

## Exercise Problem Sets 7

Oct. 28, 2022

**Problem 1.** Let  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be two sequences of real numbers, and  $|x_n - x_{n+1}| < a_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Show that  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

*Proof.* First we note that if  $n > m$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - x_m| &= |x_n - x_{n-1} + x_{n-1} - x_{n-2} + \cdots + x_{m+1} - x_m| \\ &\leq |x_n - x_{n-1}| + |x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}| + \cdots + |x_{m+1} - x_m| \\ &\leq a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + \cdots + a_m = \sum_{k=m}^{n-1} a_k. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges, the Cauchy criterion implies that there exists  $N > 0$  such that

$$\left| \sum_{k=n}^{n+p} a_k \right| = |a_n + a_{n+1} + \cdots + a_{n+p}| < \varepsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq N \text{ and } p \geq 0.$$

Therefore, if  $n > m \geq N$ , by the fact  $a_k > 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$|x_n - x_m| \leq \sum_{k=m}^{n-1} a_k < \varepsilon.$$

This implies that  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . By the completeness of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges.

□

**Problem 2.** Let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  be a conditionally convergent series. Show that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [1 + \operatorname{sgn}(a_k)]a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [1 - \operatorname{sgn}(a_k)]a_k$  both diverge. Here the sign function  $\operatorname{sgn}$  is defined by

$$\operatorname{sgn}(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } a = 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } a < 0. \end{cases}$$

*Proof. Claim:* Let  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  and  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be sequences of real numbers. If  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges and  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges, then  $\{x_n \pm y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges.

To see the claim, suppose the contrary that  $\{x_n + y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges. Then Theorem 1.40 in the lecture note implies that  $\{x_n + y_n - x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges, which contradicts the assumption that  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges. Similarly,  $\{x_n - y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  also diverges.

Let  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$  and  $T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n |a_k|$ . Then  $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges but  $\{T_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges. Therefore, the claim above shows that  $\{S_n \pm T_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  diverges. By the fact that  $|a| = \operatorname{sgn}(a)a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$S_n \pm T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n (a_k \pm |a_k|) = \sum_{k=1}^n [1 \pm \operatorname{sgn}(a_k)]a_k$$

so we conclude the desired result. □

**Problem 3.** Let  $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence. A series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  is said to be a rearrangement of the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  if there exists a rearrangement  $\pi$  of  $\mathbb{N}$ ; that is,  $\pi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is bijective, such that  $b_k = a_{\pi(k)}$ .

1. Show that if  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges absolutely, then any rearrangement of the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges and has the value  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ .
2. Show that if  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  is conditionally convergent, then for each  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exists a rearrangement  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{\pi(k)}$  of the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  such that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{\pi(k)} = r$ .

*Proof.* 1. Suppose that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  is an absolutely convergent series with limit  $a$ , and  $\pi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is a rearrangement of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists  $N > 0$  such that

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n a_k - a \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} |a_k| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{whenever} \quad n \geq N.$$

Choose  $K > 0$  such that  $\pi(n) > N$  if  $n \geq K$ . In fact,  $K = \max\{\pi^{-1}(1), \dots, \pi^{-1}(N)\} + 1$  suffices the purpose. Then  $K \geq N$  and if  $n \geq K$ ,  $\pi(\{1, 2, \dots, n\}) \supseteq \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ . Therefore, if  $n \geq K$ ,

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n a_{\pi(k)} - a \right| \leq \left| \sum_{k=1}^n a_{\pi(k)} - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \right| + \left| \sum_{k=1}^N a_k - a \right| \leq \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} |a_k| + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \varepsilon$$

which implies that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{\pi(k)} = a$ .

