

# Real Analysis

**Th:** Suppose  $\{s_n\}, \{t_n\}$  are complex sequences and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = t$ . Then,

$$\textcircled{a} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n + t_n) = s + t \quad \textcircled{b} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} cs_n = cs,$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c + s_n) = c + s.$$

$$\textcircled{c} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n t_n = st \quad \textcircled{d} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s_n} = \frac{1}{s}, \text{ provided } s_n \neq 0 \text{ for } n=1, 2, \dots \text{ & } s \neq 0$$

Proof:  $\textcircled{a} \epsilon > 0, \exists$  integers  $N_1, N_2$  s.t.

$$n \geq N_1 \Rightarrow |s_n - s| < \epsilon/2$$

$$n \geq N_2 \Rightarrow |t_n - t| < \epsilon/2$$

$$\text{let } N = \max(N_1, N_2)$$

$$|(s_n + t_n) - (s + t)| = |(s_n - s) + (t_n - t)|$$

$$\leq |s_n - s| + |t_n - t|$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$$

$$\underline{n \geq N}$$

$$\textcircled{b} \quad |cs_n - cs| = |c(s_n - s)|$$

$=  c   s_n - s $ $<  c  \frac{\epsilon}{ c }$ $< \epsilon$	<p style="margin: 0;">Given <math>\epsilon &gt; 0, \exists N</math> s.t.  <math>n \geq N</math>  <math> s_n - s  &lt; \frac{\epsilon}{ c }, c \neq 0</math></p>
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$$|(c + s_n) - (c + s)|$$

$$= |s_n - s| < \epsilon$$

$$\textcircled{c} \quad |s_n t_n - s t|$$

$$= |(s_n - s)(t_n - t) + s(t_n - t) + t(s_n - s)| \\ \leq |s_n - s| |t_n - t| + |s| |t_n - t| + |t| |s_n - s|$$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  integers  $N_1, N_2$  s.t.

$$n \geq N_1 \Rightarrow |s_n - s| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$$

$$n \geq N_2 \Rightarrow |t_n - t| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$$

Then take  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$

$$\text{i.e., } n \geq N \Rightarrow \frac{|(s_n - s)(t_n - t)|}{\epsilon} < 1$$

$$\text{i.e. } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [(s_n - s)(t_n - t)] = 0$$

$$|t_n - t| < \frac{\epsilon}{|s_n - s|} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(s_n - t) \rightarrow 0$$

$$|s| |t_n - t| < \frac{\epsilon}{|s_n - s|} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s(t_n - t) \rightarrow 0$$

$$|t| |s_n - s| < \epsilon$$

(d) As  $s_n \rightarrow s$ , for  $\epsilon = \frac{|s|}{2}$ ,  $\exists k_1$

$$\text{s.t. } |s_n - s| < \frac{|s|}{2} \text{ for } n \geq k_1$$

$$||s_n| - |s|| \leq |s_n - s| < \frac{|s|}{2} \quad \textcircled{a}$$

$$|s| - |s_n| < \frac{|s|}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad |s_n| - |s| < \frac{|s|}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow |s_n| > \frac{|s|}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad |s_n| < \frac{3}{2}|s|$$

$\hookrightarrow$  we need this  $\hookrightarrow$  this we don't  
 $\hookrightarrow (n \geq k_1)$  need as  
it doesn't matter

Now  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists k_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t. for  $n \geq k_2$

$$|s_n - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} |s|^2$$

let  $K = \max(k_1, k_2)$

$$\frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} = \frac{s_n - s}{s_n s}$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} \right| = \left| \frac{s_n - s}{s_n s} \right| < \frac{\epsilon/2 |s|^2}{|s|^2/2} = \epsilon$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

$$x_n = (\alpha_{1,n}, \alpha_{2,n}, \dots, \alpha_{k,n}) \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

$\curvearrowright$   $k$ -cell

Th: Suppose  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^k$  ( $n=1, 2, \dots$ ) and  $x_n = (\alpha_{1,n}, \dots, \alpha_{k,n})$

Then  $\{x_n\}$  converges to  $x = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k)$  iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_{j,n} = \alpha_j \quad (1 \leq j \leq k)$$

(b) Suppose  $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}$  are sequences in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ ,  
 $\{\beta_n\}$  a sequence of real numbers and  
 $x_n \rightarrow x$ ,  $y_n \rightarrow y$ ,  $\beta_n \rightarrow \beta$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n + y_n) = x + y$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_n x_n = \beta x.$$

$\text{norm} \leftarrow |x - y| = \sqrt{|x_1 - y_1|^2 + |x_2 - y_2|^2 + \dots + |x_k - y_k|^2}$

$$x_n = (\alpha_{1,n}, \alpha_{2,n}, \dots, \alpha_{k,n}), y_n = (y_{1,n}, y_{2,n}, \dots, y_{k,n}).$$

$$|x - y| = \sqrt{|x_1 - y_1|^2 + |x_2 - y_2|^2 + \dots + |x_k - y_k|^2}$$

@ If  $x_n \rightarrow x$  given  $\epsilon > 0 \exists$  an integer  $N$

s.t.  $n \geq N, |x_n - x| < \epsilon$ .

$$|x_n - x| = \sqrt{(\alpha_{1,n} - \alpha_1)^2 + (\alpha_{2,n} - \alpha_2)^2 + \dots + (\alpha_{k,n} - \alpha_k)^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^k (\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j)^2}$$

$$|\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j| \leq |x_n - x| < \epsilon$$

for  $n \geq N$

$$\Rightarrow |\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j| < \epsilon \text{ for } n \geq N.$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_{j,n} = \alpha_j \quad (1 \leq j \leq k)$$

(Converse  $\Leftarrow$ )

Suppose  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_{j,n} = \alpha_j \quad (1 \leq j \leq k)$  holds.

$\epsilon > 0, \exists$  a  $N$  s.t.  $n \geq N$  implies

$$|\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}} \quad (1 \leq j \leq k)$$

Hence  $n \geq N$

$$|x_n - x| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^k (\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j)^2} \leq \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}}\right)^2} = \sqrt{k} \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}} = \epsilon$$

$$< (\epsilon^2)^{1/2}$$

$$= \epsilon$$

## Subsequences

Let  $\{P_n\}$  be a sequence. A sequence of integers  $\{n_k\}$  with the properties  $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k$ . Then  $\{P_{n_j}\}$  is called a subseq. of  $\{P_n\}$ .

e.g.  $P_1, P_2, \dots$  seq

$P_2, P_4, P_6, \dots$  ✓ subseq.

$P_4, P_6, P_5, \dots$  X subseq

The limit of the subsequence is said to be subsequential limits.

e.g.  $P_n = (-1)^n : -1, 1, -1, 1, \dots$

$P_{2n} = (P_2, P_4, \dots) = (1, 1, 1, \dots)$  subseq. limit = 1

$P_{2n+1} = (P_1, P_3, \dots) = (-1, -1, -1, \dots)$  subseq. limit = -1

A subsequence of  $\{P_n\}$  converges to point 'p' iff every subsequence converges to same limit.



