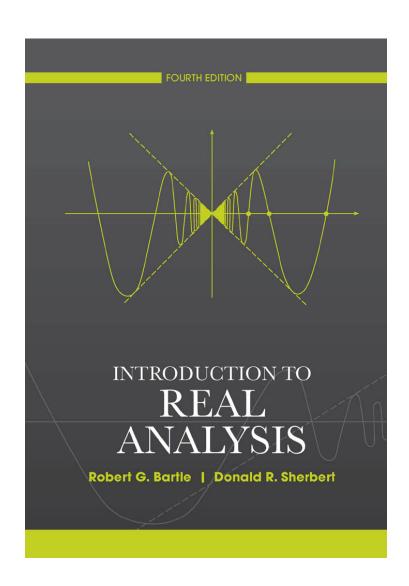
Math265 Real Analysis Class Notes

Based on lectures by Prof. Huang

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1 Preliminaries

Still working on it... (missed 1st month due to late enrollment) $\,$

2 The Real Numbers

Still working on it...

3 Sequences and Series

3.1 Sequences and their limits

Definition (Sequence). A <u>sequence of real numbers</u> is a function from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{R} .

We adopt the notation with a *sequence*:

$$a: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$$

where instead of writing $a(1), a(2), \ldots$, we write it as a_1, a_2, \ldots which we called them <u>terms</u> or <u>elements</u> of the sequence.

Notation.

$$(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 or $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ or (a_n) or $(a_n|n\in\mathbb{N})$

Definition (Converge to x). A sequence $(x_n) \in \mathbb{R}$ <u>converges</u> to $x \in \mathbb{R}$ if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n \geq N_{\varepsilon} \to |x_n - x| < \varepsilon$$

We write

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n) = x.$$

Definition (Convergent & Divergent). A sequence is <u>convergent</u> if it has a <u>limit</u> in \mathbb{R} , and is <u>divergent</u> if it has <u>no limit</u> in \mathbb{R} .

Theorem (Uniqueness of Limit). A sequence in \mathbb{R} can have <u>at most one</u> limit. Or, the limit of a sequence is <u>unique</u> if the limit exists

Proof. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers. Suppose x, x' are limits of (x_n) . We want to prove x = x' by contradiction.

Assume |x-x'|>0. If we consider $\varepsilon:=\frac{1}{3}\,|x-x'|>0$, then The existence of $\lim_{x_n\to x}$ implies that $\exists N_1\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $|x_n-x|<\varepsilon$ if $n\geq\mathbb{N}_1$. Similarly, existence of $\lim_{x_n\to x'}$ implies that $\exists N_2\in\mathbb{N}$ such that $|x_n-x'|<\varepsilon$ if $n\geq\mathbb{N}_2$. Thus,

$$|x - x'| \le |x - x_{N_1 + N_2} + x_{N_1 + N_2} - x'|$$

$$\le |x - x_{N_1 + N_2}| + |x_{N_1 + N_2} - x'| \text{ by triangle inequality}$$

$$< \varepsilon + \varepsilon$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} |x - x'|$$

Then,

$$\frac{1}{3}|x-x'| < 0$$
, which is a contradiction

we thereby prove by contradiction that

$$|x - x'| = 0$$
, which is equivalent to $x = x'$

Example.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = 0$$

Goal: $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, want to find N_{ε} such that $\left| \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$ for n > N, so it suffices to show that

$$\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < n$$

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Apply Archimedean's property to $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$, then

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < N$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall n \ge N, \left| \frac{1}{n} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{n} \le \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon.$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers, and let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. The following are equivalent:

- 1. $x_n \to x$
- 2. $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } |x_n x| < \varepsilon, \text{ for } n \geq \mathbb{N}$
- 3. $\dots x \varepsilon < x_n < x + \varepsilon \dots$
- 4. $\forall \varepsilon$ -neighborhood $V_{\varepsilon}(x), \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_n \in V_{\varepsilon}(x)$ for $n \geq N$

Sketch of proof:

$$(1) \Leftrightarrow (2) \Leftrightarrow (3) \Leftrightarrow (4)$$

Proposition.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(2\sqrt{2n+1} - \sqrt{2n}\right) = 0$$

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Consider

$$N = \lceil \frac{1}{2} (\frac{1}{2\varepsilon})^2 \rceil \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$n > N \Rightarrow n > \frac{1}{2} (\frac{1}{2\varepsilon})^2 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2n}} < \varepsilon \Rightarrow \left| \sqrt{2n+1} - \sqrt{2n} \right| = \dots = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n+1} + \sqrt{2n}} < \varepsilon$$

Remark.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (-1)^n \text{ does not exist.}$$

Definition (m-tail). If (x_n) is a sequence of real numbers and $m \in \mathbb{N}$, then the <u>m-tail</u> of (x_n) is the sequence

$${x_{n+m}: n \in \mathbb{N}} = {x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, \dots}$$

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a sequence and $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Then (x_n) is <u>convergent</u> iff (x_{n+m}) is <u>convergent</u>. Moreover,

$$\lim_{n \to \mathbb{N}} (x_n) = \lim_{n \to \mathbb{N}} (x_{n+m})$$

Proof. (\Rightarrow)

Suppose $x_n \to x$. Let

$$\varepsilon > 0, \exists N_{\varepsilon} > 0, \text{ such that } |x_n - x| < \varepsilon \text{ for } n \geq N_{\varepsilon}$$

Consider $N_{\varepsilon}' := N_{\varepsilon} + m$ then

$$n+m \ge N_{\varepsilon}' \Rightarrow n \ge N_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow n+m \ge N_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow |x_{n+m}-x| < \varepsilon$$

It follows that

$$n \ge N_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow n + m \ge N_{\varepsilon} \Rightarrow |x_{n+m} - x| < \varepsilon$$

 (\Leftarrow)

Suppose $x_{n+m} \to x$.

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_{\varepsilon} > 0 \text{ such that } |x_{n+m} < \varepsilon|, \forall n \geq N_{\varepsilon}$$

Consider $N := N_{\varepsilon} + m$. Then

$$n \ge N = N_{\varepsilon} + m$$

$$\Rightarrow n - m \ge N_{\varepsilon}$$

$$\Rightarrow |x_{(n-m)+m} - x| < \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow |x_n - x| < \varepsilon$$

Remark. We say that a sequence (x_n) **ultimately** has a property if that property holds for some tail of (x_n)

Theorem. Let x_n be a sequence of real numbers. Let a_n be a sequence of positive real numbers such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$. If $\exists c > 0, m \in \mathbb{N}, x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$|x_n - x| \le c \cdot a_n, \forall n \ge m$$

then

$$x_n \to x$$

Proof. We know that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \ge 0 \text{ s.t. } |a_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{c}, \forall n \ge N$$

Consider $N' = max\{N, m\}, \forall n \geq N'$. Then

$$|x_n - x| \le Ca_n = c |a_n| < c \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{c} = \varepsilon$$

 $\Rightarrow x_n \to x$

Proposition.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{17}{2 + 3n} = 0$$

Proof.

$$\left| \frac{17}{2+3n} - 0 \right| = \frac{17}{2+3n} \le \frac{13}{3n} = \frac{17}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

Apply the theorem above with

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}, c = \frac{17}{3}, m = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{17}{2 + 3n} = 0, \text{ since } \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

Proposition.

$$\forall c > 0, \lim_{n \to \infty} c^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$$

Proof. Case 1: c = 1

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} c^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$$

Case 2: c > 1

Let $d_n = c^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1$. Then $\forall n, d_n > 0$. It follows that

$$(d_n + 1) = c^{\frac{1}{n}} \Rightarrow c = (1 + d_n)^n \ge 1 + n \cdot d_n$$
 by Bernoulli's inequality
$$\Rightarrow d_n \le (c - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| c^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1 \right| = d_n \le (c - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

Apply the theorem with

$$C = c - 1, a_n = \frac{1}{n}, m = 1, x = 1$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} c^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$$

Case 3: c < 1(Note that we cannot use Bernoulli inequality here)

Define e_n to be a sequence that satisfies

$$c^{\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{1}{1 + e_n}$$

Then $e_n > 0 \forall n$.

$$c = \frac{1}{(1+e_n)^n} \le \frac{1}{1+n \cdot e_n} < \frac{1}{n \cdot e_n}$$

$$\Rightarrow e_n < \frac{1}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

$$1 - c^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1 - \frac{1}{1+e_n} = \frac{e_n}{1+e_n} < e_n < \frac{1}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

Apply the theorem with

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}, m = 1, C = \frac{1}{c}, x = 1$$

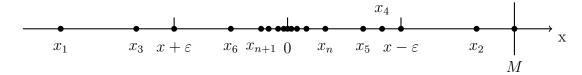
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} c^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$$

3.2 Limit Theorems

Definition (Bounded sequence). A sequence $(x_n) \in \mathbb{R}$ is **bounded** if

$$\exists M > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |x_n| \leq M$$

Theorem. A convergent sequence $(x_n) \in \mathbb{R}$ is bounded.