2. Suppose that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  is conditionally convergent. Let  $\{a_{k_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  denote the subsequence of  $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  so that  $a_{k_j} \geq 0$  for all  $j \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a_k < 0$  if  $k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{k_1, k_2, \dots\}$ . In other words,  $\{a_{p_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  is the maximal subsequence of  $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  with non-negative terms. Let  $\{a_{n_j}\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  be the maximal subsequence of  $\{a_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  with negative terms. Then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{p_j} = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{n_j} = -\infty.$$

Let  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  be given, and use the notation  $\sum_{j=1}^0$  to denote summing nothing. Define  $k_0 = 0$ . Choose  $k_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  be the unique natural number so that  $\sum_{j=1}^{k_1-1} a_{p_j} < r$  but  $\sum_{j=1}^{k_1} a_{p_j} > r$ . Since  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{n_j} = -\infty$ , there exists a unique  $k_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^{k_1} a_{p_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{k_2-1} a_{n_j} > r$  but  $\sum_{j=1}^{k_1} a_{p_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{k_2} a_{n_j} < r$ . We continue this process, and obtain a sequence  $\{k_\ell\}_{\ell=0}^{\infty}$  such that for each  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$(a) \quad \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-1}-1} a_{p_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-2}} a_{n_j} < r. \quad (b) \quad \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-1}} a_{p_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-2}} a_{n_j} > r.$$

$$(c) \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-1}} a_{p_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-1}} a_{n_j} > r. \quad (d) \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell-1}} a_{p_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{k_{2\ell}} a_{n_j} < r.$$

We then obtain a permutation of  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ :

$$\underbrace{a_{p_1}, \dots, a_{p_{k_1}}}_{k_1 \text{ "}\geq 0\text{" terms}}, \underbrace{a_{n_1}, \dots, a_{n_{k_2}}}_{k_2 \text{ "< 0" terms}}, \underbrace{a_{p_{k_1+1}}, \dots, a_{p_{k_3}}}_{k_3 \text{ "}\geq 0\text{" terms}}, \underbrace{a_{n_{k_2+1}}, \dots, a_{n_{k_4}}, \dots}_{k_4 \text{ "< 0" terms}}.$$

Denote the permutation above by  $\{a_{\pi(k)}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ ; that is,  $\pi(1) = p_1, \dots, \pi(k_1) = p_{k_1}, \pi(k_1+1) = n_1, \dots, \pi(k_1+k_2) = n_{k_2}$ , and so on. Next we show that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{\pi(k)} = r$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given, and define  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{\pi(k)}$ . Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ ; thus there exists  $N > 0$  such that  $|a_n| < \varepsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ . By the construction of  $\{k_\ell\}_{\ell=1}^{\infty}$ ,

$$|S_n - S_{n-1}| = |a_{\pi(n)}| < \varepsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_N.$$

This implies that  $S_n \in (r - \varepsilon, r + \varepsilon)$  whenever  $n \geq k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_N$ . Therefore,

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n a_{\pi(k)} - r \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_N$$

which shows that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{\pi(k)} = r$ . □

**Problem 4.** Consider the function  $f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(kx)}{k}$ .

1. Find the domain of  $f$ .
2. Show that for each  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $0 < \delta < \pi$ , there exists  $N > 0$  and  $N$  depends only on  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$  but is independent of  $x$ , such that

$$\left| \sum_{k=n}^{n+p} \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} \right| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq N, p \geq 0 \text{ and } x \in [\delta, 2\pi - \delta].$$

*Proof.* Let  $S_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sin(kx)$ .

1. (a) If  $x = 2n\pi$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  (or  $x = 0 \pmod{2\pi}$ ), then  $S_n(x) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ; thus for each  $x = 0 \pmod{2\pi}$ ,  $\{S_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded by 1.
- (b) If  $x \neq 2n\pi$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  (or  $x \neq 0 \pmod{2\pi}$ ), then

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \sin \frac{x}{2} S_n(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^n 2 \sin \frac{x}{2} \sin(kx) = \sum_{k=1}^n \cos \left( k - \frac{1}{2} \right) x - \cos \left( k + \frac{1}{2} \right) x \\ &= \cos \frac{x}{2} - \cos \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) x \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$|S_n(x)| \leq \left| \frac{\cos \frac{x}{2} - \cos \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) x}{2 \sin \frac{x}{2}} \right| \leq \frac{1}{\left| \sin \frac{x}{2} \right|} \quad \forall x \neq 0 \pmod{2\pi}.$$

In either cases, for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists  $M = M(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|S_n(x)| \leq M$ . Therefore, the Dirichlet test (with  $a_k = \sin(kx)$  and  $p_k = \frac{1}{k}$ ) implies that  $f$  is defined everywhere; thus the domain of  $f$  is  $\mathbb{R}$ .

