

# Continuous Functions

## 1 Notation

There will now be many metric spaces running around. So, when there can be ambiguity, we will write  $d_X$  for the metric on a metric space  $X$  and  $B_X(a, r)$  for the open ball in  $X$  of radius  $r$  centered at  $a \in X$ . Also, while it is not strictly necessary, I find it is useful to be familiar with the word “neighborhood” at this point.

Let  $X$  be a metric space and  $a \in X$  a point. A *neighborhood* of  $a$  is a subset  $U$  of  $X$  in which  $a$  is an interior point. Note that  $U$  need not itself be open in  $X$ . If it does happen to be open in  $X$ , we say that  $U$  is an *open neighborhood* of  $a$ .

**Example 1.1.**  $(-1, 1)$ ,  $[-1, 1]$ ,  $(-0.5, 72]$  and  $(-1, 1.2] \cup (72, 100]$  are all examples of neighborhoods of the point  $a = 0$  in the metric space  $X = \mathbb{R}$  with the euclidean metric. Only the first one of these is an open neighborhood.

**Remark 1.2.** Rudin uses the word “neighborhood” for the concept we have been calling “open ball.” Rudin’s usage is not standard: the definition of “neighborhood” given above is what most people mean when they say “neighborhood.”

## 2 Limits of Functions

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces and, for some fixed point  $a \in X$ , let  $f : X \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow Y$  be a function. We say that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$$

if, whenever  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $b$  in  $Y$ , then  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  is also a neighborhood of  $a$  in  $X$ .

**Example 2.1.** Let  $X = Y = \mathbb{R}$  and  $a = 0$  and consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by the formula

$$f(x) = x^2.$$

Let’s show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0.$$

Let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $b := 0$  in  $Y$ . In other words,  $b$  is an interior point of  $U$ , so there exists an open ball  $B_Y(b, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$ . Now consider the open ball  $V := B_X(a, \sqrt{\varepsilon})$ . Then for any

$x \in V \cap E \setminus \{a\} = V \setminus \{0\}$ , we have

$$d(b, f(x)) = |f(x)| = |x^2| \leq (\sqrt{\varepsilon})^2 = \varepsilon$$

which means that  $f(x) \in B_Y(b, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$ . In other words, the entire open ball  $V$  is contained in  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$ , so  $a$  is an interior point of  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$ . In other words,  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ .

**Example 2.2.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces,  $a \in X$  a point and  $f : X \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow Y$  a function such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b.$$

By definition, we know that if  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $b$ , then  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ . But, even if  $U$  is an *open* neighborhood, it need not be that  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  is an *open* neighborhood of  $a$ . To see this, let  $X = Y = \mathbb{R}$  and  $a = 0$  again, and consider the function  $f : X \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow Y$  given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & \text{if } x \in [2, 3] \\ x^2 & \text{if } x \notin [2, 3]. \end{cases}$$

It's easy to see that this function still has

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$$

just like in the previous example. But, consider the open neighborhood  $U := B_X(a, 1)$ . Then

$$f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\} = (-1, 1) \cup [2, 3]$$

which is clearly not open. This is the reason for introducing the terminology “neighborhood of  $a$ ” instead of just sticking with “open set containing  $a$ .”

If we have metric spaces  $X$  and  $Y$ , a point  $a \in X$  and a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ , we can “forget” about the value of  $f$  at  $a$  and restrict  $f$  to a function  $X \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow Y$ . This means that it makes sense to write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$$

even if  $f$  is defined at  $a$ . Of course, this also means that the fact that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$$

is totally independent of the value of  $f$  at  $a$ .

**Example 2.3.** Keep the same notation as in example 2.1, but now suppose that  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is actually defined everywhere by the formula

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

The same proof as in example 2.1 shows that we still have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$$

even though  $f(x) \neq 0$ . In fact, the above would be true no matter what the value of  $f(x)$  was. It could be 0, or 1, or 100...