Proof. By definition of convergent sequence, let $\varepsilon = 1$:

$$\exists N > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N, |x_n - x| < 1$$

Thus we have

$$-1 < x_n - x < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad -1 + x < x_n < x + 1, \, \forall n \ge N$$

Then define

$$M := \max \{ |x_1|, |x_2|, |x_3|, \dots, |-1+x|, |x+1| \}$$

 $|x_n| \le M$

Remark. By contrapositive, an unbounded sequence is divergent.

Definition. Given sequence $(x_n), (y_n) \in \mathbb{R}$, we define following operations of sequence:

- $\underline{Sum}(x_n + y_n)$
- **Difference** $(x_n y_n)$
- **Product** $(x_n \cdot y_n)$
- **Quotient** $(\frac{x_n}{y_n})$ if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, y_n \neq 0$
- **Multiple** $(c \cdot x_n)$

Theorem (Limit Laws). Let $(x_n), (y_n) \in \mathbb{R}$ be sequences of real numbers with $x_n \to x, y_n \to y$, and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- $x_n + y_n \to x + y$
- $x_n y_n \to x y$
- $x_n \cdot y_n \to x \cdot y$
- $c \cdot x_n \to c \cdot x$
- If $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, y_n \neq 0$ and $y \neq 0$, then $\frac{x_n}{y_n} \to \frac{x}{y}$

Proof of Sum. :

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0,$

$$\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N_1, |x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

 $\exists N_2 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N_2, |y_n - y| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Consider

$$N := \max\{N_1, N_2\}$$

Then

$$\forall n \ge N, |(x_n + y_n) - (x + y)|$$

$$= |x_n - x + y_n - y|$$

$$\le |x_n - x| + |y_n - y|$$

$$= \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$= \varepsilon$$

 $Proof\ of\ Difference.$:

Similarly,

$$\forall n \ge N, |(x_n - y_n) - (x - y)|$$

$$\le |x_n - x| + |y_n - y|$$

Proof of Product. : Since (x_n) is convergent, it is also bounded. Thus,

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |x_n| \leq M$$

By definition of convergence, $\forall \varepsilon > 0$:

$$\exists N_1 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge N, |x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2|y|}$$

$$\exists N_2 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge N, |y_n - y| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2M}$$

Then, $\exists N = \max \{N_1, N_2\} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N$,

$$|x_n y_n - xy| = |x_n y_n - x_n y + x_n y - xy|$$

$$= |x_n (y_n - y) - y(x_n - x)|$$

$$\leq |x_n| |y_n - y| + |y| |x_n - x|$$

$$\leq M \cdot |y_n - y| + |y| |x_n - x|$$

$$< M \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{2M} + |y| \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{2|y|} = \varepsilon$$

Proof of Multiply.:

Exercise

Proof of Quotient.

$$\left| \frac{x_n}{y_n} - \frac{x}{y} \right| = \left| \frac{x_n y - y_n x}{y_n y} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{x_n y - -x_n y_n + x_n y_n - y_n x}{y_n y} \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \frac{1}{y_n y} (|x_n| |y_n - y| + |y_n| |x_n - x|) \right|$$

Since $y_n \to y$

$$\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge N, ||y_n| - |y|| \le |y_n - y| < \frac{|y|}{2}$$

Then

$$\Rightarrow \qquad -\frac{|y|}{2} < |y| - |y| < \frac{|y|}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \frac{|y|}{2} < |y_n|$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \frac{1}{|y_n|} < \frac{2}{|y|}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \frac{1}{|y_n y|} < \frac{2}{|y^2|}$$

Define $F := \frac{2}{|y^2|}$.

Since (x_n) and (y_n) are bounded,

 $\exists G \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$|x_n| \le G, |y_n| \le G$$

Thus $\forall n > 0$

$$\exists N_2 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge N_2, |x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2GF}$$

 $\exists N_3 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge N_3, |y_n - y| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2GF}$

Define $N:=\max\{N_1,N_2,N_3\}$, then $\exists N\in\mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n>N$,

$$\left| \frac{x_n}{y_n} - \frac{x}{y} \right| < F(G \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{2GF} + G \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{2GF}) = \varepsilon$$

Theorem. If (x_n) is a convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} of non-negative terms with $(x_n) \to x$, then $x \ge 0$.

Sketch. : Assume x < 0, choose $\varepsilon \le |x|$, then $\forall n > N, x_n < 0$, which is a contradiction.

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Theorem. If $x_n \to x, y_n \to y$ are sequences in \mathbb{R} such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_n \leq y_n$, then $x \leq y$.

Proof. Consider $z_n := y_n - x_n$. Then $z_n \ge 0$ and $z_n \to y - x$ by the limit law.

$$\Rightarrow y - x \ge 0$$

$$y \ge x$$

Theorem. If $x_n \to x$ is a sequence in \mathbb{R} , and let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a \leq x_n \leq b$, then $a \leq x \leq b$.

Proof. Consider constant sequence $a_n = a$ and $b_n = b$. Then this is true by the last theorem.

Theorem (Squeeze Theorem). Suppose $(x_n), (y_n), (z_n)$ are sequences of real numbers such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_n \leq y_n \leq z_n$. If $\lim (x_n) = \lim (z_n)$, then (y_n) is convergent and

$$\lim (x_n) = \lim (y_n) = \lim (z_n)$$

Proof. Let $\forall \varepsilon > 0$.

Write $L = \lim (x_n)$. Then by definition of limit,

 $\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N,$

$$|x_n - L| < \varepsilon, |z_n - L| < \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad -\varepsilon < x_n - L \le y_n - L \le z_n - L < \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad |y_n - L| < \varepsilon$$

Thus (y_n) converges to L by definition of limit.

Proposition. $\ln(n)$ is divergent.

Proof. Since ln(n) is unbounded, it is divergent.

Exercise. $\lim \frac{3n^2+2n+1}{5n^2-4} = \frac{3}{5}$

$$\lim \frac{3n^2 + 2n + 1}{5n^2 - 4} = \lim \frac{3 + 2\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}}{5 - 4\frac{1}{n^2}}$$

Notice that each term of $\frac{1}{n}$ and $\frac{1}{n^2}$ converges to 0. Thus by limit law,

$$\lim \frac{3 + 2\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}}{5 - 4\frac{1}{n^2}} = \frac{\lim \{3 + 2 \cdot 0 + 0\}}{\lim \{5 - 4 \cdot 0\}} = \frac{3}{5}$$

Proposition. $(-1)^n$ is divergent.

Proof:Exercise.

Theorem. If $x_n \to x$, then $|x_n| \to |x|$

Sketch of the proof. :

$$||x_n| - |x|| \le |x_n - x|$$

Theorem. Suppose (x_n) is a sequence of non-negative real numbers, satisfying $x_n \to x$. Then $\sqrt{x_n} \to \sqrt{x}$.

Proof. Let $\forall \varepsilon > 0$

Case1: x = 0

 $\exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N,$

$$|x_n - 0| < \varepsilon^2$$

\Rightarrow \left| \sqrt{x} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon

Case2: x > 0

 $\exists N \text{ s.t. } \forall n > N,$

$$|x_n - x| < \sqrt{x} \cdot \varepsilon$$

Notice that

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

$$\leq \frac{|x_n - x|}{\sqrt{x}} < \varepsilon$$

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a sequence of positive real numbers such that $L = \lim(\frac{x_{n+1}}{n})$ exists. If L < 1, then (x_n) converges to 0.

Proof. $\exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n > N_1$

$$\left| \left| \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} \right| - |L| \right| \le \left| \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} - L \right| < \frac{1 - L}{2}$$

Thus

$$\left| \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} \right| < \frac{1+L}{2}$$

Note that $\frac{1+L}{2} < 1$, write $r = \frac{1+L}{2}$. Then $\forall m \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$x_{N_1+m} < x_{N_1+(m-1)}r < x_{N_1+(m-2)}r^2 < \dots < x_{N_1}r^m$$

Consider $(y_m) = (x_{N_1+m}), (z_m) = (x_{N_1}r^m)$. Then

$$0 \le y_m \le z_m$$

Since $z_m \to 0$

$$(y_m) \to 0$$
 by squeeze theorem

Thus we conclude that $(x_n) \to 0$ by m-th tail theorem.

Prof. Huang

3.3 Monotone sequence

Definition. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real. We say (x_n) is ...

- *increasing* if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_{n+1} \geq x_n$.
- **strickly increasing** if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_{n+1} > x_n$.
- $\underline{decreasing}$ if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_{n+1} \leq x_n$.
- **strickly decreasing** if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_{n+1} < x_n$.

Theorem (Monotone Convergence Theorem). A monotone sequence of real numbers is <u>convergent</u> iff it is bounded. Moreover, if (x_n) is increasing, then

$$\lim(x_n) = \sup \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$$

If (x_n) is decreasing, then

$$\lim(x_n) = \inf \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}\$$

Proof. (\Rightarrow)

A convergent sequence is always bounded.

 (\Leftarrow)

Suppose (x_n) is a monotone and bounded sequence.

Case 1: (x_n) is increasing.