2. We mimic the proof of the Dirichlet test. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta \in (0, 2\pi)$  be given. Then  $\csc \frac{\delta}{2} > 0$ ; thus the Archimedean property of  $\mathbb{R}$  implies that there exists  $N > \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \csc \frac{\delta}{2}$ . If  $n \geq N$ ,  $p \geq 0$  and  $x \in [\delta, 2\pi - \delta]$  (thus  $x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2\pi}$ ), then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{k=n}^{n+p} \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} \right| &= \left| \sum_{k=n}^{n+p} [S_{k+1}(x) - S_k(x)] \frac{1}{k} \right| \\ &= \left| -S_n(x) \frac{1}{n} + S_{n+1}(x) \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) + \cdots + S_{n+p}(x) \left( \frac{1}{n+p-1} - \frac{1}{n+p} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + S_{n+p+1}(x) \frac{1}{n+p} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|\sin \frac{x}{2}|} \left[ \frac{1}{n} + \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) + \cdots + \left( \frac{1}{n+p-1} - \frac{1}{n+p} \right) + \frac{1}{n+p} \right] \\ &= \frac{2}{n |\sin \frac{x}{2}|} < \frac{\sin \frac{\delta}{2}}{|\sin \frac{x}{2}|} \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $x \in [\delta, 2\pi - \delta]$ ,  $\sin \frac{x}{2}$  attains its minimum at  $x = \delta$  or  $2\pi - \delta$ ; thus

$$0 < \sin \frac{\delta}{2} \leq \sin \frac{x}{2} \quad \forall x \in [\delta, 2\pi - \delta].$$

Therefore,

$$\left| \sum_{k=n}^{n+p} \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{whenever } n \geq N, p \geq 0 \text{ and } x \in [\delta, 2\pi - \delta]. \quad \square$$

In the exercise of Chapter 3, we first introduce the concepts of accumulation points, isolated points and derived set of a set as follows.

**Definition 0.1.** Let  $(M, d)$  be a normed vector space, and  $A$  be a subset of  $M$ .

1. A point  $x \in M$  is called an **accumulation point** of  $A$  if there exists a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $A \setminus \{x\}$  such that  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to  $x$ .
2. A point  $x \in A$  is called an **isolated point** (孤立點) (of  $A$ ) if there exists no sequence in  $A \setminus \{x\}$  that converges to  $x$ .
3. The **derived set** of  $A$  is the collection of all accumulation points of  $A$ , and is denoted by  $A'$ .

**Problem 5.** Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space, and  $A$  be a subset of  $M$ .

1. Show that the collection of all isolated points of  $A$  is  $A \setminus A'$ .
2. Show that  $A' = \bar{A} \setminus (A \setminus A')$ . In other words, the derived set consists of all limit points that are not isolated points. Also show that  $\bar{A} \setminus A' = A \setminus A'$ .

*Proof.* 1. By the definition of isolated points of sets,

$$\begin{aligned}
x \in A \setminus A' &\Leftrightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \text{ is not an accumulation point of } A \\
&\Leftrightarrow x \in A \text{ and } \exists \varepsilon > 0 \ni B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \setminus \{x\} = \emptyset \\
&\Leftrightarrow x \in A \text{ and } \exists \varepsilon > 0 \ni B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \subseteq \{x\} \\
&\Leftrightarrow \exists \varepsilon > 0 \ni B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A = \{x\};
\end{aligned}$$

thus  $x$  is an isolated point of  $A$  if and only if  $x \in A \setminus A'$ .

