

1. Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

- (a) Prove or find a counterexample: If  $(x_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$ , then  $(x_n)$  converges.
- (b) Prove that if  $(x_n)$  and  $(y_n)$  are both Cauchy sequences in  $(X, d)$ , then the sequence  $(d(x_n, y_n))$  converges.

**Solution.**

- (a) We use the rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$ , equipped with the standard metric. We use known facts about rationals:  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ . Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , there exists a sequence  $(x_n) \subset \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $x_n \rightarrow \sqrt{2}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since  $(x_n)$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since the  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$ , the metric is the same, and thus  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Now if  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then also  $x_n \rightarrow x$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  and by uniqueness of limit,  $x = \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , contradiction.

Note: Saying that “the limit is outside of the space” is not sufficient. Limit in what metric space? Correct solution along those lines needs to involve two spaces and a uniqueness of limit argument.

- (b) We use the inequality

$$|d(x_n, y_n) - d(x_m, y_m)| \leq d(x_n, x_m) + d(y_n, y_m)$$

to show that  $(d(x_n, y_n))$  is Cauchy in  $\mathbb{R}$ : Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy in  $(X, d)$ , there exists  $N_1$  such that for all  $m, n \geq N_1$ ,  $d(x_n, x_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Since  $(y_n)$  is Cauchy in  $(X, d)$ , there exists  $N_2$  such that for all  $m, n \geq N_2$ ,  $d(y_n, y_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Then,

$$|d(x_n, y_n) - d(x_m, y_m)| \leq d(x_n, x_m) + d(y_n, y_m) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete and  $(d(x_n, y_n))$  is Cauchy,  $(d(x_n, y_n))$  converges.

2. Let  $(a_n), (b_n)$  be sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a \in \mathbb{R}$ .

(a) Prove that if  $a > 0$ , then

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = a \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n.$$

(b) Provide a counterexample when the statement fails with  $a = 0$  and  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution.**

(a) By definition, for any sequence,  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  is the infimum of subsequential limits  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k}$ , and it is known that a subsequence exists such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ .

Denote

$$b = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n.$$

Then there exists subsequence  $(b_{n_k})$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{n_k} = b$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ , we have  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} = a$ , and since  $a \neq 0$ ,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} b_{n_k} = ab$  (regardless if  $b$  is finite or not). Since  $a > 0$ ,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n \leq ab.$$

In the opposite direction, suppose that  $(a_{n_k} b_{n_k})$  is any convergent subsequence of  $(a_n b_n)$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ , the subsequence  $(a_{n_k})$  has the same limit  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} = a$ , and since  $a \neq 0$ ,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{n_k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n_k} b_{n_k}}{a_{n_k}} = \frac{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} b_{n_k}}{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k}} = \frac{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} b_{n_k}}{a}$$

thus

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{n_k} b_{n_k} = a \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{n_k}$$

Since  $a > 0$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{n_k} \geq b$ ,

$$a \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} b_{n_k} \geq ab$$

Thus,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n \geq ab.$$

Note: Since boundedness of  $(b_n)$  was not assumed, we need to be careful to use an argument that works also when  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \infty$  or  $-\infty$  as we did here, or treat those cases separately.

(b) For  $a_n = -\frac{1}{n}$ ,  $b_n = n$  for  $n$  even and  $b_n = 1$  for  $n$  odd, we have  $a_n b_n = -1$  for  $n$  even and  $a_n b_n = -\frac{1}{n}$  for  $n$  odd, so

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 1, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0, \quad \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = -1$$

and

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = -1 \neq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0 \cdot 1 = 0.$$

3. Prove that if  $f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $(f_n)$  is uniformly convergent on every at most countable subset of  $E$ , then  $(f_n)$  is uniformly convergent on  $E$ .