Write $x = \sup \{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since $x = \sup (x_n)$:

 $x-\varepsilon$ is NOT an upper bound of (x_n)

Then

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } x_N > x - \varepsilon$$

Since (x_n) is increasing,

$$\forall n \geq N, x_n > x - \varepsilon$$

On the other hand, $x + \varepsilon$ is an supper bound since x is an upper bound. Thus,

$$x_n < x + \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall n \ge N, x - \varepsilon < x_n < x + \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow |x_n - x| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow (x_n) \to x$$

Case 2: (x_n) is decreasing.

Write
$$y = \inf(x_n)$$
. Let $\varepsilon > 0$

Since $y = \inf(x_n)$,

 $y + \varepsilon$ is NOT and upper bound of (x_n)

Thus

$$\exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } x_n < y + \varepsilon$$

Since (x_n) is decreasing,

$$\forall n > N, x_n < y + \varepsilon$$

On the other hand, $y - \varepsilon$ is a lower bound since y is a lower bound. Hence,

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, y - \varepsilon < x_n$$

$$\forall n \ge N, y - \varepsilon < x_n < y + \varepsilon \Rightarrow |x_n - y| < \varepsilon$$

 $\Rightarrow (x_n) \to y$

Remark. One can prove case 2 by following:

 $(-x_n)$ is increasing and converges to $\sup (-x_n)$ by case 1. Also note that

$$(x_n) = (-(-x_n)) \to -\sup(-x_n)$$

by limit law. So it is easy to prove that

$$-\sup\left(\left(-x_{n}\right)\right)=\inf\left(x_{n}\right)$$

Example. Consider the sequence (x_n) is given by

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = \frac{1}{2} \\ x_{n+1} = \frac{3}{2}x_n(1 - x_n) \end{cases}$$

 (x_n) is decreasing and bounded.

Thoughts: Assume (x_n) converges, then by limit law,

$$x = \frac{3}{2}x(1-x)$$
 where $x = \lim(x_n) \Rightarrow x = 0$ or 3

then, by proof of contradiction, it is not convergent.

Proof. <u>Claim</u>: $\frac{1}{3} < x_{n+1} < x_n \le \frac{1}{2}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

Proof of the claim by induction:

When n = 0:

$$x_0 = \frac{1}{2}, x_1 = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (1 - \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{3}{8}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} < \frac{3}{8} < \frac{1}{2} \le \frac{1}{2}$$

Suppose this is true for n=k:

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_{k+1} < x_k \le \frac{1}{2}$$

Goal:

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_{k+2} < x_{k+1} \le \frac{1}{2}$$

$$x_{k+1} = \frac{3}{2}x_k(1 - x_k)$$

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_k \le \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{2}{3} > 1 - x_k \ge \frac{1}{2}$$

$$x_{k+1} < \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Complete the square:

$$x_{k+1} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{3}{2}x_k(1 - x_k) - \frac{1}{3}$$
$$= -\frac{3}{2}[(x_k - \frac{1}{2})^2 - \frac{1}{36}]$$

So

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_k \le \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \left| x_k - \frac{1}{2} \right| < \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x_k - \frac{1}{2})^2 < \frac{1}{36}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{k+1} - \frac{1}{3} > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{3} < x_{k+1} \le \frac{1}{2}$$

With the similar process, we can derive that

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_{k+2} \le \frac{1}{2}$$

$$x_{k+2} = \frac{3}{2} x_{k+1} (1 - x_{k+1}) < \frac{3}{2} x_{k+1} \cdot \frac{3}{2} = x_{k+1}$$

Therefore, this claim is also true for n=k+1:

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_{k+2} < x_{k+1} \le \frac{1}{2}$$

We thereby prove the theorem by induction:

$$\frac{1}{3} < x_{n+1} < x_n \le \frac{1}{2}$$

Exercise: Textbook p.75: A sequence that converges to \sqrt{a} for a > 0.

Definition (Euler's Number).

$$e = \lim(1 + (\frac{1}{n})^n)$$

Goal: (x_n) is convergent where $x_n = (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$

$$x_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = 1 + nC1 \cdot \frac{1}{n} + nC2 \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} + \dots + nCn\frac{1}{n^n}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{n}{1} \cdot \frac{1}{n} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} + \dots + \frac{n(n-1) \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{n!} \cdot \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \frac{1}{n}) + \frac{1}{6}(1 - n)(1 - \frac{2}{n}) + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}(1 - \frac{1}{n})(1 - \frac{2}{n}) \dots \frac{2}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

Write x_{n+1} in a similar way, we observe that

$$x_n < x_{n+1}$$

<u>Facts</u> $2^{m-1} \le m!$ for $m \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{m!} \le \frac{1}{2^{m-1}}$

$$x_n < 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} = 1 + \frac{1(1 - (\frac{1}{2})^n)}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} < 3$$

 \Rightarrow (x_n) is increasing and bounded

3.4 Subsequence and the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Example.

$$(x_n) = ((-1)^n)$$
$$x_{2n} = (-1)^{2n}$$
$$x_{2n+1} = (-1)^{2n-1}$$

So $a_n = x_{2n}$ is a sequence, while $b_n = x_{2n+1}$ is a subsequence of x_n .

Definition (Subsequences). Let (x_n) be a real sequence and consider a strickly increasing sequence of natural numbers $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$ The sequence

$$(x_{n_k}:k\in\mathbb{N})$$

is called a **subsequence** of (x_n)

Example. Any tails of a sequence is a subsequence: (x_n) n-th tail: (x_{m+k}) , where $n = m + k, k \in \mathbb{N}$, is a subsequence.

Theorem. Suppose (x_n) converges to x. Then $x_{x_k} \to x$ for any subsequence of (x_n) .

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, then

$$\exists N_{\varepsilon} > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x_n - x| < \varepsilon \text{ for } n > N_{\varepsilon}.$$

Note that

$$n_k > k, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Exercise. By induction, $n_1 \ge 1, n_2 \ge n_1 \ge 1 \Rightarrow n_2 \ge 2$

When $k > N_{\varepsilon}$, $n_k > N_{\varepsilon}$, thus

$$|x_{n_k} - x| < \varepsilon$$

Therefore

$$(x_{n_k}) \to x$$

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers, and let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. (x_n) does not converge to x.
- 2. $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$, s.t. $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n_k \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$n_k \ge k \, \& \, |x_{n_k} - x| > \varepsilon_0$$

3. $\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0$ and a subsequence (x_{n_k}) s.t.

$$|x_{n_k} - x| > \varepsilon_0, \, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

Example.

$$x_n = (-1)^n \Rightarrow (x_n)$$
 does not converge to 1

Proof.

 $3 \rightarrow 1$: by the contrapositive statement of definition

 $3 \rightarrow 2$: 3 is a stronger statement of 2

 $1 \rightarrow 2$: left as exercise

Theorem. If (x_n) satisfies either of the following property, then it is **divergent**:

1. There exists two subsequence (x_{n_k}) & (x_{m_k}) whose limits are NOT equal.

2. (x_n) is unbounded.

Example.

- 1. $(-1)^n$
- 2. (n)
- 3. (x_n) such that

$$x_{2k} = k$$
$$x_{2k+1} = (-1)^k$$

Proof. exercise

Theorem (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem). A bounded sequence of real numbers has a <u>convergent subsequence</u>. Example.

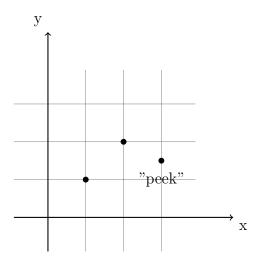
$$x_n = (-1)^n$$

Proof.

Lemma. If (x_n) is a sequence of real numbers, there exists a subsequence of (x_n) which is monotone.

proof of lemma:

Call the m-th term x_m a "peek" if x_m is at least as large as any term after it in the sequence.



Case 1: (x_n) has infinitely many peaks

List the peaks of (x_n) in order of increasing index

$$x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, \ldots$$

 $\Rightarrow (x_{n_i})$ is a decreasing sequence.

Case 2: (x_n) has a finite number of peaks

Let s_1 be the first index after the last peak of (x_n) . Then for every $n \geq s_1$, $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_m > x_n$.

Choose

$$s_2 \ge s_1$$
 such that $x_{s_2} > x_{s_1}$, $s_2 \ge s_1$ such that $x_{s_2} > x_{s_1}$, ... $\Rightarrow (x_{s_i})$ is an increasing sequence.

Remark. Lemma + monotone convergent theorem implies Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem.

Second proof

Suppose (x_n) is a bounded sequence.

$$\Rightarrow \exists I_1 = [a_1, b_1] \text{ such that } (x_n) \in I_1$$

Consider

$$I_2' = [a_1, \frac{a_1 + b_1}{2}], I_2'' = [\frac{a_1 + b_1}{2}, b_1]$$

Let $I_2 = [a_2, b_2]$ be one of I'_2, I''_2 such that I_2 contains infinitely many terms of (x_n) .

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$ in a similar way.