2. First we show that  $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$ . To see this, let  $x \in \bar{A} \setminus A$ . By the fact that  $A = A \setminus \{x\}$ , there exists  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x\}$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ . Therefore,  $x \in A'$  which implies that

$$\bar{A} \setminus A \subseteq A' \subseteq \bar{A},$$

where we use the fact that  $\bar{A} \supseteq A'$  to conclude the last inclusion. The inclusion relation above then shows that

$$\bar{A} = A \cup \bar{A} \setminus A = A \cup (A' \setminus A) \subseteq A \cup A' \subseteq A \cup \bar{A} = \bar{A};$$

thus we establish that  $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$ . This identity further shows that

$$\bar{A} \cap A^c = (A \cup A') \cap A^c = A' \cap A^c \subseteq A.$$

Now, using the identity  $A \setminus B = A \cap B^c$  we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{A} \setminus (A \setminus A') &= \bar{A} \cap (A \cap (A')^c)^c = \bar{A} \cap (A^c \cup A') = (\bar{A} \cap A^c) \cup (\bar{A} \cap A') \\
&= (\bar{A} \cap A^c) \cup A' = A'.
\end{aligned}$$

Moreover, using  $\bar{A} = A \cup A'$  we also have

$$\bar{A} \setminus A' = (A \cup A') \cap (A')^c = A \cap (A')^c = A \setminus A'. \quad \square$$

**Problem 6.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be subsets of a metric space  $(M, d)$ . Show that

1.  $\text{cl}(\text{cl}(A)) = \text{cl}(A)$ .
2.  $\text{cl}(A \cup B) = \text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B)$ .
3.  $\text{cl}(A \cap B) \subseteq \text{cl}(A) \cap \text{cl}(B)$ . Find examples of that  $\text{cl}(A \cap B) \subsetneq \text{cl}(A) \cap \text{cl}(B)$ .

*Proof.* 1. Since  $\text{cl}(A)$  is closed, by the definition of closed set we have  $\text{cl}(\text{cl}(A)) = \text{cl}(A)$ .

2. Since  $A \subseteq A \cup B$  and  $B \subseteq A \cup B$ , we have  $\text{cl}(A) \subseteq \text{cl}(A \cup B)$  and  $\text{cl}(B) \subseteq \text{cl}(A \cup B)$ ; thus  $\text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B) \subseteq \text{cl}(A \cup B)$ . On the other hand, if  $x \in \text{cl}(A \cup B)$ , there exists a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  in  $A \cup B$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ . Since  $A \cup B$  contains infinitely many terms of  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , at least one of  $A$  and  $B$  contains infinitely many terms of  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ . W.L.O.G., suppose that  $\#\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid x_n \in A\} = \infty$ . Let

$$\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid x_n \in A\} = \{n_k \in \mathbb{N} \mid n_k < n_{k+1}\}.$$

Then  $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \in A$ . Since  $x_n \rightarrow x$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we must have  $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ; thus  $x \in \text{cl}(A)$ . Therefore,  $\text{cl}(A \cup B) \subseteq \text{cl}(A) \cup \text{cl}(B)$ .

3. Let  $x \in \text{cl}(A \cap B)$ . Then

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(B(x, \varepsilon) \cap (A \cap B) \neq \emptyset).$$

Therefore, by the fact that  $B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \subseteq B(x, \varepsilon) \cap (A \cap B)$  and  $B(x, \varepsilon) \cap B \subseteq B(x, \varepsilon) \cap (A \cap B)$ , we have

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset) \quad \text{and} \quad (\forall \varepsilon > 0)(B(x, \varepsilon) \cap B \neq \emptyset).$$

This implies that  $x \in \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$ . Note that if  $A = \mathbb{Q}$  and  $B = \mathbb{Q}^c$ , then  $\text{cl}(A \cap B) = \emptyset$ , while  $\bar{A} = \bar{B} = \mathbb{R}$  which provides an example of  $\text{cl}(A \cap B) \subsetneq \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$ .  $\square$

**Problem 7.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be subsets of a metric space  $(M, d)$ . Show that

1.  $\text{int}(\text{int}(A)) = \text{int}(A)$ .
2.  $\text{int}(A \cap B) = \text{int}(A) \cap \text{int}(B)$ .
3.  $\text{int}(A \cup B) \supseteq \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$ . Find examples of that  $\text{int}(A \cup B) \supsetneq \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$ .

