## Homework 4 solutions

1. (Exercise 7.1.7): Let X be the set of continuous functions on [0, 1]. Let  $\varphi: [0, 1] \to (0, \infty)$  be continuous. Define

$$d(f,g) := \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|\varphi(x)| dx$$

Show that (X, d) is a metric space.

*Proof.* Let  $f, g, h \in X$  be given. For nonnegativity, we have

$$d(f,g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx$$
$$\geq \int_0^1 0\varphi(x) \, dx$$
$$= 0$$

and that d(f, g) = 0 if and only if f, g satisfy

$$\int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|\varphi(x)| \, dx = 0,$$

if and only if |f(x) - g(x)| = 0, if and only if f(x) = g(x) for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , if and only if f = g. For symmetry, we have

$$d(f,g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx$$
$$= \int_0^1 |g(x) - f(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx$$
$$= d(g, f).$$

For triangle inequality, we have

$$\begin{split} d(f,h) &= \int_0^1 |f(x) - h(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x) + g(x) - h(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx \\ &\leq \int_0^1 (|f(x) - g(x)| + |g(x) - h(x)|)\varphi(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|\varphi(x) + |g(x) - h(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx + \int_0^1 |g(x) - h(x)|\varphi(x) \, dx \\ &= d(f,g) + d(g,h). \end{split}$$

Therefore, d is a metric, and so (X, d) is a metric space.

2. (Exercise 7.1.12): Let  $C^1([a, b], \mathbb{R})$  be the set of once continuously differentiable functions on [a, b]. Define

$$d(f,g) := \|f - g\|_{u} + \|f' - g'\|_{u},$$

where  $\|\cdot\|_u$  is the uniform norm. Prove that *d* is a metric.

*Proof.* Let  $f, g, h \in C^1([a, b], \mathbb{R})$  be given. For nonnegativity, we have

$$d(f,g) = ||f - g||_u + ||f' - g'||_u$$
  

$$\ge 0 + 0$$
  

$$= 0$$

and that d(f, g) = 0 if and only if f, g satisfy

$$||f-g||_u + ||f'-g'||_u$$

if and only if  $||f - g||_u = 0$  and  $||f' - g'||_u = 0$ , if and only if f(x) = g(x) and f'(x) = g'(x) for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , if and only if f = g. For symmetry, we have

$$d(f,g) = ||f - g||_u + ||f' - g'||_u$$
  
= ||g - f||<sub>u</sub> + ||g' - f'||<sub>u</sub>  
= d(g, f).

For triangle inequality, we have

$$\begin{split} d(f,h) &= \|f-h\|_{u} + \|f'-h'\|_{u} \\ &= \|(f-g) + (g-h)\|_{u} + \|(f'-g') + (g'-h')\|_{u} \\ &\leq (\|f-g\|_{u} + \|g-h\|_{u}) + (\|f'-g'\|_{u} + \|g'-h'\|_{u}) \\ &= (\|f-g\|_{u} + \|f'-g'\|_{u}) + (\|g-h\|_{u} + \|g'-h'\|_{u}) \\ &= d(f,g) + d(g,h). \end{split}$$

Therefore, d is a metric.

3. (Exercise 7.2.9): Let X be a set and  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$  be two metrics on X. Suppose there exists an  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$  such that

$$\alpha d_1(x, y) \le d_2(x, y) \le \beta d_1(x, y)$$
 for all  $x, y \in X$ .

Show that U is open in  $(X, d_1)$  if and only if U is open in  $(X, d_2)$ . That is, the topologies of  $(X, d_1)$  and  $(X, d_2)$  are the same.

*Proof.* First, suppose that U is open in  $(X, d_1)$ . Consider a point  $y \in B_2(x, \alpha \delta)$ . Then we have

$$d_1(x, y) \le \frac{1}{\alpha} d_2(x, y)$$
$$\le \frac{1}{\alpha} (\alpha \delta)$$
$$= \delta,$$

which implies  $y \in B_1(x, \delta)$ . So we have  $B_2(x, \alpha \delta) \subseteq B_1(x, \delta) \subset U$ , which means that U is open in  $(X, d_2)$ . Conversely, suppose that U is open in  $(X, d_2)$ . Consider a point  $y \in B_1(x, \beta \delta)$ . Then we have

$$d_2(x, y) \le \frac{1}{\beta} d_1(x, y)$$
$$\le \frac{1}{\beta} (\beta \delta)$$
$$= \delta,$$

which implies  $y \in B_2(x, \delta)$ . So we have  $B_1(x, \alpha \delta) \subseteq B_2(x, \delta) \subset U$ , which means that U is open in  $(X, d_1)$ .

- 4. (Exercise 7.2.13): Let (X, d) be a metric space.
  - (a) For any  $x \in X$  and  $\delta > 0$ , show  $\overline{B(x, \delta)} \subset C(x, \delta)$ .

*Proof.* Suppose we have  $x \in \overline{B(x, \delta)}$ . Then x is in the intersection of all closed sets containing  $B(x, \delta)$ . In other words, x is in every closed set containing  $B(x, \delta)$ . For instance,  $C(x, \delta)$  is the closed ball containing  $B(x, \delta)$ . Therefore, we have  $x \in C(x, \delta)$ , and so we conclude  $\overline{B(x, \delta)} \subset C(x, \delta)$ .

(b) Is it always true that  $\overline{B(x, \delta)} = C(x, \delta)$ ? Prove or find a counterexample.

