

Problem 1:

(b) Let $F(\mathbb{N}) = \{A : A \text{ is finite, } A \subset \mathbb{N}\}$. claim: $F(\mathbb{N})$ is countable.

Pf: to prove this I will use the fact proved in class that the union of countable sets is countable. thus, by showing that $F_n(\mathbb{N}) = \{A : A \text{ is finite, } A \subset \mathbb{N}, |A| \leq n\}$ is countable for each n and letting $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$; we will show that $F(\mathbb{N}) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n(\mathbb{N})$ is countable.

Consider the function:

This function doesn't look good, it is not 1-1.

$f: F_n(\mathbb{N}) \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, given by $f(\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}) = n$; this function is onto a subset of \mathbb{N} ; that is onto $\{1, \dots, n\}$. therefore, by result proved in class $F_n(\mathbb{N}) \subset \text{subset of } \mathbb{N}$, $F_n(\mathbb{N})$ infinite and \mathbb{N} contains $\Rightarrow F_n(\mathbb{N})$ is at most countable. Hence, by letting $n=1, 2, \dots$ as explained before, we find that $F(\mathbb{N})$ is countable.

Problem 2: Let us prove (i) $d_1(p, q)$ is a metric on X and (ii) d_1 is equivalent to d .

(i) d_1 satisfies the following three properties:

① let $p \in X$. then $d_1(p, p) = \min\{d(p, p), 1\}$ by definition of d_1 . $\forall x \in X$.
 $= \min\{0, 1\}$, since d is a metric, $d(x, x) = 0$.
 $= 0$

② let $p \in X$ and $q \in X$. then.

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(p, q) &= \min\{d(p, q), 1\} \text{ by definition of } d_1 \\ &\leq \min\{d(q, p), 1\} \text{ since } d \text{ is a metric: } d(x, y) = d(y, x), \forall x, y \in X. \\ &= d_1(q, p). \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, if $p \neq q$, then $d_1(p, q) = \min\{d(p, q), 1\}$
 $= \min\{a, 1\}$, where $a > 0$ since d is a metric.
 $\Rightarrow d(p, q) > 0$, provided that $p \neq q$. \square

③ let $p, q, r \in X$. then,

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(p, q) &= \min\{d(p, q), 1\}; d_1(p, r) = \min\{d(p, r), 1\}; d_1(r, q) = \min\{d(r, q), 1\}. \\ (p, r) + d_1(r, q) &= \min\{d(p, r), 1\} + \min\{d(r, q), 1\}. \text{ by def of } d_1. \\ &\geq \min\{d(p, q), 1\}, \text{ since } d \text{ is a metric, so} \\ &= d_1(p, q) \quad d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q) \\ &\quad \text{by def of } d_1. \end{aligned}$$

①, ② and ③ we conclude that d_1 is a metric.

Want to prove $\lim_n d(p_n, p) = 0 \iff \lim_n d_1(p_n, p) = 0$.

Suppose $\lim_n d(p_n, p) = 0$. Then, given $\epsilon > 0$; $\exists N$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N$ $d(d(p_n, p), 0) < \epsilon$.
Want to show that given $\epsilon' > 0$ $\exists n$ s.t. $\forall m \geq M$: $d_1(d_1(p_n, p), 0) < \epsilon'$.

Given ϵ' and pick M s.t. $d(d(p_n, p), 0) < \epsilon'$, whenever $n \geq M$. then

$$d_1(d_1(p_n, p), 0) = d_1(\min\{d(p_n, p), 1\}, 0) \text{ by definition of } d_1$$

$$= \min(\min\{d(p_n, p), 1\}, 0) \text{ by definition of } d_1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0, \text{ since } d \text{ is a metric and hence always positive} \\ &< \epsilon'. \end{aligned}$$

That $\lim_n d_1(p_n, p) = 0$, provided that $\lim_n d(p_n, p) = 0$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $\lim_n d_1(p_n, p) = 0$. Then, given $\epsilon > 0 \exists N: \forall n \geq N: d_1(d_1(p_n, p), 0) < \epsilon$. I want to show that given $\epsilon' > 0: \exists N$ s.t. $\forall m \geq N: d_1(d_1(p_m, p), 0) < \epsilon'$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Pick N s.t. $d_1(d_1(p_n, p), 0) < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} d_1(d_1(p_n, p), 0) &= d_1(\min\{d(p_n, p), 1\}, 0) \\ &= \min\{d(\min\{d(p_n, p), 1\}, 0), 1\} < \epsilon \quad \text{by hypothesis} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow d(\min\{d(p_n, p), 1\}, 0) < \epsilon$; since this is the only way that the min fraction can be less than ϵ .

