.E.D.

(b)  $X = [0, 5], Y = \mathbb{R}, f(x) = x^2$  is uniformly continuous.

**Proof.** For  $0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq 5$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| = x_2^2 - x_1^2 = (x_2 - x_1)(x_2 + x_1) \leq 10 \cdot (x_2 - x_1)$ , which is less than  $\varepsilon$  if  $|x_2 - x_1| < \frac{\varepsilon}{10} = \delta$  Q.E.D.

**Theorem 4.19.** Suppose  $X$  is a compact metric space,  $Y$  is a metric space, and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous. Then  $f$  is uniformly continuous.

**Proof.** Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . For  $p \in X$  there exists  $\delta = \delta_p(\varepsilon)$  s.t.  $d_X(p, q) < \delta_p \Rightarrow d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . We need to remove the  $p$ -dependence of  $\delta_p$ . Let  $J_p = N_{\frac{1}{2}\delta_p}(p)$ . Then  $\{J_p\}_{p \in X}$  is an open cover of  $X$ . Then there exists subcover  $X = J_{p_1} \cup J_{p_2} \cdots \cup J_{p_n}$  (equality works as  $X$  is the whole metric space, so  $X \subset J \Rightarrow X = J$ ). Let  $\delta = \min\{\frac{1}{2}\delta_{p_1}, \frac{1}{2}\delta_{p_2}, \dots, \frac{1}{2}\delta_{p_n}\}$ . Suppose  $p, q$  with  $d_X(p, q) < \delta$ . Choose  $m \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  s.t.  $p \in J_{p_m}$ . Then  $d_X(p, p_m) < \frac{1}{2}\delta_{p_m}$ .  $d_X(q, p_m) \leq d_X(q, p) + d_X(p, p_m) < \delta + \frac{1}{2}\delta_{p_m} \leq \delta_{p_m}$ .  $\therefore d_Y(f(q), f(p)) \leq d_Y(f(q), f(p_m)) + d_Y(f(p_m), f(p)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 4.22.** If  $X, Y$  are metric spaces,  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous, and  $E \subset X$  is connected, then  $f(E)$  is connected.

**Proof (By Contradiction).** Suppose for contradiction  $E$  is connected and there exists  $A, B \subset Y$  s.t.  $f(E) = A \cap B$ ,  $f(E) \neq \emptyset$ ,  $\overline{A} \cup B = A \cap \overline{B} = \emptyset$ . Let  $G = f^{-1}(A) \cap E, H = f^{-1}(B) \cap E$ . Then  $E = G \cup H$ ,  $G, H$  are nonempty. If  $G \cap \overline{H} = \overline{G} \cap H = \emptyset$ , it leads to a contradiction. First,  $G \subset f^{-1}(A) \subset (\because A \subset \overline{A}) f^{-1}(\overline{A})$ , where  $f^{-1}(\overline{A})$  is closed by the corollary to Theorem 4.8, so  $\overline{G} \subset f^{-1}(\overline{A})$ . Second,  $f(H) = B, \overline{A} \cap B = \emptyset$ . Therefore,  $\overline{G} \cap H = \emptyset$ . WLOG,  $G \cap \overline{H} = \emptyset$  as well. Hence a contradiction. Q.E.D.

**Theorem 4.23.** [Intermediate Value Theorem] Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.  $\forall c \in (\min\{f(a), f(b)\}, \max\{f(a), f(b)\}) : \exists x_0 \in (a, b)$  s.t.  $f(x_0) = c$ .

**Proof.**  $[a, b]$  is connected by Theorem 2.47. Hence, by Theorem 4.22,  $f([a, b])$  is connected and therefore contains all points between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ . In particular,  $c \in f((a, b))$  Q.E.D.

**Example.** (a) there exists a continuous function called (Peano/space-filling

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curve) from  $[0, 1]$  onto the closed unit square  $S = [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Proof.** Omitted. See Rudin's problem 7.14 for an explicit example (covered in MATH-321). Q.E.D.

(b) But no such function can be one-to-one.