Counterexample. Consider the discrete metric d defined by

$$d(x, y) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq y, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$$

for all  $x, y \in (X, d)$ . If we select  $\delta := 1$ , then the discrete metric *d* implies  $B(x, 1) = \{y \in X : d(x, y) < 1\} = \{x\}$ . Since singleton sets are closed, we have  $\overline{B(x, 1)} = B(x, 1) = \{x\}$ . But the closed ball is

$$C(x, 1) = \{ y \in X : d(x, y) \le 1 \}$$
  
=  $B(x, 1) \cup \{ y \in X : d(x, y) = 1 \}$   
=  $\{x\} \cup \{y\}.$ 

If x, y are distinct, then we conclude

$$\overline{B(x,1)} = \{x\}$$
$$\neq \{x\} \cup \{y\}$$
$$= C(x,1),$$

as desired.

5. (Exercise 7.2.18): For every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and every  $\delta > 0$  define the rectangle

$$R(x,\delta) := (x_1 - \delta, x_1 + \delta) \times (x_2 - \delta, x_2 + \delta) \times \dots \times (x_n - \delta, x_n + \delta)$$

Show that these sets generate the same open sets as the balls in standard metric. That is, show that a set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open in the sense of the standard metric if and only if for every point  $x \in U$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $R(x, \delta) \subset U$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open in the sense of the standard metric. Then for any  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in U$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  that satisfies  $B(x, n\delta) \subset U$ . For any  $y \in R(x, \delta)$ , we have  $|y_i - x_i| < \delta$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , which implies

$$||y - x|| = ||(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) - (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)||$$
  

$$= ||(y_1 - x_1, y_2 - x_2, \dots, y_n - x_n)||$$
  

$$= \sqrt{(y_1 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - x_2)^2 + \dots + (y_n - x_n)^2}$$
  

$$\leq \sqrt{(y_1 - x_1)^2} + \sqrt{(y_2 - x_2)^2} + \dots + \sqrt{(y_n - x_n)^2}$$
  

$$= |y_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - x_2| + \dots + |y_n - x_n|$$
  

$$< \delta + \delta + \dots + \delta$$
  

$$= n\delta$$

which signifies that the rectangle  $R(x, \delta)$  is contained in  $B(x, n\delta)$ .

Conversely, suppose that, for every point  $x \in U$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $R(x, \delta) \subset U$ . Consider the open ball  $B(x, \frac{\delta}{n})$ . Then for any  $y \in B(x, \delta)$ , we have

$$|y_i - x_i| \le ||y - x|$$
$$= \delta$$

which means  $y \in R(x, \delta)$ , and so  $B(x, \frac{\delta}{n})$  is contained in the rectangle  $R(x, \delta)$ . So we have the set inclusions  $B(x, \frac{\delta}{n}) \subset R(x, \delta) \subset U$ , which signifies that  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open in the sense of the standard metric.

6. (Exercise 7.3.5): Suppose  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to x. Suppose  $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  is a one-to-one function. Show that  $\{x_{f(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to x.

*Proof (by Estela Gavosto).* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to *x*, there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  that satisfies  $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$  for all integers  $n \ge N$ . Moreover, since *f* is a one-to-one function, we have  $f(n) \ge N$  for all  $n \ge M$ , where

$$M := \max\{f^{-1}(\{1\}), f^{-1}(\{2\}), f^{-1}(\{3\}), \dots, f^{-1}(\{N\}), 1\}$$

So we conclude  $|x_{f(n)} - x| < \epsilon$  for all integers  $n \ge M$ , which means  $\{x_{f(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to x.

7. (Exercise 7.3.7): A set  $S \subset X$  is said to be *dense* in X if  $X \subset \overline{S}$  or in other words if for every  $x \in X$ , there exists a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in S that converges to x. Prove that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains a countable dense subset.

*Proof.* Consider for instance the set  $\mathbb{Q}^n := \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_i \in \mathbb{Q}, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . Then we have  $\mathbb{Q}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , and we want to show that  $\mathbb{Q}^n$  is countable and dense. First, we will now that  $\ltimes$  is dense. By Theorem 1.2.4(ii) of the Lebl textbook,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , which means that, given any  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , there exists a sequence  $\{(x_i)_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  in  $\mathbb{Q}$  that converges to  $x_i$ . By definition, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that, if  $k \ge N$ , then  $|(x_i)_k - x_i| < \frac{\epsilon}{n}$ . This implies

$$\begin{aligned} \|(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)_k - (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)\| &= \|((x_1)_k, (x_2)_k, \dots, (x_n)_k) - (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)\| \\ &= \|((x_1)_k - x_1, (x_2)_k - x_2, \dots, (x_n)_k - x_n)\| \\ &\leq |(x_1)_k - x_1| + |(x_2)_k - x_2| + \dots + |(x_n)_k - x_n| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{n} + \frac{\epsilon}{n} + \dots + \frac{\epsilon}{n} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $\{(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ , and so  $\mathbb{Q}^n$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Next, we will show that  $\mathbb{Q}^n$  is also countable. I will prove this by induction. By Example 0.3.32 of the Lebl textbook,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable. Now assume that  $\mathbb{Q}^k$  is countable. We will prove that  $\mathbb{Q}^{k+1}$  is countable. We can write  $\mathbb{Q}^{k+1} = \mathbb{Q}^k \times \mathbb{Q} = \{((x_1, x_2, ..., x_k), y) \in \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R} : x_j \in \mathbb{R}^k, y \in \mathbb{R}, j = 1, ..., k\}$ . Since we know that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable and we assumed that  $\mathbb{Q}^k$  is countable, the set  $\mathbb{Q}^{k+1} = \mathbb{Q}^k \times \mathbb{Q}$  is in one-to-one correspondence with  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ , which is countable by Example 0.3.31 of the Lebl textbook. So we conclude that  $\mathbb{Q}^{k+1}$  is countable, completing our proof by induction.