For $i \in \mathbb{N}$, choose a term x_{n_i} such that $x_{n_i} \in I_i$ and $n_i > n_{i-1}$

Then

$$i=1, \qquad n_i=1$$

$$i=2, \qquad \text{choose } n_2 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n_2 > n_1 \& x_{n_2} \in I_2$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

- $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}, a_i \leq x_{n_i} \leq b_i$
- (a_i) increases, bounded above by $b_1 \Rightarrow (a_i) \rightarrow \sup(a_i)$
- (b_i) decreases, bounded below by $a_1 \Rightarrow (b_i) \rightarrow \inf(b_i)$
- $\inf |a_i b_i| = \inf \frac{b_1 a_1}{2^n} = n \Rightarrow \sup (a_i) = \inf (b_i)$

Thus (x_{n_i}) is convergent by squeeze theorem.

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a bounded sequence, and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ has the property that every convergent subsequence of (x_n) converges to x. Then x_n converges to x

Proof. Let $\forall \varepsilon > 0$

By Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, \exists a convergent subsequence (x_{n_i}) such that

$$\exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. for } i > N_{\varepsilon}, |x_{n_i} - x| < \varepsilon$$

Assume (x_n) does not converge to x. Then by previous theorem of subsequence,

$$\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0 \text{ and a subsequence } (x_{n_k}) \text{ s.t. } |x_{n_k} - x| > \varepsilon_0, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

Since (x_n) is bounded, (x_{n_k}) is also bounded. Thus there exists a convergent subsequence of (x_{n_k}) as (x_{n_k}) .

Note that (x_{n_k}) is a convergent subsequence of (x_n) , thus

 $(x_{n_{k_i}}) \to x$ which is contradiction to previous assumption

Definition. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers. A point is called a <u>subsequential limit</u> of (x_n) if it is the limit of a subsequence of (x_n) .

 $S = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{R} : x \text{ is a subsequential limit}\}$ NOTE: may be infinite set

Definition. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers.

• The <u>limit superior</u> of (x_n) is the infimum of the set of $v \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $v < x_n$ for at most a finite number of $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We write it as

$$\limsup (x_n)$$
 or $\limsup x_n$ or $\overline{\lim} x_n$

• The <u>limit inferior</u> of (x_n) is the supremum of the set of $v \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $w > x_m$ for at most a finite number of $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We write it as

$$\liminf (x_n)$$
 or $\liminf x_n$ or $\overline{\lim} x_n$

Intuition

• Suppose $v < x_n$ for at most finitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a bounded sequence, and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ has the property that every convergent subsequence of (x_n) converges to x. Then x_n converges to x

Proof. Let $\forall \varepsilon > 0$

By Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, \exists a convergent subsequence (x_{n_i}) such that

$$\exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. for } i > N_{\varepsilon}, |x_{n_i} - x| < \varepsilon$$

Assume (x_n) does not converge to x. Then by previous theorem of subsequence,

$$\exists \varepsilon_0 > 0 \text{ and a subsequence } (x_{n_k}) \text{ s.t. } |x_{n_k} - x| > \varepsilon_0, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

Since (x_n) is bounded, (x_{n_k}) is also bounded. Thus there exists a convergent subsequence of (x_{n_k}) as (x_{n_k}) .

Note that $(x_{n_{k_i}})$ is a convergent subsequence of (x_n) , thus

 $(x_{n_k}) \to x$ which is contradiction to previous assumption

Definition. Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers. A point is called a <u>subsequential limit</u> of (x_n) if it is the limit of a subsequence of (x_n) .

 $S = \{ \alpha \in \mathbb{R} : x \text{ is a subsequential limit} \}$ (NOTE: may be infinite set)

Example. Consider $(x_n) = \{(-1)^n | n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then

$$S \supset \{1, -1\}$$

Definition (\limsup and \liminf). Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers.

• The <u>limit superior</u> of (x_n) is the infimum of the set of $v \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $v < x_n$ for at most a finite number of $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We write it as

 $\limsup (x_n) = \limsup x_n = \overline{\lim} x_n = \inf \{ v \in \mathbb{R} | v < x_n \text{ for at most a finite number of n} \}$

Example. Consider $(x_n) = \frac{1}{n}$



Let

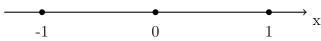
$$X = \{v \in \mathbb{R} | v < x_n \text{ for at most a finite number of n} \}$$

- $-1 \notin X$ because there are infinitely many x_n such that $v < x_n$.
- $-\frac{1}{2} \in X$ because there are finitely many x_n such that $v < x_n$.
- $-2 \in X$ because there is no x_n such that $v < x_n$, which is smaller than finite and thereby satisfies the definition.

We thus conclude that

$$(0,\infty)\subset X$$
 and $\limsup x_n=\inf X$

Example. Consider $(x_n) = (-1)^n$:



- $-1 \in X$ because there is no x_n such that $v < x_n$.
- $-2 \in X$ because there is no x_n such that $v < x_n$.
- $-0, -1 \notin X$ because there are infinitely many x_n such that $v < x_n$.

We thus conclude that

$$[1,\infty)\subset X$$
 (in fact they are equal)

• The <u>limit inferior</u> of (x_n) is the supremum of the set of $w \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $w > x_m$ for at most a finite number of $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We write it as

 $\liminf (x_n)$ or $\liminf x_n$ or $\overline{\lim} x_n = \sup \{w \in \mathbb{R} | w > x_n \text{ for at most a finite number of n} \}$

Intuition

- Suppose $v < x_n$ for at most finitely many $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then for all large $n, v \ge x_n$. \Rightarrow No subsequential limit of (x_n) can possibly exceed v.
- Similar observation for $\lim x_n$

Theorem. Let (x_n) be a bounded sequence of real numbers, and let $x^* \in \mathbb{R}$. Then TFAE:

- 1. $x^* = \limsup (x_n)$
- 2. If $\varepsilon > 0$, there are at most a finite number of $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $x^* + \varepsilon < x_n$, but infinitely many n for which $x^* \varepsilon < x_n$
- 3. If $u_m = \sup \{x_n | n \ge m\}$ (sup of (m-1)-th tail), then $x* = \inf \{u_m | m \in \mathbb{N}\} = \lim u_m$
- 4. If S is the set of subsequential limits of x_n , then $x^* = \sup S$.

Remark. .

- u_m is decreasing.
- There is a similar such list of equivalent properties for liminf.

Corollary. A bounded sequence (x_n) is convergent iff $\overline{\lim} x_n = \lim x_n$

Proof. A direct result of the theorem:

$$\overline{\lim} x_n = \sup S$$
 and $\underline{\lim} x_n = \inf S$

Proof of thm. (a) \Rightarrow (b). Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then

 $x^* + \varepsilon > x^* = X = \inf \{ v \in \mathbb{R} | v < x_n \text{ for at most a finite number of n.} \}$

$$\Rightarrow \exists v \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } x^* \leq v < x^* + \varepsilon$$

and there are only finitely mant n with $v < x_n$.

For any n for which $x^* + \varepsilon < x_n$, $v < x_n$. Thus there are only finitely many such n.

If
$$x^* - \varepsilon \notin X$$
, then there are infinitely many n such that $x^* - \varepsilon < x_n$

Proof of thm. (b) \Rightarrow (c). Fix $\varepsilon > 0$.

By (b), there are only finitely many n with $x^* + \varepsilon < x$.

Take $N \in \mathbb{N}$ large enough such that

$$x^* + \varepsilon \ge x_n \qquad \forall n \ge N$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* + \varepsilon \ge u_N$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* + \varepsilon \ge \lim u_n$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* \ge \lim u_m \qquad \forall n \ge N$$

On the other hand, there are infinitely many n with $x^* - \varepsilon < x_n \le u_n$.

Thus, there exists a subsequence of u_n , say u_{n_k} , satisfies

$$x^* - \varepsilon \le u_{n_k}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* - \varepsilon \le \lim u_{n_k} = \lim (u_n)$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* \le \lim (u_n)$$

Proof of thm. $(c) \Rightarrow (d)$. **Goal**:

$$x* = \lim (u_m), u_m = \sup x_n | n \ge m$$

 $\Rightarrow x^* = \sup S$ where S is the set of subsequential limits.

Let (x_{n_k}) be a convergent subsequence of (x_n) . Notice that $\lim (x_{n_k}) \in S$.

$$n \ge k$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x_{n_k} \le \sup \{x_n | n \ge k\} = u_k$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \lim (x_{n_k}) \le \lim (u_k) = x^*$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* \text{ is an upper bound of S..}$$

For $1, \exists n_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t.}$

$$u_1 - 1 \le x_{n_1} \le u_1$$

For $\frac{1}{2}$, $\exists n_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$u_2 - \frac{1}{2} \le x_{n_2} \le u_2$$

. . .

For $\frac{1}{k}$, $\exists n_k \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$u_k - \frac{1}{k} \le x_{n_k} \le u_k$$

When $k \to \infty$,

$$x^* - 0 \le \lim \left(x_{n_k} \right) \le x^*$$

By squeeze theorem,

$$\lim (x_{n_k}) = x^*$$

Proof of thm. $(d) \Rightarrow (a)$. **Goal:**

$$x^* = \sup S$$

 $\Rightarrow x^* = \limsup x_n = \inf \{ v \in \mathbb{R} | v < x_n \text{ for at most finite many of n} \}$

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$

There is no subsequence of x_n which has a limit exceeding $x^* + \varepsilon$.

