

[3.3]

⑦

A° is all interior points of A .

Must show that all points in A° are actually interior points of A , not just interior points of A .

Let $x \in A^\circ$. Then x is an interior point of A , so there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq A$. Will show $B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq A^\circ$.

Choose any $z \in B(x, \varepsilon)$. As $z \in A$, we have that either $z \in A^\circ$ or z is a boundary point of A . Let us show that z cannot be a boundary point.

If z is a boundary point of A , then $B(z, \delta)$ will contain both points in A and outside of A , for all $\delta > 0$.

Choose $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon - d(x, z)}{2}$. Then any point $w \in B(z, \delta)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{has } d(x, w) &\leq d(x, z) + d(z, w) < d(x, z) + \frac{\varepsilon - d(x, z)}{2} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{d(x, z)}{2} < \varepsilon, \text{ so } w \in B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq A, \end{aligned}$$

and we cannot have any points in $B(z, \delta)$ outside of A . So z is not a boundary point of A , and we have that x is an interior point of A° . A° is therefore open.

□

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a) Must show that \bar{A} contains all of its boundary points, i.e. that a boundary point for \bar{A} is a boundary point for A .

Choose a boundary point for \bar{A} , x . Then $B(x, \epsilon)$ contains points in \bar{A} and outside of \bar{A} , for all ϵ .

As $A \subseteq \bar{A}$, any point outside of \bar{A} is also outside of A , so $B(x, \epsilon)$ contains points outside of A .

Choose any point $z \in B(x, \epsilon)$ with $z \in \bar{A}$. Then we either have $z \in A$, or z a boundary point of A .

If $z \in A$, $B(x, \epsilon)$ has points both in A and outside of A , so x is a boundary point of A , and $x \in \bar{A}$.

If z is a boundary point of A , we have that $B(z, \delta)$ contains points in A and outside of A for all $\delta > 0$.

Choose $\delta = \frac{\epsilon - d(x, z)}{2}$. As $B(z, \delta)$ contains a point in A , choose such a point, call it w . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, w) &\leq d(x, z) + d(z, w) < d(x, z) + \frac{\epsilon - d(x, z)}{2} \\ &= \frac{d(x, z)}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \frac{\epsilon + \epsilon}{2} = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

So $w \in B(x, \epsilon)$, $w \in A$. We have that $B(x, \epsilon)$ contains points both in and outside of A , so x is a boundary point of A , i.e. $x \in \bar{A}$. So \bar{A} contains all of its boundary points and is therefore closed. \square

∇ As $\{a_n\} \subset A \subseteq \bar{A}$, we have that $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence in \bar{A} .

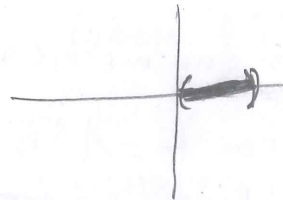
As \bar{A} is closed, $a \in \bar{A}$ by Prop 3.3.6. \square

a) We have $B_A(x; r) = \{y \in A : d_A(x, y) < r\}$
 (for $x \in A$) $= \{y \in A : d(x, y) < r\}$ as $d_A(x, y) = d(x, y)$
 $= B(x, r) \cap A$ for $x, y \in A$.

So if $G \subseteq A$ open in (X, d) , we have that for all $x \in G$, there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq G$.
 As $B_A(x, r) = B(x, r) \cap A \subset B(x, r)$, we have that $B_A(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq G$ as well, so x is an interior point wrt the d_A -metric as well, and G is open in (A, d_A) .

b) Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$, $A = \mathbb{R} \times \{0\}$, the x-axis.

Then $(0, 1) \times \{0\}$ is open in (A, d_A) ,
 but closed in X .



c) Must show $G \subseteq A$ open in (A, d_A) , A open in (X, d) .
 $\Rightarrow G$ open in (X, d) . Other way was shown in a).

Choose an $x \in G$. As G is open in (A, d_A) , there exists an ε_1 s.t. $B_A(x, \varepsilon_1) \subseteq G$. As A is open in (X, d) , there exists an ε_2 s.t. $B(x, \varepsilon_2) \subseteq A$. Let $\varepsilon = \min(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2)$.

Then we have $B_A(x, \varepsilon_1) \cap B(x, \varepsilon_2) \subseteq G$, with
 $B_A(x, \varepsilon_1) \cap B(x, \varepsilon_2) = B(x, \varepsilon_1) \cap A \cap B(x, \varepsilon_2) = B(x, \varepsilon_1) \cap B(x, \varepsilon_2)$
 $= B(x, \varepsilon)$.

