

## Logic Notation: Convergence and Continuity

REFERENCE: This is copied from the book *Fundamentals of Abstract Analysis* by Andrew Gleason.

### Convergence of a Sequence

1. A sequence  $x_n$  of real numbers is said to be *increasing* (or *monotone increasing*) if

$$(\forall m, n) (m > n) \Rightarrow x_m \geq x_n.$$

2. Let  $z_n$  be a sequence of complex numbers. The sequence is said to *converge to*  $z$ , in symbols,  $z_n \rightarrow z$ , if

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists N \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall n > N) |z_n - z| < \epsilon.$$

3. Let  $z_n$  be a sequence of complex numbers. The sequence is said to *converge* if

$$(\exists z \in \mathbb{C}) (\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists N \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall n > N) |z_n - z| < \epsilon.$$

In greater detail:

Since this begins with an existential quantifier, we must move first by choosing a number  $z$ . Since the next quantifier is universal, our opponent moves next by choosing a positive number  $\epsilon$ . The opponent will presumably make the best possible move and choose  $\epsilon$  so that

$$(\exists N \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall n > N) |z_n - z| < \epsilon$$

is false (if possible). Now it is our move to choose a number  $N$  with a knowledge of the previous moves, that is,  $N$  may (and surely will) depend on both  $z$  and  $\epsilon$ . Finally our opponent chooses a number  $n > N$  and the burden is on us to prove the inequality  $|z_n - z| < \epsilon$ .

### Chess: Checkmate

4. Using this language, for a chess game, the usual “white mates in two moves” can be thought of as:

$$(\exists \text{ white move}) (\forall \text{ black moves}) (\exists \text{ white move}) (\forall \text{ black moves}) \text{ black is checkmated}$$

where of course “black is checkmated” means “white can capture black’s king”.

## Continuous Functions

5. Let  $S$  and  $T$  be metric spaces with metrics  $d_S(\cdot, \cdot)$  and  $d_T(\cdot, \cdot)$  and  $f : S \rightarrow T$ . Then  $f$  is *continuous at a point*  $p \in S$  if

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\forall q \in S) d_S(p, q) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon.$$

$f$  is continuous on the whole set  $S$  if it is continuous at each point of  $S$ . More formally,

$$(\forall p \in S) (\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\forall q \in S) d_S(p, q) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon.$$

We restate this in terms of sequences. Say  $p \in S$ . Then  $f$  is continuous at  $p$  if and only for every sequence  $x_n \rightarrow p$  then  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(p)$ . That is

$$\lim f(x_n) = f(\lim x_n)$$

We can also restate the definition of continuity in terms of balls  $B_S(p, \delta)$  and  $B_T(s, \epsilon)$  in  $S$  and  $T$ , respectively:

$$(\forall p \in S) (\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) f(B_S(p, \delta)) \subseteq B_T(f(p), \epsilon).$$

### 5'. EQUIVALENT DEFINITION OF CONTINUITY

It is interesting that one can describe “continuity” in a dramatically different way without using “limit” or explicitly referring to the metric. As a consequence, this is used as the *definition* of continuity in more general topological spaces that are not metric spaces. It also simplifies many proofs.

Some notation: Let  $f : S \rightarrow T$ . If  $S_0$  is a subset of  $S$ , denote by  $f(S_0)$  the set of all image points of  $S_0$  under the function  $f$ , so

$$f(S_0) = \{t \in T : t = f(s) \text{ for some } s \in S_0\}.$$

Similarly, if  $T_0$  is a subset of  $T$ , denote by  $f^{-1}(T_0)$  the set of all points in  $S$  whose image is in  $T_0$ :

$$f^{-1}(T_0) = \{s \in S : f(s) \in T_0\}.$$

$f^{-1}(T_0)$  is called the *preimage* of  $T_0$ . It can happen that no points in  $S$  have their image in  $T_0$ . A simple example is the map  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(s) = s^2$  and  $T_0 = \{t \in \mathbb{R} : t < 0\}$ . Then the preimage of this  $T_0$  is empty since the square of any real number is not negative.

**CAUTION** The operation  $f^{-1}$  applied to subsets of  $T$  behaves nicely. It preserves inclusions, unions, intersections and differences of sets. However the operation  $f$  applied to subsets of  $S$  is more complicated.