**Proof.** Suppose  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow S$  is 1-1, onto, continuous. Since  $[0, 1]$  is compact,  $f^{-1}$  is continuous by Theorem 4.17. Let  $E = [0, \frac{1}{2}) \cup (\frac{1}{2}, 1]$ . Then,  $f(E) = S \setminus \{f(\frac{1}{2})\}$  is  $S$  minus one point, which is connected (pf omitted). But then,  $f^{-1}(f(E)) = E$  must be connected by Theorem 4.22.  $E$  is not connected, so this is a contradiction. Q.E.D.

**Example (18).** *Every rational  $x$  can be written in the form  $x = m/n$ , where  $n > 0$  and  $m$  and  $n$  are integers without any common divisors. When  $x = 0$ , we take  $n = 1$ . Consider the function  $f$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}^1$  by*

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & (x \text{ irrational}) \\ \frac{1}{n} & (x = \frac{m}{n}) \end{cases}.$$

*Prove that  $f$  is continuous at every irrational point, and that  $f$  has a simple discontinuity at every rational point, and that  $f$  has a simple discontinuity at every rational point.*

## Chapter 5

# Differentiation

We consider  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition.** For  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in [a, b]$ , let  $f'(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}$  if limit exists. Equivalently,  $f(t) = f(x) + (t - x)[f'(x) + u(x, t)]$  with  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} u(x, t) = 0$ .

**Example.** (a)  $f(x) = c$  for all  $x \Rightarrow f'(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{c - c}{t - x} = 0$ .

(b)  $f(x) = x$  for all  $x \Rightarrow f'(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{t - x}{t - x}$

(c)  $f(x) = e^x := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ . Write  $t = x + h$ , so  $t \rightarrow x \Leftrightarrow h \rightarrow 0$ .  $\frac{e^{x+h} - e^x}{(x+h) - x} = e^x \frac{e^h - 1}{h} = e^x \frac{e^h - 1}{h} + e^x - e^x = e^x + e^x \frac{e^h - 1 - h}{h}$ . Let  $u(h) = \frac{e^h - 1 - h}{h}$ . Then  $u(h) = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{h^n}{n!}$ , so  $|u(h)| = |\frac{1}{h} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{h^n}{n!}| \leq |h| \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = (e - 2)|h|$  (note for  $n \geq 2, |h^{n-1}| \leq |h|$  if  $|h| \leq 1$ ). Hence,  $u(h) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$  and therefore  $f'(x) = e^x$ .

**Remark.**  $e^x := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  is well defined.  $e^1 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = e$ . Regarding it as a power series, its radius of convergence is  $R = \infty$ . Also,  $e^{x+y} = e^x e^y$  using definition 3.48 of product series (Rudin's p.178-180).

**Note.**  $f'(x)$ : Lagrange's notation,  $\frac{df}{dx}$ : Leibnitz notation

**Theorem 5.2.** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f'(x)$  exists. Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x$ .

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**Proof.** The existence of  $f'(x) \Leftrightarrow f(t) = f(x) + (t-x)[f'(x) + u(x, t)]$  with  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} u(x, t) = 0$ . Let  $t \rightarrow x$ .  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(x) + (t-x)[f'(x) + u(x, t)] = f(x) + 0[f'(x) + 0] = f(x)$ , so  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(t) = f(x)$ ; i.e.,  $f$  is continuous at  $x$ . Q.E.D.

**Remark.** The converse is false; e.g.,  $f(x) = |x|$  is continuous for all  $x$ , but  $f'(0)$  does not exist.

**Theorem 5.3.** If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are both differentiable at  $x$  then so are  $f + g, fg, \frac{f}{g}$  (if  $g(x) \neq 0$ ), and  $(f + g)'(x) = f'(x) + g'(x)$ ,  $(fg)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$ ,  $(\frac{f}{g})'(x) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$ .

**Proof (Only the quotient rule).**  $h(t) - h(x) = \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} - \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{1}{g(t)g(x)} [(f(t)g(x) - f(x)g(t)) - (f(x)g(t) - f(x)g(x))]$ . Then  $\frac{h(t) - h(x)}{t - x} = \frac{1}{g(t)g(x)} \left[ \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} g(x) - f(x) \frac{g(t) - g(x)}{t - x} \right]$ . Let  $t \rightarrow x$ .  $h'(x) = \frac{1}{g(x)^2} [f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)]$ . Q.E.D.

