#### 2. Sets in $\mathbb{R}$

### 2.1. Sup and Inf.

## 2.1.1. Definitions.

**Definition 2.1.** (sup and inf) Let A be a nonempty set of numbers. The supreme of A is defined as

$$\sup A = \min \{ b \in \mathbb{R} : b \geqslant a \text{ for every } a \in A \}.$$
 (2.1)

If  $\{b \in \mathbb{R}: b \geqslant a \text{ for every } a \in A\} = \emptyset$ , we write

$$\sup A = \infty; \tag{2.2}$$

The infimum of A is defined as

$$\inf A = \max \{ b \in \mathbb{R} : b \leqslant a \text{ for every } a \in A \}.$$
 (2.3)

If  $\{b \in \mathbb{R}: b \geqslant a \text{ for every } a \in A\} = \emptyset$ , write

$$\inf A = -\infty. \tag{2.4}$$

sup and inf are generalizations of max and min.

**Proposition 2.2.**  $\sup A = \max A$ ,  $\inf A = \min A$  when  $\max A$ ,  $\min A$  exist. In particular, when A is a finite set (that is has finitely many elements), it always holds that  $\sup A = \max A$ ;  $\inf A = \min A$ .

**Proof.** Let  $a_{\text{max}} = \max A$ . Set  $B = \{b \in \mathbb{R}: b \geqslant a \text{ for every } a \in A\}$ . We need to show that  $a_1 = \min B$ , that is

- 1.  $a_{\text{max}} \in B$ . As  $a_{\text{max}} = \max A$ , we have  $a_{\text{max}} \geqslant a$  for all  $a \in A$ . Therefore  $a_1 \in B$ ;
- 2.  $\forall b \in B$ ,  $a_{\text{max}} \leq b$ . Take any  $b \in B$ . Then  $b \geq a$  for all  $a \in A$ . In particular  $b \geq a_{\text{max}}$ .

The proof for the inf/min part is similar.

**Example 2.3.** (max/min may not exist) Let  $A = \{1 - \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Then  $\sup A = 1$ ,  $\inf A = \min A = 0$ , while  $\max A$  does not exist.

- $\sup A = 1$ . We show two things:
  - 1.  $\forall a \in A, 1 \ge a$ . Take any  $a \in A$ . Then there is  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a = 1 \frac{1}{n} < 1$ .
  - 2.  $\forall b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $b \ge a$  for all  $a \in A$ ,  $b \ge 1$ . Since  $b \ge a$  for all  $a \in A$ ,  $b \ge 1 \frac{1}{n}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Assume b < 1. Taking  $n > \frac{1}{1-b}$  leads to contradiction.
- $\inf A, \min A = 0$ . Omitted.
- max A does not exist. Assume the contrary, then there is  $a_{\max} \in A$ . Then there is  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{\max} = 1 \frac{1}{n_0}$ . Taking  $n > n_0$  we have  $a_{\max} < 1 \frac{1}{n} \in A$ , contradiction.

Although max/min may not exist, sup/inf always does.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let A be a nonempty set of numbers, then  $\sup A$ ,  $\inf A$  exist.

**Proof.** The existence of  $\sup A$  follows directly from the least upper bound property of  $\mathbb{R}$ . To show that  $\inf A$  exists, consider the set  $B := \{b \in \mathbb{R} : b \leq a \text{ for every } a \in A\}$ . Since A is nonempty, there is at least one  $a \in A$ . By definition of B this a is an upper bound of B. Thus the least upper bound property leads to the existence of  $\sup B \in \mathbb{R}$ . All we need to show is that  $b_{\max} := \sup B \in B$ .

Assume the contrary, that is  $b_{\max} \notin B$ . Then there is  $a \in A$  such that  $b_{\max} > a$ . Let  $\tilde{b} := \frac{b_{\max} + a}{2}$ . Then we have  $\tilde{b} > a$  so for every  $b \in B$ ,  $\tilde{b} > b$ . This contradicts the fact that  $b_{\max} = \sup B = \min \{\tilde{b} \in \mathbb{R} : \tilde{b} \geqslant b \text{ for every } b \in B\}$ .

**Theorem 2.5.** (Approximation of sup and inf) Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  with sup A, inf  $A \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there are  $a, b \in A$  such that

$$\sup A - a < \varepsilon; \qquad b - \inf A < \varepsilon \tag{2.5}$$

**Proof.** We prove the sup case and left the inf case as exercise. Assume the contrary. Then there is  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$  such that for all  $a \in A$ , sup  $A - a \geqslant \varepsilon_0$ . Now set  $a_{\sup} := \sup A - \varepsilon_0/2$ . We have  $a_{\sup} > a$  for all  $a \in A$  but  $a_{\sup} < \sup A$ . Contradiction.

