

## PMATH 333 Real Analysis, Solutions to Assignment 2

1: (a) Let  $x_n = \frac{2n+1}{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Use the definition of the limit to show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 2$ .

Solution: For  $n \geq 2$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have

$$|x_n - 2| = \left| \frac{2n+1}{n-1} - 2 \right| = \left| \frac{2n+1-2n+2}{n-1} \right| = \frac{3}{n-1}$$

and

$$\frac{3}{n-1} \leq \epsilon \leftrightarrow \frac{n-1}{3} \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon} \leftrightarrow n-1 \geq 3\epsilon \leftrightarrow n \geq 3\epsilon + 1.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Choose  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m \geq 3\epsilon + 1$ . For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$  with  $n \geq m$  we have  $n \geq m \geq 3\epsilon + 1$  and hence, as shown above,  $|x_n - 2| = \frac{3}{n-1} \leq \epsilon$ .

(b) Let  $x_n = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n+3}}$  for  $n \geq 0$ . Use the definition of the limit to show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \infty$ .

Solution: First note that for  $n \geq 1$  we have  $n+3 \leq n+3n = 4n$  and so

$$x_n = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n+3}} \geq \frac{n}{\sqrt{4n}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}.$$

Let  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . Choose  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m \geq 4r^2$ . Then for  $n \geq m$  we have  $n \geq 4r^2$  and so

$$x_n \geq \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2} \geq \frac{\sqrt{4r^2}}{2} = \frac{2|r|}{2} = |r| \geq r.$$

(c) Show that if  $x_n \geq 0$  for all  $n \geq p$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a \geq 0$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{x_n} = \sqrt{a}$ .

Solution: Consider the case that  $a = 0$ . Suppose that  $x_n \geq 0$  for all  $n$  and that  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ , we can choose  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $n \geq m \implies |x_n - 0| \leq \epsilon^2$ . Then for  $n \geq m$  we have  $0 \leq x_n \leq \epsilon^2$  and so  $|\sqrt{x_n} - 0| = \sqrt{x_n} \leq \epsilon$ . Thus  $\sqrt{x_n} \rightarrow 0$ .

Consider the case that  $a > 0$ . Suppose that  $x_n \geq 0$  for all  $k$  and that  $x_n \rightarrow a > 0$ . Note that, for all  $n$ , we have

$$|\sqrt{x_n} - \sqrt{a}| = \left| \frac{x_n - a}{\sqrt{x_n} + \sqrt{a}} \right| = \frac{|x_n - a|}{\sqrt{x_n} + \sqrt{a}}.$$

Since  $x_n \rightarrow a$  we can choose  $m_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $n \geq m_1 \implies |x_n - a| \leq \frac{3a}{4}$ . Then for  $n \geq m_1$  we have  $\frac{a}{4} \leq x_n \leq \frac{7a}{4}$  so that  $\frac{\sqrt{a}}{2} \leq \sqrt{x_n}$ . Again since  $x_n \rightarrow a$ , we can choose  $m_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $n \geq m_2 \implies |x_n - a| \leq \frac{3\sqrt{a}}{2} \epsilon$ . Let  $m = \max\{m_1, m_2\}$ . Then for  $n \geq m$  we have  $\sqrt{x_n} \geq \frac{\sqrt{a}}{2}$  and we have  $|x_n - a| \leq \frac{3\sqrt{a}}{2} \epsilon$  and so

$$|\sqrt{x_n} - \sqrt{a}| = \frac{|x_n - a|}{\sqrt{x_n} + \sqrt{a}} \leq \frac{\frac{3\sqrt{a}}{2} \epsilon}{\frac{\sqrt{a}}{2} + \sqrt{a}} = \epsilon.$$

Thus  $\sqrt{x_n} \rightarrow \sqrt{a}$ .

2: (a) Show that there exist (at least) 3 distinct values of  $x$  such that  $8x^3 = 6x + 1$ .

Solution: Let  $f(x) = 8x^3 - 6x - 1$ . Notice that  $f(x)$  is continuous and we have  $f(x) = 0 \leftrightarrow 8x^3 = 6x + 1$ . By the Intermediate Value Theorem, since  $f(-1) = -3 < 0$  and  $f(-\frac{1}{2}) = 1 > 0$ , there is a number  $x_1 \in (-1, -\frac{1}{2})$  such that  $f(x_1) = 0$ . Similarly, since  $f(-\frac{1}{2}) = 1 > 0$  and  $f(0) = -1 < 0$ , there is a number  $x_2 \in (-\frac{1}{2}, 0)$  with  $f(x_2) = 0$ , and since  $f(0) = -1 < 0$  and  $f(1) = 1 > 0$ , there is a number  $x_3 \in (0, 1)$  with  $f(x_3) = 0$ . (In fact, the exact values of  $x_1, x_2$  and  $x_3$  are  $x_1 = -\cos(40^\circ)$ ,  $x_2 = -\sin(10^\circ)$  and  $x_3 = \cos(20^\circ)$ ).