Thm (a) If  $\{P_n\}$  is a sequence in a compact metric space  $X$ , then some subsequence of  $\{P_n\}$  converges to a pt of  $X$ .

(b) Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  contains a convergent subseq. (Bolzano-Weierstrass Th.)

Proof Let  $E$  be the range of the seq  $\{P_n\}$ . If  $E$  is finite then there is a pt  $p \in E$  and a sequence  $\{n_i\}$  with  $n_1 < n_2 \dots$  such that

$$P_{n_1} = P_{n_2} = P_{n_3} = \dots = P_{n_i} = p \quad P_{n_i} \rightarrow p$$

If  $E$  is infinite,  $E$  has a limit pt in  $X$ .

Let  $P$  be a limit pt in  $X$ .

Choose  $n_1$  s.t.  $d(P_{n_1}, P) < 1$ . Having chosen

$n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{i-1}$  (This is possible as  $P$  is a limit pt)

As every nhbd of  $P$  contains infinitely

many pts of  $E$ ,  $\exists n_i > n_{i-1}$  s.t.  $d(P, P_{n_i}) < \frac{1}{q}$ .

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} P_{n_i} = P$$

(b) Since Every bdd sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is

contained in a  $k$ -cell, which is

compact (subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ ) by (a)

every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  contains

a convergent subseq.

To construct some subseq.  $X$  say choose

such that  $x_i$  is convergent subseq.

Now  $x_i$  is bounded prob (d).

From  $\exists r > 0$  s.t.  $r$  is such that if

$|x_i - x_j| > r$  then  $|x_i| > r$ .

$$r = \frac{1}{m+1}$$

Th: The subsequential limits of a sequence  $\{P_n\}$  in a metric space  $X$  form a closed subset of  $X$ .

Proof: Let  $E^*$  denote the set of all sequential limits of the sequence  $\{P_n\}$ . Let  $q$  be a limit pt of  $E^*$ , To ~~show~~ show that  $q \in E^*$ .

- choose  $n_1$  such that  $P_{n_1} \neq q$  (if no such  $n_1$  exists, then  $E^*$  contains single pt only, it is closed)

$$d(P_{n_1}, q) \neq 0$$

- choose  $\overrightarrow{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{i-1}}$ , since  $q$  is a limit pt of  $E^*$ ,  
 $\exists x \in E^*$ , s.t.  $d(x, q) < \frac{\delta}{2^i}$ ,  $\delta = d(q, P_{n_i}) \neq 0$

- since  $x \in E^*$ ,  $\exists n_i > n_{i-1}$  s.t.  $d(x, P_{n_i}) < \frac{\delta}{2^i}$

$$\begin{aligned} d(q, P_{n_i}) &\leq d(q, x) + d(x, P_{n_i}) \\ &\leq 2 \cdot \frac{\delta}{2^i} = 2^{1-i}\delta \quad \text{for } i=1, 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $P_{n_i} \rightarrow q$

e.g.  $S_n = 1 + (-1)^n$

$E^* = \{0, 1\} \rightarrow$  closed as finite set.

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Let  $X$  be a metric space.

→ ① A sequence  $\{P_n\}$  in  $X$  is said to be a Cauchy sequence if there exist an integer  $N$  s.t.

for  $n \geq N$ ,  $m \geq N$ ,

$$d(P_n, P_m) < \epsilon$$

→ ② Let  $E$  be a subset of  $X$ .  $S = \{d(p, q), p, q \in E\}$

$\sup S$  exists.  $\underline{\text{diameter}} E = \sup S$ .

$$E_N = \{P_N, P_{N+1}, P_{N+2}, \dots\} \quad n, m \geq N$$

$$d(P_{N+l}, P_{N+j}) < \epsilon \\ \forall i, j \rightarrow 1, 2, \dots$$

$\{P_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence iff  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \dim E_N = 0$

→ A metric space  $X$  is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence converges in  $X$ .

e.g.  $X = (0, 1)$ ,  $P_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \Rightarrow X$  is not complete

e.g.  $\mathbb{R}^k$  is a complete metric space.

Th: @ If  $\bar{E}$  is the closure of a set  $E$  in a metric space  $X$ , then  $\dim \bar{E} = \dim E$ .

(b) If  $K_n$  is a sequence of compact sets in  $X$

s.t.  $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$  ( $n=1, 2, \dots$ ) and if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } K_n = 0$ ,

then  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  consists of exactly one point.

\* To show that  $\underline{\text{diam } \bar{E}} = \text{diam } E$

→ we know,  $E \subset \bar{E}$

$$\Rightarrow \text{diam } E \leq \text{diam } \bar{E} \quad (i)$$

→ Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ , and choose  $p \in \bar{E}$ ,  $q \in \bar{E}$ .

By definition of  $\bar{E}$ , there are pts  $p', q'$  in  $E$  such that  $d(p, p') < \epsilon$ ,  $d(q, q') < \epsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow d(p, q) &\leq d(p, p') + d(p', q') + d(q', q) \\ &\leq 2\epsilon + d(p', q') \\ &\leq 2\epsilon + \text{diam}(E) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{diam } (\bar{E}) \leq \text{diam}(E) + 2\epsilon \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{if } \forall a, a \leq b \\ \Rightarrow \sup(a) \leq b \end{array} \right] \quad (ii)$$

combining (i) and (ii)  $\Rightarrow \boxed{\text{diam}(E) = \text{diam } (\bar{E})}$

\* b)  $\{K_n\}$  is a sequence of compact sets in  $X$ .

$$K_n \supset K_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, \dots)$$

$K = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset$ . To show that  $K$  contains exactly one point.

→ Suppose  $K$  contains more than one pt. Then  $\text{diam } K$  is positive.

→ But for each  $n$ ,  $K_n \supset K$ .  $\Rightarrow \text{diam } K_n \geq \text{diam } K$  which contradicts to  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } K_n = 0$

[OR Assume  $\text{diam } K_n > \epsilon$ ,  
and since  $\text{diam } K > 0$ ]  
 $\text{let } \epsilon_1 = 2\epsilon \Rightarrow \epsilon \geq 2\epsilon$

$\Rightarrow \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  consists exactly 1 pt. (hence  $\text{diam } K = 0$ )

face and if  $\{P_n\}$   
then  $\{P_n\}$  converges

If

Let

e.g.  $X = (0, 1)$  so if  $X$  is not  
 $P_n = \{\frac{1}{n}\}$  compact, we  
cannot claim  
anything

Divergent seq. is a Cauchy seq. (any metric space)

E.R., every Cauchy seq. converges.