**Solution.** First we need to find a function  $f$  that  $(f_n)$  converges to on  $E$ . Suppose  $(f_n)$  is uniformly convergent on every at most countable subset of  $E$ . In particular,  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly on any set  $\{x\}$ , which is finite, so the pointwise limit exists for all  $x \in E$ , and define function  $f$  by

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x).$$

Since uniformly convergent sequence of functions implies pointwise convergence with the same limit, and limit is unique,  $f$  is the only possible uniform limit of  $(f_n)$  on  $E$ . Now, suppose that on the contrary  $(f_n)$  does not converge uniformly to  $f$  on  $E$ . Then,

$$\neg (\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \forall n \geq N \forall x \in E : |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon),$$

which is equivalent to

$$\exists \varepsilon > 0 \forall N \exists n \geq N \exists x \in E : |f_n(x) - f(x)| \geq \varepsilon.$$

So, taking such  $\varepsilon$  and  $N = 1, 2, \dots$  in turn, for each  $N$ , there exist  $n_N$  and  $x_N$  such that

$$x_N \in E, \quad n_N \geq N, \quad |f_{n_N}(x_N) - f(x_N)| \geq \varepsilon > 0,$$

which contradicts to uniform convergence of  $f_n$  to  $f$  on the set  $\{x_N : N \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

4. Assume that  $a_n \in \mathbb{R}$  for all  $n$ , and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^x}$  converges for  $x = x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Show that then the series converges for all  $x > x_0$ . (Be careful that there is **no assumption** on the signs of the  $a_n$ .)

**Solution.** Since there is no assumption on the signs of the  $a_n$ , this problem is about non-absolute convergence, and criteria such as the comparison test, which gives absolute convergence, will not be useful. The following theorem was used to prove the convergence of the alternating series: *If the partial sums of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  are bounded and*

*$a_n \searrow 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n b_n$  converges.* So, for  $x > x_0$ , write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^{x_0}} \frac{1}{n^{x-x_0}}$$

Since the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^{x_0}}$  converges by assumption, it has bounded partial sums, and since  $x > x_0$ ,  $\frac{1}{n^{x-x_0}} \searrow 0$ . Thus,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n^x}$  converges.

5. Let  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$  be a convergent series with real nonnegative terms,  $u_n \geq 0$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we define  $v_n = \sup_{p \geq n} u_p$ . Does it follow that the series  $\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n$  converge?

**Solution.** No. Counterexample:

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + 0 + \frac{1}{9} + 0 + 0 + \frac{1}{16} + 0 + 0 + 0 + \cdots = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} < \infty$$

since the partial sums are nondecreasing, and the partial sums of  $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{(n+1)^2}$  are a subsequence of the partial sums of  $\sum_{n \geq 0} u_n$ . But

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} v_n = 1 + \underbrace{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}}_{\frac{1}{2}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{9}}_{\frac{1}{3}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16}}_{\frac{1}{4}} + \cdots = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{n+1} = \infty.$$

We have used that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^x} < \infty$  iff  $x > 1$ .

6. Suppose that  $A \subset [0, 1]$  is a countable set with only a single limit point  $x_0 \in (0, 1)$ . Define  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Using the definition of Riemann integral, find if the Riemann integral  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$  exists, and find its value if it does.

**Solution.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Construct a partition  $P$  as follows. Since  $x_0 \in (0, 1)$ , there exist  $a_0, b_0$  such that  $0 \leq a_0 < x_0 < b_0 \leq 1$  and  $b_0 - a_0 < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . There are only finitely many points of  $A$  outside of the interval  $[a_0, b_0]$  since if there were infinitely many, they would have a limit point by Weierstrass theorem, which would be outside of the interval  $(a_0, b_0)$  and thus distinct from  $x_0$ . Denote  $A \setminus [a_0, b_0] = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Around each of the points  $x_k$  construct an interval  $(a_k, b_k) \ni x_k$  such that  $b_k - a_k < \frac{\varepsilon}{2n}$  and  $b_k - a_k < \frac{|x_k - x_j|}{2}$  for all  $k, j = 1, \dots, n$  so that the intervals do not overlap. Define partition  $P$  by the points  $a_0, b_0, \dots, a_n, b_n$ . Then,  $L(P, f) = 0$  since each interval contains a point not in  $A$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f) &= (b_0 - a_0) + (b_1 - a_1) + \dots + (b_n - a_n) \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + n \frac{\varepsilon}{2n} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $f \in \mathcal{R}[0, 1]$  and  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$ .

Note: The problem is asking to use the **definition** of Riemann integral. Thus, a solution invoking the theorem that bounded function whose set of discontinuities is countable is Riemann integrable is not sufficient.