**Lemma 2.4.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces,  $a \in X$  a point and  $f : X \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow Y$  a function. Suppose further that  $a$  is a limit point of  $X \setminus \{a\}$ . If there exist points  $b$  and  $b'$  in  $Y$  such that*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b'$$

then  $b = b'$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $b \neq b'$ . Then there exist disjoint neighborhoods  $U$  and  $U'$  of  $b$  and  $b'$ , respectively. But then  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  and  $f^{-1}(U') \cup \{a\}$  are both neighborhoods of  $a$ , which means their intersection is a neighborhood of  $a$  also. But notice that

$$(f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}) \cap (f^{-1}(U') \cup \{a\}) = f^{-1}(U \cap U') \cup \{a\} = \{a\}$$

since  $U \cap U' = \emptyset$ . This means that  $\{a\}$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ , which means that  $a$  cannot be a limit point of  $X \setminus \{a\}$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.5.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces,  $a \in X$  a point, and  $f : X \setminus \{a\} \rightarrow Y$  a function. Then*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$$

for some  $b \in Y$  if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = b$$

for every sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $X \setminus \{a\}$  which converges to  $a$ .

*Proof.* For the “only if” direction, let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in  $X \setminus \{a\}$  converging to  $a$  and let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $b$ . Then  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ , which means that there exists an open ball  $V$  such that  $f(V \setminus \{a\}) \subseteq U$ . Since  $\lim x_n = a$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x_n \in V$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Then  $x_n \in V \setminus \{a\}$ , so  $f(x_n) \in U$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . This shows that  $\lim f(x_n) = b$ .

For the “if” direction, suppose that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq b.$$

This means that there exists a neighborhood  $U$  containing  $b$  for which  $f^{-1}(U) \cup \{a\}$  is *not* a neighborhood of  $a$ . In other words, there does not exist any open ball around  $a$  which is mapped by  $f$  entirely into  $U$ . Consider the open ball  $V_n := B_X(a, 1/n)$ . Then  $f$  does not map  $V_n \setminus \{a\}$  into  $U$ , so there exists some  $x_n \in V_n \setminus \{a\}$  such that  $f(x_n) \notin U$ . Now notice that  $\lim x_n = a$ , since for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that  $1/N < \varepsilon$ , and then, since  $x_n \in V_n := B_X(a, 1/n)$ , we have that

$$d(a, x_n) < 1/n \leq 1/N < \varepsilon.$$

But we cannot have  $\lim f(x_n) \neq b$ . Indeed, since  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $b$ , there exists some open ball  $B_Y(b, r) \subseteq U$ , and we know that  $f(x_n) \notin U$  for all  $n$ , so  $f(x_n) \notin B_Y(b, r)$  for all  $n$ . In other words,  $B_Y(b, r)$  is an example of an open set containing  $b$  which contains none of the points of the sequence  $(f(x_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ .  $\square$

**Example 2.6.** Let  $X = Y = \mathbb{R}$ , suppose  $a \in X$  and consider the function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  given by  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 1$ . Let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be any sequence in  $X \setminus \{a\}$  converging to  $a$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2x_n^2 + 1 = 2a^2 + 1 = f(a).$$

Functions like this, where the limit at every point is equal to the value of the function itself, are called “continuous.”

### 3 Continuity

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. Then  $f$  is *continuous at*  $a \in X$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a).$$

Also we say that  $f$  is *continuous* if it is continuous at every  $a \in X$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces. A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous at a point  $a \in X$  if and only if, for every neighborhood  $U$  of  $f(a)$  in  $Y$ , the preimage  $f^{-1}(U)$  is a neighborhood of  $a$  in  $X$ .*

*Proof.* By definition, we have that  $f$  is continuous at  $a$  if and only if, for every neighborhood  $U$  of  $f(a)$ , the preimage  $(f^{-1}(U) \setminus \{a\}) \cup \{a\}$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ . But notice that

$$(f^{-1}(U) \setminus \{a\}) \cup \{a\} = f^{-1}(U). \quad \square$$

**Example 3.2.** Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by  $f(a, b) = a + b$ . We give  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{R}^2$  both the euclidean metric. We want to show that  $f$  is continuous. Notice that  $f$  being continuous depends only on what subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are open and not on the specific metric we put on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , so actually it is more convenient to put the maximum metric on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  instead of the euclidean metric.

