

# Homework Assignment Solution 3

September 25, 2021

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## #1 (a)

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Clearly  $\tilde{d}$  is non-negative, and when  $x = y = \mathbf{0}$ , since they lie on the same ray,  $\tilde{d}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}) = 0$ . Assume now  $\tilde{d}(x, y) = 0$ . In the first case we require  $x - y = \mathbf{0} \iff x = y$ . In the second case,  $|x| = |y| = 0 \iff x = y = \mathbf{0}$ .

It is evidently symmetric, so we will finish the proof by showing that  $\tilde{d}$  satisfies the triangle inequality. Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbf{R}^2$  be given. If  $x$  and  $z$  lie on the same ray, then there are 3 possibilities: (i) both the pairs  $x, y$  and  $y, z$  lie on the same ray; (ii) only one of the pairs lie on the same ray (say,  $x, y$  without loss of generality); and (iii) none of the pairs  $x, y$  and  $y, z$  lie on the same ray.

In the case (i),

$$\tilde{d}(x, y) + \tilde{d}(y, z) = |x - y| + |y - z| \geq |x - y + y - z| = |x - z| = \tilde{d}(x, z)$$

by the triangle inequality for  $|\cdot|$ . In the case (ii),

$$\tilde{d}(x, y) + \tilde{d}(y, z) = |x| + |y| + |y - z| \geq |x - y| + |y - z| \geq |x - z| = \tilde{d}(x, z).$$

We can see without much difficulty that when  $y, z$  also lie on the same ray, the inequality also holds.

Observe that the relation of lying on the same ray is a transitive relation, meaning that if  $x, y$  and  $y, z$  lie on the same ray, then so do  $x, z$ . This is because if  $y = \lambda_1 x$  and  $z = \lambda_2 y$ , then  $z = (\lambda_1 \lambda_2)x$ , or  $x = y = z = 0$ . Hence under the assumption that  $x, z$  don't lie on the same ray, (i) cannot occur. In (ii),

$$\tilde{d}(x, y) + \tilde{d}(y, z) = |x| + |y| + |z - y| \geq |x| + |y + z - y| = |x| + |z| = \tilde{d}(x, z).$$

In the case (iii),

$$\tilde{d}(x, y) + \tilde{d}(y, z) = |x| + |y| + |y| + |z| \geq |x| + |z| = \tilde{d}(x, z),$$

as  $|y| \geq 0$ .

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## #1 (b)

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Observe that  $\tilde{d}(x, y) \geq d(x, y)$  for every pair  $(x, y) \in \mathbf{R}^2$ . Hence if  $\tilde{d}(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ , then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $\epsilon > \tilde{d}(x_n, x) > d(x_n, x) \geq 0$ . Hence if  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $\tilde{d}$ , then  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $d$  as well.

Consider  $(x_n) = (n^{-1}, 1)$ . This converges to  $x := (0, 1)$  in  $d$ , but since none of the points in the sequence lies on the say ray with  $(0, 1)$  (as the  $x$ -coordinate is non-zero),  $\tilde{d}(x_n, x) = |x_n| + |x| = \sqrt{n^{-2} + 1} + 1 \rightarrow 2$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

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#2

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We first prove the “reverse triangle inequality” for metric: For every  $x, y, z \in (X, d)$ ,  $|d(x, y) - d(y, z)| \leq d(x, z)$ . (This is a generalisation of the claim from PS2.7 to any metric.)

*Proof.* Let  $x, y, z \in X$  be given. Then we have

$$d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y) = d(x, z) + d(y, z) \implies d(x, y) - d(y, z) \leq d(x, z),$$

and

$$d(y, z) \leq d(y, x) + d(x, z) = d(x, y) + d(x, z) \implies -d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) - d(y, z).$$