**Remark.** By induction,  $(f_1 \cdots f_n)' = f_1' f_2 \cdots f_n + f_1 f_2' f_3 \cdots f_n + \cdots + f_1 f_2 \cdots f_n'$ .

**Example.** For  $n = 2, 3$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$  and we know this already for  $n = 0, 1$ . For  $n = -1, -2$ , let  $m = -n > 0$ . Then  $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x^m} = \frac{(\frac{d}{dx} 1)x^m - (\frac{d}{dx} x^m)1}{(x^m)^2} = \frac{0x^m - mx^{m-1}1}{x^{2m}} = -mx^{m-1} = nx^{n-1}$ . Hence,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} : \frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$ .

**Theorem 5.5.** [Chain Rule] Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f'(x)$  exists for some  $x \in [a, b]$ ,  $f([a, b]) \subset I$ , where  $I$  is some interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Suppose  $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g'(f(x))$  exists. Then  $g \circ f$  is differentiable at  $x$  and  $(g \circ f)'(x) = g'(f(x))f'(x)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $h(t) = (g \circ f)(t) = g(f(t))$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ . Fix  $x \in [a, b]$  where  $f'(x)$  exists. We know:

(a)  $f(t) - f(x) = (t - x)[f'(x) + u(t)]$  with  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} u(t) = 0$ .

(b) With  $y = f(x)$ ,  $g(s) - g(y) = (s - y)(g'(y) + v(s))$  with  $\lim_{s \rightarrow y} v(s) = 0$

As  $\frac{h(t) - h(x)}{t - x} = \frac{g(f(t)) - g(f(x))}{t - x}$ . By (2),  $\frac{g(f(t)) - g(f(x))}{t - x} = [g'(f(x)) + v(f(t))]$ . Let  $t \rightarrow x$ . Then RHS  $\rightarrow f'(x)[g'(f(x)) + 0]$  since  $f(t) \rightarrow f(x)$  by continuity of  $f$  at  $x$ . Therefore,  $h'(x) = f'(x)g'(f(x))$ .  
Q.E.D.

**Note.** Suppose you produce  $f(t)$  meters of wire by time  $t$ ; i.e., rate of wire production is  $f'(t)$  m/x. Also suppose you get \$  $g(l)$  for  $l$  meters of wire; rate of profit is  $g'(l)$  \$/m. Then the rate of earning by time  $t$  is  $g'(f(t))f'(t)$  \$/m.

**Example.** (a)  $\frac{d}{dx} e^{x^2} = 2xe^{x^2}$

(b)  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$

**Remark.** (a)  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , including at  $x = 0$ .

**Proof.**  $|f(x)| \leq |x|$ , so by the Squeeze theorem,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0 = f(0)$ .  
Q.E.D.

(b)  $f$  is differentiable on  $x \neq 0$ , but not differentiable at  $x = 0$ . For  $x \neq 0$ ,  $f'(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x} + x(\cos \frac{1}{x})(\frac{-1}{x^2}) = \sin \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x} \cos \frac{1}{x}$ . For  $x = 0$ ,  $\frac{f(t) - f(0)}{t - 0} = \frac{t \sin \frac{1}{t}}{t} = \sin \frac{1}{t}$ , which does not converge. Therefore,  $f$  not differentiable at  $x = 0$ .

(c) Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$ .

(a)  $f$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}$  including at  $x = 0$  ( $\because |f(x)| \leq |x^2|$ ).

(b)  $f$  is differentiable in  $\mathbb{R}$  including at  $x = 0$ .

**Proof.** For  $x \neq 0$ ,  $f'(x) = 2x \sin \frac{1}{x} + x^2(\cos \frac{1}{x})(\frac{-1}{x^2}) = 2x \sin \frac{1}{x} -$



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$\cos \frac{1}{x}$ . For  $x = 0$ ,  $\frac{f(t) - f(0)}{t - 0} = \frac{t^2 \sin \frac{1}{t}}{t} = t \sin \frac{1}{t} \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$ .  
Hence,  $f'(0) = 0$ . HOWEVER!  $f'$  is not continuous at  $x = 0$ ,  
because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x)$  does not exist. Q.E.D.