Remark 2.6. By setting  $\varepsilon = 1/n$ , we can obtain a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  with  $x_n \in A$  such that  $x_n \longrightarrow \sup A$  (or inf A). However note that  $x_n$  may not be different elements from one another. For example when A is finite, we basically will have to take the sequence  $x_n = a_{\max}$ .

## 2.1.2. Sup/Inf of functions.

A special case that is particularly useful is when the sets are images of functions.

**Definition 2.7.** (Sup and Inf of functions) Let  $f: E \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  be a function. We define

$$\sup_{x \in E} f(x) := \sup f(E); \qquad \inf_{x \in E} f(x) := \inf f(E). \tag{2.6}$$

**Example 2.8.**  $\sup_{x \in (-1,1)} x^2 = 1$ ,  $\inf_{x \in (-1,1)} x^2 = 0$ .

**Theorem 2.9.** (sup and inf under operations) Let f, g be functions with domains containing  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  be a positive number. Then

- a)  $\sup_{x \in E} (cf) = c \sup_{x \in E} f$ ;  $\inf_{x \in E} (cf) = c \inf_{x \in E} f$ ;
- b)  $\sup_{x \in E} (-f) = -\inf_{x \in E} f$ ;  $\inf_{x \in E} (-f) = -\sup_{x \in E} f$ ;
- c)  $\sup_{x \in E} (f+g) \leq \sup_{x \in E} f + \sup_{x \in E} g$ ;
- d)  $\inf_{x \in E} (f+g) \geqslant \inf_{x \in E} f + \inf_{x \in E} g$ .

The above holds even when the supreme/infimum is  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ .

**Proof.** We only prove b), c) here. Other cases are left as exercise.

- b). We show  $\sup_{x \in E} (-f) = -\inf_{x \in E} f$ . Once this is done setting g = -f gives the other half. Let  $a = \inf_{x \in E} f$  (maybe  $-\infty$ ). We need to show
  - 1.  $-a \ge -f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . Since  $a = \inf_{x \in E} f$ , by definition  $a \le f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . Therefore  $-a \ge -f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ .
  - 2. For any  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  satisfying  $b \ge -f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ , we have  $b \ge -a$ . Since  $b \ge -f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ , we have  $-b \le f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . Since  $a = \inf_{x \in E} f$ ,  $a \ge -b$ . Therefore  $b \ge -a$ .

Note that the above argument still holds when  $a = -\infty$ .

• c). Denote  $a = \sup_{x \in E} f$ ,  $b = \sup_{x \in E} g$ , we need to show that  $a + b \geqslant f(x) + g(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . If one of a, b is  $\infty$ , then we have  $a + b = \infty \geqslant f(x) + g(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . If both  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , take any  $x \in E$ . We have  $a = \sup_{x \in E} f \geqslant f(x)$  and  $b = \sup_{x \in E} g \geqslant g(x)$ . Consequently  $a + b \geqslant f(x) + g(x)$ .

**Example 2.10.** The inequalities in c),d) may hold strictly. The reason is that the "peak" of f and the "peak" of g may not be at the same location. For example, take  $f = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$  and  $g = \begin{cases} 1 & 1 \leqslant x < 2 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$ , we have  $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} g = 1$ , but  $\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} (f + g) = 1 < 1 + 1 = 2$ .

**Theorem 2.11.** (Monotone property) Suppose  $A \subseteq B$  are nonempty subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then

- a)  $\sup B \geqslant \sup A$ .
- b)  $\inf B \leq \inf A$ .

**Proof.** We prove a) and leave b) as exercise.

If  $\sup B = \infty$ , then  $\sup B \geqslant \sup A$  holds; If  $\sup B \in \mathbb{R}$ , then by definition we have

$$\sup B \geqslant b \text{ for every } b \in B \Longrightarrow \sup B \geqslant a \text{ for every } a \in A$$
 (2.7)

because  $A \subseteq B$ . By definition of  $\sup A$  we conclude that  $\sup B \geqslant \sup A$ .