Proof: (a) Suppose  $P_n \rightarrow P$  in  $X$ . i.e. given  $\epsilon > 0$ .

$\exists N$  s.t.  $n \geq N$   $d(P_n, P) < \epsilon$

$m \geq N$   $d(P_m, P) < \epsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} d(P_m, P_n) &\leq d(P_n, P) + d(P, P_m) \\ &< 2\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

as soon as  $n \geq N, m \geq N$ . i.e.  $\{P_n\}$  is  
a Cauchy sequence.

Proof: (b) Let  $\{P_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in the

compact set  $X$ .

For  $N = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , let  $E_N$  be the set consisting  
of  $P_N, P_{N+1}, \dots$  i.e.  $E_N = \{P_N, P_{N+1}, \dots\}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } E_N = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } \overline{E_N} = 0$$

being  $\overline{E_N}$  a closed subset of the compact  
set  $X$ , it is compact.

$$E_N \supset E_{N+1} \text{ (why)} \Rightarrow |n_2 - n_1| = n_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{E_N} \supset \overline{E_{N+1}} \Rightarrow |m_2 - n_1| = |m_2 - n_2|$$

$\bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} \overline{E_N}$  consisting of one pt.

i.e.  $\exists$  a unique  $p \in X$  s.t.  $p \in \overline{E_N}, \forall N$

$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \overline{E_N} = 0$ , means,  $\epsilon > 0 \exists N_0$  s.t.

$\rightarrow \text{diam } \overline{E_N} < \epsilon \text{ for } N \geq N_0$

$\rightarrow$  Since  $p \in \overline{E_N} \Rightarrow d(p, q) < \epsilon, \forall q \in \overline{E}$ ,

hence  $\exists p_n \rightarrow q$

i.e.  $d(p, p_n) < \epsilon, n \geq N_0$ .

i.e.  $p_n \rightarrow p$

Proof: (C) Let  $P_n$  be a cauchy seq in  $\mathbb{R}^K$ . for  $N=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Let  $E_N = \{P_N, P_{N+1}, P_{N+2}, \dots\}$

$\rightarrow$  As  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } E_N = 0$ , for  $\epsilon = 1, \exists$  some  $N$ ,

s.t.  $\text{diam } E_N < 1$ .

$\rightarrow$  Range of  $\{P_n\}$  is the union of  $E_N$  and the finite set  $\{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{N-1}\}$ .

Hence  $\{P_n\}$  is bounded.

$\rightarrow$  Since Every bounded Subset of  $\mathbb{R}^K$ , its closure is compact in  $\mathbb{R}^K$ ,  $\{P_n\}$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}^K$ .

$\rightarrow$  Hence  $\mathbb{R}^K$  is complete Metric space.

\* A real sequence  $\{s_n\}$  is said to be monotonically increasing if

$$s_n \leq s_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, \dots)$$

monotonically decreasing if

$$s_n \geq s_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, \dots)$$

\* A sequence is said to be monotone if either it is monotonically increasing or monotonically decreasing.

Th: Suppose  $\{s_n\}$  is monotonic. Then  $\{s_n\}$  converges iff it is bounded.

Proof: Suppose  $\{s_n\}$  is monotonically increasing

$$s_n \leq s_{n+1}$$

→ let  $E = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$ ,  $E$  is the range of  $\{s_n\}$ .

→ If  $\{s_n\}$  is bounded, then  $E$  has a lub or Supremum.

→ Let us denote it  $s$ . i.e.  $s_n \leq s \quad (n=1, 2, \dots)$

for  $\epsilon > 0, \exists N$  s.t.

$$s - \epsilon < s_n \leq s \quad \rightarrow (i)$$

→ Since  $\{s_n\}$  is increasing  $n \geq N$

$$\Rightarrow s_n \geq s_N$$

from (i),  $s - \epsilon < s_n \leq s, n \geq N$

i.e.

$$\underline{s_n \rightarrow s.}$$

### Application

- ① Let  $\{y_n\}$  be a sequence defined to  $y_1 := 1$ ,  
 $y_{n+1} := \frac{1}{4}(2y_n + 3)$ ,  $n \geq 1$   
 Show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = \frac{3}{2}$

$$y_1 = 1, y_2 = \frac{5}{4}, y_1 < y_2 < 2$$

→ To show  $y_n < 2$ ,  $\forall n$ .

$$y_1 < 2, y_2 < 2, y_k < 2 \text{ (suppose)}$$

$$y_{k+1} = \frac{1}{4}(2y_k + 3) < \frac{1}{4}(2 \times 2 + 3) = \frac{7}{4} < 2$$

$$y_n < 2, \forall n \text{ (Induction)}$$

→ Show that  $y_n < y_{n+1} \forall n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n+1} = \frac{1}{4}(2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n + 3)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{4}(2y + 3)$$

$$\boxed{y = \frac{3}{2}}$$

- ② If  $s_1 = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $s_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{s_n}}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ )  
 Show that  $\{s_n\}$  converges, and then  $s_n < 2$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$s_2 = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$$

$\rightarrow$  if  $\{S_n\}$  be a bounded seq.

$$M_n = \sup \{S_n, S_{n+1}, S_{n+2}, \dots\}$$

Since  $\{S_{n+1}, S_{n+2}, \dots\} \subset \{S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots\}$

$$\sup \{S_{n+1}, \dots\} \leq \sup \{S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots\}$$

$$M_{n+1} \leq M_n \quad [\{M_n\} \text{ is decreasing seq.}]$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n$$

$\{P_n\}$  infinite series

Suppose there is a real number  $s$  satisfying: (1) for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is

$N$  for  $n > N$ ,  $P_n < s + \epsilon$

(2) for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $M > 0$ , there is

$n > M$  s.t.  $P_n > s - \epsilon$ . Then  $s = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n$   
 $= \overline{\lim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n$

10-oct

### Some Special Sequences:

1. If  $0 \leq x_n \leq s_n$  for  $n \geq N$ , where  $N$  is some fixed number and if  $s_n \rightarrow 0$ , then  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ .

2. If  $p > 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 0$

3. If  $p > 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[p]{n} = 1$

4.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1$

5. If  $p > 0$  and  $\alpha$  is a real number then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n} = 0$$

6. If  $|x| < 1$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x|^n = 0$ .

\*  $\sum a_n$  converges iff for every  $\epsilon > 0 \exists$  an integer  $N$  s.t.  $\sum_{k=n}^m |a_k| \leq \epsilon$  if  $m \geq n \geq N$

→ Cauchy criterion of convergence.

Th: If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < \infty$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

[for complex we use  $|a_n|$ , not  $a_n$ ]

$$S_n = a_1 + \dots + a_n$$

$$S_{n-1} = a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n - S_{n-1}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$$

$$S - S = \boxed{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0}$$

Converge is not true, as  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  is divergent, yet

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

## Comparison-Test

① If  $|a_n| \leq c_n$  for  $n \geq N_0$ , where  $N_0$  is fixed integer and if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n < \infty \Rightarrow \sum a_n < \infty$

②  $0 \geq a_n \geq b_n \& \sum b_n = \infty \Rightarrow \sum a_n = \infty$

## Ratio-test

The series  $\sum a_n$

a) Converges, if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$

b) diverges, if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$

\*  $\rightarrow$  test fails.

## Root-test

Given  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , put  $\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$

Then,

(a) If  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum a_n < \infty$

(b) If  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum a_n = \infty$

(c)  $\alpha = 1$ , test fails.

## Alternating Series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$$

Suppose the seq.  $\{a_n\}$  of real numbers satisfy the following conditions.

$|a_n| \leq |a_{n-1}|$  for every  $n$ .

(b)  $|a_n| \leq |a_{n-1}|$  for every  $n$ .

(C)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ . Then  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent.

\* for series  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| < \infty$   
then  $\sum a_n$  is called convergent absolutely.

\* If  $a_n < 0$ , but  $\sum |a_n| = \infty$ , then  $\sum a_n$  is conditionally convergent.

$\Rightarrow$  eg)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  → is conditionally converges

11-oct:

$f: E \rightarrow Y$ ,  $X, Y$  are metric spaces and  $E \subset X$ ,  
 let  $p$  be a limit pt of  $E$ . We write  $f \text{ goes to } q$   
 as  $x \rightarrow p$ , or

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$  if there is pt  $q$  in  $Y$

with the following property. For every  $\epsilon > 0$

$\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_Y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$ , whenever

$$0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} q = f(p) \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q \end{array} \right\} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} f \text{ is continuous at } x=p. \\ \text{if } f \text{ is not continuous at } x=p \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f \text{ is continuous at } x=p \\ \text{if } f \text{ is not continuous at } x=p \end{array} \right. \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t.} \\ d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon, \text{ whenever } d_X(x, p) < \delta \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow (f, g) \text{ is continuous at } x=p \quad \text{if } f \text{ is continuous at } x=p$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = q_1 \end{array} \right\} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = q + q_1, \\ \& \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (\alpha f(x)) = \alpha q \end{array} \right.$$

$$\& \lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{q}{q_1} \text{ (provided } q_1 \neq 0)$$

$$f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k, E \subset X$$

$f$  is a vector valued function.

$f(x)$  is an element of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_k(x))$$

$f$  is continuous iff  $f_i(x)$  is continuous  
 $i = 1, \dots, k$ .

Thm: Let  $x, y, \epsilon, f, \delta$  be as in defn.

Then,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ , iff  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$ ,

for every sequence  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$

$$\text{s.t. } p_n \neq p \text{ & } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$$

If  $\longrightarrow$  Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ . Choose

a sequence of  $p_n$  satisfying  $p_n \neq p$

&  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ . let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given,

then  $\exists \delta > 0$ , s.t.  $d_y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$

if  $x \in E$  &  $0 < d_x(x, p) < \delta$

As  $p_n \rightarrow p$ ,  $\exists N$  s.t.  $n \geq N$

$d_y(p_n, p) < \delta$ . Thus for  $n \geq N$ , we

have  $d_y(f(p_n), q) < \epsilon$

i.e.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$ , for  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$

with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$  for  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$  with  $p_n \neq p$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$$

To show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) \neq q$ . Then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$ , s.t.

for every  $\delta > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a pt.  $x \in E$  depending on  $\delta$ , for which  $d_y(f(x), q) \geq \epsilon$ ,  
but  $0 < d_x(x, p) < \delta$ .

Taking,  $\delta_n = \frac{1}{n}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ )

$$0 < d_x(p_n, p) < \frac{1}{n}$$

$$d_y(f(p_n), q) \geq \epsilon ;$$

which contradicts the assumption.

12-10-18 Continuity

$f: E \subset X \rightarrow Y$

A pt.  $p \in E$ .

$f$  is said to be continuous at the pt.  $p$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ .

$\rightarrow f$  is not con. at a point if  $\exists \epsilon > 0 \ \forall \delta > 0 \ \exists$  pt.  $x \in E$  with  $d_X(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_Y(f(x), f(p)) \geq \epsilon$ .

$\rightarrow f$  is continuous on  $E$  if  $f$  is continuous at every pt. of  $E$ .

Ex:-  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/x & ; x \neq 0 \\ 0 & , x=0 \end{cases}$

$$\rightarrow |x| < \delta \Rightarrow \frac{1}{|x|} > \frac{1}{\delta} > \epsilon.$$

$\Rightarrow f: E \rightarrow Y$

$E$  is isolated set.

To show:  $f$  is continuous on  $E$ .

let  $p \in E$ , Now, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

~~we~~ we choose a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.

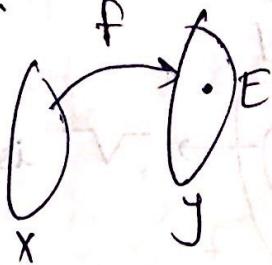
$$d_X(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow x=p.$$

$$d_Y(f(x), f(p)) = 0 < \epsilon$$

$\mathbb{I}, \mathbb{N} \rightarrow$  isolated set  $\rightarrow N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  &  $z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
automatically with  $f: z \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$\rightarrow f: X \rightarrow Y$

$f$  is continuous on  $X$  iff for all open subset  $V$  of  $Y$ ,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ .



$\rightarrow E \subset X$

$$f(E) = \{f(x) \mid x \in E\}$$

$$f^{-1}(V) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in V\}$$

i.e.  $\forall y \in Y$

$$f^{-1}(y) = \{x \mid f(x) = y\}$$

$f^{-1}(y)$  contains almost one pt.

Q4 - Oct

\*  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

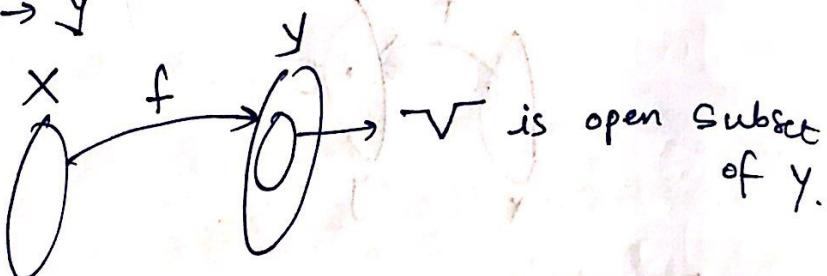
$f$  is said to be cont. at  $x=a$

if given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta(\epsilon)$  s.t.

$|x-a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$

$|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$

\*  $f: X \rightarrow Y$



$\rightarrow f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$

$\forall V$  open in  $Y$

$$f^{-1}(V) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in V\}$$

↳ inverse image of a set.