*Proof.* 1. Since  $\text{int}(A)$  is open, by the definition of open sets we have  $\text{int}(\text{int}(A)) = \text{int}(A)$ .

2. Since  $A \cap B \subseteq A$  and  $A \cap B \subseteq B$ , we have  $\text{int}(A \cap B) \subseteq \text{int}(A)$  and  $\text{int}(A \cap B) \subseteq \text{int}(B)$ ; thus  $\text{int}(A \cap B) \subseteq \text{int}(A) \cap \text{int}(B)$ . On the other hand, let  $x \in \text{int}(A) \cap \text{int}(B)$ . Then  $x \in \text{int}(A)$  and  $x \in \text{int}(B)$ ; thus there exist  $r_1, r_0 > 0$  such that

$$B(x, r_1) \subseteq A \quad \text{and} \quad B(x, r_0) \subseteq B.$$

Let  $r = \min\{r_1, r_0\}$ . Then  $r > 0$ , and  $B(x, r) \subseteq B(x, r_1)$  and  $B(x, r) \subseteq B(x, r_0)$ . Therefore,  $B(x, r) \subseteq A$  and  $B(x, r) \subseteq B$  which further implies that  $B(x, r) \subseteq A \cap B$ ; thus  $x \in \text{int}(A \cap B)$ .

3. Let  $x \in \overset{\circ}{A} \cup \overset{\circ}{B}$ . Then  $x \in \overset{\circ}{A}$  or  $x \in \overset{\circ}{B}$ ; thus there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B(x, r) \subseteq A$  or  $B(x, r) \subseteq B$ . Therefore, there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B(x, r) \subseteq A \cup B$  which shows that  $\text{int}(A \cup B) \supseteq \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$ . Note that if  $A = \mathbb{Q}$  and  $B = \mathbb{Q}^c$ , then  $\text{int}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{R}$  while  $\text{int}(A) = \text{int}(B) = \emptyset$ ; thus we obtain an example of  $\text{int}(A \cup B) \supsetneq \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$ .  $\square$

**Problem 8.** Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space, and  $A$  be a subset of  $M$ . Show that

$$\partial A = (A \cap \text{cl}(M \setminus A)) \cup (\text{cl}(A) \setminus A).$$

*Proof.* By the definition of the boundary,  $\partial A = \bar{A} \cap \bar{A}^c$ ; thus

$$\begin{aligned} (A \cap \text{cl}(M \setminus A)) \cup (\text{cl}(A) \setminus A) &= (A \cap \bar{A}^c) \cup (\bar{A} \cap A^c) \\ &= [A \cup (\bar{A} \cap A^c)] \cap [\bar{A}^c \cup (\bar{A} \cap A^c)] = \bar{A} \cap [(\bar{A}^c \cup \bar{A}) \cap (\bar{A}^c \cup A^c)] \\ &= \bar{A} \cap [(\bar{A}^c \cup \bar{A}) \cap \bar{A}^c] = \partial A \cap (\bar{A}^c \cup \bar{A}) = \partial A, \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows from that  $\partial A \subseteq \bar{A}$  and  $\partial A \subseteq \bar{A}^c$ .  $\square$

**Problem 9.** Recall that in a metric space  $(M, d)$ , a subset  $A$  is said to be dense in  $S$  if subsets satisfy  $A \subseteq S \subseteq \text{cl}(A)$ . For example,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

1. Show that if  $A$  is dense in  $S$  and if  $S$  is dense in  $T$ , then  $A$  is dense in  $T$ .
2. Show that if  $A$  is dense in  $S$  and  $B \subseteq S$  is open, then  $B \subseteq \text{cl}(A \cap B)$ .