## 2.1.3. Limits supreme and infimum.

**Definition 2.12.** Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a real sequence. The limit supreme of  $\{x_n\}$  is the extended real number

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n := \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \sup_{k \geqslant n} x_k \right), \tag{2.8}$$

and the limit infimum of  $\{x_n\}$  is the extended real number

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n := \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( \inf_{k \geqslant n} x_k \right).$$
(2.9)

**Remark 2.13.** Since  $\sup_{k \ge n} x_k$  is decreasing and  $\inf_{k \ge n} x_k$  is increasing, limsup and liminf always exist (in contrast to limits).

**Remark 2.14.** Note that it is possible that  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n = -\infty$  and  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = \infty$ .

**Lemma 2.15.** Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a real sequence. Then

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n \geqslant \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \tag{2.10}$$

**Proof.** Follows from Comparison Theorem. Left as exercise.

Theorem 2.16. (Relation to limits and subsequences) Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a real sequence. Then

a) 
$$x_n \longrightarrow a$$
 if and only if  $\limsup_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_n = \liminf_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_n = a$ .

<sup>2.1.</sup> Note that by definition sup can only be real number or  $\infty$ , while inf can only be real number or  $-\infty$ .

- b) There are two subsequences converging to  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n$  and  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n$ , respectively.
- c) If  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  is a convergent subsequence, then  $\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \leq \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k} \leq \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n$ .

## Proof.

- a) We only prove the case  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and left  $a = \pm \infty$  as exercise.
  - "if". Assume  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = a$ . Then as

$$\sup_{k \geqslant n} x_k \geqslant x_n \geqslant \inf_{k \geqslant n} x_k, \tag{2.11}$$

application of Squeeze Theorem gives the convergence of  $x_n$  as well as  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = a$ .

• "only if". For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , since  $x_n \longrightarrow a$ , there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x_n - a| < \varepsilon$ . This implies  $\sup_{n > N} x_n < a + \varepsilon$  and  $\inf_{n > N} x_n > a - \varepsilon$ . Therefore when n > N,

$$a - \varepsilon < \inf_{k \geqslant n} x_n \leqslant \sup_{k \geqslant n} x_n < a + \varepsilon. \tag{2.12}$$

Comparison Theorem now gives

$$a - \varepsilon \leqslant \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \leqslant \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n \leqslant a + \varepsilon.$$
 (2.13)

As this holds for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we must have  $\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = a$ .

b) We only show the existence of  $x_{n_k} \longrightarrow \limsup_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_n$ . Thanks to Theorem 2.5, there is  $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\sup_{k\geqslant 1} x_k - 1 \leqslant x_{n_1} \leqslant \sup_{k\geqslant 1} x_k; \tag{2.14}$$

Now apply Theorem 2.5 to  $\{x_{n_1+1},...\}$ , we obtain  $n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\sup_{k \geqslant n_2 + 1} x_k - \frac{1}{2} \leqslant x_{n_2} \leqslant \sup_{k \geqslant n_2 + 1} x_k. \tag{2.15}$$

This way we obtain a subsequence satisfying

$$\sup_{k \geqslant n_l + 1} x_k - \frac{1}{l} \leqslant x_{n_l} \leqslant \sup_{k \geqslant n_l + 1} x_k. \tag{2.16}$$

We take limit of both sides. As  $\{\sup_{k\geqslant n_l+1}x_k\}$  is a subsequence of  $\{\sup_{k\geqslant n}x_k\}$ , it converges to the same limit a. Using the fact that  $1/l \longrightarrow 0$  as  $l \longrightarrow \infty$ , we apply Squeeze theorem to conclude  $x_{n_l} \longrightarrow a$ .

c) Let  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  be the subsequence. Then we have

$$\inf_{l\geqslant n_k} x_l \leqslant x_{n_k} \leqslant \sup_{l\geqslant n_k} x_l. \tag{2.17}$$

Taking limit of all three and applying Comparison Theorem we reach the conclusion.

2.2. We do not say " $\{x_n\}$  converges" to avoid dealing with  $a = \pm \infty$  separately.

# 2.2. A bit topology.

### 2.2.1. Intervals.

**Definition 2.17.** Let a, b be real numbers. A closed interval is a set of the form

$$[a,b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leqslant x \leqslant b\}, \qquad [a,\infty) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leqslant x\}$$
 (2.18)

$$(-\infty, b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leqslant b\}; \qquad (-\infty, \infty) := \mathbb{R}. \tag{2.19}$$

An open interval is a set of the form

$$(a,b) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b \}, \qquad (a,\infty) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \}$$
 (2.20)

$$(-\infty, b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x < b\}; \qquad (-\infty, \infty) := \mathbb{R}. \tag{2.21}$$

One can also define half-open, half-closed intervals:

$$[a,b) := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x < b\}, \qquad (a,b] := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}.$$
 (2.22)

**Remark 2.18.** Note that  $\mathbb{R}$  is both an open interval and a closed interval.

**Example 2.19.** Write the following in interval notation:

- a)  $A := \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x 3| \le 1\};$
- b)  $B := \{x \in \mathbb{R}: |x 3| > 5\}.$
- c)  $(1,2)^c$ .

