

# 1 Math 512A. Homework 5 Solutions

**Problem 1.** (i) Define “countable set.”

- (ii) Determine (either prove or give a counterexample) whether the following statements are true: (a) The union of two uncountable sets is uncountable. (b) The intersection of two uncountable sets is uncountable.

*Solution.* (ii) (a) True. If  $A \cup B$  is countable, then there is a one-one mapping  $f : A \cup B \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$ . The composite  $f \circ i : A \rightarrow A \cup B \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$  is one-one, and hence  $A$  is countable. (b) False.  $A = (-\infty, 1]$  and  $B = [1, \infty)$  are uncountable but  $A \cap B = \{1\}$  is countable.  $\square$

**Problem 2.** (i) Define “ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = l$ .”

- (ii) Prove, using the definition in (i), that  $a_n = \frac{2n-1}{n+3}$  converges to  $l = 2$ .

*Solution.* (ii) Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $N = \max\{2, 7/\varepsilon - 2\}$ . If  $n > N$ , then

$$\left| \frac{2n-1}{n+3} - 2 \right| = \frac{7}{N+3} < \varepsilon.$$

$\square$

**Problem 3.** Let  $a_n$  be the Fibonacci sequence,  $a_1 = a_2 = 1$ ,  $a_{n+2} = a_n + a_{n+1}$ .

- (i) If  $r_n = \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ , then prove that  $r_{n+1} = 1 + \frac{1}{r_n}$ .
- (ii) Prove that  $r = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n$  exists, and  $r = 1 + \frac{1}{r}$ . Conclude that  $r = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ .

*Solution.* (i) By definition,  $a_{n+2} = a_{n+1} + a_n$ . If  $r_n = \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ , then

$$r_{n+1} = \frac{a_{n+2}}{a_{n+1}} = \frac{a_{n+1} + a_n}{a_{n+1}} = 1 + \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{r_n}.$$

(ii) After looking at the first few terms of the sequence  $(r_n) = (1, 2, 3/2, 5/3, 8/5, \dots)$ , we conjecture that the subsequence of  $(r_n)$  given by the terms with even indexes,  $(r_{2n})$ , is decreasing and that with odd indexes,  $(r_{2n-1})$ , is increasing. This is in fact true and can be proved by induction, using (i). To start, we have  $r_1 < r_3$  and  $r_4 < r_2$ . If we know that  $r_{2n} < r_{2n-2}$ , then  $r_{2n-1} = 1 + \frac{1}{r_{2n-2}} < 1 + \frac{1}{r_{2n}} = r_{2n+1}$ , and similarly, if  $r_{2n-1} < r_{2n+1}$ , then  $r_{2n+2} < r_{2n}$ .

Furthermore, the sequences  $(r_{2n})$  and  $(r_{2n-1})$  are bounded because  $(r_n)$  is bounded on account of the identity proved in (i):

$$1 \leq r_{n+1} = 1 + \frac{r_{n-1}}{r_{n-1} + 1} \leq 2.$$

Let  $r_e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_{2n}$  and  $r_o = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_{2n-1}$ . Then, by the properties of limits and the identities

$$r_{2n} = 1 + \frac{1}{r_{2n-1}} \quad \text{and} \quad r_{2n+1} = 1 + \frac{1}{r_{2n}}$$

we have

$$r_e = 1 + \frac{1}{r_o} \quad \text{and} \quad r_o = 1 + \frac{1}{r_e}$$

or  $r_e r_o = r_e + 1 = r_o + 1$ . Therefore, the limit  $\lim r_n = r$  exists (Why?) and  $r = r_e = r_o$  satisfies  $r = 1 + \frac{1}{r}$ , or  $r^2 - r - 1 = 0$ .

Since  $r$  is positive, it must equal the positive solution of the quadratic equation  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$ , that is,  $r = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ .  $\square$

**Problem 4.** (i) Find all the accumulation points of the set  $S = \left\{ \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \mid n \text{ and } m \text{ in } \mathbf{N} \right\}$

(ii) Prove that  $p$  is an accumulation point of a set  $S \subset \mathbf{R}^n$  if and only if every ball about  $p$  contains infinitely many points of  $S$ .

*Solution.* (i) The accumulation points of  $S$  are  $0, 1, 1/2, 1/3, \dots$ . Indeed, each of the numbers  $\frac{1}{n} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m}$ , and  $0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n}$ . In each case the point is limit of a sequence whose terms are all in  $S$  and are distinct from the point itself.