*Proof.* 1. If  $A$  is dense in  $S$  and if  $S$  is dense in  $T$ , then  $A \subseteq S \subseteq \bar{A}$  and  $S \subseteq T \subseteq \bar{S}$ . Since  $S \subseteq \bar{A}$ , we must have  $\bar{S} \subseteq \bar{A}$ ; thus

$$A \subseteq S \subseteq T \subseteq \bar{S} \subseteq \bar{A}$$

which shows that  $A$  is dense in  $T$ .

2. Let  $x \in B$ . Since  $B$  is open, there exists  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $B(x, \varepsilon_0) \subseteq B \subseteq S$ . On the other hand,  $x \in S$  since  $B$  is a subset of  $S$ ; thus the denseness of  $A$  in  $S$  implies that

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset).$$

Therefore, for a given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , if  $\varepsilon \geq \varepsilon_0$ , then

$$B(x, \varepsilon) \cap (A \cap B) \supseteq B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap (A \cap B) = B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

while if  $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_0$ , then

$$B(x, \varepsilon) \cap (A \cap B) = B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset.$$

This implies that

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0)(B(x, \varepsilon) \cap (A \cap B) \neq \emptyset);$$

thus  $x \in \text{cl}(A \cap B)$ . □

**Problem 10.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be subsets of a metric space  $(M, d)$ . Show that

1.  $\partial(\partial A) \subseteq \partial A$ . Find examples of that  $\partial(\partial A) \subsetneq \partial A$ . Also show that  $\partial(\partial A) = \partial A$  if  $A$  is closed.
2.  $\partial(A \cup B) \subseteq \partial A \cup \partial B \subseteq \partial(A \cup B) \cup A \cup B$ . Find examples of that equalities do not hold.
3. If  $\text{cl}(A) \cap \text{cl}(B) = \emptyset$ , then  $\partial(A \cup B) = \partial A \cup \partial B$ .
4.  $\partial(A \cap B) \subseteq \partial A \cup \partial B$ . Find examples of the equalities do not hold.
5.  $\partial(\partial(\partial A)) = \partial(\partial A)$ .

*Proof.* 1. We note that if  $F$  is closed, then

$$\partial F = \bar{F} \cap \overline{F^c} = F \cap \overline{F^c} \subseteq F. \quad (\diamond)$$

Since  $\partial F$  is closed, we must have  $\partial(\partial A) \subseteq \partial A$ . Note that if  $A = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ , then  $\partial A = [0, 1]$ ; thus  $\partial(\partial A) = \{0, 1\} \subsetneq \partial A$ . Finally we show that  $\partial(\partial A) = \partial A$  if  $A$  is closed. Using  $(\diamond)$ , it suffices to show that  $\partial A \subseteq \partial(\partial A)$ . Using 2 of Problem 6,

$$\begin{aligned} \partial(\partial A) &= \partial A \cap \text{cl}((\partial A)^c) = \partial A \cap \text{cl}(A^c \cup \overline{A^c}) = \partial A \cap (\overline{A^c} \cup \text{cl}(\overline{A^c})) \\ &= (\partial A \cap \overline{A^c}) \cup (\partial A \cap \text{cl}(\overline{A^c})) \supseteq (\partial A \cap \overline{A^c}) = \partial A. \end{aligned}$$