### Solution.

- a) For A we have  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R}: 2 \le x \le 4\}$  so A = [2, 4];
- b)  $B = \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x > 8 \text{ or } x < -2\} \text{ so } B = (-\infty, -2) \cup (8, \infty).$
- c)  $(1,2) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}: 1 < x < 2\}$  so  $(1,2)^c = \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x \leqslant 1 \text{ or } x \geqslant 2\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x \leqslant 1\} \cup \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x \geqslant 2\}$  which equals  $(-\infty,1] \cup [2,\infty)$ .

Lemma 2.20. The following holds:

- a)  $(a,b) \subseteq (c,d) \iff a \geqslant c,b \leqslant d;$   $(a,b) \subseteq [c,d] \iff a \geqslant c,b \leqslant d;$   $[a,b] \subseteq [c,d] \iff a \geqslant c,b \leqslant d.$
- $b) \ [a,b] \subseteq (c,d) \Longleftrightarrow a > c, b < d.$

## 2.2.2. Open sets and closed sets.

**Definition 2.21.** A set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is open if for every  $x \in E$ , there is an open interval  $(a, b) \subseteq E$  such that  $x \in (a, b)$ . A set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is closed if its complement  $E^c := \mathbb{R} \setminus E$  is open.

**Remark 2.22.** Traditionally, we say  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\emptyset$  are both open and closed.

**Lemma 2.23.** Open intervals are open, closed intervals are closed. Half-open, half-closed intervals are neither open nor closed.

**Proof.** Let (a, b) be an open interval (a, b) may be extended real numbers so this covers all four cases). For every  $x \in (a, b)$ , we have  $x \in (a, b) \subseteq (a, b)$ . Therefore (a, b) is open.

Next let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and [a, b] be an closed interval. Then we have  $[a, b]^c = (-\infty, a) \cup (b, \infty)$ . Take any  $x \in [a, b]^c$ . Then there are two cases:

- $x \in (-\infty, a)$ . Since  $(-\infty, a)$  is an open interval, we have  $x \in (-\infty, a) \subseteq [a, b]^c$ .
- $x \in (b, \infty)$ . Similarly,  $(b, \infty)$  is an open interval so we have  $x \in (b, \infty) \subseteq [a, b]^c$ .

The other three cases are easier:

•  $[a, \infty)$ : We have  $[a, \infty)^c = (-\infty, b)$  open;

- $(-\infty, b]$ : We have  $(-\infty, b]^c = (b, \infty)$  open;
- $(-\infty, \infty)$ : We have  $(-\infty, \infty)^c = \emptyset$  open.

Finally we show that [a,b) and (a,b] are neither open nor closed. For [a,b), to see that it is not open, take  $x=a\in [a,b)$ . Then for every open interval (c,d) containing x=a, we have c< a and therefore  $\frac{c+a}{2}\in (c,d)$  but  $\frac{c+a}{2}\notin [a,b)$ . To see that it is not closed, we consider  $[a,b)^c=(-\infty,a)\cup [b,\infty)$ . Take x=b and argue similarly, we see that  $[a,b)^c$  is not open. Therefore [a,b) is neither open nor closed. The proof for (a,b] is similar.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 2.24.** If E is open, then  $E^c$  is closed; If E is closed then  $E^c$  is open.

**Proof.** The second part is by definion. For the first part, because  $(E^c)^c = E$ ,  $E^c$  is closed if E is open.  $\square$ 

**Theorem 2.25.** We have the following results about intersection and union of sets:

- a) The intersection of finitely many open sets is open; The union of open sets is open.
- b) The intersection of closed sets is closed; The union of finitely many closed sets is closed.

**Proof.** We prove a). b) follows from a), Lemma 2.24, and De Morgan's rule of set operations:

$$(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha})^{c} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}^{c}; \qquad (\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha})^{c} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}^{c}. \tag{2.23}$$

Intersection of finitely many open sets. Denote these sets by  $E_1, ..., E_n$ . We show that for every  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$ , there is  $(a,b) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$  such that  $x \in (a,b)$ .