**Definition 5.1.** Let  $X$  be a metric space,  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .  $f$  has a *local max* at  $x \in X$  if  $\exists_{\delta > 0}$  s.t.  $f(y) \leq f(x)$  for all  $y \in N_\delta(x)$ .

**Theorem 5.8.** Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If  $f$  has a local min or a local max at  $x \in (a, b)$  and if  $f'(x)$  exists, then  $f'(x) = 0$ .

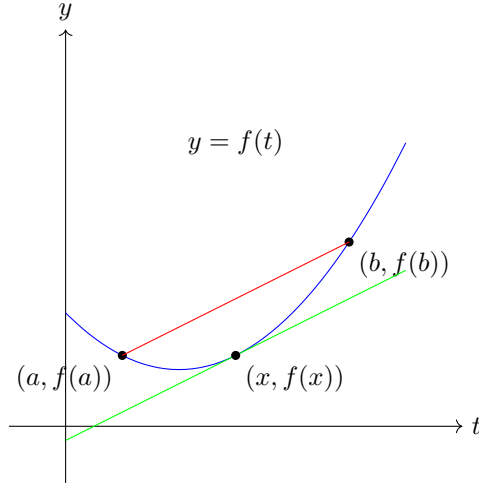
**Proof (local min).** Suppose  $f$  has a local min at  $x$  and  $f'(x)$  exists. Choose  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $N_\delta(x) \subset (a, b)$  and  $f(t) \geq f(x)$  if  $t \in (x - \delta, x + \delta)$ .  
For  $x - \delta < t < x + \delta$ ,  $\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} \geq 0$  ( $\because f(t) \geq f(x), t > x$ ), so  $f'(x) \geq 0$ .  
For  $x - \delta < t < x$ ,  $\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} \leq 0$  ( $\because f(t) \geq f(x), t < x$ ), so  $f'(x) \leq 0$ . Hence,  $f'(x) = 0$ . Q.E.D.

**Remark.** Note that the hypothesis of the theorem requires *open* interval and existence  $f'(x)$ . If these conditions are not met, then  $f'(x) = 0$  doesn't have to be the case.

**Example.** (a)  $f(x) = |x|$  has a local min at  $x = 0$  but  $f'(0)$  does not exist.

(b)  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = x$  has a local max at  $x = 1$  and local min at  $x = 0$ , but  $f'(0) = f'(1) = 1$ .

**Theorem 5.10.** [Mean-Value Theorem] If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then  $\exists_{x \in (a, b)}$  s.t.  $f(b) - f(a) = f'(x)(b - a)$ .



**Proof.**

Let  $L : y = f(a) + m(t - a)$ , where  $m = \frac{y - f(a)}{t - a} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ . Subtract  $L$  from the curve  $y = f(t)$ . Let  $h(t) = f(t) - [f(a) + m(t - a)]$ . Then  $h(a) = h(b) = 0$ .  $h'(t) = f'(t) - m = f'(t) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ . Therefore, it suffices to find  $x$  s.t.  $h'(x) = 0$ .  $h$  is continuous and  $[a, b]$  is compact, so  $h([a, b])$  is also compact. Hence,  $h$  attains its global max(=  $\sup\{h([a, b])\}$ ) and global min(=  $\inf\{h([a, b])\}$ ) on  $[a, b]$ . If  $h(t) = 0$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$  then  $h'(t) = 0$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$  so any  $x \in (a, b)$  will do. Otherwise,  $h$  attains its global max or global min at some  $x \in (a, b)$ . By Theorem 5.8,  $h'(x) = 0$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 5.11.** If  $f$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$  then

- (a)  $f'(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  implies  $f$  is monotone increasing.
- (b)  $f'(x) \leq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  implies  $f$  is monotone decreasing.
- (c)  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  implies  $f$  is constant.

**Proof ((a) only).** Suppose  $f'(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . For  $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$ ,  $\exists_{x \in (x_1, x_2)}$  s.t.  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(x)(x_2 - x_1)$  by Theorem 5.10. As  $f'(x) \geq 0$ ,  $x_2 \geq x_1$ ,  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) \geq 0$ . Q.E.D.