(b) Let  $f : [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous with  $f(0) = f(2)$ . Show that  $f(x) = f(x + 1)$  for some  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

Solution: Let  $g(x) = f(x + 1) - f(x)$ . Note that  $g$  is continuous and

$$g(1) = f(2) - f(1) = f(0) - f(1) = -(f(1) - f(0)) = -g(0).$$

By the Intermediate Value Theorem, there is a number  $x \in [0, 1]$  with  $g(x) = 0$  (indeed if  $g(0) \neq 0$  then one of the numbers  $g(0)$  and  $g(1)$  is positive and the other is negative so there is a number  $x \in (0, 1)$  with  $g(x) = 0$ ). Then we have  $0 = g(x) = f(x + 1) - f(x)$  and so  $f(x) = f(x + 1)$ .

(c) Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous. Suppose that  $|f(x) - f(y)| \geq |x - y|$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Show that  $f$  is bijective (that is,  $f$  is injective and surjective).

Solution: First we note that  $f$  is injective since when  $x_1 \neq x_2$  we have  $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| \geq |x_1 - x_2| > 0$  so that  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ . It remains to show that  $f$  is surjective.

We claim that for all  $r > 0$ , either  $(f(r) \geq f(0) + r \text{ and } f(-r) \leq f(0) - r)$  or  $(f(r) \leq f(0) - r \text{ and } f(-r) \geq f(0) + r)$ . Let  $r > 0$ . Since  $|f(r) - f(0)| \geq |r - 0| = r$ , it follows that either  $f(r) \geq f(0) + r$  or  $f(r) \leq f(0) - r$ . Likewise, since  $|f(-r) - f(0)| \geq |-r - 0| = r$ , it follows that either  $f(-r) \geq f(0) + r$  or  $f(-r) \leq f(0) - r$ . Note that in the case that  $f(r) \geq f(0) + r$ , we must have  $f(-r) \leq f(0) - r$  because if we had  $f(-r) \geq f(0) + r$  then, by the IVT (applied twice) we could choose  $x_1 \in (-r, 0)$  with  $f(x_1) = f(0) + \frac{r}{2}$  and we could choose  $x_2 \in (0, r)$  with  $f(x_2) = f(0) + \frac{r}{2}$  which would give  $x_1 \neq x_2$  with  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  contradicting the fact that  $f$  is injective. Similarly, in the case that  $f(r) \leq f(0) - r$  we must have  $f(-r) \geq f(0) + r$  since if we had  $f(-r) \leq f(0) - r$  we could use the IVT to choose  $x_1 \in (-r, 0)$  and  $x_2 \in (0, r)$  such that  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) = f(0) - \frac{r}{2}$ . This proves the claim.

Finally, we use the above claim to prove surjectivity. Let  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Choose  $r > 0$  such that  $f(0) + r > y$  and  $f(0) - r < y$ . By the claim, either we have  $f(-r) \leq f(0) - r < y < f(0) + r \leq f(r)$  or we have  $f(r) \leq f(0) - r < y < f(0) + r \leq f(-r)$ , and in either case, by the IVT, we can choose  $x \in (-r, r)$  such that  $f(x) = y$ . Thus  $f$  is surjective.

**3:** (The Natural Base  $e$ ) Let  $s_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!}$  for  $n \geq 0$  and let  $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

(a) Show that  $(s_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is increasing and bounded above by 3, and let  $e_1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$ .

Solution: Since  $s_{n-1} - s_n = \frac{1}{n!} > 0$ , it follows that  $\langle s_n \rangle$  is strictly increasing. For  $n \geq 3$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \\ &= 2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} + \cdots + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdots n}\right) \\ &\leq 2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{3^3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{3^{n-2}}\right) \\ &= 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1 - \frac{1}{3^{n-1}}}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} = 2 + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{1}{3^{n-1}}\right) \leq 2 + \frac{3}{4} \leq 3. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $(s_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is increasing with  $s_n \leq 3$  for all  $n$ , it converges by the Monotone Convergence Theorem, and by the Comparison Theorem we have  $e_1 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \leq 3$ .