So $B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq G$. This can be done for any $x \in G$, so

G is open in (X, d) .

10

a) Will show that if x is a boundary point of F in (A, d_A) , then x is a boundary point in (X, d) as well. As F is closed in (X, d) , we then have $x \in F$, so F contains all of its A -boundary points, and is closed in A .

Let $x \in A$ be a boundary point of F in (A, d_A) , i.e.

for any choice of ϵ , we have that $B_A(x, \epsilon) = B(x, \epsilon) \cap A$ contains both points in F and points in $A \setminus F$.

As $B_A(x, \epsilon) = B(x, \epsilon) \cap A \subseteq B(x, \epsilon)$, we have that $B(x, \epsilon)$ contains both points in F and points in $A \setminus F \subseteq X \setminus F = F^c$.

As this is true for any ϵ , we have that x is a boundary point of F in (X, d) as well, and this is what we needed. \square

b) For any metric space, let A be a non-closed set in X . Then $F = A$ is closed in A (any set is closed in itself), but by definition of A not closed in X .

c) Have shown F closed in $X \Rightarrow F$ closed in A . Must show other way. Will prove this contrapositively, i.e. will show F not closed in $X \Rightarrow F$ not closed in A .

If F is not closed in X , there exists an $x \in X \setminus F$ with x a boundary point of F . So for any $\epsilon > 0$, $B(x, \epsilon)$ will contain points in F and points outside of F .

If $x \in A$, we have that $B_A(x, \epsilon) = B(x, \epsilon) \cap A$ contains points in F and points in $A \setminus F$ (x itself, if nothing else), so F has a boundary point in A that is not in F , so F is not closed.

But if $x \notin A$, we have that $B(x, \epsilon)$ contains points both in A ($F \cap A$) and outside of A (x itself), so x must be a boundary point of A . And A is closed, and contains all of its boundary points, so $x \in A$, a contradiction. I.e. x must be in A , and F is therefore not closed, as needed. \square

12) Let $x \in \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}} G$. Will show that x is an interior point.

a) $G \in \mathcal{G}$

As $x \in \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}} G$, there exists a $G \in \mathcal{G}$ with $x \in G$.

As G is open, there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq G \subseteq \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}} G$.

So, as we have an $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}} G$, x is an interior point, and as this works for any $x \in \bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}} G$, we have that $\bigcup_{G \in \mathcal{G}} G$ is open.

b) Let $x \in G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_n$. Will show that x is an interior point.

As G_i is open, there exists an $\epsilon_i > 0$ s.t. $B(x, \epsilon_i) \subseteq G_i$.

Let $\epsilon = \min_i \epsilon_i$. Then $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq B(x, \epsilon_i) \subseteq G_i$ for all i ,

so $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_n$, which shows that x is an interior point. As this works for all x , $G_1 \cap \dots \cap G_n$ is open.

Ex: We have $\{0\} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n})$ from Exercise 1.3.2.

This is an infinite intersection of open sets, but the result is not open.

13) Will use De Morgan's law (Exer. 1.3.5/6) and Prop 3.3.11. to prove this.

a) $F \in \mathcal{F}$ are all closed $\Rightarrow F^c$ is open for all $F \in \mathcal{F}$.

$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F^c$ is open by Prop 3.3.11(a) $\Rightarrow (\bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F^c)^c$ is closed

$\Rightarrow \bigcap_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F$ is closed by De Morgan's law $\Rightarrow \bigcap_{F \in \mathcal{F}} F$ is closed by $F^{cc} = F$.

b) F_1, \dots, F_n are all closed $\Rightarrow F_i^c$ is open for $i=1, \dots, n$.

$\Rightarrow F_1^c \cap \dots \cap F_n^c$ is open by Prop 3.3.11(b) $\Rightarrow (F_1^c \cap \dots \cap F_n^c)^c$ is closed

$\Rightarrow F_1^{cc} \cup \dots \cup F_n^{cc}$ is closed by De Morgan's law $\Rightarrow F_1 \cup \dots \cup F_n$ is closed by $F_i^{cc} = F_i$.

Ex: We have $[0, 1] = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} [\frac{1}{n}, 1]$ by Exercise 1.3.3.

This is an infinite union of closed sets, but the result is not closed.

4
① Will show that all Cauchy-sequences converge.

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy-sequence, and choose $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$.

Then there exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$ whenever $n, m \geq N$,
by the criterion for Cauchy sequences.