We prove that those are the only accumulation points of  $S$ . Suppose that  $x \neq 0, 1, 1/2, \dots$  is an accumulation point of  $S$ . Then there is a sequence  $(s_n)$  in  $S$  such that  $s_n$  converges to  $x$  and  $s_n \neq x$  for all  $n$ . Each  $s_n = 1/p_n + 1/q_n$  for some natural numbers  $p_n$  and  $q_n$ , with  $p_n \leq q_n$ . If the sequence  $(q_n)$  is bounded above, then so is the sequence  $p_n$ , and thus there are natural number  $p$  and  $q$  such that  $p_n = p$  and  $q_n = q$  for infinitely many  $n$ 's. This implies that  $s_n = 1/p + 1/q$  for infinitely many  $n$ 's. Since a subsequence of a convergent sequence converges to the same limit, this forces  $s_n = 1/p + 1/q = x$  for infinitely many  $n$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $q_n$  has a subsequence  $q_{n_k}$  which is strictly increasing, hence such that  $1/q_{n_k}$  converges to 0. If the corresponding subsequence of natural numbers  $(p_{n_k})$  is bounded above, then it has a constant subsequence  $p_{n_{k_l}} = p$  for some natural number  $p$ , which implies that  $s_{n_{k_l}}$  converges to  $1/p$ , and thus that  $x = 1/p$ , again a contradiction. Therefore  $p_{n_k}$  has a strictly increasing subsequence  $p_{n_{k_l}}$ , which implies that  $s_{n_{k_l}}$  and thus  $s_n$ , converges to 0, also a contradiction.  $\square$

**Problem 5.** (i) Let  $a_n$  be a bounded injective sequence of real numbers. Prove that if  $p$  is the only accumulation point of the set  $A = \{a_n \mid n \text{ in } \mathbf{N}\}$ , then the sequence  $a_n$  converges and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = p$ .

(ii) Show by a counterexample that this property is not true for unbounded sequences.

*Solution.* (i) Suppose that  $a_n$  does not converge to  $p$ . Then there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that for every natural number  $k$ , there is  $n_k > k$  such that  $|a_{n_k} - p| \geq \varepsilon$ . The sequence  $(a_{n_k})$  is a subsequence of  $(a_n)$  and thus it is bounded. Therefore it has a subsequence  $(a_{n_{k_l}})$  which converges to a point  $q \neq p$  (because  $|a_{n_{k_l}} - p| > \varepsilon$ ). Because the sequence  $(a_n)$  is injective, all elements of this subsequence are distinct and therefore  $q$  is an accumulation point of the set  $A$ .

**Note.** If “injective” is not assumed, then (i) may not be true. Let  $a_n = 1$  if  $n$  is odd and  $a_n = 1/n$  if  $n$  is even. Then the set  $A = \{a_n\} = \{1, 1/2, 1/4, 1/6, \dots\}$  has only one accumulation point, namely 0, but the original sequence  $a_n$  does not converge to 0 (or to any other number).

(ii) Let  $a_n = n$  if  $n$  is odd and  $a_n = 1/n$  if  $n$  is even. The sequence  $(a_n)$  is unbounded and 0 is the only accumulation point of the set  $A = \{a_n\} = \{1, 1/2, 3, 1/4, 5, 1/6, \dots\}$ .  $\square$

**Problem 6.** (i) Define the concept “bounded sequence.”

(ii) Prove that a set  $S \subset \mathbf{R}$  is bounded if and only if every sequence of points in  $S$  has a convergent subsequence.

*Solution.* (i) A sequence  $(x_n)$  is bounded if there is a number  $M$  such that  $|x_n| \leq M$  for all  $n$ .

(ii) Assume that  $S \subset \mathbf{R}$  is bounded. If  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $S$ , then  $(x_n)$  is bounded and thus it has a convergent subsequence.

Assume that  $S$  is not bounded. Then for any integer  $n$  there is an  $x_n$  in  $S$  such that  $|x_n| > n$ . Since any convergent sequence is bounded, the sequence  $(x_n)$  cannot have a convergent subsequence.  $\square$

**Problem 7.** (i) Define the concept “ $f$  is a continuous function at the point  $p$ .”

(ii) Let  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be the function given by  $f(x) = x$  if  $x$  is rational, and  $f(x) = -x$  if  $x$  is irrational. Prove that  $f$  is continuous only at  $p = 0$ .