Fix a point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $f(a, b) = a + b$ . Then there exists some  $\varepsilon \geq 0$  such that  $B_{\mathbb{R}}(f(a, b), \varepsilon) \subseteq U$ . Now notice that

$$B_{\mathbb{R}^2}((a, b), \varepsilon/2) = B_{\mathbb{R}}(a, \varepsilon/2) \times B_{\mathbb{R}}(b, \varepsilon/2)$$

so for any  $(x, y)$  in this open ball, we have

$$d(f(a, b), f(x, y)) = |(a + b) - (x + y)| \leq |a - x| + |b - y| \leq \varepsilon.$$

In other words, the open ball  $B_{\mathbb{R}^2}((a, b), \varepsilon/2)$  is entirely contained in  $f^{-1}(U)$ , so  $f^{-1}(U)$  is a neighborhood of  $(a, b)$ . This completes the proof of continuity.

Now if  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  and  $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  are sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$  converging to  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, then  $((a_n, b_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  converging to  $(a, b)$ , which means that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n, b_n) = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b) = a + b.$$

Here, we used lemma 2.5 for the second equality and the fact that  $f$  is continuous for the third. This proves the proposition concerning sums of limits we had left unproved before. For the other parts of that proposition, see problem 3.

**Corollary 3.3.** *Let  $X, Y$  and  $Z$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$  be functions. Suppose  $f$  is continuous at  $a \in X$  and  $g$  is continuous at  $f(a)$ . Then the composite  $h := g \circ f$  is continuous at  $a$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $h(a) = g(f(a))$ . Since  $g$  is continuous at  $f(a)$ , we know that  $g^{-1}(U)$  is a neighborhood of  $f(a)$ , and then since  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ , we also know that  $f^{-1}(g^{-1}(U))$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ . But notice that

$$f^{-1}(g^{-1}(U)) = (g \circ f)^{-1}(U) = h^{-1}(U). \quad \square$$

**Corollary 3.4.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces. A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous if and only if  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in  $X$  for every open subset  $U$  of  $Y$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose first that  $f$  is continuous and let  $U$  be an open subset of  $Y$ . We want to show that every point  $a \in f^{-1}(U)$  is an interior point of  $f^{-1}(U)$ . But notice that  $a \in f^{-1}(U)$  means that  $f(a) \in U$ , so  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $f(a)$ , so  $f^{-1}(U)$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ . In other words,  $a$  is an interior point of  $f^{-1}(U)$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open for every open subset  $U \subseteq Y$ . We want to show that  $f$  is continuous at every point  $a \in X$ , so let  $U$  be any neighborhood of  $f(a)$ . Then there exists an open set  $U'$  containing  $f(a)$  such that  $U' \subseteq U$ , and by assumption we know that  $f^{-1}(U')$  is open. Then there exists an open ball  $B_X(a, r) \subseteq f^{-1}(U') \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$ . Thus  $a$  is an interior point of  $f^{-1}(U)$ , so  $f^{-1}(U)$  is a neighborhood of  $a$  and we are done.  $\square$

**Example 3.5.** Let  $X = Y = \mathbb{R}$  with the euclidean metric and consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}, \text{ and} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q}. \end{cases}$$

Then for any irrational number  $a$ , notice that  $B_Y(0, 1/2)$  is a neighborhood of  $f(a) = 0$ , but its preimage is the set of all irrational numbers, which is not a neighborhood of  $a$ . Similarly, for every rational number  $a$ , notice that  $B_Y(1, 1/2)$  is a neighborhood of  $f(a) = 1$ , but its preimage is the set of all rational numbers, which is again not a neighborhood of  $a$ . Thus, this function  $f$  is discontinuous everywhere!