(Very important result)

A mapping  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous on  $X$ ,

iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  for

every open set  $V$  in  $Y$ .

( $\rightarrow$ )

Pf: Suppose  $f$  is continuous in  $X$  and  $V$  is open in  $Y$ . We have to show  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , i.e. every pt of  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an interior pt. So, suppose  $p \in X$  and  $f(p) \in V$ . Since  $V$  is open,  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  s.t.  $y \in V$  if  $d_Y(f(p), y) < \epsilon$ .

[There  $d(,)$  is used instead]

and since  $f$  is continuous at  $p$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ , then  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$ .

( $\leftarrow$ ) converse part.

Suppose  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  for all open subset  $V$  in  $Y$ . To show that  $f$  is continuous on  $X$ .

- fix  $p \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . let  $V$  be set of all  $y \in Y$  s.t.  $d_Y(y, f(p)) < \epsilon$  i.e.  $V$  is open subset of  $Y$ .  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , and hence  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$  as soon as  $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ . But  $f(x) \in V$ ,  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$ .

\* Corollary:

$f: X \rightarrow Y$  is conti iff  $f^{-1}(E)$  is closed in  $X$  &  $E$  is closed in  $Y$ .

$$f^{-1}(E^c) = [f^{-1}(E)]^c$$

$E^c$  is open  
 $f^{-1}(E^c)$  is open  $\Rightarrow (f^{-1}(E^c))^c$  is closed  
 $\Rightarrow ((f^{-1}(E))^c)^c$  is closed.  
 $\Rightarrow f^{-1}(E)$  is closed.

Theorem: Let  $f$  be a continuous map from a compact metric space  $X$  into a metric space  $Y$ . Then  $f(X)$  is compact.

Proof: Let  $\{V_\alpha\}_\alpha$  be an open covering of  $f(X)$ . To show that it has a finite subcover,

$\{V_\alpha\}_\alpha$  is open in  $Y$ . As  $f$  is continuous,  $f^{-1}(V_\alpha)$  is open in  $X$ .

As  $X$  is compact,  $X \subset f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_1}) \cup f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_2}) \cup \dots \cup f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_n})$

$$f(X) \subset f(f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_1}) \cup \dots \cup f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_n}))$$

$$= f[f^{-1}(V_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n})]$$

$$f(f^{-1}(A)) \subset A$$

$$f^{-1}(f(A)) \supset A$$

Set theory?

$$\subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n}$$

---


$$\text{i.e. } f(X) \subset V_{\alpha_1} \cup V_{\alpha_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{\alpha_n}$$

Hence  $f(X)$  is compact.

\* If  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^K$   
 ↓  
 compact       $\rightarrow f(X)$  is compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^K$ .  
 Continuous       $\rightarrow f(X)$  is closed & bdd.  
 $\Rightarrow f$  is bounded.

sct  
 Th: Suppose  $f$  is continuous 1-1 mapping of a compact set  $X$  onto a metric space  $Y$ . Then the inverse mapping  $f^{-1}$  defined on  $Y$  by  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x \forall x \in X$  is continuous mapping of  $Y$  onto  $X$ .

$$\underline{\text{To Prove}} \left[ \begin{array}{l} f: X \xrightarrow{\text{bijective}} Y \\ \downarrow \\ \text{Compact} \end{array} \Rightarrow f^{-1} \text{ is cont.} \right]$$

Proof:  $f: X \rightarrow Y$

As  $f$  is bijective

$$f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$$

from

Theorem

item-open

before.

let  $V$  be open in  $X$ . To show that

$(f^{-1})^{-1}(V)$  is open.  $f(V)$  is open.

[Open mapping  $\Rightarrow$  any subset of open set is mapped to open set]

$V^c$  is closed in  $X$ .  
 $\Rightarrow V^c$  is compact. (As closed subset of compact set is compact.)

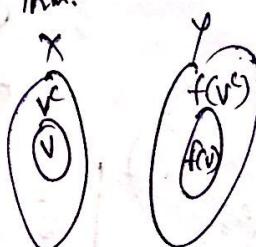
$\Rightarrow f(V^c)$  is compact. (from previous Thm.)

$\Rightarrow f(V^c)$  is closed.

$\Rightarrow f(V^c)^c$  is open.

$\Rightarrow f(V)$  is open

[since  $f$  is one-one and onto,  $f(V)$  is complement of  $f(V^c)$ .]



\*  $f: [0, 2\pi) \rightarrow S'$

$$S' = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1\}$$

$$f(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$$

$$0 \leq t < 2\pi$$

$f^{-1}$  is not continuous.

$$f^{-1}: S' \rightarrow [0, 2\pi)$$

Any bijective continuous function's inverse may not be continuous : (Counterexample) Above

(continuous). → open set to open set

Uniformly continuous function:

$$f: X \rightarrow Y$$

$f$  is said to be uniformly continuous on  $X$  if given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon \text{ whenever } d_X(p, q) < \delta$$

$$d_X(p, q) < \delta$$

check difference

Let  
cont.  
x uni. cont.

$\delta$  depends on point  $p \in X$  in case of continuity def<sup>n</sup>.

$\delta$  depends only on  $\epsilon$  in uniformly cont. def<sup>n</sup>.

Continuous def<sup>n</sup> is for a point  $x=p$ , where  $\delta$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \text{ on } (0, 1)$$

$\exists \epsilon \text{ s.t. } \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x, y \in (0, 1) \text{ with}$

$$|x - y| < \delta$$

$$\text{and } |f(x) - f(y)| \geq \epsilon$$

Choose a free integer  $n$  s.t.

$$\frac{1}{n} < \delta. \text{ let } x_0 = \frac{1}{n}, y_0 = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$x_0, y_0 \in (0, 1)$$

$$|x_0 - y_0| = \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right| = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} < \frac{1}{n} < \delta$$

$$|f(x_0) - f(y_0)|$$

$$= |n - (n+1)| = 1 > \epsilon_0 \quad (\text{where we choose } \underline{\epsilon_0 < 1})$$

So  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is not uniformly continuous

continuous

Thm: Let  $f$  be a continuous map from a compact metric space to a metric space  $Y$ . Then  $X$  is uniformly continuous.

Pf: Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $f$  is continuous we can associate to each pt.  $p \in X$  a positive number  $\phi(p)$  s.t.  $q \in X, d_X(p, q) < \phi(p) \Rightarrow d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  —  $\oplus$

$$\text{Let } J(p) = \{q \in X \mid d_X(p, q) < \frac{1}{2}\phi(p)\}$$

$J(p) \neq \emptyset$  as  $p \in J(p)$

$$\left( d_X(p, p) = 0 < \frac{1}{2}\phi(p) \right)$$

$J(p)$  is a open set by defn.