(b) Use the Binomial Theorem to show that

$$a_n = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{n}\right).$$

Solution: By the Binomial Theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = 1 + \binom{n}{1} \cdot \frac{1}{n} + \binom{n}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} + \binom{n}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{n^3} + \cdots + \binom{n}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^n} \\ &= 1 + 1 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!n^2} + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!n^3} + \cdots + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(1)}{n!n^n} \\ &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{n}\right). \end{aligned}$$

and we remark that the final term is equal to  $\frac{1}{n^n}$ .

(c) Show that  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is increasing with  $a_n \leq s_n$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , and let  $e_2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ .

Solution: Using the formula in Part (b) we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1} &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n+1}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{n+1}\right) + \frac{1}{(n+1)^{n+1}} \\ &\geq 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{(n+1)^{n+1}} \\ &= a_n + \frac{1}{(n+1)^{n+1}} > a_n \end{aligned}$$

for all  $n$  and so  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is strictly increasing. Using the same formula again we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{n}\right) \\ &\leq 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} = s_n. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is increasing with  $a_n \leq s_n \leq 3$  for all  $n$ , it converges by the Monotone Convergence Theorem, and by the Comparison Theorem we have  $e_2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = e_1$ .

(d) Show that  $e_2 \geq s_n$  for all  $n \geq 0$  and hence  $e_2 = e_1$ .

Solution: For  $k \geq n$  with  $n$  fixed, we have (writing the final term in  $a_k$  as  $\frac{1}{k^k}$ )

$$\begin{aligned} a_k &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{k}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{k}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{k}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{k^k} \\ &\geq 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right) + \frac{1}{3!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{k}\right) + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{k}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{k}\right) \\ &\rightarrow 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} = s_n \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

It follows from the Comparison Theorem that  $e_2 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k \geq s_n$  for all  $n$ , and hence, by another application of the Comparison Theorem, we have  $e_2 \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = e_1$ .

- 4: (a) Show that every sequence  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a monotonic subsequence (that is either  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  has an increasing subsequence or  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  has a decreasing subsequence). Hint: consider indices  $n$  such that  $a_n > a_k$  for all  $k > n$ .

Solution: For an index  $n \geq 1$ , let us say that  $n$  is a **peak** index of  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  when it has the property that  $x_n > x_k$  for all  $k > n$ . Either  $(x_n)$  has infinitely many peak indices, or it does not. If  $(x_n)$  has infinitely many peak indices, then we can choose peak indices  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$  and then, by the definition of a peak index,  $x_{n_1} > x_{n_2} > x_{n_3} > \dots$ . Suppose that  $(x_n)$  has only finitely many peak indices. Choose an index  $n_1$  which is greater than every peak index. Since  $n_1$  is not a peak index, we can choose  $n_2 > n_1$  so that  $x_{n_2} \geq x_{n_1}$ . Since  $n_2$  is greater than  $n_1$  which is greater than every peak index,  $n_2$  is not a peak index and so we can choose  $n_3 > n_2$  so that  $x_{n_3} \geq x_{n_2}$ . We continue this process to obtain indices  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$  with  $x_{n_1} \leq x_{n_2} \leq x_{n_3} \leq \dots$ .

Alternatively, one can ignore the hint and prove 4(a) using the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem. To do this, consider several cases. When  $(x_n)$  is not bounded above, construct an increasing subsequence of  $(x_k)$ . When  $(x_n)$  is not bounded below, construct a decreasing subsequence. When  $(x_n)$  is bounded, invoke the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem to choose a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  and say  $u_k = x_{n_k} \rightarrow b$ . Then consider the following three cases. Either there exist infinitely many indices  $k$  with  $u_k = b$  (in this case, construct a constant subsequence of  $(u_k)$ ) or there exist infinitely many indices  $k$  with  $u_k > b$  (in this case, construct a decreasing subsequence of  $(u_k)$ ) or there exist infinitely many indices  $k$  with  $u_k < b$  (in this case, construct an increasing subsequence of  $(u_k)$ ).

We also remark that the fact that every sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a monotonic subsequence, together with the Monotone Convergence Theorem, immediately imply the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem as a corollary. Thus the first solution to this problem supplies you with an alternate (and perhaps easier) proof of the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem than the proof we gave (which used the Nested Interval Property of  $\mathbb{R}$ ).