*Solution.* (i)  $f$  is continuous at  $p$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$  and  $x$  is in the domain of  $f$ , then  $|f(x) - f(p)| < \varepsilon$ .

The following equivalent version of continuity will be used below:  $f$  is continuous at  $p$  if and only if  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(p)$  for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in domain  $f$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow p$ .

(ii)  $f$  is continuous at 0. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , take  $\delta = \varepsilon$ . If  $|x| < \delta$ , then

$$|f(x) - f(0)| = |f(x)| = |x| < \delta = \varepsilon.$$

If  $p \neq 0$ , then  $f$  is not continuous at  $p$ . Indeed, if  $p$  is not rational there is a sequence  $p_n$  of rational numbers such that  $p_n \rightarrow p$ , and if  $p$  is rational, there is a sequence of irrational numbers  $p_n \rightarrow p$  (for example,  $p_n = p + \sqrt{2}/n$ ). In either case,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = -p$ , which is  $\neq p$  for  $p \neq 0$ .  $\square$

**Problem 8.** (i) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  do not exist, can  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)]$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f \cdot g)(x)$  exist?

(ii) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)]$  exists, must  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exist?

(iii) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  does not exist, can  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)]$  exist?

(iv) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x)$  exists, does it follow that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exists?

*Solution.* (i) Yes. Let  $f(x) = 1$  if  $x$  is rational and  $f(x) = -1$  if  $x$  is not rational, and let  $g = -f$ . Then  $f(x) + g(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ , and  $f(x)g(x) = -1$  for all  $x$ .

(ii) Yes. Write  $g(x) = (f(x) + g(x)) - f(x)$ . Each of the terms  $f(x) + g(x)$  and  $f(x)$  on the right side has limit when  $x \rightarrow a$ , so their difference also has limit when  $x \rightarrow a$ .

(iii) No. Apply (ii).

(iv) No. Let  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  and let  $g(x) = 1$  if  $x$  is rational and  $g(x) = -1$  if  $x$  is not rational. Then, for any  $a$ ,  $f(x)$  and  $f(x)g(x) = 0$  both have limit when  $x \rightarrow a$ , but  $g(x)$  does not have limit when  $x \rightarrow a$ .  $\square$

**Problem 9.** (i) Define the concepts “closed set” and “closure of a set.”

(ii) Prove that the closure of a set  $S \subset \mathbf{R}^n$  is the smallest closed subset of  $\mathbf{R}^n$  which contains  $S$ .

*Solution.* (i) A set is closed if it contains all its boundary points. The closure of a set  $S$  is  $\bar{S} = S \cup \partial S$ .

(ii) By definition, the closure of  $S$  is  $\bar{S} = S \cup \partial S$ , hence  $\bar{S}$  contains  $S$ .

We show that  $\bar{S}$  is closed. Let  $p$  be point in  $\partial \bar{S}$ , the boundary of  $\bar{S}$ . Then every ball around  $p$  intersects  $\bar{S}$  and its complement  $\bar{S}^c$ . Hence there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $\bar{S}$  such that  $|x_n - p| < 1/n$  for all  $n$ . Because  $x_n$  is in  $\bar{S}$ , there is  $y_n$  in  $S$  such that  $|y_n - x_n| < 1/n$ . Then, by the triangle inequality,  $|y_n - p| \leq |y_n - x_n| + |x_n - p| < 2/n$ . Thus  $p$  is in  $\bar{S}$  because the  $(y_n)$  is in  $S$  and converges to  $p$ .

We show that  $\bar{S}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $S$ , that is, if  $T$  is closed and  $S \subset T$ , then  $\bar{S} \subset T$ . Assume this was not the case. Then there is  $p$  in  $\bar{S}$  which is also in  $T^c$ . In particular,  $p$  is not in  $S$ . Moreover, since  $T^c$  is open, there is a ball around  $p$  which is completely contained in  $T^c$ . This ball cannot intersect  $S$  because  $S \subset T$ , and this  $p$  cannot be a boundary point of  $S$ . Hence  $p$  is not in  $S \cup \partial S = \bar{S}$ , a contradiction.  $\square$