$X$  is compact,

and the collection of all sets  $J(p)$

is an open covering of  $X$ ;

and since  $X$  is compact, there is a finite set of points  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  in  $X$  such that  $X$  is contained in  $\cup J(p_i)$ .

$$X \subset J(p_1) \cup J(p_2) \cup \dots \cup J(p_n)$$

—  $\star\star$

Put  $\delta = \frac{1}{2} \min (\phi(p_1), \dots, \phi(p_n))$ ,  $\delta > 0$

Now take  $p, q$  in  $X$  s.t.  $d_X(p, q) \leq \delta$

By (4\*), there is an integer  $m$ ,

$$1 \leq m \leq n \text{ s.t.}$$

$p \in J(p_m)$ , hence

$$d_X(p, p_m) < \frac{1}{2} \phi(p_m)$$

$$d_X(q, p_m) \leq d_X(q, p) + d_X(p, p_m)$$

$$< \delta + \frac{1}{2} \phi(p_m)$$

$$\leq \phi(p_m)$$

$$d_Y(f(p), f(q)) \leq d_Y(f(p), f(p_m)) + d_Y(f(p_m), f(q))$$

$$< \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 = \epsilon$$

31-oct If  $f$  is continuous mapping then if  $E$  is a connected subset of  $X$  then

$f(E)$  is connected.

Proof: Suppose  $f(E)$  is not connected.

$$\Rightarrow f(E) = A \cup B, A, B \neq \emptyset, \bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset, \\ A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset$$

$$G = f^{-1}(A) \cap E$$

$$H = f^{-1}(B) \cap E$$

$$G \cup H = (E \cap f^{-1}(A)) \cup (E \cap f^{-1}(B))$$

$$= E \cap (f^{-1}(A) \cup f^{-1}(B))$$

$$= E \cap f^{-1}(A \cup B)$$

$$= E$$

$$\rightarrow A \subset \bar{A}$$

$$f(A) \subset f(\bar{A})$$

We know  $G \subset f^{-1}(A) \& G \subset E$

$$\text{now, } \underline{G \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A})}$$

closed

$$\bar{G} \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A}) \quad (\text{beacuz } f \text{ is continuous})$$

↑ already closed.  $\uparrow$  pulls fun. closed to closed.

$$H \subset f^{-1}(B)$$

$$\cancel{\bar{G}} \cap H = \emptyset \rightarrow \text{says } E$$

$$\bar{G} \cap H \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A} \cap B)$$

is  
con

Th: let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$ . If  $f(a) < f(b)$  and  $\lambda$  is a number s.t.  $f(a) < \lambda < f(b)$ , then  $\exists x \in (a, b)$  s.t.  $f(x) = \lambda$ .

Prf: As  $[a, b]$  is connected (as it is an interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ )

$E = f([a, b])$  is connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  (as  $f$  is continuous). Now  $f(a) \in E$ ,  $f(b) \in E$ .

Since  $f(a) < \lambda < f(b)$ , and  $[f(A) = \{f(a) \mid a \in A\}]$

$E$  is connected.  $\lambda \in E$ , so  $\exists p \in [a, b]$

$$f(p) = \lambda.$$

$\rightarrow p \neq a$ , if  $p = a$  then  $f(a) = f(p) = \lambda$  but it is given  $\lambda > f(a)$ , so  $p \neq a$ .

$\rightarrow$  same  $p \neq b$ .  $\lambda < f(b)$

### Type of discontinuity.

$f(x^+)$   $\Rightarrow$  right limit.

$f(x^-)$   $\Rightarrow$  left limit.

(i)  $f(x^+) \neq f(x^-)$

(ii)  $f(x^+) = f(x^-) \neq f(x)$

1. Type one discontinuity

2. Type two discontinuity

Th: Let  $f$  be monotonically increasing on  $(a, b)$ .  
Then  $f(x^+)$  and  $f(x^-)$  exists at every pt  
of  $x$  of  $(a, b)$ .

Same is true for Monotonically decreasing  
function.

Corollary: Monotonic functions have no discontinuities  
of second type. ( $\text{As } f(x^+), f(x^-) \text{ exists}$ )

Th: Let  $f$  be monotonic on  $(a, b)$ .

Then the set of points of  $(a, b)$  at  
which  $f$  is discontinuous is at most  
Countable.

$$f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$f$  is diff at  $x$ .

$$\phi(t) = \frac{f(x) - f(t)}{x - t}$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \phi(t) = f'(x)$$

But if

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

this def<sup>n</sup> of

$f'(x)$  won't work.

1-Nov

Th: Suppose  $f$  is differentiable in  $(a, b)$

(a) If  $f'(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is monotonically increasing.

(b) If  $f'(x) = 0, \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is const

(c) If  $f'(x) \leq 0, \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is monotonically decreasing.

Let  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a given function we say  $f$

has a local maximum at pt  $p \in X$

if  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $f(q) \leq f(p) \quad \forall q$  with  $d(p, q) < \delta$

(Same if  $f(q) \geq f(p)$ ,  $f$  has a local minimum)

Thm: Let  $f$  be defined on  $[a, b]$ , if  $f$  has a local maximum at a pt  $x \in (a, b)$  and  $f'(x)$  exists, then  $f'(x) \geq 0$ .

Thm: Suppose  $f$  is a real differentiable function on  $[a, b]$  and suppose  $f'(a) < \lambda < f'(b)$ . Then there is a pt  $x \in (a, b)$  s.t.  $f'(x) = \lambda$ .

Pf: 
$$g(t) = f(t) - \lambda t$$

$$g'(t) = f'(t) - \lambda$$

$$g'(a) = f'(a) - \lambda < 0$$

So  $g(t_1) < g(a)$  for  $t_1 \in (a, b)$

and  $g'(b) > 0$ , so that  $g(t_2) < g(b)$  for some  $t_2 \in (a, b)$

(Ex)

Suppose ~~f(x)~~  $f'(x) > 0$  in  $(a, b)$ .

Prove that  $f$  is strictly increasing in  $(a, b)$ , and let  $g$  be the inverse of  $f$ . Prove that  $g$  is differentiable and that

$$g'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)} \quad (a < x < b)$$

→ Let  $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$ , on  $[x_1, x_2]$ ,

$f$  is differentiable

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = (x_2 - x_1) f'(x^*) \quad x^* \in (x_1, x_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0 \quad f'(x^*) > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{f(x_1) < f(x_2)}$$

As  $g$  is the inverse of  $f$

$$g(f(x)) = x, \quad \forall x$$

$$f(g(y)) = y, \quad \forall y$$

$$g'(f(x)) \cdot f'(x) = 1$$

Mean value Theorem and L'Hospital rule  
are not valid for complex valued function.