Combining these two inequalities, we obtain

$$|d(x, y) - d(y, z)| \leq d(x, z). \quad \blacksquare$$

Next, we prove that if  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$  and  $(y_n) \rightarrow y$  in  $d$ , then  $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow d(x, y)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By the triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} |d(x_n, y_n) - d(x, y)| &= |d(x_n, y_n) - d(x_n, y) + d(x_n, y) - d(x, y)| \\ &\leq |d(x_n, y_n) - d(x_n, y)| + |d(x_n, y) - d(x, y)| \\ &= |d(y_n, x_n) - d(x_n, y)| + |d(x_n, y) - d(y, x)| \\ &\leq d(y_n, y) + d(x_n, x). \end{aligned}$$

Because  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y$ , there exist  $L$  and  $M$  such that for every  $n > L$ ,  $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon/2$  and for every  $n > M$ ,  $d(y_n, y) < \epsilon/2$ . Let  $N = \max\{L, M\}$ . Then for every  $n > N$ , we have

$$|d(x_n, y_n) - d(x, y)| \leq d(y_n, y) + d(x_n, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon. \quad \blacksquare$$

Finally, we show that if  $(x_n)$  is a convergent sequence in  $(X, d)$  that converges to  $x$ , then every subsequence  $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$  as well.

*Proof.* Let  $(x_{n_k})$  be a subsequence where  $n_k$  is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers. That is,  $n_k < n_{k+1}$  for all  $k$ . Since  $n_1 \geq 1$ , it follows that  $n_k \geq k$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$ . Then for all  $n > N$ ,  $n_k > N$ , hence for every  $k > N$ ,  $d(x_{n_k}, x) < \epsilon$ .  $\blacksquare$

We are now ready to prove the main proposition. Let

$$\delta := \inf\{d(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}.$$

Note that the set under “inf” is bounded below by 0 (by Def. 3.2(a)) and so  $\delta$  exists (by the least upper bound property, Thm. 1.16), and  $\delta \geq 0$  (by definition of the infimum).

There exists a sequence  $((a_n, b_n)) \in A \times B$  such that

$$d(a_n, b_n) \rightarrow \delta$$

(by Ex. 3.11). Because  $A$  and  $B$  are compact there exists a subsequence  $(a_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  that converges to  $a_0 \in A$  (by sequential compactness, Thm. 3.16). Then

$$d(a_{n_k}, b_{n_k}) \rightarrow \delta$$

as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  by one of the lemmas proven in #2 (i.e. convergence  $\Rightarrow$  convergence of every subsequence). Because  $(b_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  is itself a sequence in  $B$  (which is compact), there exists a subsequence  $(b_{n_{k_s}})_{s=1}^{\infty}$  that converges to some  $b_0 \in B$  (again by sequential compactness, Thm. 3.16). At the same time, the subsequence  $(a_{n_{k_s}})_{s=1}^{\infty}$  still converges to the limit  $a_0$  (by the same lemmas proven in #2). Hence

$$d(a_{n_{k_s}}, b_{n_{k_s}}) \rightarrow \delta$$

as  $s \rightarrow \infty$ , and by the above lemma,  $d(a_0, b_0) = \delta$ , which proves the claim.

(By the way, note that  $\delta \neq 0$ , as then (by Def. 3.2(a)) we must have  $a_0 = b_0$ , which contradicts the disjointness of  $A$  and  $B$ .)

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**#3 (a)**

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Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Because  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ , there exists some  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $|x_n - x| < \epsilon/2$ . Then for all  $n > N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \right) - x \right| &= \left| \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{x_k - x}{n} \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{x_k - x}{n} + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \frac{x_k - x}{n} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{x_k - x}{n} \right| + \left| \sum_{k=N+1}^n \frac{x_k - x}{n} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{|x_k - x|}{n} + \sum_{k=N+1}^n \frac{|x_k - x|}{n} \\ &\leq \frac{N}{n} \max_{1 \leq k \leq N} \{|x_k - x|\} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $N \max_{1 \leq k \leq N} \{|x_k - x|\}$  is a fixed quantity, there exists some  $M > N$  such that for all  $n > M$ ,  $\frac{N}{n} \max_{1 \leq k \leq N} \{|x_k - x|\} < \epsilon/2$ . Thus for all  $n > M$ , we have

$$\left| \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \right) - x \right| < \epsilon.$$

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**#3 (b)**

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Let  $(x_n)$  be such that  $x_k = 1$  if  $k$  is odd, and  $x_k = -1$  if  $k$  is even. Then this sequence does not converge (as there are two subsequences converging to different limits), yet the average converges to 0 since  $\sum_{k=1}^n x_k = 0$  or 1 for each  $n$ . Thus for every  $\epsilon > 0$

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \right| \leq \frac{1}{n} \leq \epsilon$$

for  $n \geq 1/\epsilon$ .

