

(1)

Solutions to H.W. #2

1. Let $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\frac{1}{n}: n \geq 1\}$ be given by $f(n) = \frac{1}{n}$. Then clearly f is 1-1 and onto. Since $\{\frac{1}{n}\} = B_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\mathbb{N}}(n) = B_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\mathbb{R}}(n) \cap \mathbb{N} = (\frac{1}{n-\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{1}{n+\frac{1}{2}}) \cap \mathbb{N}$, we see that every subset of \mathbb{N} is open in \mathbb{N} . Hence every function whose domain is \mathbb{N} is continuous (why?). In particular, f is continuous.

Set $A = \{\frac{1}{n}: n \geq 1\}$. Then $f^{-1}: A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is continuous. In fact, if $\frac{1}{n} \in A$, letting $\delta = \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}$ yields $\{\frac{1}{n}\} = B_f^A(\frac{1}{n}) = (\frac{1}{n}-\delta, \frac{1}{n}+\delta) \cap A$, which proves that $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$ and hence every subset of A is open in A . That is, every function with domain A is continuous.

2. Let (M, d) be a metric space. Define $p: M \times M \rightarrow [0, \infty)$

by $p(x, y) = \frac{d(x, y)}{1 + d(x, y)}$. Then p is a metric function. Hence (M, p) is a metric space. We now show that (M, d) and (M, p) are homeomorphic metric spaces by proving that d and p are equivalent metric functions. If $x_n \xrightarrow{d} x$, then $d(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ and therefore $\frac{d(x_n, x)}{1 + d(x_n, x)} \rightarrow 0$. Thus $x_n \xrightarrow{p} x$ given that $x_n \xrightarrow{d} x$. On the other hand, if $x_n \xrightarrow{p} x$, then $p(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$

(2)

and we can write $d(x_n, x) = \frac{p(x_n, x)}{1-p(x_n, x)} \rightarrow 0$.

Hence $d(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ if and only if $p(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ as desired.

Notice that the diameter of (M, p) is $\text{diam}(M) =$

$$= \sup \{p(x, y) : x, y \in M\} \leq \lim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \frac{d}{1+d} = 1,$$

In particular, every metric space is homeomorphic to one of finite diameter.

3. Let $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $f(y) = d(y, x)$. Then f is continuous: $|f(y) - f(z)| = |d(y, x) - d(z, x)| \leq d(y, z)$. Hence f is Lipschitz.

By hypothesis, $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ so $d(x_n, x) \rightarrow d(x, x) = 0$

This proves that $x_n \xrightarrow{d} x$.

4. If $A \subset B \subset M$, where B is totally bounded, then for $\epsilon > 0$ there are $x_1, \dots, x_n \in B$ such that $B \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_\epsilon(x_i)$. But then $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_\epsilon(x_i)$, which shows that A can be covered by finitely many ϵ -balls.

5. Suppose that A is totally bounded. Then for any $\epsilon > 0$

there are points $x_1, \dots, x_n \in A$ such that $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_{\epsilon/2}(x_i)$.

But then $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n C_{\epsilon/2}(x_i)$ where $C_{\epsilon/2}(x_i) = \{y \in M : d(x_i, y) \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}\}$

(3)

are closed balls of diameter ϵ . Thus it is clear that every totally bounded set can be covered by finitely many closed sets of diameter at most ϵ .

On the other hand, if, for any $\epsilon > 0$, a set A can be covered by finitely many closed sets of diameter at most ϵ , it is clear from our class discussions and lemma 7.1 in the book that A must be totally bounded.

6. Suppose that \bar{A} is totally bounded. Then $A \subset \bar{A}$ must also be totally bounded by the work done in problem 4. If, on the other hand, A is assumed to be totally bounded, then, by problem 5, every $\epsilon > 0$ corresponds to a cover of finitely many closed sets F_1, \dots, F_n with $\text{diam}(F_i) < \epsilon$. But $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$ is a closed set that contains A . Hence $\bar{A} \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$ (why?). Thus, it follows from problem 5 that \bar{A} is totally bounded.

7. Suppose A is not totally bounded. Then there is some $\epsilon > 0$ for which no finite cover with ϵ -balls exists for A : let $x_1 \in A$, then $A \notin B_\epsilon(x_1)$. Select $x_2 \in A$ such that $x_2 \notin B_\epsilon(x_1)$. Now $A \notin B_\epsilon(x_1) \cup B_\epsilon(x_2)$. Pick $x_3 \in A \cap [B_\epsilon(x_1) \cup B_\epsilon(x_2)]^c \neq \emptyset$. Continue in this fashion to create a sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ such that $B = \{x_n : n \geq 1\} \subset A$ and $d(x_n, x_m) \geq \epsilon$ whenever $n \neq m$. Observe that $(B, \text{discrete})$ is homeomorphic to (B, d) , because

(4)

the only Cauchy sequences that can be formed from the elements of (B, d) are eventually constant sequences (why?).