 \Rightarrow There is only finitely many n with $x_n > x^* + \varepsilon$.

$$\Rightarrow x^* + \varepsilon \in X$$

$$\Rightarrow \inf X \le x^* + \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim \sup x_n \le x^* + \varepsilon$$

 \Rightarrow

 $\limsup x_n \le x^*$

Next, consider $x^* - \varepsilon$

Then, there exists a subsequential limit of x_n which is greater or equal to $x^* - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$.

There exists a convergent subsequence of (x_n) , say (x_{n_k}) , such that

$$\lim (x_{n_k}) \ge x^* - \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \text{There are infinitely many n with } x^* > x^* - \varepsilon.$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \forall a \in X, x^* - \varepsilon \le a$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad x^* - \varepsilon \le \inf X$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \lim\sup x_n \ge x^* - \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \lim\sup x_n \ge x^*$$

In conclusion,

 $\lim \sup x_n = x^*$

3.5 Cauchy Criterion

Definition (Cauchy Sequence). A sequence (x_n) is <u>Cauchy sequence</u> if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists H \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n > 0, m > 0,$

$$|x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$$

Example. $(\frac{1}{n})$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof. Observe that $\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq m$,

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m} \right| = \left| \frac{m-n}{mn} \right| = \frac{n-m}{mn} \le \frac{n}{mn} < \frac{1}{m}$$

Choose $H = \lceil \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rceil + 1$, Then

 $\forall n, m \geq H$,

$$\left|\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{m}\right| \le \frac{1}{m} < \varepsilon$$

Example. $(-1)^n$ is not a Cauchy sequence.

Proof. Choose $\varepsilon_0 = \frac{1}{2}, \forall H \in \mathbb{N}$, choose $n, m \geq H$ s.t. n is even, m is odd. Then

$$|(-1)^n - (-1)^m| = |1 - (-1)| = 2 > \frac{1}{2}$$

Thus $(-1)^n$ does not satisfies the definition of Cauchy sequence.

Theorem. If (x_n) is convergent, then it is Cauchy sequence.

Proof. Let $\lim (x_n) = x$.

Goal:

$$|x_n - x| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow |x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$$

 $\forall n, m \geq N_{\varepsilon},$

$$|x_n - x_m| = |(x_n - x) + (x - x_m)|$$

 $\leq |x_n - x| + |x - x_m|$ by triangle inequality
 $< \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon = \varepsilon$

Lemma. If (x_n) is Cauchy, the it is bounded.

Proof. Choose $\varepsilon = 1, \exists H \ge 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n, m \ge H,$

$$|x_n - x_m| < 1$$

Since the choice of m satisfies $m \geq H$, we may choose m = H s.t.

$$|x_n - x_H| < 1$$

It follows that

$$|x_n| - |x_H| \le |x_n - x_H| < 1$$

 $|x_n| < |x_H| + 1, \forall n > H$

Let

$$M := \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, |x_3|, \dots, |x_{H-1}|, |x_H| + 1\}$$

Thus $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |x_n| \leq M$

Theorem (Cauchy Convergence Theorem). A sequence of real numbers is <u>convergent</u> if and only if it is <u>Cauchy</u> sequence.

- (\Rightarrow) . Done in the previous theorem.
- (\Leftarrow) . Suppose (x_n) is Cauchy. By lemma, it is bounded.

By Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, there exists a convergent subsequence (x_{n_k}) .

Let $\lim(x_{n_k}) = x$.

Goal: $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N$

$$|x_n - x| < \varepsilon$$

We will use the trick of *insert subsequence*:

By definition of convergence, $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall k \geq N_{\varepsilon}$

$$|x_{n_k} - x| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$$

By definition of Cauchy sequence, $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists H \in \mathbb{N}, H \geq 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n, m \geq H$

$$|x_n - x_m| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$$

Thus $\forall k \geq \max\{H, N_{\varepsilon}\},\$

$$|x_k - x| = |(x_k - x_{n_k}) + (x_{n_k} - x)|$$

$$\leq |x_k - x_{n_K}| + |x_{n_k} - x| \text{ since } n_k \geq k \geq \max\{H, N_{\varepsilon}\}$$

$$< \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon = \varepsilon$$

Example. Let (h_n) be the sequence of harmonic series such that

$$h_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$$
, and $\lim(h_n) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n}$

Claim: (h_n) is divergent

Goal: show that it is NOT Cauchy.

Proof. $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, WLOG suppose $m \geq n, h_m > h_n$, we have

$$|h_m - h_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{m-1} + \frac{1}{m}$$

 $\geq \frac{m-n}{n}$

since there are (m-n)'s terms on the right side of the equation.

So we choose $\varepsilon_0 = \frac{1}{2}, \forall H \geq 0$, choose n = H, m = 2H, then

$$|h_m - h_n| \ge \frac{m - n}{m} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Thus, (h_n) is NOT Cauchy.

3.6 Property of Divergent Sequence

Example (divergent sequence).:

- $(n) \to \infty$
- $(-n) \to -\infty$
- $(-1)^n \cdot n$ is divergent and unbounded.
- $(-1)^n$ is divergent and bounded.

Definition (**Properly Divergent**). Let (x_n) be a sequence of real numbers. We say that

1. (x_n) <u>tends to</u> ∞ , or $\lim(x_n) = \infty$ if $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N$,

$$x_n > a$$

2. Similarly, (x_n) <u>tends to</u> $-\infty$, or $\lim(x_n) = -\infty$ if $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N$,

$$x_n < a$$

In either case, we say that (x_n) is **properly divergent**.

Example. Let C > 0. (C^n) is properly divergent. We write $\lim_{n \to \infty} (C^n) = \infty$.

Proof. Notice that

$$C^n = [1 + (C-1)]^n \ge 1 + n(C-1)$$
 by Bernoulli's inequality

Goal: $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq N,$

$$1 + n(C - 1) > a_n \Leftrightarrow n > \frac{a_n - 1}{C - 1}$$

Then we choose $N = \left\lceil \frac{a-1}{c-1} \right\rceil + 1$. Thus $\forall n \geq N, C^n > a$.

Theorem. A monotone sequence is *divergent* if and only if it is *bounded*.

Proof. Exercise.

Theorem (Comparison Test). Let (x_n) and (y_n) be two sequences. Suppose $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x_n \geq y_n$. Then,

- 1. If $(x_n) \to \infty$, then $(y_n) \to \infty$.
- 2. If $(y_n) \to -\infty$, then $(x_n) \to -\infty$.

Proof. Exercise.

Theorem (Limit Comparison Test). Let (x_n) and (y_n) be two sequences of positive real numbers. Suppose $\exists L \in \mathbb{R}, L > 0$ s.t.

$$\exists \lim (\frac{x_n}{y_n}) = L$$

then $\lim(x_n) = \infty$ if and only if $\lim(y_n) = \infty$

Proof. Claim: For N large enough,

$$\frac{1}{2}L \cdot y_n < x_n < 2L \cdot y_n$$

Goal: Claim+Comparison Theorem=Proof.

By definition of limit, $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n > N,$

$$L - \varepsilon < \frac{x_n}{y_n} < L + \varepsilon$$

Choose $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}L$, we have

$$\frac{1}{2}L \cdot y_n < x_n < \frac{3}{2}L < 2L \cdot y_n$$

since L > 0 and these are positive sequences.

Thus by Comparison Theorem,

$$\lim(\frac{1}{2}L\cdot y_n) = \infty \Rightarrow \lim(x_n) = \infty$$

3.7 Introduction to Infinite Series

Definition (Infinite Series). If (x_n) is a sequence of real numbers, then the <u>infinite series</u> generated by (x_n) is the sequence (s_k) defined by

$$s_k = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i$$

Terms s_k are called **partial sums**.

Notation. $\sum x_i$ to mean this series or its limit at infinity $\lim(x_k)$.

Theorem (Cauchy Criterion for Series). The series $\sum x_i$ converges if and only if $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists M \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n > m \ge M,$

$$|x_{m+1} + x_{m+2} + \dots + x_{n-1} + x_n| < \varepsilon$$

Or we write it as

$$|s_k - s_m| < \varepsilon$$

Proof: Exercise.

Theorem (Montone Convergence for Series). Let (x_n) be a sequence of non-negative real numbers. Then the series $\sum x_n$ <u>converges</u> if and only if (s_k) is bounded.

Proof. Exercise.

Example. $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$ is convergent.

Proof. Goal: find convergent subsequence (s_{k_i}) .

Consider subsequence (s_{k_j}) where $k_j = 2^j - 1$.

Observe that:

$$\begin{aligned} s_{k_1} &= 1 \\ s_{k_2} &= 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} \\ &< s_{k_1} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \\ s_{k_3} &= 1 + (\frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2}) + (\frac{1}{4^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{9^2}) \\ &< s_{k_1} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

By induction(details are left as exercise), one can show that

$$s_{k_j} < \sum_{n=0}^{j-1} \frac{1}{2^n} < \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 2$$
 (by limit of geometric series.)

Thus (s_{k_i}) is bounded.

By theorem proved in homework, an increasing sequence with bounded (and thus convergent) subsequence implies that the sequence is convergent.