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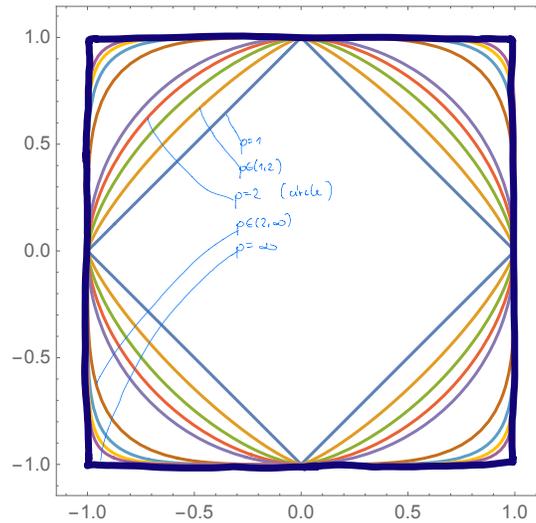
**#4**

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No. Take  $x = \pi$  and  $y = 0$ . Then  $d(x, y) = |\sin \pi| = 0$ , but  $x \neq y$  (and so the nondegeneracy condition of a metric, Def. 3.2(a), is violated).

### #5 (a)

For  $p = 1$ ,  $N_1(0)$  will correspond to the points  $(x_1, y_2)$  on  $\mathbf{R}^2$  such that  $|x_1| + |x_2| < 1$ . This is the set of all points inside of the rhombus (“diamond”) centered at the origin. As  $p$  increases, the boundary becomes more and more like a square of side length 2 centered at the origin (occurs when  $p = \infty$ ). When  $p = 2$ , it is the unit circle.



### #5 (b)

We will show 2 things: (i) For all  $p < q$  and  $x, y$ ,  $d_p(x, y) \leq d_q(x, y)$ ; and (ii) There exists a constant  $c > 1$  independent of  $x, y$  so that  $d_1(x, y) \leq cd_\infty(x, y)$  for every  $x, y$ . This in turn proves that for every  $p < q$ ,

$$d_p(x, y) \leq cd_\infty(x, y) \leq cd_q(x, y),$$

and

$$d_q(x, y) \leq d_p(x, y) \leq cd_p(x, y).$$

Observe that to show (i), it suffices to show that for  $0 < t \leq 1$ ,  $(1 + t^q)^{1/q} \leq (1 + t^p)^{1/p}$  whenever  $p < q$ . Indeed, this inequality is true if and only if  $1 + t^q \leq (1 + t^p)^{q/p}$ , and since  $0 < t \leq 1$ , we have

$$(1 + t^p)^{q/p} \geq 1 + t^p \geq 1 + t^q$$

because  $q/p > 1$ . Let  $p < q$ . Assume without loss that  $|x_1 - y_1| \geq |x_2 - y_2|$ . Then  $t := |x_2 - y_2|/|x_1 - y_1| \leq 1$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned} d_q(x, y) &= (|x_1 - y_1|^q + |x_2 - y_2|^q)^{1/q} \\ &= |x_1 - y_1|(1 + t^q)^{1/q} \\ &\leq |x_1 - y_1|(1 + t^p)^{1/p} \\ &= (|x_1 - y_1|^p + |x_2 - y_2|^p)^{1/p} = d_p(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Observe that  $d_1(x, y) \leq 2 \max\{|x_1 - y_1|, |x_2 - y_2|\} = 2d_\infty(x, y)$ , hence by putting  $c = 2$ , the assertion is proved.