**Definition 5.2.**  $f^{(0)} = f$ ,  $f^{(1)} = f'$ ,  $f^{(2)} = f''$ ,  $f^{(3)} = f'''$  and so on.

**Theorem 5.15.** [Taylor's Theorem] Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and

$f^{(n+1)}(x)$  exists for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . Let  $x, x_0 \in [a, b]$ . Then  $\exists_{c \in (x, x_0)}$  s.t.

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k}_{P_n(x), n^{\text{th}} \text{ Taylor polynomial of } f \text{ at } x_0} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}}_{\text{Taylor Remainder}}.$$

**Proof.** If  $n = 0$ , the mean-value theorem guarantees existence of  $c$ . For general  $n$ ,  $A \in \mathbb{R}$  by  $R_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) = \frac{A}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}$ , where  $A$  depends on  $f, n, x, x_0$ . Claim:  $A = f^{(n+1)}(c)$  for some  $c$  between  $x$  and  $x_0$ .

Define  $g(t) = f(t) - P_n(t) - \frac{A}{(n+1)!} (t - x_0)^{n+1}$  for  $t \in [a, b]$ . Then  $g(x_0) = 0$ .  $g(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) - \frac{A}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1} = 0$  by the definition of  $A$ . Also for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ , then  $P_n^{(j)}(x_0) = f^{(j)}(x_0)$ ,  $\frac{d^j}{dx^j} (x - x_0)^{n+1} \big|_{x=x_0} = 0$ . Hence,  $g^{(j)}(x_0) = f^{(j)}(x_0) - P_n^{(j)}(x_0) - 0 = 0$ .  $g^{(n+1)}(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t) - 0 - A$ . We need to find  $c$  s.t.  $g^{(n+1)}(c) = 0$ .  
 $g(x) = g(x_0) = 0 \Rightarrow \exists_{c_1 \in (\min\{x_0, x\}, \max\{x_0, x\})}$  s.t.  $g'(c_1) = 0$ .  
 $g'(x_0) = g'(c_1) = 0 \Rightarrow \exists_{c_2 \in (\min\{x_0, x, c_1\}, \max\{x_0, x, c_1\})}$  s.t.  $g''(c_2) = 0$ .  
 $\vdots$   
Finally,  $\exists_{c_{n+1}=c}$  s.t.  $g^{(n+1)}(c) = 0$  and hence  $f^{(n+1)}(c) = A$ . Q.E.D.

**Example.** (not in Rudin) Does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} - 1 \right)$  converge or diverge?

Method 1:

$$\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} - 1 = \frac{\left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} - 1 \right) \left( \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} + 1 \right)}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} + 1} = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{n^2} - 1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} + 1} = \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} + 1} \leq \frac{1}{n^2},$$

so the series converges by the comparison test since  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.

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*Method 2: Using Taylor's theorem. Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{1+x} = (1+x)^{1/2}$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \frac{1}{2}(1+x)^{-1/2} \\ f''(x) &= \frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)(1+x)^{-3/2} = -\frac{1}{4}(1+x)^{-3/2} \\ f(x) &= P_1(x) + R_1(x) \\ &= f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}(x-0)^1 + \frac{f''(c)(x-0)^2}{2!} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}x + R_1(x). \end{aligned}$$

$|R_1(x)| \leq \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1\right) \frac{1}{2!} x^2 = \frac{1}{8} x^2$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Therefore,  $\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} - 1 = f\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) - 1 = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) + R_1\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2n^2} + \frac{1}{8} \frac{1}{n^4}$ . Since  $\sum \left(\frac{1}{2n^2} + \frac{1}{8n^4}\right)$  converges,  $\sum \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}} - 1\right)$  converges by comparison test.