In the discrete metric, $d(x_n, x_m) < \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) = 0 \Rightarrow x_n = x_m$.

So we have that if we call $x_N = a$, $x_n = a$ for all $n \geq N$, and
the sequence converges to a . \square

② Let $\{(x_n, y_n)\}$ be a Cauchy-sequence. Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

there exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $d((x_n, y_n), (x_m, y_m)) = d(x_n, x_m) + d(y_n, y_m) < \varepsilon$
whenever $n, m \geq N$. As both $d(x_n, x_m) \leq d(x_n, x_m) + d(y_n, y_m)$ and
 $d(y_n, y_m) \leq d(x_n, x_m) + d(y_n, y_m)$, we have that

$\{x_n\}$ must be a Cauchy-sequence in X and $\{y_n\}$ a Cauchy-sequence in Y .

As both X and Y are complete, $\{x_n\}$ converges to a point $x \in X$,
and $\{y_n\}$ converges to a point $y \in Y$.

So we can find an N_1 s.t. $d(x_n, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ whenever $n \geq N_1$ and

an N_2 s.t. $d(y_n, y) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ whenever $n \geq N_2$. Let $N' = \max(N_1, N_2)$.

Then we have that $d((x_n, y_n), (x, y)) = d(x_n, x) + d(y_n, y) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$

whenever $n \geq N'$, so $\{(x_n, y_n)\}$ must converge to (x, y) . \square

③ As X is complete, need to show that $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy-sequence.

Choose any $\varepsilon > 0$. As $\text{diam}(A_n) \rightarrow 0$, can find $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\text{diam}(A_n) < \varepsilon$
whenever $n \geq N$. Then, when $m, n \geq N$, we have $a_m \in A_m$, $a_n \in A_n$.

Can assume $m \geq n$, so we have $A_m \subseteq A_n$, and $d(x_m, x_n) \leq \text{diam } A_n < \varepsilon$.

So $d(x_m, x_n) < \varepsilon$ whenever $m, n \geq N \Rightarrow a_n$ is a Cauchy-sequence,

and must therefore converge. \square

⑤ Want to use Banach's Fixed Point Theorem, need to show that f is a contraction.

Choose $x, y \in [0, 1]$, $x \neq y$. By the Mean Value Theorem, there exists a $c \in (x, y)$ s.t. $f'(c) = \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x}$.

$$\text{So we have } |f'(c)| = \frac{|f(y) - f(x)|}{|y - x|} \Rightarrow |y - x| |f'(c)| = |f(y) - f(x)|$$

$$\Rightarrow d(f(x), f(y)) = |f'(c)| d(x, y) < S \cdot d(x, y) \Rightarrow f \text{ is a contraction.}$$

Then, by Banach's Fixed point theorem, there exists exactly one $a \in [0, 1]$ s.t. $f(a) = a$.

⑥ Let us assume the world is complete. (If you study physics, try to prove this!)
Let f be the function that sends a point in the world to its corresponding point on the map. (If you actually prove this, mention me in the Nobel Prize speech).

This is clearly a contraction, unless you have a 1:1 map of the area, and that seems unwieldy. By Banach's Fixed Point Theorem, there is exactly one point that is sent to itself by f , and this is the point that is vertically above itself.

⑦ As f^{on} is a contraction, it has a unique fixed point a s.t.

$$f^{\text{on}}(a) = a. \text{ But then we have } f(a) = f(f^{\text{on}}(a)) = f^{\text{on}(a)}(a) = f^{\text{on}}(f(a)),$$

$$\text{so } f^{\text{on}}(f(a)) = f(a), \text{ and } f(a) \text{ is also a fixed point for } f^{\text{on}}.$$

But the fixed point was supposed to be unique, so we must have

$f(a) = a$, which shows that f has a as a fixed point as well. And it must be unique, for if $f(b) = b$, then $f^{\text{on}}(b) = b$ as well, implying $b = a$.

⑧ Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy-sequence. Choose an $\varepsilon > 0$. Will find an $x \in X$ s.t. $d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$, for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$.

As $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy, we can find an N_1 s.t. $d(x_n, x_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ when $n, m \geq N_1$.

As D is dense in X , we can for each x_n find a $y_n \in D$ s.t.

$d(x_n, y_n) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$. Then we have that

$$d(y_n, y_m) \leq d(y_n, x_n) + d(x_n, x_m) + d(x_m, y_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon$$

whenever $n, m \geq N_1$, so $\{y_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

By assumption, there exists an $x \in X$ s.t. $y_n \rightarrow x$.