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**#6 (a)**

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Evidently  $d(p_n, q_n) \geq 0$  for every  $p_n, q_n$ . Suppose  $d(p_n, q_n) = 0$ . Then we must have every  $|a_k - b_k| = 0$ , which is if and only if  $a_k = b_k$ , which is if and only if  $p_n = q_n$ .

Since  $d$  is evidently symmetric, we show that the triangle inequality holds. Let  $p_n, q_n, r_n \in P_n$  be arbitrary. Here,  $r_n = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k x^k$  with  $c_k \neq 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} d(p_n, q_n) + d(q_n, r_n) &= \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k - b_k| + \sum_{k=0}^n |b_k - c_k| \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k - b_k| + |b_k - c_k| \\ &\geq \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k - c_k| = d(p_n, r_n). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $d$  is a metric by definition (Def. 3.2).

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**#6 (b)**

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$\tilde{d}$  is not a metric because  $p_n(x) := x^n + 1$  and  $q_n(x) := x^n - 1$  satisfy  $\tilde{d}(p_n, q_n) = 0$  (if  $k \neq 0$ ), yet they are distinct polynomials (so the nondegeneracy condition (Def. 3.2(a)) is violated). The case  $k = 0$  is similar (take, for example,  $p_n(x) := x^n$  and  $q_n(x) := -x^n$ ).

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**#7**

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$X$  is open because every neighborhood of every point is in  $X$ . Since  $\emptyset = X^c$ ,  $\emptyset$  is closed (by Thm 3.10). However,  $\emptyset$  is open vacuously (it contains a neighborhood of any point in it, which there are none), hence  $X$  is also closed (by Thm 3.10).

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**#8**

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Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then there is some  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$ . For all  $n > N$ , by one of the lemmas proved in #2 (or by PS2.7),

$$||x_n| - |x|| \leq |x_n - x| < \epsilon.$$

As for the second claim note that

$$\begin{aligned} |(x_n - 1)^2 - (x - 1)^2| &= |(x_n - 1 + x - 1)(x_n - 1 - x + 1)| \\ &= |x_n - x| |(x_n - x) + 2(x - 1)| \\ &\leq |x_n - x|^2 + 2|x - 1| |x_n - x| \\ &\leq \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

whenever  $N$  is sufficiently large so that  $|x_n - x| \leq \min\{\sqrt{\epsilon/2}, \epsilon/(4|x - 1|)\}$  (if  $x \neq 1$ ; otherwise the term  $2|x - 1| |x_n - x|$  does not show up and the claim follows similarly).

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**#9**

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We want to show that if every sequence of  $K$  has a subsequence that converges in  $K$ , then  $K$  is closed. That is, every limit point of  $K$  is contained in  $K$ . Assume  $x$  is a limit point of  $K$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $K$  that converges to  $x$  so that  $x_n \neq x$  for every  $n$ . Then there exists a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  that converges to an element in  $K$  by compactness (Thm. 3.16), and by one of the lemmas proven in #2 (i.e. convergence  $\Rightarrow$  convergence of every subsequence), this limit is  $x$ . Thus  $x \in K$ , and so  $K$  is closed.

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**#10**

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Let  $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  be any open cover of  $A$ . Let  $B_{\alpha_0}$  be an element of this cover that includes  $0$  ( $0 \in A$  so it must belong to at least one element of the cover of  $A$ ). Since  $B_{\alpha_0}$  is open, there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \subset B_{\alpha_0}$  (by Def. 3.8(c)). Since  $1/n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (by Ex. 3.6) we must have

$$1/n \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \subset B_{\alpha_0}$$

for  $n \geq N$ , where  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  is sufficiently large (note  $N$  is given by the definition of convergence, Def. 3.4). So it remains to cover the remaining  $N - 1$  elements  $1, 1/2, \dots, 1/(N - 1)$  of  $A$ . Each of them belongs to at least one element of the cover  $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ , so altogether we have extracted  $N$  elements of this cover, that still cover  $A$ . Therefore  $A$  is compact by definition (Def. 3.14).

(One could alternatively solve this exercise by using sequential compactness (Thm. 3.16) and noting that any subsequence of  $(1/n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges to  $0$ .)