2. Using 2 and 3 of Problem 6,

$$\begin{aligned}\partial(A \cup B) &= \overline{A \cup B} \cap \text{cl}((A \cup B)^c) = (\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}) \cap \text{cl}(A^c \cap B^c) \subseteq (\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}) \cap (\bar{A}^c \cap \bar{B}^c) \\ &= (\bar{A} \cap \bar{A}^c \cap \bar{B}^c) \cup (\bar{B} \cap \bar{A}^c \cap \bar{B}^c) \subseteq (\bar{A} \cap \bar{A}^c) \cup (\bar{B} \cap \bar{B}^c) = \partial A \cup \partial B.\end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, since  $\partial A = \bar{A} \setminus \overset{\circ}{A}$  and  $\overset{\circ}{A} \subseteq A$ , we have

$$\bar{A} \subseteq A \cup \partial A \subseteq \overset{\circ}{A} \cup (\bar{A} \setminus \overset{\circ}{A}) = \bar{A}$$

which implies that  $A \cup \partial A = \bar{A}$ . Therefore,

$$\partial A \subseteq \bar{A} \subseteq \overline{A \cup B} = A \cup B \cup \partial(A \cup B)$$

and similarly  $\partial B \subseteq A \cup B \cup \partial(A \cup B)$ . Therefore,

$$\partial A \cup \partial B \subseteq \partial(A \cup B) \cup A \cup B.$$

Note that if  $A = [-1, 0] \cup (\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1])$  and  $B = [-1, 0] \cup (\mathbb{Q}^c \cap [0, 1])$ , then  $A \cup B = [-1, 1]$ ,  $\partial A = \partial B = \{-1\} \cup [0, 1]$  which implies that

$$\partial(A \cup B) = \{-1, 1\} \subsetneq \partial A \cup \partial B \subsetneq A \cup B = \partial(A \cup B) \cup A \cup B.$$

3. By 2, it suffices to show that  $\partial A \cup \partial B \subseteq \partial(A \cup B)$  if  $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$ . Let  $x \in \partial A \cup \partial B$ . W.L.O.G., assume that  $x \in \partial A$ . Then  $x \in \bar{A}$ ; thus  $x \notin \bar{B}$  which further implies that there exists  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap B = \emptyset$  or equivalently,  $B(x, \varepsilon_0) \subseteq B^c$ . Therefore, for given  $r > 0$ , if  $r < \varepsilon_0$ , then

$$B(x, r) \cap (A \cup B) \supseteq B(x, r) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

and

$$B(x, r) \cap ((A \cup B)^c) = B(x, r) \cap (A^c \cap B^c) = B(x, r) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset$$

while if  $r \geq \varepsilon_0$ , then

$$B(x, r) \cap (A \cup B) \subseteq B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap (A \cup B) \supseteq B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap A \neq \emptyset$$

and

$$B(x, r) \cap ((A \cup B)^c) \supseteq B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap (A^c \cap B^c) = B(x, \varepsilon_0) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset.$$

As a consequence, for each  $r > 0$ ,

$$B(x, r) \cap (A \cup B) \neq \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad B(x, r) \cap (A \cup B)^c \neq \emptyset;$$

thus  $x \in \overline{A \cup B}$  and  $x \in \text{cl}((A \cup B)^c)$  which implies that  $x \in \partial(A \cup B)$ .

4. Using 2 and 3 of Problem 6,

$$\begin{aligned}\partial(A \cap B) &= \overline{A \cap B} \cap \text{cl}((A \cap B)^c) = \overline{A \cap B} \cap \text{cl}(A^c \cup B^c) \subseteq (\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}) \cap (\bar{A}^c \cup \bar{B}^c) \\ &= [(\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}) \cap \bar{A}^c] \cup [(\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}) \cap \bar{B}^c] \subseteq (\bar{A} \cap \bar{A}^c) \cup (\bar{B} \cap \bar{B}^c) = \partial A \cup \partial B.\end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $A = \mathbb{Q}$  and  $B = \mathbb{Q}^c$ , then  $\partial A = \partial B = \mathbb{R}$  but

$$\partial(A \cap B) = \emptyset \subsetneq \mathbb{R} = \partial A \cap \partial B.$$

5. Since  $\partial A$  is closed, 1 implies that  $\partial(\partial(\partial A)) = \partial(\partial A)$ . □