4 Limits

4.1 Limits of Functions

Let $f: A \to B$ be a function where $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Let $a \in A, L \in B$.

Goal: Define

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = ?$$

Intuition: Define closeness on real line.

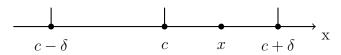
Definition (Cluster Point). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A point $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is a <u>cluster point</u> of A if

 $\forall \delta > 0, \exists x \in A, x \neq c \text{ such that}$

$$|x - c| < \delta$$

Or

$$V_{\delta}(c) \cap (A \{c\}) \neq \phi$$



Theorem. $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is a cluster point if and only if

there exists a sequence $(a_n) \in A$ such that

$$\lim(a_n) = c$$
 and $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n \neq c$

Sketch of Proof. (\Rightarrow)

$$\delta = 1, \exists a_1 \in A \setminus \{c\} \text{ s.t. } |a_1 - c| < 1$$

$$\delta = \frac{1}{2}, \exists a_2 \in A \setminus \{c\} \text{ s.t. } |a_2 - c| < \frac{1}{2}$$
... observe that:
$$\forall \delta > 0, \exists a_n \in A \setminus \{c\} \text{ s.t. } |a_n - c| < \frac{1}{n} < \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim(a_n) = c \text{ by squeeze theorem.}$$

 (\Leftarrow)

 $\forall \delta > 0, \exists N_{\varepsilon} > 0 \text{ s.t.}$

$$|a_{N_{\varepsilon}}-c|<\delta$$

Note that $a_{N_{\varepsilon}} \in A \setminus \{c\}$ where c is a cluster point of A.

Example. Let X be the set of cluster points of A.

- $A = (1, 2) \cup (3, 4) \Rightarrow X = [1, 2] \cup [3, 4]$. Proof: Exercise.
- $A = \{0\} \cup (1, 2) \Rightarrow X = \phi$. Sketch of (2).:
 - 1. Let $x \in [1, 2]$. Prove that $x \in X$. Thus $[1, 2] \in X$.
 - 2. Prove that $0 \notin X$.
 - 3. Prove that $x \in X$ if $x \notin \{0\} \cup [1, 2]$.

Remark. A may not be a subset of the set of cluster points of A. **Example.** :

- $A = \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow X = \phi$.
- $A = \{\frac{1}{n} | n \in \mathbb{N}\} \Rightarrow X = \{0\}$ Proof: Exercise.

Definition (**Delta-Epsilon Definition of Limit**). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, c is a cluste point of A, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$. A real number L is the *limit of f at c* if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in A,$$

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$$

Theorem (Uniqueness of Limit). If $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ and c is a cluster of points of A, then f has at most 1 limit at c.

Proof. We will prove this by contradiction.

Let L_1 and L_2 be limits of f at c. Assume $L_1 \neq L_2$. Choose $\varepsilon = \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{2} > 0$. Then,

$$\exists \delta_1 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - c| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L_1| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

$$\exists \delta_2 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x - c| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L_2| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Consider $\delta := \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}.$

Since c is a cluster point, $\exists x_0 \in A \text{ s.t.}$

$$0 < |x_0 - c| < \delta$$

Since

$$|f(x_0) - L_1| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}, |f(x_0) - L_2| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

We have

$$|L_1 - L_2| \le |L_1 - f(x_0)| + |f(x_0) - L_2|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

$$= \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{2}$$

which is a contradiction.

Notation.

$$L = \lim_{x \to c} f(x)$$
 or $L = \lim_{x \to c} f$

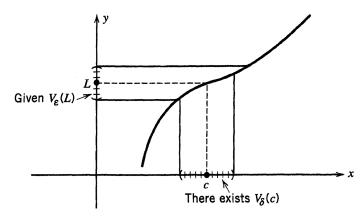
And we say that f(x) approaches to L as x approaches to c.

Remark (Divergence of function). If the limit of f(x) at c does not exists, we say that f <u>diverges</u> at c.

Theorem. Let $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ and c be a cluster point of f. The following are equivalent:

- 1. $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = L$
- 2. $\forall V_{\varepsilon}(L) \varepsilon$ -neighborhood of L, $\exists V_{\delta}(c) \delta$ -neighborhood of c s.t.

$$x \in V_{\delta}(c) \cap (A \setminus \{c\}) \Rightarrow f(x) \in V_{\varepsilon}(c)$$



Example. $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = a$.

Proof. $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta = 1 \text{ s.t.}$

$$x \in V_{\delta}(c) \cap (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{c\}) \Rightarrow f(x) = a \in V_{\varepsilon}(L)$$

Example. $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = c$.

Proof. $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \varepsilon \text{ s.t.}$

$$x \in V_{\delta}(c) \cap (A \setminus \{c\})$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = x \in V_{\delta}(c) \cap (A \setminus \{c\})$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) \in V_{\varepsilon}(c) \cap (A \setminus \{c\}) \subseteq V_{\varepsilon}(c)$$

Example.

$$\lim_{x \to c} x^2 = c^2$$

Proof. **Goal**: $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, find a $\delta(c, \varepsilon) > 0$ s.t.

if
$$0 < |x - c| < \delta$$
, then $|x^2 - c^2| < \varepsilon$

which is equivalent to show

$$|x+c|\,|x-c|<\varepsilon$$

Since the choice of δ is dependent on ε and c only, |x-c| can be easily confined with some constant. Let's assume that

$$|x-c|<1$$

Now, the only task left is to find a way to confine |x + c| with a constant by manipulating |x - c| < 1.

Here we will apply a common trick that estimates addition |x+c| with subtraction |x-c|:

$$|x| - |c| \le |x - c| < 1$$
 by triangle inequality.

Rearranging the inequality, we have:

$$|x| < |c| + 1$$

Adding the second |c| to both side of inequality, then, we apply triangle inequality again:

$$|x+c| \le |x| + |c| < 2|c| + 1$$

 $|x+c| < 2|c| + 1$

Notice that this is equivalent to show

$$|x+c| |x-c| < (2|c|+\delta) |x-c| < \varepsilon$$

Rearrange the constant factor

$$|x-c| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2|c|+1}$$

Thus, our choice of δ must satisfies two conditions at the same time:

$$\begin{cases} |x - c| < 1\\ |x - c| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2|c| + 1} \end{cases}$$

We achieve this by simply choosing

$$\delta = \min\left\{\frac{\varepsilon}{2\left|c\right| + 1}, 1\right\}$$

Remark (<u>The Toolbox of Proofs</u>). The readers should develop their "toolbox" of proof techniques. That is, the <u>estimation against a constant</u> + manipulation of **triangle inequality** + choice of δ that satisfies **multiple conditions**.

Example (Harder).

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{c}$$

Proof. Observe that

$$\left|\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{c}\right| = \frac{|x - c|}{|cx|}$$

Here, we cannot choose |x-c| smaller than some constant (why? try it on your own). Instead, we choose

$$|x - c| < \frac{|c|}{2}$$

By triangle inequality,

$$\frac{|c|}{2} < |x| < \frac{3|c|}{2}$$

Multiply |c| to each term of the inequality,

$$\frac{c^2}{2} < |cx| < \frac{3c^2}{2}$$

Thus

$$\frac{1}{|cx|} < \frac{2}{c^2}$$

It follows that

$$\frac{|x-c|}{|cx|} < \frac{2}{c^2} \left| x - c \right|$$

In order to make the left term of the inequality less than ε , it suffices to confine

$$\frac{2}{c^2} |x - c| < \varepsilon$$

$$|x - c| < \frac{c^2}{2}\varepsilon$$

Thus, our choice of δ must satisfies two conditions at the same time:

$$\begin{cases} |x - c| < \frac{|c|}{2} \\ |x - c| < \frac{c^2}{2} \varepsilon \end{cases}$$

We achieve this by simply choosing

$$\delta = \min\left\{\frac{|c|}{2}, \frac{c^2}{2}\varepsilon\right\}$$

Remark (<u>Factoring</u> |x-c|). Since we have the premice of $|x-c| < \delta$ for free, it would be much easier for us to confine |f(x)-L| if we factor |x-c| from the difference.

Example (Much Harder).