**Example.** Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $x_0 = 0$ .

**Taylor series for  $f(x)$ .**  $f'(x) = \cos x$ ,  $f''(x) = -\sin x$ ,  $f'''(x) = -\cos x, \dots$ ,

$$\text{so } f^{(k)}(x) = \begin{cases} (-1)^m \sin x & (k = 2m) \\ (-1)^m \cos x & (k = 2m+1) \end{cases}. \text{ Hence } n \geq 0, f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k +$$

$$\frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1}, \text{ where } c \text{ between } 0 \text{ and } x. \text{ Remainder estimate: } \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \right| \leq$$

$$\frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ because } \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \text{ is the } (n+1)^{\text{th}} \text{ term in conver-}$$

$$\text{gent series } e^{|x|} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|x|^n}{n!}.$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k = \frac{x}{1!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)!} x^{2k+1}.$$

**Taylor approximation.** Find  $\sin 0.2$  to within an error  $\pm 10^{-6}$ . Use  $\sin 0.2 =$

$$\frac{2}{10} - \frac{1}{3!} \left(\frac{2}{10}\right)^3 + \frac{1}{5!} \left(\frac{2}{10}\right)^5 - \dots.$$

**Method 1: Alternating Series Test.** If  $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \dots \geq 0$ , and  $a_n \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k-1} a_k = s$  converges and  $|s - s_n| \leq a_{n+1}$ . Above series satisfies the hypotheses, so truncation error is  $\leq$  first omitted term. We look for when  $\frac{1}{(2k+1)!} \left(\frac{2}{10}\right)^{2k+1} \leq 10^{-6}$ ; i.e.,

$$(2k+1)! \cdot \frac{10^{2k+1}}{2^{2k+1}} \geq 10^6.$$

$$\text{If } k = 1, 3! \cdot \frac{10^3}{2^3} < 10^6.$$

$$\text{If } k = 2, 5! \cdot \frac{10^5}{2^5} < 10^6.$$

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If  $k = 3$ ,  $7! \cdot \frac{10^7}{2^7} \geq 10^6$ , so  $k = 3$  works. Therefore,  $\sin 0.2 = 0.2 - \frac{1}{3!}(0.2)^3 + \frac{1}{5!}(0.2)^5 \pm 10^{-6} = 0.198669 \pm 10^{-6}$ .

**Method 2: General Case.** If alternating series test does not apply, estimate remainder using the worst  $c$  for  $\left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \right|$ . In our example,  $\left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \right| \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} (0.2)^{n+1}$ , so seek  $n$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left( \frac{2}{10} \right)^{n+1} \leq 10^{-6}$ . First  $n$  that works is  $n = 6$ , same as before.

## Chapter 6

# Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

**Definition (Partition).** A partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  is  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  for some  $n \geq 1$ , with  $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_{n-1} \leq x_n = b$ .

**Notation.**  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$

$f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be bounded, which is not necessarily continuous

$M_i = \sup\{f(x) : x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i\}$ ,  $m_i = \inf\{f(x) : x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i\}$

$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i$

$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i$ .

**Note.**  $L(P, f) \leq U(P, f)$  always.

**Definition (Riemann Integral).** **Upper Riemann Integral :**  $\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \inf_P \{U(P, f)\} = \inf\{U(P, f) : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}$ .

**Lower Riemann Integral :**  $\underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \sup_P \{L(P, f)\} = \sup\{L(P, f) : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}$ .

**Riemann Integrable :**  $f$  is Riemann integrable on  $[a, b]$  if  $\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx$ . If  $f$  is Riemann integrable on  $[a, b]$ , we write  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx.$$

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**Note.** Since  $f$  is bounded,  $m = \inf\{f(x) : a \leq x \leq b\}$  and  $M = \sup\{f(x) : a \leq x \leq b\}$  are both finite. Hence, for any  $P$ ,  $m \leq m_i \leq M_i \leq M$  and  $\forall_i : m(b-a) \leq L(P, f) \leq U(P, f) \leq M(b-a)$ .

**Notation.** Let  $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a monotone increasing function. Then  $\Delta\alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})$ .

**Definition 6.2.** Given  $P$ , let  $\Delta\alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})$ . (Note:  $\Delta\alpha_i \geq 0$ ). For bounded  $f$ , let  $U(p, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta\alpha_i$ ,  $L(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta\alpha_i$ .