## 4 Continuity and Connectedness

**Lemma 4.1.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous function. If  $X$  is connected, then its image  $f(X)$  is also connected.*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $U$  is a nonempty proper open and closed subset of  $f(X)$ . Since  $U$  is open in  $f(X)$ , there exists an open set  $V$  in  $Y$  such that  $U = V \cap f(X)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, we know that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , but observe that  $f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(U)$  since  $U = V \cap f(X)$ . Similarly, since  $f(X) \setminus U$  is open in  $f(X)$ , we conclude that

$$f^{-1}(f(X) \setminus U) = X \setminus f^{-1}(U)$$

is also open in  $X$ . Thus  $f^{-1}(U)$  is an open and closed subset of  $X$ , so, since  $X$  is connected, we have either  $f^{-1}(U) = \emptyset$  or  $f^{-1}(U) = X$ . But notice that since  $U$  is a subset of  $f(X)$ , having  $f^{-1}(U) = \emptyset$  forces  $U = \emptyset$ , which is a contradiction. On the other hand, having  $f^{-1}(U) = X$  forces  $U = f(X)$ , which again is a contradiction.  $\square$

**Theorem 4.2** (Intermediate value theorem). *Suppose  $a \leq b$  are real numbers and  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a continuous function such that  $f(a) \leq f(b)$ . If  $f(a) \leq y \leq f(b)$ , then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = y$ .*

*Proof.* We know that  $[a, b]$  is connected, so its continuous image  $f([a, b])$  is also connected by lemma 4.1. Since  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  are elements of  $f([a, b])$  and this is a connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , we know that the entire interval  $[f(a), f(b)]$  is contained in  $f([a, b])$ . In particular, since  $y \in [f(a), f(b)]$ , we have that  $y \in f([a, b])$  also, so there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = y$ .  $\square$

## 5 Sample Problems

**Problem 1.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function. Show that  $f$  is continuous at  $a \in X$  if and only if, for all  $\varepsilon \geq 0$ , there exists  $\delta \geq 0$  such that  $d(a, x) \leq \delta$  implies  $d(f(a), f(x)) \leq \varepsilon$ .

**Problem 2.** Mimic the proof of example 3.2 in order to prove that each of the following functions is continuous, where  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{R}^2$  have the euclidean metric.

- (a)  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by  $f(x) = -x$ .
- (b)  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by  $f(x, y) = xy$ .
- (c)  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by  $f(x) = 1/x$ .

**Problem 3.** Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin(1/x) & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Show that  $f$  is continuous at 0. *Remark.* We haven't formally defined  $\sin$  in this class yet, but in any case, you can use the fact that  $|\sin(x)| \leq 1$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Problem 4.** Let  $X$  be a set regarded as a metric space with the discrete metric.

(a) Show that any function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  into a metric space  $Y$  is continuous.

(b) Is it also true that any function  $f : Y \rightarrow X$  from any metric space  $Y$  is also continuous?

*Hint for (b).* Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$  with the discrete metric and let  $Y = \mathbb{R}$  with the euclidean metric, and consider the function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  given by  $f(x) = x$ . Is this continuous?

**Problem 5.** Determine all points  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  where the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by the following formula is continuous.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}, \text{ and} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q}. \end{cases}$$

**Problem 6.** Let  $X, Y$  and  $Z$  be metric spaces and let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : X \rightarrow Z$  be continuous functions. Let  $Y \times Z$  be given the product metric defined on problem 10 in problem set 2. In other words,

$$d_{X \times Y}((y, z), (y', z')) = \max\{d_Y(y, y'), d_Z(z, z')\}.$$

Show that the function  $g : X \rightarrow Y \times Z$  defined by  $g(x) = (f(x), g(x))$  is continuous.

*Proof sketch.* Let

$$U := B_{Y \times Z}((y, z), r) = B_Y(y, r) \times B_Z(z, r).$$

be an open ball in  $Y \times Z$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} g^{-1}(U) &= \{x \in X : (f(x), g(x)) \in U\} \\ &= \{x \in X : f(x) \in B_Y(y, r) \text{ and } g(x) \in B_Z(z, r)\} \\ &= f^{-1}(B_Y(y, r)) \cap f^{-1}(B_Z(z, r)). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f$  and  $g$  are both continuous, this is an intersection of open subsets of  $X$ , so is itself open. This shows that  $g^{-1}(U)$  is open for every open ball  $U$  in  $X \times Y$ . Why does this imply that  $g$  is continuous?  $\square$

**Problem 7.** Let  $I := [0, 1]$  and let  $f : I \rightarrow I$  be a continuous function. Show that there exists some  $a \in I$  such that  $f(a) = a$ .

*Hint.* Consider the function  $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by  $g(x) = f(x) - x$  and use the intermediate value theorem.