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \lim_{x \to c} x^n = c^n$$

Proof. By difference of n-th powers factorization

$$|x^n - c^n| = |x - c| \left| \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x^i c^{n-1-i} \right| \le |x - c| \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |x|^i |c|^{n-1-i}$$

If

$$|x-c| < 1$$

then by triangle inequality,

$$|x| < |c| + 1$$

It follows that

$$|x^{n} - c^{n}| < |x - c| \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (|c| + 1)^{i} |c^{n-1-i}|$$

Similar to the previous example, it suffices to confine

$$|x-c| \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (|c|+1)^i |c^{n-1-i}| < \varepsilon$$

$$|x - c| < \frac{\varepsilon}{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (|c| + 1)^i |c^{n-1-i}|}$$

Thus, choose

$$\delta = \min\{1, \frac{\varepsilon}{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (|c|+1)^i \, |c^{n-1-i}|}\}$$

Remark ($Estimate \ x \ against \ c$). This is another trick by triangle inequality:

If
$$\exists k \in \mathbb{R}, k > 0$$
 s.t. $|x - c| < k$, then $|x| < |c| + k$

Remark (difference of n-th powers factorization).

$$(x^{n} - c^{n}) = (x - c)(x^{n-1} + cx^{n-2} + \dots + c^{n-2}x + c^{n-1}) = (x - c)\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x^{i}c^{n-1-i}$$

Example (Some Tedious Factorization).

$$\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x^3 + 2x - 1}{6x^2 - 5} = \frac{11}{19}$$

Proof.

$$\left| \frac{x^3 + 2x - 1}{6x^2 - 5} - \frac{11}{19} \right| = \left| \frac{19x^3 - 66x^2 + 38x + 36}{19(6x^2 - 5)} \right|$$

By some tedious factorization,

... =
$$|x - 2| \frac{|19x^3 - 28x - 18|}{19|6x^2 - 5|}$$

We estimate |x-2| with constant 1

$$|x - 2| < 1$$

$$1 < x < 3 \text{ or } |x| < 3$$

It follows that

$$1 < x^2 < 9$$

$$1 < 6x^2 - 5 < 49$$

$$1 > \frac{1}{6x^2 - 5} > \frac{1}{49}$$

So

$$\frac{1}{19|6x^2 - 5|} < \frac{1}{19}$$

Similarly,

$$\left|19x^3 - 66x^2 + 38x + 36\right| \le 19\left|x\right|^2 + 28\left|x\right| + 18 < 19 \cdot 3^2 + 28 \cdot 3 + 18 = 273$$

Thus

$$\dots \le |x - 2| \cdot \frac{273}{19} < \varepsilon$$
$$|x - 2| < \frac{19}{273}\varepsilon$$

We conclude that it suffices to choose

$$\delta = \min\left\{1, \frac{19}{273}\varepsilon\right\}$$

Theorem (<u>Sequential Criterion of Limits</u>). Let $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ and let c be a cluster point of A. $\lim_{x\to c} f = L$ if and only if for all sequence $(x_n) \in A$ that converge to c and $(x_n) \neq c, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, (f(x_n))$ converges to L.

Proof. (\Rightarrow). By definition of convergent sequence, $\forall \delta > 0, \exists K \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq K$,

$$|x_n - c| < \delta$$

By definition of limit, $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in A,$

$$|x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$$

Thus, choose δ given ε , and choose K given δ , we have:

$$|x_n - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x_n) - L| < \varepsilon$$

 (\Leftarrow) . We will prove this by contrapositive.

Assume that there exists $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ and a $(x_n) \in A$ converges to c with $(x_n) \neq c$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$0 < |x_n - c| < \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow |f(x_n) - L| \ge \varepsilon_0$$

Thus the function does not have a limit at c. We thereby conclude the converse of the statement.

Theorem (<u>Sequential Criterion of Divergence</u>). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$, c be a cluster point of A, $(x_n) \to c$ s.t. $(x_n) \neq c$, and $L \in \mathbb{R}^1$.

- 1. L is NOT the limit of f at $c \iff f(x_n)$ does NOT converge to L.
- 2. f diverges $\iff f(x_n)$ does NOT converge.

Proof. Exercise.

Example.

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} \text{ does NOT exists in } \mathbb{R}$$

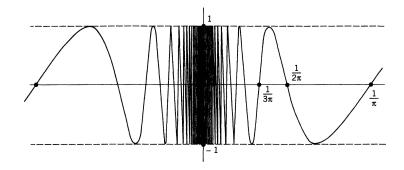
Proof. Let $(x_n) = \frac{1}{n} \to 0$. Then

$$f(x_n) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n}} = n \to \infty$$

¹The following theorems are NOT equivalent!!

Example.

$$\lim_{x\to 0} \sin(\frac{1}{x}) \text{ DNE in } \mathbb{R}$$



Proof. Let
$$(x_n) = \frac{1}{2n\pi} \to 0$$
 and $(y_n) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\pi + 2n\pi} \to 0$. Then

$$f(x_n) = \sin(2n\pi) = 0$$

$$f(y_n) = \sin(\frac{1}{2}\pi + 2n\pi) = 1$$

Thus limit of f at 0 does NOT exists in \mathbb{R} .

Example.

Definition (*Signum Function*). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $sgn(x) : A \to \mathbb{R}$ s.t.

$$sgn(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{x\to 0} sgn(x) \text{ DNE in } \mathbb{R}$$

Proof. Let
$$(x_n) = \frac{1}{n} \to 0$$
 and $(y_n) = \frac{1}{-n} \to 0$. Then

$$f(x_n) = sgn(n) = 1$$

$$f(y_n) = sgn(-n) = -1$$

Thus limit of f at 0 does NOT exists in \mathbb{R} .

4.2 Limit Theorem

Definition (<u>Bounded Neighborhood of c</u>). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}, f : A \to \mathbb{R}$, c be a cluster point of A. Then we say f is a <u>bounded Neighborhood of c</u> if there exists $\delta > 0$ and $\exists M > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \in A \cap V_{\delta}(c)$

$$|f(x)| \le M$$

Theorem (<u>Existence of Bounded Neighborhood at Limit</u>). If f has a limit at c, then f is bounded on some neighborhood of c.

Proof. By definition of limit, $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in A \setminus \{c\}$

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

By triangle inequality,

$$|f(x)| - |L| \le |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$
$$|f(x)| < |L| + \epsilon$$

If f(c) is not defined on A, then let $M = |L| + \epsilon$. If f(c) is defined on A, then let $M = \max\{f(c), |L| + \epsilon\}$. Since the choice of ϵ is arbitrary, we will choose $\epsilon = 1$. Thus,

$$f(x) \le M$$

Definition. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$; $f, g: A \to \mathbb{R}$, c be a cluster point of A. Then $\forall x \in A$

- **Sum** of function: (f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x).
- <u>Difference:</u> (f g)(x) = f(x) g(x).
- Multiple: $(bf)(x) = b \cdot f(x)$ for some $b \in \mathbb{R}$.
- **Product:** $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$.
- Quotient: $(\frac{f}{g})(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ if $g(x) \neq 0$.

Theorem (*Limit Theorem*). If $\exists L, M \in R \text{ s.t. } \lim_{x \to c} f(x) = L \text{ and } \lim_{x \to c} g(x) = M$, then

- $\lim_{x\to c} (f+q)(x) = L+M$.
- $\lim_{x\to c} (f-g)(x) = L M$.
- $\lim_{x\to c} (bf)(x) = b \cdot L$.
- $\lim_{x\to c} (f \cdot g)(x) = L \cdot M$.
- $\lim_{x\to c} \left(\frac{f}{g}\right)(x) = \frac{L}{M}$ if $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) \neq 0$.

Proof. Exercise.

Remark. Always check conditions befor applying: this is true only if both f and g has a limit at c!

Example.
$$\lim_{x\to 4} \frac{(x-4)(x+3)}{4(x-4)(x-5)} = \lim_{x\to 4} \frac{x+3}{4(x-5)} = -\frac{7}{4}$$

Corollary (*Polynomial Function*).

$$\lim_{x \to c} p(x) = \lim_{x \to c} \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \cdot x^i = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \cdot \lim_{x \to c} x^i = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \cdot x^i = p(c)$$

Corollary (<u>Rational Function</u>). For polynomial functions p(x), q(x) s.t. $\lim_{x\to c} p(x) \to p(c), \lim_{x\to c} q(x) \to q(c) \neq 0$,

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \frac{p(c)}{q(c)}$$

Theorem. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$; $f, g : A \to \mathbb{R}$, c be a cluster point of A.

If $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in A, x \neq c$ satisfying

$$a \le f(x) \le b$$
 and $\lim_{x \to c} f = L$

then

$$a \le \lim_{x \to c} f \le b$$

Proof. $\forall (x_n) \in A \setminus \{c\}, (x_n) \to c,$

$$a \le f(x_n) \le b \Rightarrow a \le L \le b$$

Theorem (*Squeeze Theorem*). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$; $f, g, h : A \to \mathbb{R}$, c be a cluster point of A.

If $\forall x \in A, x \neq c$,

$$f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$$
 and $\lim_{x \to c} f = L = \lim_{x \to c} h$

then

$$\lim_{x \to c} g = L$$

Proof. Exercise. Try sequeeze theorem of sequence.

Example. $\lim_{x\to 0} x \sin(\frac{1}{x}) = 0$

Proof. Notice that

$$-1 \le \sin(\frac{1}{x}) \le 1 \Rightarrow -x \le x \sin(\frac{1}{x}) \le x$$

Since

$$\lim_{x \to 0} (-x) = 0 = \lim_{x \to 0} (x)$$
$$\lim_{x \to 0} x \sin(\frac{1}{x}) = 0$$

Example. Let $b \in \mathbb{R}, b > 0$. Then $\lim_{x \to 0} x^b = 0$. Notice that when $x \in [0, 1]$

$$x^{\lceil b \rceil} \le x^b < x^{\lfloor b \rfloor}$$

The rest is left as exercise.

Theorem. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$; $f, g, h : A \to \mathbb{R}$, c be a cluster point of A. If $\lim_{x \to c} f > 0$, then $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $V_{\delta}(c)$ s.t. $\forall x \in A \cap V_{\delta}(c) \setminus \{c\}$,

$$f(x) > 0$$

Proof. Excercise.