So we can find an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $d(y_n, x) < \frac{2\varepsilon}{3}$ whenever $n \geq N$,

and then we have

$$d(x_n, x) \leq d(x_n, y_n) + d(y_n, x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{2\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon \text{ whenever}$$

$n \geq N$, as needed.

So all Cauchy-sequences converge, and X is complete.

3.5

① As X is closed in itself, by Thm 3.5.13, we need to prove that X is finite $\Leftrightarrow X$ is totally bounded.

If X is finite, $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, you can choose any $\epsilon > 0$, and we have $X = B(x_1, \epsilon) \cup \dots \cup B(x_n, \epsilon)$, so X is totally bounded.

If X is totally bounded, we can, for $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, find points

$$x_1, \dots, x_n \text{ s.t. } X = B(x_1, \frac{1}{2}) \cup \dots \cup B(x_n, \frac{1}{2}).$$

But $B(x_i, \frac{1}{2}) = \{x_i\}$, so we have $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, and X is finite.

② Important to note: If $\{y_k\} = \{x_{n_k}\}$ is a subsequence of $\{x_n\}$, then $k \leq n_k$.

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence that converges to a .

Then, for any $\epsilon > 0$, we have an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $d(x_n, a) < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$.

Now, we have $k \leq n_k$, so $k \geq N \Rightarrow n_k \geq N \Rightarrow d(x_{n_k}, a) < \epsilon$.

So $d(x_{n_k}, a) = d(y_k, a) < \epsilon$ whenever $k \geq N$, i.e. $y_k \rightarrow a$.

③ Let us follow (copy) the proof in 3.5.10.

Let $m = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in K\}$. Possibly, $m = -\infty$.

Choose a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in K s.t. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = m$.

Since K is compact, $\{x_n\}$ has a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ converging to a point $d \in K$. Then, on the one hand, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_{n_k}) = m$, and

on the other $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_{n_k}) = f(d)$ according to Prop. 3.2.9.

Hence $f(d) = m$, and since $m = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in K\}$, we see that d is a minimum point for f on K .

④ a) A is bounded, so there exists an M st. $d(a,b) \leq M$ for all $a,b \in A$.
Then, specifically $d(a,c) \leq M$ for all $a \in A$, so we let $M_c = M$.

b) Choose two points $a,b \in A$. We have $d(a,c) \leq M$, $d(c,b) \leq M$,
so by the triangle inequality $d(a,b) \leq d(a,c) + d(c,b) \leq M + M = 2M$.
This is true for any $a,b \in A$, so A is bounded.

⑤ If we just choose an $\epsilon > 0$, and look at K_ϵ , we see that
 $f(x) < \epsilon$ for all $x \notin K_\epsilon$, and there exists a point $c \in K_\epsilon$ st.
 $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x \in K_\epsilon$. However we do not know if
 $f(c) \geq \epsilon$, and if $f(c) < \epsilon$ we might find $x \notin K_\epsilon$ with
 $f(x) > f(c)$. Let us choose ϵ wisely.

Choose any point $z \in X$. Let $\epsilon = f(z)$. Then, as $f(x) < \epsilon = f(z)$

for all $x \notin K_{f(z)}$, we have more to work with.

As $K_{f(z)}$ is compact, there exists a $c \in K_{f(z)}$ with

$f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x \in K_\epsilon$. As $f(z) > f(x)$ for all $x \notin K_{f(z)}$,

we must have $z \in K_{f(z)}$. So $f(c) \geq f(z) > f(x)$ for all $x \notin K_{f(z)}$.

Now we have both $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x \in K_{f(z)}$ and

$f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x \notin K_{f(z)}$, so

$f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all $x \in X$, and we have

a maximum point.

⑥ As X is compact, we attain a minimum, i.e.

there exists a $d \in X$ s.t. $f(d) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

As $f(x) > 0$ for all $x \in X$, $f(d) > 0$. Choose $a = \frac{f(d)}{2} < f(d)$,

and we have $a < f(d) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

⑦ K is compact $\Rightarrow K$ is closed.

K is closed $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(K)$ is closed by Prop. 3.3.10.

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $f(x) = 0$. We have that

$\{0\}$ is closed and bounded $\Rightarrow \{0\}$ is compact.

But $f^{-1}(\{0\}) = \mathbb{R}$ is not bounded, so not compact.

Tip: If f is a function where $f^{-1}(K)$ is compact for any compact K , we call f a proper function.