Note also that if  $f : S \rightarrow T$ , while

$$f^{-1}(f(S_0)) \supset S_0 \text{ for } S_0 \subset S \quad \text{and} \quad f(f^{-1}(T_0)) \subset T_0 \text{ for } T_0 \subset T,$$

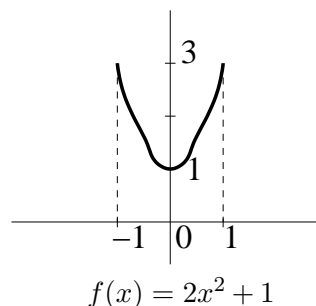
equality often does not hold. Here is a (non-pathological) example:

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 1$  and use the standard notation  $[a, b] = \{a \leq x \leq b\}$ . Since  $f$  is not one-to-one, then two different sets can have the same images

$$f([0, 1]) = f([-1, 1]) = [1, 3].$$

while because  $f$  is not onto, two different sets can have the same preimages

$$f^{-1}([0, 3]) = f^{-1}([1, 3]) = [-1, 1],$$



Using these we obtain the examples:

$$f^{-1}(f([0, 1])) = f^{-1}([1, 3]) = [-1, 1] \quad \text{and} \quad f(f^{-1}([0, 3])) = f([-1, 1]) = [1, 3].$$

**THEOREM** *Let  $S, T$  be metric spaces and  $f : S \rightarrow T$ . Then  $f$  is continuous on  $S \iff$  for any open set  $G \subset T$ , the set  $f^{-1}(G)$  is open. That is, the preimage of an open set is open.*

**PROOF:**  $\implies$  Say  $f$  is continuous and we are given an open set  $G \subset T$ . If  $f^{-1}(G)$  is the empty set, there is nothing to prove. Thus, say  $p \in f^{-1}(G)$ . This means there is a point  $q \in G$  with  $f(p) = q$ . We need to find a ball  $U := B_S(p, \delta)$  around  $p$  so that  $f(U) \subset G$ . Since  $G$  is open, it contains some ball  $V := B_T(q, \epsilon)$ . By the continuity of  $f$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  so that  $f(U) \subset V$ . Thus the open set  $U$  is in the preimage of  $G$ .  $\square$

$\impliedby$ . Say the preimage of any open set  $G \subset T$  is open. To show that  $f$  is continuous at every point  $p \in S$ . Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $G := B_T(f(p), \epsilon)$ . We need to find a  $\delta > 0$  so that image of  $B_S(p, \delta) \subset B_T(f(p), \epsilon)$ . But since the preimage of  $G$  is open, it contains some small ball  $B_S(p, \delta)$  around  $p$ .  $\square$

Using that a set is closed if and only if its complement is open and that  $f^{-1}(T_0^c) = [f^{-1}(T_0)]^c$  for every subset  $T_0 \subset T$ , we can use closed sets instead of open sets to verify continuity. That is,

**COROLLARY** *Let  $S, T$  be metric spaces and  $f : S \rightarrow T$ . Then  $f$  is continuous on  $S \iff$  for any closed set  $C \subset T$ , the set  $f^{-1}(C)$  is closed. That is, the preimage of a closed set is closed.*

6. In general if  $f$  is continuous at every point  $p$  of a metric space, the choice of  $\delta$  will depend on both  $\epsilon$  and the particular point  $p$ . If given  $\epsilon$  we can find a  $\delta$  that works simultaneously for every point  $p$  then the function is said to be *uniformly continuous*. More formally

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\forall p, q \in S) \quad d_S(p, q) < \delta \implies d_T(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon.$$

Equivalently:

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\forall p \in S) \quad f(B_S(p, \delta)) \subseteq B_T(f(p), \epsilon).$$

## Convergence of a Sequence of Functions

If  $S$  is a set,  $(T, d)$  is a metric space and  $\{f_n\} : S \rightarrow T$  is a sequence of functions, the next two definitions concern the convergence of the  $\{f_n\}$  to a function  $g$ .

7.  $\{f_n\}$  is said to converge *pointwise* to  $g$  if for all  $p \in S$  we have  $f_n(p) \rightarrow g(p)$ . In greater detail

$$(\forall p \in S) (\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists N \in \mathbb{N})(\forall n > N) d(f_n(p), g(p)) < \epsilon.$$

9..  $\{f_n\}$  is said to converge to  $g$  *uniformly on  $S$*  if

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0) (\exists N \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall n > N) (\forall p \in S) d(f_n(p), g(p)) < \epsilon.$$

For pointwise convergence the choice of  $N$  can depend on  $p$ , while for uniform convergence the same  $N$  works simultaneously for all  $p \in S$ .

For example, if  $S = \{0 < x < 1\}$  then  $f_n(x) := x^n$  converges pointwise but not uniformly to  $g(x) := 0$ . However if  $S := \{0 < x < 1/2\}$  then  $f_n$  does converge uniformly to 0.

[Last revised: November 11, 2014]