Counter)  
Ex.  $f(x) = e^{ix}$

$$f : [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

$$f(2\pi) - f(0) = e^{i(2\pi)} - e^{i \cdot 0}$$

$$= -1 = 0$$

$$f'(x) = i e^{ix}$$

$$|f'(x)| = 1 \rightarrow f'(x) \neq 0, \forall x$$

$$\underline{f(2\pi) - f(0) = f'(c)(2\pi - 0)}$$

will not hold true.

$$f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$g : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

$$f(x) = x$$

$$g(x) = x + \frac{x^2 i}{e^{x^2}}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x + x^2 e^{i/x^2}}$$

$$= \frac{x}{x(1 + x e^{i/x^2})}$$

$$= 1$$

But if we apply  
L'Hopital

$$\frac{|f'(x)|}{|g'(x)|} = \frac{1}{|g'(x)|} \leq \frac{x}{2-x}$$

$$g'(x) = 1 + 2x e^{ix^2} + ie^{(ix^2)} \left(-\frac{2}{x}\right)$$

$$|g'(x)| \geq |2x - \frac{2i}{x}| - 1$$
$$= \frac{2}{x} \sqrt{x^4 + 1} - 1$$

$$\underline{|g'(x)| \geq \frac{2}{x} - 1}$$

2-Nov

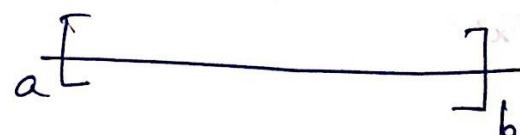
### Riemann Integration

Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded function.

let  $P = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  with  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$

$$a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$$

be a partition in  $[a, b]$ .



$$M_i = \sup f(x)$$

$$x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

$$m_i = \inf f(x) \quad x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i \quad (\text{Upper Riemann sum})$$

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i \quad (\text{Lower sum})$$

$$\int_a^b f dx = \inf U(f, P) \quad (\text{Upper Riemann integral})$$

forall partition P

$$\int_a^b f dx = \sup L(f, P) \quad (\text{Lower Riemann integral})$$

forall P

$\Rightarrow f \in R$  (Riemann integrable) if  $\int_a^b f dx = \int_a^b f dx$

$\int_a^b f$  Common.

Since  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$

$\exists$  bounds  $M$ , and  $m$  s.t.

$$m \leq f(x) \leq M \quad (a \leq x \leq b)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{m(b-a)}} \leq L(P, f) \leq U(P, f) \leq M(b-a)$$

$$\rightarrow \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n m \Delta x_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n M \Delta x_i = M \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i = M(b-a) \right\}$$

Def<sup>n</sup>: Let  $\alpha$  be a monotonically inc. function on  $[a, b]$ . Since  $\alpha(a), \alpha(b)$  are finite,  $\alpha$  is bounded. Corresponding to each partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$ , we write

$$\Delta \alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1}), \Delta x_i \geq 0, \text{ as } \alpha \text{ is monotonically increasing.}$$

→ Now for any real function  $f$  which is bounded on  $[a, b]$ .

$$\text{we put } U(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta \alpha_i,$$

$$L(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta \alpha_i.$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \int_a^b f d\alpha = \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}} U(P, f, \alpha)$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad \int_a^b f d\alpha = \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}} L(P, f, \alpha)$$

if LHS. of  $\textcircled{3}$  &  $\textcircled{4}$  are equal,

we denote their common value by

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha \text{ or } \int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x)$$

→ Riemann-Stieltjes Integral,  
when  $\alpha(x) = x$ , it reduces to Riemann Integral.

if,  $f \in R(\alpha) \rightarrow f$  is Riemann-Stieltjes integral.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha(a), \alpha(b) \text{ are finite, bcoz } \alpha \text{ is monotonic} \\ \text{inc. fun. on closed bounded subset} \end{array} \right\}$

\*  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are two partition in  $[a, b]$

$P_1 \supset P_2$   
we say  $P_1$  is refinement of  $P_2$ .

Given two partition  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , we say  
 $P^* = P_1 \cup P_2$  is their common refinement.

Th: If  $P^*$  is a refinement of  $P$ , then

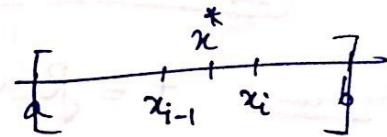
a)  $L(P, f, \alpha) \leq L(P^*, f, \alpha)$  and

b)  $U(P^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(P, f, \alpha)$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S_0 \subset S, S_0 \neq \emptyset, S \text{ is bounded} \\ \inf S \leq \inf S_0 \leq \sup S_0 \leq \sup S \end{array} \right\}$$

To prove a)  
Suppose  $P^*$  contains just one pt more than  $P$ . Let the extra point be  $x^*$  and suppose  $x_{i-1} < x^* < x_i$ ,  $x_{i-1}, x_i$  are two consecutive pts of  $P$ .

put  $\omega_1 = \inf f(x)$



$$x \in [x_{i-1}, x^*]$$

$$\omega_2 = \inf f(x)$$

$$x \in [x^*, x_i]$$

$$m_i = \inf f(x)$$

$$x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

$$\omega_1 \geq m_i$$

$$\omega_2 \geq m_i$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Hence } L(P^*, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) \\
 &= \omega_1 [\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] + \omega_2 [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*)] \\
 &\quad - m_i [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] \\
 &= \omega_1 [\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] + \omega_2 [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*)] \\
 &\quad - m_i [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*) + \alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] \\
 &= \frac{(\omega_1 - m_i)}{\geq 0} \left[ \alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1}) \right] \\
 &\quad + \frac{(\omega_2 - m_i)}{\geq 0} \left[ \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*) \right] \\
 &\geq 0 \\
 \Rightarrow & L(P^*, f, \alpha) \geq L(P, f, \alpha)
 \end{aligned}$$

Same can be proved for (b) part.

\*  $\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq \int_a^{\bar{b}} f d\alpha$  Always.

Theorem:  $f \in R(\alpha)$  on  $[a, b]$  iff  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ ,  
 $\exists$  a partition  $P$  such that

$$U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) < \epsilon \quad (*)$$

Proof: Suppose (\*) holds.