Thus the d -metric is equivalent to the discrete metric.

8. Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence in l_∞ defined by

$$f_n(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 1 \leq k \leq n \\ 0 & \text{if } k > n \end{cases}$$

Then the set $S = \{f_n : n \geq 1\} \subset l_\infty$ is closed and bounded.

S is bounded because $\|f_n\|_\infty = 1$ for all n and closed because the only Cauchy sequences with range in S are the eventually constant sequences.

Notice that for $m \neq n$, $\|f_m - f_n\|_\infty = 1$. Hence S is not totally bounded.

9. Suppose that $A \subset M$ is complete. If $x \in M$ is a limit point of A , then there exists a sequence $\{x_n\} \subset A$ such that $x_n \xrightarrow{d} x$. Notice that the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy in A . By hypothesis, this sequence must have a limit $y \in A$. But then $y \in M$ so $x_n \xrightarrow{d} y$ and $x_n \xrightarrow{d} x$, which means that $x = y$. In particular, $x \in A$. This proves that A is closed.

10. Let $p(x, y) = |\tan^{-1}x - \tan^{-1}y|$. Then (\mathbb{R}, p) is not complete; The sequence $\{\pi\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is Cauchy in (\mathbb{R}, p) , yet it

(5)

fails to have a limit in (\mathbb{R}, p) :

$\{n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy, because $p(n, m) = |\tan^{-1}(n) - \tan^{-1}(m)| \leq |\tan^{-1}(n) - \frac{\pi}{2}| + |\frac{\pi}{2} - \tan^{-1}(m)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$.

Notice that if $u \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(n, u) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\tan^{-1}(n) - \tan^{-1}(u)| = |\frac{\pi}{2} - \tan^{-1}(u)| > 0$. Hence no real number u is the limit of the sequence $\{n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Let $z(x, y) = |x^3 - y^3|$. Then (\mathbb{R}, z) is complete; Pick a Cauchy sequence $\{2u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in (\mathbb{R}, z) . Then $\{2u_n^3\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(\mathbb{R}, \text{usual})$. Let $z = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2u_n^3$ be the limit of the real-valued sequence $\{u_n^3\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Then $z = 2u^3$

for some $u \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence $2u_n^3 \xrightarrow{z} z$, so $\{2u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in (\mathbb{R}, z) .

ii. This is false! Let $(M, d) = (\mathbb{R}, \text{usual})$ and (N, p) be $((-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}), \text{usual})$. Then $\tan^{-1}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ is continuous, yet $((-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ is not complete.

12. Let (M, d) and (N, p) be two metric spaces. Then $G: (M \times N)^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $G((a, b), (c, d)) = d(a, c) + p(b, d)$ defines a metric function on $M \times N$. Notice that a sequence $\{(a_n, b_n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset M \times N$ is Cauchy if and only if $G((a_m, b_m), (a_n, b_n)) \rightarrow 0$ whenever $n, m \rightarrow \infty$. This happens

(6)

if and only if $d(a_m, a_n) \rightarrow 0$ and $p(b_m, b_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$. Hence $\{(a_n, b_n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in $M \times N$ if and only if $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in M and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in N . Clearly, this implies that $M \times N$ is complete if and only if M and N are.

13. Let $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset S$ be defined by

$$f_n(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{k} & \text{if } k \leq n \\ 0 & \text{if } k > n \end{cases}$$

In other words,

$$f_1 = (1, 0, 0, 0, \dots), \quad f_2 = (1, \frac{1}{2}, 0, 0, \dots), \quad f_3 = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, 0, \dots),$$

$$f_4 = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots), \text{ etc.}$$

Then if $n > m$, $\|f_n - f_m\|_{\infty} = \frac{1}{m+1} \rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$, which

means that $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy in S .

Notice that $f_n \rightarrow f$ where $f(k) = \frac{1}{k}$ is the harmonic sequence $\{\frac{1}{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Clearly $f \notin S$ so S is not complete.

14. Let $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be Cauchy in C_0 . Then, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_n(k) = 0$. Since C_0 has and h^{∞} is complete,

we know that $f_n \rightarrow f$, for some $f \in h^{\infty}$. Now

$$|f(k)| \leq |f(k) - f_n(k)| + |f_n(k)| \leq \|f - f_n\|_{\infty} + |f_n(k)|$$

(7)

Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\|f - f_n\|_{\infty} < \epsilon$ and let $k > k_0$ satisfy $|f_n(k)| < \epsilon$. Then,

$$|f(k)| \leq \|f - f_n\|_{\infty} + |f_n(k)| < \epsilon + \epsilon = 2\epsilon.$$

This establishes that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(k) = 0$.