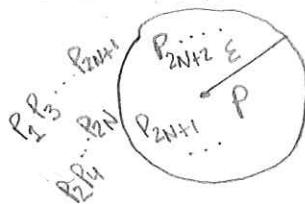
$\Rightarrow \min\{d(p_n, p), 1\} < \epsilon$, same as before,

$\Rightarrow d(p_n, p) < \epsilon$, otherwise $d(p_n, p) \geq \epsilon \Rightarrow \min\{d(p_n, p), 1\} \geq \epsilon$, not possible.

Therefore, $\lim_n d(p_n, p) = 0$ provided that $\lim_n d_1(p_n, p) = 0$.

Problem 3:

(a) Suppose that given a sequence $\{p_n\}$, we have that $\{p_{2n}\} \rightarrow p$ and $\{p_{2n+1}\} \rightarrow p$. We want to prove that $\{p_n\} \rightarrow p$.



Neighborhood of p of radius $\epsilon > 0$
all but finitely many p_{2n} and p_{2n+1} are contained
in any such neighborhood.

We can see that a relabeling of this terms immediately imply $p_n \rightarrow p$ as $\{p_n\} = \{p_{2n}\} \cup \{p_{2n+1}\}$. Suppose for a contradiction that p_n does not converge to p . Then p is not a limit point of $\{p_n\}$. That means that there exists $r > 0$ such that $N_r(p) \setminus \{p\}$ that contains finitely many p_n , for some $r > 0$. However, since $\{p_{2n}\} \rightarrow p$ and $\{p_{2n+1}\} \rightarrow p$, every neighborhood of p contains infinitely many p_{2n} 's and p_{2n+1} 's; in particular the neighborhood of radius r as chosen before for a choice of N . Pick such N , then $p_{2N}, p_{2N+1}, p_{2N+2}, \dots$ are infinitely many points of $\{p_n\}$ (relabeling $n=2N$) contained in $N_r(p) \setminus \{p\}$, a contradiction. Thus there exists no such neighborhood $\Rightarrow p$ is a limit point of $\{p_n\}$.

Problem 4:

a) Consider the following real sequences:

$$q_n = \frac{1}{n} + 1; n \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{and} \quad p_n = -1, 1, -1, 1, \dots$$

then, q_n is convergent. In fact it converges to $\cancel{1}$ since $\sum n q_n < \infty$.
pick $\frac{1}{N} - 1 < \epsilon$, then, if $n \geq N$ $\frac{1}{n} - 1 \leq \frac{1}{N} - 1 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} - 1 < \epsilon$

Note that we can pick such a N by the archimedean property

so, p_n is bounded. In fact $p_n \in [-1, 1]$.

however, $\{t_n\} = \{p_n + q_n\} = \{p_n + \frac{1}{n}\}$ is divergent since the subsequence $\{t_{2n+1}\} = \{1 + \frac{1}{n}\} = \{\frac{n+1}{n}\}$ which diverges so the original sequence $\{t_n\}$ diverges.
really, $\{s_n\} = \{p_n q_n\} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} + 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$

one of these subsequences converges to 1 (which was proved before) and
the other $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$. Hence, $\{s_n\}$ diverges.

90/100

Problem 5: (a) Let K_1, \dots, K_n be a finite collection of compact subsets.

then, Given an open cover $\{G_\alpha\}$ of $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$, i.e., $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i \subset \{G_\alpha\}$, where α is an open set, we can always obtain a finite subcover as follow:

Since K_i is compact, it has a finite cover say $\{G_{\beta_{ij}}\}$ where $j=1, \dots, m$

so that $K_i \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^m G_{\beta_{ij}}$. Take the union of these open covers for each i

produce $\bigcup_{i=1}^n \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^m G_{\beta_{ij}} \right)$; a finite open cover of K_1, \dots, K_n (since the

union of finite sets is finite). But then $\bigcup_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j=1}^m G_{\beta_{ij}} \subset \{G_\alpha\}$; since

otherwise there would be a K_i not completely covered by $\bigcup_{j=1}^m G_{\beta_{ij}}$.

This result does not extend to infinite unions: $A_n = [1 - \frac{1}{n}, 2], n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
each set is bounded and closed in \mathbb{R} so A_n is compact for a given n , but
 $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [1 - \frac{1}{n}, 2] = [0, 2]$, which is not closed, hence not compact.
if $n=1$ is included