As  $E_1$  is open, there is  $(a_1, b_1) \subseteq E_1$  with  $x \in (a_1, b_1)$ ;

As  $E_2$  is open, there is  $(a_2, b_2) \subseteq E_2$  with  $x \in (a_2, b_2)$ ;

Doing this for all  $E_i$ , we obtain  $(a_i, b_i) \subseteq E_i$  such that  $x \in (a_i, b_i)$ .

Now set  $a = \max\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$  and  $b = \min\{b_1, ..., b_n\}$ . We claim that a < x < b. Since  $x \in (a_i, b_i)$ , we have  $a_i < x < b_i$  for all i = 1, ..., n. Therefore  $a = \max\{a_1, ..., a_n\} < x < \min\{b_1, ..., b_n\} = b$ . Thus we have (a, b) is an open interval and  $x \in (a, b)$ . Finally, as  $a \ge a_i, b \le b_i$ , we have  $(a, b) \subseteq (a_i, b_i) \subseteq E_i$  for all i = 1, 2, ..., n. Therefore  $(a, b) \subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i$ .

• Union of (could be infinitely many) open sets. Denote these sets by  $E_{\alpha}$  with  $\alpha \in A$  an index set. Take any  $x \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}$ . By definition there is  $E_{\alpha_0}$  such that  $x \in E_{\alpha_0}$ . Since  $E_{\alpha_0}$  is open, there is  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \in (a,b) \subseteq E_{\alpha_0} \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}$ .

Remark 2.26. Note that "union of open sets is open" and "intersection of closed set" can involve infinitely many sets. For example  $(1/x, \infty)$  is open for x > 0. Then we know  $\bigcup_{x>0}(1/x, \infty)$  is open. On the other hand, the intersection of infinitely many open sets may be closed, for example  $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}}(-1/n, 1/n)$ ; The union of infinitely many closed sets may be open, for example  $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left[\frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n}\right]$ . Of course it may also be half-openhalf-closed.

**Remark 2.27.** From the above theorem we see why it is a good idea to say  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\emptyset$  are both open and closed.

**Theorem 2.28.** (Structure of open sets) Let  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be open. Then there are  $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $E = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} (a_i, b_i)$ .

**Proof.** The proof is beyond the level of this course and is omitted.

## 2.2.3. Nested sets.

**Definition 2.29.** (Nested sets) A sequence of sets  $\{I_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is said to be nested if

$$I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq \cdots$$
 (2.24)

**Theorem 2.30.** (Nested interval) If  $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$  with  $a_n, b_n \in \mathbb{R}$  is nested, then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$  is not empty. If  $b_n - a_n \longrightarrow 0$ , the intersection is a single point.

**Proof.** Since  $[a_n, b_n] \subseteq [a_{n-1}, b_{n-1}]$ , we have  $a_n \geqslant a_{n-1}$  and  $b_n \leqslant b_{n-1}$ . Thus  $a_n$  is increasing while bounded above by  $b_1$ , and  $b_n$  is decreasing while bounded below by  $a_1$ . Therefore there are  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a_n \longrightarrow a$ ,  $b_n \longrightarrow b$  as  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ .

By comparison theorem,  $a \leq b$ . Since  $a_n \leq a \leq b \leq b_n$ , we have  $[a, b] \subseteq [a_n, b_n]$  for every n. Therefore  $[a, b] \subseteq \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ .

In particular, if  $b_n - a_n \longrightarrow 0$ , we have  $b = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} b_n = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n) = a + 0 = a$ . From the above we know that  $a \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ . We show that it is the only point in  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ . Take any  $\tilde{a} \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ . Then we have  $a_n \leqslant \tilde{a} \leqslant b_n$ . Comparison Theorem then gives  $a = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \leqslant \lim_{n \to \infty} \tilde{a} \leqslant \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = a$ . Therefore  $\tilde{a} = a$  and the proof ends.

## Remark 2.31.

- $a_n, b_n \in \mathbb{R}$  is necessary. Otherwise we can take  $I_n = [a_n, \infty)$  with  $a_n \longrightarrow \infty$  which leads to  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .
- It is also necessary that the intervals are closed. Counter-examples are  $I_n = (0, 1/n)$ , or  $I_n = (0, 1/n]$ .