

Homework 6

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- 4.2 B. If a sequence $(\mathbf{x}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ in \mathbb{R}^n satisfies $\sum_{n \geq 1} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_{n+1}\| < \infty$, show that it is a Cauchy sequence. Let's say $\sum_{n \geq 1} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_{n+1}\| = L$. Then for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists some N such that $\sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_{n+1}\| > L - \varepsilon$ and by extension $\varepsilon > \sum_{n=N}^\infty \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_{n+1}\| > \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_{k+1}\|$ for all $m > n \geq N$. And with the triangle inequality and the observation that our series is telescoping we quickly see that

$$\varepsilon > \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_{k+1}\| \geq \left\| \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_{k+1} \right\| = \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_m\|$$

Which is the very definition of a Cauchy sequence. Well almost, I guess to be complete I should point out that $\|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_n\| = 0 < \varepsilon$ and $\|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_m\| = \|\mathbf{x}_m - \mathbf{x}_n\| < \varepsilon$. So our inequality holds for all $m, n \geq N$, not just $m > n \geq N$

- C. (a) Give an example of a Cauchy sequence for which the condition of Exercise B fails.

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \geq 1} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} - \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n+1} \right| &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \left| (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{-1}{n+1} \right) \right| \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \left| \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1} \right| \\ &> \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n} = \infty \end{aligned}$$

- (b) However, show that every Cauchy sequence $(\mathbf{x}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ has a subsequence $(\mathbf{x}_{n_i})_{i=1}^\infty$ such that $\sum_{i \geq 1} \|\mathbf{x}_{n_i} - \mathbf{x}_{n_{i+1}}\| < \infty$. First we choose \mathbf{x}_{N_1} such that $\|\mathbf{x}_m - \mathbf{x}_n\| < \frac{1}{2}$ for all $m, n \geq N_1$. We then proceed, choosing \mathbf{x}_{N_i} such that $\|\mathbf{x}_m - \mathbf{x}_n\| < \frac{1}{2^i}$ for all $m, n \geq N_i$. Now then $\sum_{i \geq 1} \|\mathbf{x}_{N_i} - \mathbf{x}_{N_{i+1}}\| < \sum_{i \geq 1} \frac{1}{2^i} = -1 + \sum_{i \geq 0} \frac{1}{2^i} = -1 + \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}} = 1 < \infty$ as required.

- 4.3 B. Let $(\mathbf{a}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ be a sequence in \mathbb{R}^k with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{a}$. Show that $\{\mathbf{a}_n : n \geq 1\} \cup \{\mathbf{a}\}$ is closed.

Let's say $A = \{\mathbf{a}_n : n \geq 1\} \cup \{\mathbf{a}\}$. If A is not closed, then we can form a sequence from the elements of A that converge on some point $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ where $\mathbf{b} \notin A$.

Now let's assume that there is no element in A that is closest to \mathbf{b} . Then for every $\varepsilon > 0$ then we could find some L such that $\|\mathbf{a}_{n_l} - \mathbf{b}\| < \varepsilon$ where $n_l \geq L$ and \mathbf{a}_{n_l} is a subsequence of \mathbf{a}_n . Of course this is the definition of a limit. Unfortunately we know that all subsequences of \mathbf{a}_n

must converge to \mathbf{a} . Of course $\mathbf{b} \notin A$ so $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{a}$. This contradiction means that we can find some $\mathbf{a}_m \in A$ that is closest to \mathbf{b} .

Great, now let's say the sequence that converges on \mathbf{b} is \mathbf{a}_j . Now we know that the distance from any element in A to \mathbf{b} is at least $\|\mathbf{a}_m - \mathbf{b}\|$. Let's pick $\varepsilon = \frac{\|\mathbf{a}_m - \mathbf{b}\|}{2}$. Then for all \mathbf{a}_j we have $\|\mathbf{a}_j - \mathbf{b}\| > \varepsilon$ and so \mathbf{b} can not be a limit. And so we have closure by contradiction.

D. If A is a bounded subset of \mathbb{R} , show that $\sup A$ and $\inf A$ belong to \overline{A} .

Well $\sup A \geq \inf A$ and so $\inf A \leq a_n = \sup A - \frac{1}{n+1}(\sup A - \inf A) \leq \sup A$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. Notice that $a_n \in A$ for all n and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sup A$. Similarly $\inf A \leq b_n = \inf A + \frac{1}{n+1}(\sup A - \inf A) \leq \sup A$. We see that $b_n \in A$ for every n and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \inf A$. And so because \overline{A} contains all the limit points of A then the supremum and infimum are in the closure.

J. Show that if U is open and A is closed, the $U \setminus A = \{\mathbf{x} \in U : \mathbf{x} \notin A\}$ is open. What can be said about $A \setminus U$?

If U is open, then U' is closed. And since U' is closed and A is closed, then $U' \cup A$ is closed. And the complement of $U' \cup A$ is open. But notice that the complement of $U' \cup A$ is $U \setminus A$. And so $U \setminus A$ is open as required.

$A \setminus U$ is equal to the complement of $A' \cup U$ which is the union of two open sets. But we don't know anything about the closure of the union of open sets in general. If $A \cap U = \emptyset$ then $A \setminus U = A$ which is closed. But if $A = [0, 2]$ and $U = [1, 2)$ then $A \setminus U = [0, 1) \cup \{2\}$ which is open.

K. Suppose that A and B are closed subsets of \mathbb{R}

(a) Show that the product set $A \times B = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$ is closed.

Let's suppose that $A \times B$ is open. Then there exists some sequence $(\mathbf{x}_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ such that every $\mathbf{x}_n \in A \times B$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{x}$ where $\mathbf{x} \notin A \times B$. We know that \mathbf{x}_n only converges to a point if each of its coefficients converge. So if $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{k,1} = x_1$. Because A is closed we know that $x_1 \in A$. Similarly $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{k,2} = x_2$. And again, because B is closed we know that $x_2 \in B$. Well, if $x_1 \in A$ and $x_2 \in B$ then $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) \in A \times B$. Whoops, that contradicts our assumption. I guess $A \times B$ is closed after all.

(b) Likewise show that if both A and B are open, then $A \times B$ is open.

If A is open, then there exists some sequence a_n where $a_n \in A$ for all n but $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a \notin A$. Similarly, if B is open, then there exists some sequence b_n where $b_n \in B$ for all n but $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = b \notin B$. Now we define a sequence $\mathbf{x}_n = (a_n, b_n)$ in $A \times B$. We know that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{x} = (a, b) \notin A \times B$. And so we have found a sequence in $A \times B$ with a limit outside of $A \times B$ and then by definition $A \times B$ is open.