**Upper Riemann-Stieltjes Integral**  $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha = \overline{\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha} = \inf_P \{U(P, f, \alpha)\} = \inf\{U(P, f, \alpha) : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}.$

**Lower Riemann-Stieltjes Integral**  $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha = \underline{\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha} = \sup_P \{L(P, f, \alpha)\} = \sup\{L(P, f, \alpha) : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}.$

If  $\overline{\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha} = \underline{\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha}$ , then  $f \in R[a, b, \alpha]$  and  $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha = \overline{\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha} = \underline{\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha}$ .

If  $\alpha(x) = x$ , then equivalent to  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

**Definition 6.3.** (a) Partition  $P^*$  is called a refinement of  $P$  if  $P \subset P^*$ .  
 (b) Partition  $P^*$  is called the common refinement of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  if  $P^* = P_1 \cup P_2$ .

**Theorem 6.4.** If  $P^*$  is a refinement of  $P$  then  $L(P, f, \alpha) \leq L(P^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(P^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(P, f, \alpha)$ .

**Proof.** It's enough to consider  $p^*$  with one extra point:  $x_{i-1} \leq x^* \leq x_i$ .  
 Sketch for  $L$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & L(P^*, f, \alpha) - L(p, f, \alpha) \\ &= m^*[\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] + m_i[\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*)] - m_i[\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] - m_i[\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*)] \\ &= (m^* - m_i)[\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] + (m_i - m_i)[\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*)] \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

**Notation.** When  $f, \alpha$  are fixed, we write  $L(P) = L(P, f, \alpha)$ ,  $U(P) = U(P, f, \alpha)$

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**Theorem 6.5.**  $\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq \overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha}$ .

**Proof.** For partitions  $P_1, P_2$ , let  $P^* = P_1 \cup P_2$ . By Theorem 6.4,  $L(P_1) \leq L(P^*) \leq U(P^*) \leq U(P_2)$ . In particular,  $\sup_{P_1} \{L(P_1)\} \leq U(P_2)$  for all  $P_2$ . Hence,  $\sup_{P_1} \{L(P_1)\} \leq \inf_{P_2} \{U(P_2)\}$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 6.6.**  $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b] \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists P_\varepsilon \text{ s.t. } U(P_\varepsilon) - L(P_\varepsilon) < \varepsilon$

**Proof.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

( $\Rightarrow$ ) By hypothesis,  $\sup_P \{L(P)\} = \int_a^b f d\alpha = \overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha} = \inf_P \{U(P)\}$ .

$\exists P_1, P_2$  s.t.  $L(P_1) > \int_a^b f d\alpha - \varepsilon/2$  and  $U(P_2) < \overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha} + \varepsilon/2$ .

Then  $U(P_2) - L(P_1) < \varepsilon$ . Let  $P_\varepsilon = P^* = P_1 \cup P_2$ . By Theorem 6.4,  $L(P_1) \leq L(P^*) \leq U(P^*) \leq U(P_2)$ , so  $U(P_\varepsilon) - L(P_\varepsilon) \leq U(P_2) - L(P_1) < \varepsilon$ .

( $\Leftarrow$ )  $0 \leq \overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha} - \int_a^b f d\alpha \leq U(P_\varepsilon) - L(P_\varepsilon) < \varepsilon$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $\overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha} = \int_a^b f d\alpha$ .

Q.E.D.

**Remark.** very important

**Note.** READ THEOREM 6.7. in Rudin's

**Theorem 6.8.** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then  $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ .

**Proof.** For any  $P$ ,  $U(P) - L(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta \alpha_i$ . Since  $[a, b]$  is compact,  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$  (Theorem 4.19), so  $\forall \eta > 0 : \exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $|x - t| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(t)| < \eta$ . Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $\eta$  s.t.  $\eta[\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)] < \varepsilon$  and choose  $P$  with  $\Delta x_i < \delta = \delta(\eta)$  for all  $i$ . Then  $U(P) - L(P) < \sum_{i=1}^n \eta \Delta \alpha_i = \eta[\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)] < \varepsilon$ . Therefore,  $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ . Q.E.D.

**Theorem 6.9.** If  $f$  is monotone increasing or decreasing on  $[a, b]$  and  $\alpha$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then  $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ .