

Summary of Lecture II

ϵ, δ definition of continuity: $f: X \rightarrow Y$, need only idea of distance on X, Y to define.

Definition of metric space (X, d) , $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ with $d(x, y) \geq 0$, $= 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$, $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$, $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$ [triangle inequality]
[cf. Chap 1, Sec 1 of Gamelin & Greene text].

Examples: (i) X a set, define $d(x, y) = 1$ if $x \neq y$, $d(x, x) = 0$. Every set occurs as the underlying set of a metric space.

[not too interesting: any f : such a $(0, 1)$ space \rightarrow metric space Y

is continuous: take $\delta = 1/2$ for any $\epsilon > 0$]

Formal def. of continuity (to be explicit)

$f: (X, d_1) \rightarrow (Y, d_2)$ is continuous at $x_0 \in X$ if, $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ $d_1(x_0, x) < \delta \Rightarrow d_2(f(x_0), f(x)) < \epsilon$.

Examples (1): \mathbb{R}^n , possible metrics

$$d_1(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2 \right)^{1/2} \quad \text{(triangle inequality requires proof!)}$$

$$d_2(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \max |x_i - y_i|$$

$$d_3(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|$$

Here $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $\vec{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$.

These metrics all give same idea for continuity.

Example (2): $C([0, 1]) =$ continuous \mathbb{R} -valued functions on $[0, 1]$

Possible metrics:

"sup norm" $d(f, g) = \max_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x) - g(x)|$ (will prove later max exists) ← like d_2 in Ex 1

"L¹ norm" $d(f, g) = \int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)| dx$ ← like d_3 in Ex 1


"L² norm" $d(f, g) = \left(\int_0^1 |f(x) - g(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$ (triangle inequality needs proof here)
like d_1 in Ex. 1

(X, d) metric space, sequence $\{x_j\}$, $x_j \in X$,
converges to $x_0 \in X$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists N_\varepsilon$ such
 that $j \geq N_\varepsilon \Rightarrow d(x_0, x_j) < \varepsilon$ (Notation: $x_j \rightarrow x_0$)

Examples: (0) In $[0, 1]$ metric space (Example 0 of
 previous page), convergence is the same as
 eventually constant.

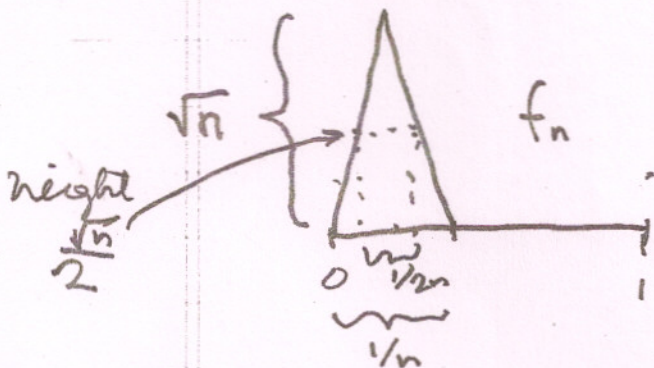
(1) \mathbb{R}^n convergence in any of d_1, d_2, d_∞
 is same as convergence in any other (exercise)

(2) The three metrics on $C([0, 1])$
 have different meanings for convergence.

E.g.  $\leftarrow f_n$

$\{f_n\}$ converges to 0 function
 in L^1 and L^2

but $d(f_n, 0) = 1$, all n ,
 in "sup norm" metric



$\{f_n\}$ converges to 0 in L^1
 but $d(f_n, 0) > 1/8$ all n
 in L^2 norm metric

(since $f_n \geq \sqrt{n}/2$ on
 interval of length $1/2n$)

Convergence in "sup norm" metric does imply convergence
 in L^1 and L^2 metrics

Exercise for later: $f_n \rightarrow 0$ in $L^2 \Rightarrow f_n \rightarrow 0$ in L^1
 Proof vza $(\int_0^1 |f_n|)^2 \leq \int_0^1 |f_n|^2$ (Cauchy Schwarz for
 Integrals: will be shown soon)

If $\{x_j\}$ converges to x_0 in (X, d) then
 for all $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists N_\varepsilon \ni j, k \geq N_\varepsilon \Rightarrow d(x_j, x_k) < \varepsilon$

Proof: x_j, x_k are $\varepsilon/2$ close to x_0 , j, k large.
 Use triangle inequality.

Def: A sequence $\{x_j\}$ in (X, d) is a Cauchy sequence if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists N_\varepsilon \ni j, k \geq N_\varepsilon \Rightarrow d(x_j, x_k) < \varepsilon$.

Cauchy sequences need not converge, e.g. (\mathbb{Q}, d)
 $\mathbb{Q} = \text{rationals}$ $d(x, y) = |x - y|$, sequence
 $1, 1.4, 1.41, 1.414, 1.4142, \dots$ (decimal expansion
 of $\sqrt{2}$)

Fact (Pythagoras) $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational.

Proof If $p/q = \sqrt{2}$, i.e. $p^2 = 2q^2$, may
 assume (by cancelling powers of 2) that one of
 p, q is odd. Then $p^2 = 2q^2$ implies that
 p is even so q is odd. But if $p = 2a$,
 then $q^2 = \frac{1}{2}p^2 = 2a^2$, so q is even. $\times \square$

So "decimal expansion of $\sqrt{2}$ " is a Cauchy
 sequence with no limit

(Important philosophical point: the decimal
 expansion here could be defined entirely in the
 \mathbb{Q} context, no reference to \mathbb{R} , e.g.

n th term = largest number of form integer/ 10^{n-1}
 such that its square ≤ 2).

④

The real numbers are what you get if you "complete" \mathbb{R} , that is, fill in the missing Cauchy sequence limits in some way. Two explicit constructions

(1) "cuts": look at sets C of rationals such that

$$\alpha \in C \text{ and } \beta < \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \in C \text{ and } \exists N \ni \alpha \in C \Rightarrow \alpha < N.$$

We think of C as "being" a real number, intuitively $C =$ set of rationals $\leq \alpha_0$ where α_0 is the intuitive real number C "is". E.g. we identify $\sqrt{2}$ with the set of all rational numbers $\leq \sqrt{2}$. Note that C "is" rational if $C = \{ \alpha \leq \alpha_0; \alpha \in \mathbb{Q} \}$ for some rational number α_0 . E.g. 1 is identified with $\{ \alpha \leq 1; \alpha \in \mathbb{Q} \}$. Arithmetic inequalities etc. are all straightforward

(2) $\mathbb{R} =$ metric space completion of (\mathbb{Q}, d) where $d(x, y) = |x - y|, x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$
(cf. p 13 of text G & G)

Either way, we get:

Least Upper Bound "Axiom":

First a definition: A ^(real) number M is an upper bound for a set A if $M \geq a$ for all $a \in A$. A set A is bounded above if it has some upper bound, i.e., an upper bound M exists.

Least Upper Bound Property of \mathbb{R} : If $A \subset \mathbb{R}, A \neq \emptyset$, is a set that is bounded above, then there exists an upper bound M_0 such that, if M is an upper bound for A , then $M_0 \leq M$. (M_0 is called the "least upper bound" of A)