- (b) Let  $x_n = \frac{n}{\sqrt{2}} - \lfloor \frac{n}{\sqrt{2}} \rfloor$  for  $n \geq 1$ . Show that  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  has a decreasing subsequence  $(x_{n_k})_{k \geq 1}$  with  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = 0$ . Hint: consider  $(1 + \sqrt{2})^k$  and  $(1 - \sqrt{2})^k$ .

Solution: By the Binomial Theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \sqrt{2})^k &= 1 + \binom{k}{1}(\sqrt{2}) + \binom{k}{2}(\sqrt{2})^2 + \binom{k}{3}(\sqrt{2})^3 + \binom{k}{4}(\sqrt{2})^4 + \dots \quad \text{and} \\ (1 - \sqrt{2})^k &= 1 - \binom{k}{1}(\sqrt{2}) + \binom{k}{2}(\sqrt{2})^2 - \binom{k}{3}(\sqrt{2})^3 + \binom{k}{4}(\sqrt{2})^4 - \dots \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \sqrt{2})^k + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k &= 2 \left( 1 + \binom{k}{2} \cdot 2 + \binom{k}{4} \cdot 2^2 + \binom{k}{6} \cdot 2^3 + \dots \right) \quad \text{and} \\ (1 + \sqrt{2})^k - (1 - \sqrt{2})^k &= 2\sqrt{2} \left( \binom{k}{1} + \binom{k}{3}(2) + \binom{k}{5}(2)^2 + \binom{k}{7}2^3 + \dots \right), \end{aligned}$$

and so we see that  $\frac{1}{2}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k) \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k - (1 - \sqrt{2})^k) \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , let

$$n_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k - (1 - \sqrt{2})^k)$$

and note that  $n_k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Consider the case that  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  is odd. Since  $-1 < (1 - \sqrt{2})^k < 0$  and

$$\frac{n_k}{\sqrt{2}} + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k = \frac{1}{2}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k - (1 - \sqrt{2})^k) + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k = \frac{1}{2}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k) \in \mathbb{Z},$$

it follows that  $\lfloor \frac{n_k}{\sqrt{2}} \rfloor = \frac{1}{2}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k)$ . Thus, when  $k$  is odd, we have

$$x_{n_k} = \frac{n_k}{\sqrt{2}} - \lfloor \frac{n_k}{\sqrt{2}} \rfloor = \frac{1}{2}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k - (1 - \sqrt{2})^k) - \frac{1}{2}((1 + \sqrt{2})^k + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k) = -(1 - \sqrt{2})^k = (\sqrt{2} - 1)^k.$$

Thus the subsequence  $x_{n_1}, x_{n_3}, x_{n_5}, \dots$  of  $(x_n)$  is equal to the sequence  $(\sqrt{2} - 1), (\sqrt{2} - 1)^3, (\sqrt{2} - 1)^5, \dots$  which is decreasing with limit 0.

We remark that this is not the only such subsequence. For example, we could have chosen to let  $n_k = (1 + \sqrt{2})^k + (1 - \sqrt{2})^k$  in which case, when  $k$  is even we would obtain  $\frac{n_k}{\sqrt{2}} - \lfloor \frac{n_k}{\sqrt{2}} \rfloor = \sqrt{2}(\sqrt{2} - 1)^k$  giving the subsequence  $x_{n_2}, x_{n_4}, x_{n_6}, \dots$  which would be equal to  $\sqrt{2}(\sqrt{2} - 1)^2, \sqrt{2}(\sqrt{2} - 1)^4, \sqrt{2}(\sqrt{2} - 1)^6, \dots$ .

Alternatively, one can ignore the hint and prove the follow more general result. Define  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1)$  by  $f(x) = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$  ( $f(x)$  is called the **fractional part** of  $x$ ). Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Define  $x_k = f(\alpha k)$  for  $k \geq 0$ . If  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$  then the sequence  $\langle x_k \rangle$  is periodic. If  $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$  then

$$\forall a \in [0, 1] \quad \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \quad \exists k \geq m \quad |x_k - a| \leq \epsilon.$$

We sketch a proof below. We leave it as an exercise to show that 4(b) follows as a corollary.

From the definition of the floor function and the fractional part function  $f(x)$ , verify that

$$f(x + y) = \begin{cases} f(x) + f(y) & \text{if } f(x) + f(y) < 1 \\ f(x) + f(y) - 1 & \text{if } f(x) + f(y) \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

and

$$f(x - y) = \begin{cases} f(x) - f(y) & \text{if } f(x) \geq f(y) \\ f(x) - f(y) + 1 & \text{if } f(x) < f(y). \end{cases}$$

Since  $x_k = f(\alpha k)$ , these formulas imply that

$$x_{k_1+k_2} = \begin{cases} x_{k_1} + x_{k_2} & \text{if } x_{k_1} + x_{k_2} < 1 \\ x_{k_1} + x_{k_2} - 1 & \text{if } x_{k_1} + x_{k_2} \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

and

$$x_{k_1-k_2} = \begin{cases} x_{k_2} - x_{k_1} & \text{if } x_{k_2} \geq x_{k_1} \\ x_{k_2} - x_{k_1} + 1 & \text{if } x_{k_2} < x_{k_1}. \end{cases}$$

We wish to prove that when  $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$ ,

$$\forall a \in [0, 1] \quad \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \quad \exists k \geq m \quad |x_k - a| \leq \epsilon.$$

Let  $a \in [0, 1]$  and let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Choose  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  so that  $\frac{1}{n} \geq \epsilon$ , then divide the interval  $[0, 1]$  into the  $n$  subintervals  $I_j = [\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}]$ , and note that each of these intervals is of size  $\frac{j}{n} - \frac{j-1}{n} = \frac{1}{n}$ . Since  $a \in [0, 1] = \bigcup_{j=1}^n I_j$ , we can

choose an index  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  such that  $a \in I_j$ . Since the interval  $I_j$  is of size  $\frac{1}{n} \leq \epsilon$ , it suffices to show that for all  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  we can find  $k \geq m$  so that  $x_k \in I_j$  (because when  $x_k$  and  $a$  both lie in the same interval  $I_j$  we must have  $|x_k - a| \leq \frac{1}{n} \leq \epsilon$ ). It remains for us to show that

$$\forall m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \quad \exists k \geq m \quad x_k \in I_j = [\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}].$$

Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Choose an index  $j_0 \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  so that for infinitely many indices  $k$  we have  $x_k \in I_{j_0}$ . Choose two indices  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  with  $k_2 \geq k_1 + m$  such that  $x_{k_1}, x_{k_2} \in I_{j_0}$ , and let  $l = k_2 - k_1 \geq m$ . From our formula for  $x_{k_1-k_2}$ , we have

$$x_l = x_{k_1-k_2} = \begin{cases} x_{k_2} - x_{k_1} \in [0, \frac{1}{n}] & \text{if } x_{k_2} \geq x_{k_1} \\ x_{k_2} - x_{k_1} + 1 \in [1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1] & \text{if } x_{k_2} < x_{k_1}. \end{cases}$$

We have found an index  $l \geq m$  such that  $x_l \in [0, \frac{1}{n}] \cup [1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1]$ . We shall show that there is a multiple  $k = tl$ , where  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , such that  $x_k \in I_j$  where  $I_j$  was the interval that we chose earlier with  $a \in I_j$ . Since  $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , we have  $k\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and hence  $x_k = f(\alpha k) = \alpha k - \lfloor \alpha k \rfloor \notin \mathbb{Q}$ . It follows that  $x_l \in (0, \frac{1}{n}) \cup (1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1)$ . Suppose first that  $x_l \in (0, \frac{1}{n})$ . From our formula for  $x_{k_1+k_2}$  we see that  $x_{tl} = t x_l$  as long as  $t x_l < 1$ . Since  $0 < x_k < \frac{1}{n}$ , we can choose  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  so that  $t x_l \in I_j$  (to be explicit, verify that if we choose  $t = \lfloor \frac{j}{n x_l} \rfloor$  then we have  $t x_l \in I_j$ ). Then we let  $k = tl$  and we have found an index  $k \geq m$  such that  $x_k \in I_j$ . The case that  $x_l \in (1 - \frac{1}{n}, 1)$  is quite similar. If we write  $x_l = 1 - \delta$  then we have  $0 < \delta < \frac{1}{n}$ . From the formula for  $x_{k_1+k_2}$  we see that  $x_{tl} = 1 - t\delta$  as long as  $t\delta \leq 1$ . Since  $0 < \delta < \frac{1}{n}$ , we can choose  $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  so that  $1 - t\delta \in I_j$ . Then we let  $k = tl$  so that  $x_k \in I_j$ . This completes the proof that for all  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  there exists  $k \geq m$  such that  $x_k \in I_j$ , and the proof of our original claim that

$$\forall a \in [0, 1] \quad \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \quad \exists k \geq m \quad |x_k - a| \leq \epsilon.$$