5 Continuous Functions

5.1 Continuity

Definition (*Counituous*). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \ f : A \to \mathbb{R}, \ c \in A$.

We say f is **countinuous** at c if

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in A$

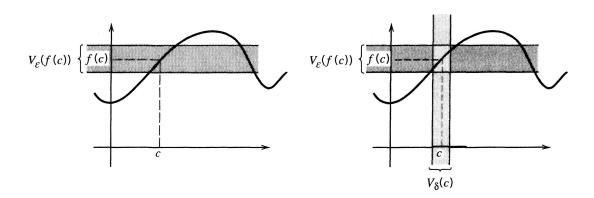
$$|x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon$$

We say f is <u>discontinuous at c</u> if f is NOT continuous at c.

Definition (*Using Neighborhood*). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \ f: A \to \mathbb{R}, \ c \in A$. Then f is continuous at c if and only if

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ and its ε -neighborhood at f(c), $V_{f(c)}(\varepsilon)$, $\exists \delta > 0$ and its δ -neighborhood at c, $V_c(\varepsilon)$, s.t.

$$f(V_{\delta}(c) \cap A) \subseteq V_{\varepsilon}(f(c))$$



Remark (*Comparison with Limit Definition*). Continuity has 3 good properties that will be useful in the future study of Real Analysis:

- If c is a <u>cluster point</u> of A, then f is <u>continuous</u> if and only if
 - 1. f(x) is defined at c.

Counter-example: Any function $f : \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{R}$ is undefined at $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ and thus discontinuous at $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.

2. $\lim_{x \to c} f(x)$ exists.

Counter-example: $\frac{1}{x}$ is undefined at 0 and thus discontinuous at 0.

3. $f(c) = \lim_{x \to c} f(x)$.

Counter-example:
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$
 is discontinuous at 0 as $f(c) = 0 \neq 1 = \lim_{x \to c} f(x)$

• If c is **NOT** a cluster point of A, then c is an **isolated** point, and

 $\exists V_{\delta}(c) \cap A = \{c\}$. Notice that an *isolated point* is *automatically continuous* as it *satisfies* the definition of continuity at c. This is because

$$|x - c| = |c - c| = 0 < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| = |f(c) - f(c)| = 0 < \varepsilon$$

Theorem (Sequential Criterion for Continuity).

Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$, $c \in A$. Then f is continuous at c if and only if $\forall (x_n) \subseteq A$ s.t. $(x_n) \to c$, $f((x_n)) \to f(c)$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow). Continuity of f at c implies limit of f at c exists². Thus we simply apply sequential criterion of limit.

(⇐). This is exactly the statement of sequential criterion for limit at c. Thus,

$$\exists \lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$$

Notice that $c \in A$ implies that f is defined on c. Thus, we conclude that f is continuous on c by previous remark in p.43

Corollary (Sequential Criterion for Discontinuity).

Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$, $c \in A$. Then f is discontinuous at c if and only if $\exists (x_n) \subseteq A$ s.t. $(x_n) \to c$, $f((x_n)) \not\to f(c)$.

Proof. Similar. Left to reader as exercise.

Example. We begin with polynomial and rational functions:

- Constant function f(x) = b is continuous in \mathbb{R} .
- Linear function f(x) = ax + b is continuous in \mathbb{R} .
- Quadratic function $f(x) = x^2$ is continuous in \mathbb{R} .
- $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ is continuous in \mathbb{R} .
- Polynomial functions are continuous in $\mathbb{R}(\text{try to prove it!})$.
- Rational functions are continuous in \mathbb{R} (try to prove it!).
- $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is NOT continuous at 0.
- f(x) = sgn(x) is NOT continuous at 0.

²proof by definition

Example (Dirichlet's "discontinuous function").

Let $A = \mathbb{R}$ and define Dirichlet's "discontinuous function" by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ (rational)} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{R} \backslash \mathbb{Q} \text{ (irrational)} \end{cases}$$

Claim: this function is discontinuous on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Let $c \in A$.

• If $c \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $\exists (x_n) \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$c < (x_n) < c + \frac{1}{n}$$

By squeeze theorem,

$$\lim c \le \lim (x_n) \le \lim (c + \frac{1}{n})$$
$$(x_n) \to c, \ (c + \frac{1}{n}) \to c$$
$$\lim f(x_n) = 1 \ne 0 = \lim f(c + \frac{1}{n})$$

Thus, by Sequential Criterion of Discontinuity, f is discontinuous for all $c \in \mathbb{Q}$.

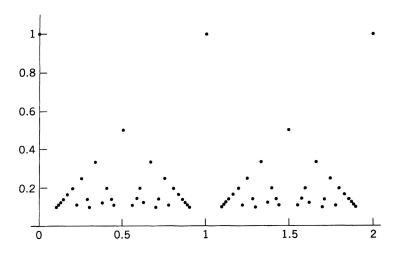
• If $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, then we adopt similar strategy. The rest of proofs is left as exercise.

Example ($\underline{Thomae's\ function}$). *Notice that this example is harder. We skip it on class.

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{R} \backslash \mathbb{Q} \text{ (irrational)} \\ \frac{1}{q} & \text{if } x = \frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ (rational)} \end{cases}$$

<u>Claim:</u> f is discontinuous on \mathbb{Q} and continuous on $\mathbb{R}^+\backslash\mathbb{Q}$.



Proof.

• If c is rational, then $\exists (x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \backslash \mathbb{Q} + \text{ s.t. } (x_n) \to c$. Then we have

$$\lim f(x_n) \to 0 \neq \frac{1}{q} = f(c)$$

Since funtion value does not equal to limit value at c, f is discontinuous at $c \in \mathbb{Q}$

• If c is irrational, <u>Goal</u>: show that $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^+,$

$$|x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| = |f(x)| < \varepsilon$$

- If $x \in \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, then $|f(x)| = 0 < \varepsilon$ for some arbitrary choice of δ .
- If $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, then by Archimedean Property, we could find a $\frac{1}{n_0} > \varepsilon$.

Notice that there are only finite number of $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n < n_0$. Thus, there are only finite number of $\frac{p}{q} \in (c-1,c+1)$ with denominator $q < n_0$. Hence we could choose δ so small that the $V_{\delta}(c)$ contains no rational numbers with denominator less than n_0 . It follows that

$$|x-b| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| = |f(x)| \le \frac{1}{n_0} < \epsilon$$

Thus, f is continuous at $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$

5.2 Combinations of Continuous Functions

Theorem. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f, g : A \to \mathbb{R}$, $c \in A$, $b \in R$. Suppose f, g are <u>continuous</u> on c, then the following combination of functions are <u>continuous</u>:

- Addition: f + g
- **Subtraction:** f g
- **Product:** $f \cdot g$
- $Multiplication: b \cdot f$
- Quotient: $\frac{f}{g}$ if $g(x) \neq 0$
- **Absolute:** |f|(x)
- Square Root: $\sqrt{f}(x)$

Proof.

- If c is not a cluster point of A, then the theorem is automatically correct.
- If c is a cluster point of A, then we only need to show that the function value at c is equal to the limit of function at c. Detailed proof are left as exercise.

Example.

- Polynomial functions are continuous on \mathbb{R} .
- Rational functions are continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Example.

• $\sin(x)$ is continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Notice that $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$, we have 3 inequalitis:

$$|\sin(z)| \le |z|, |\cos(z)| \le 1, \sin(x) - \sin(y) = 2\sin[\frac{1}{2}(x-y)] \cdot \cos[\frac{1}{2}(x+y)]$$

Hence if $c \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$|\sin(x) - \sin(c)| \le 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} |x - c| \cdot 1 = |x - c|$$

Thus sin(x) is continuous on \mathbb{R} .

• cos(x) is continuous on \mathbb{R}

Proof. Exercise. Similar techniques as above.

• tan(x), cot, sec, csc are all continuous on where they are defined.

Proof. Combinations of continuous functions on their domain are continuous.

Theorem. Let $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$, $g: B \to \mathbb{R}$, $c \in A$ s.t. $f(A) \subseteq B$. Suppose f is continuous at $c \in A$, g is **continuous** on $b = f(c) \in B$, then the composition $g \circ f$ is **continuous** at c.

Proof. Since f is continuous at c, $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \in A$,

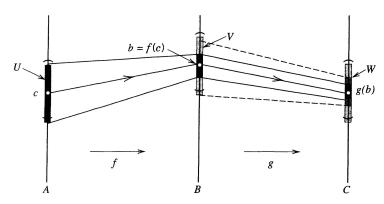
$$|x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon$$

Since g is continuous at b = f(c), $f(A) \subseteq B$, $\forall \zeta > 0$, $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $\forall f(x) \in B$,

$$|f(x) - b| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow |g(f(x)) - g(b)| < \zeta$$

Thus,

$$|x-c| < \delta \Rightarrow |g(f(x)) - g(b)| = |g \circ f(x) - g \circ f(c)| < \zeta$$



Example. $\sqrt{x^2+1}$ is continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Exercise.