We know

$$L(P, f, \alpha) \leq \int_a^b f d\alpha \leq \int_a^{\bar{b}} f d\alpha \leq U(P, f, \alpha)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 L(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) &\leq \int_a^{\bar{b}} f d\alpha - L \\
 &\leq \int_a^{\bar{b}} f d\alpha - L \leq U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq \underbrace{\int_a^b f - \underline{\int_a^b f}}_{\text{difference of these two } 0 \leftrightarrow \epsilon} < \epsilon$$

$\left\{ b \text{ coz } 0 < \overline{\int_a^b f} - L < \epsilon, 0 \leq \underline{\int_a^b f} - L < \epsilon \right\}$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{\int_a^b f} - \underline{\int_a^b f} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow f \in R(\alpha)$

now, let us say  $f \in R(\alpha)$

to show that  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$  a partition  $P$  s.t.  $U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) < \epsilon$

Given  $\epsilon > 0, \exists$  a partition  $P_1$  s.t.

$$\frac{\epsilon}{2} + \underline{\int_a^b f dx} > U(P_1, f, \alpha)$$

$$U(P_1, f, \alpha) - \underline{\int_a^b f dx} < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \rightarrow ①$$

$$\text{Same, } (\exists P_2) \overline{\int_a^b f dx} - L(P_2, f, \alpha) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \rightarrow ②$$

$$\text{Let } P = P_1 \cup P_2$$

Adding ① & ②

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f, \alpha) &\leq U(P_2, f, \alpha) \\ &< \underline{\int_a^b f dx} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ &< L(P_1, f, \alpha) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ &< L(P_1, f, \alpha) + \epsilon \\ \Rightarrow U(P, f, \alpha) &< L(P_1, f, \alpha) + \epsilon \quad \underline{\text{proved}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\nexists \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \text{ is rational in } [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$M_i = \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) = 1$$

$$m_i = \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) = 0$$

$$x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i = b-a.$$

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i = 0$$

$\int_a^b f dx = b-a$

two are different  
So not a Riemann integral.

Thm: If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $f \in R(\alpha)$  on  $[a, b]$ .

③ Proof: As  $\alpha$  is monotonically increasing

$$a < b$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha(a) \leq \alpha(b)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \alpha(b) - \alpha(a) \geq 0$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\eta > 0$  s.t.

$$[\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)]\eta < \epsilon$$

$$\left( \eta < \frac{\epsilon}{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)} \right)$$

for  $\alpha(b) - \alpha(a) = 0$

on  $\epsilon < \epsilon$

$0 < \epsilon \sqrt{b-a}$  and  $(0, \epsilon)$  is

Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,

$\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$$|f(x) - f(t)| < \eta \quad \text{if } x \in [a, b] \quad t \in [a, b]$$

$$\text{and } |x - t| < \delta$$

If  $P$  is any partition of  $[a, b]$  such that

$$\Delta x_i < \delta \quad \forall i,$$

$$\text{then } |f(x) - f(t)| < \eta$$

$$\Rightarrow |M_i - m_i| \leq \eta \quad (i=1, 2, \dots, n)$$

and therefore

$$U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i \leq \eta \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i$$

$$= \eta [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)] < \epsilon$$

$\Rightarrow f \in R(\alpha)$  from the theorem

before.

Th: Suppose  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$ ,  $f$  has only finitely many points of discontinuity on  $[a, b]$  and  $\alpha$  is continuous at every pt at which  $f$  is discontinuous.

Then  $f \in R(\alpha)$ .  
 $\rightarrow$   $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  iff  $f$  has countable number of discontinuity pts

### Properties of Integral.

If  $f_1 \in R(\alpha)$ ,  $f_2 \in R(\alpha)$  on  $[a, b]$ ,

then  $f_1 + f_2 \in R(\alpha)$  ~~and~~  $cf \in R(\alpha)$  for

every constant and  $\int_a^b (f_1 + f_2) d\alpha$   
 $= \int_a^b f_1 d\alpha + \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha$ ,  $\int_a^b c f d\alpha = c \int_a^b f d\alpha$

(b)  $f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)$  on  $[a, b]$

$$\int_a^b f_1 d\alpha \leq \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha$$

(c)  $\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^c f d\alpha + \int_c^b f d\alpha$  ( $a < c < b$ )

(d)  $\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \leq M \{ \alpha(b) - \alpha(a) \}$

(e) If  $f \in R(\alpha_1)$ ,  $f \in R(\alpha_2)$   
 $\Rightarrow f \in R(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$

$$\rightarrow \int_a^b f d(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = \int_a^b f d\alpha_1 + \int_a^b f d\alpha_2$$

if  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$  are bounded on  $[a, b]$  then  $\int_a^b f d(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$  is defined as  $\int_a^b f d\alpha_1 + \int_a^b f d\alpha_2$

$$\rightarrow \int_a^b f d(c\alpha) (= c \int_a^b f d\alpha), c \text{ is a constant}$$

8-oct Thm: If  $f \in R(\alpha)$  and  $g \in R(\alpha)$  on  $[a, b]$ , then

(a)  $fg \in R(\alpha)$  and (b)  $|f| \in R(\alpha)$  and

$$\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \leq \int_a^b |f| d\alpha.$$

Unit Step

$$I(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ 1 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

primitve of  $I(x)$  is  $f(x)$

Thm: If  $a < s < b$ ,  $[f]$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$ ,  $f$  is continuous at  $s$  and  $\alpha(x) = I(x-s)$ , then

$$\boxed{\int_a^b f d\alpha = f(s)}$$

Thm: Suppose  $c_n \geq 0$  for  $n=1, 2, \dots$ ,  $\sum c_n < \infty$ .

$\{s_n\}$  is a sequence of distinct pts in  $(a, b)$  and  $\alpha(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n I(x-s_n)$ .

Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n f(s_n)$$

Theorem: Assume  $f$  inc. monotonically and  $f \in R$  on  $[a, b]$ . Let  $f$  be a bounded real fun. on  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f \in R(a)$  iff  $f' \in R$

In that case  $\int_a^b f dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx'$

Integration & differentiation

If  $f \in R$  on  $[a, b]$ . For  $a \leq x \leq b$ , put

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt.$$

Then  $F$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,

furthermore, if  $f$  is continuous

at a point  $x_0$  of  $[a, b]$ , then  $F$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and  $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$ .

Fundamental theorem of calculus

If  $f \in R$  on  $[a, b]$  and  $f$

there is a differentiable fun  $F$  on  $[a, b]$

s.t.  $F' = f$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$

## Vector integration

$$\vec{f} = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$$

$$\int_a^b \vec{f} dx = \int_a^b (f_1 dx, f_2 dx, \dots, f_n dx)$$

$\int f dx$  is a pt. in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## Sequence and Series of functions

$\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of continuous fun.

$$f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$(f_n)$  converges ptwise

$$\epsilon > 0, \exists N \text{ s.t. } \{N = N(\epsilon, x)\}$$

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon, n \geq N$$

$\{f_n(x)\}$  converges for all  $x \in E$ .

continuous  
 $f_n \rightarrow f$

does not mean  $f$  is contin.

$$\text{eg. } f_n(x) = \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$$

$$f_n(0) = 0, f_1(0) = 2, f_2(0) = 4, f_3(0) = 6, \dots$$

## Double Sequence

$m=1, 2, \dots, n=1, 2, \dots$

$$S_{m,n} = \frac{m}{m+n}$$

Fixed n

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_{m,n} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{m}{m+n} \approx 1$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} S_{m,n} = 1$$

Fixed m

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{m,n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{m}{m+n} \geq 0$$

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{m,n} = 0$$

$$1 \neq 0$$

We cannot interchange  $m$  &  $n$ .

It does not converge (point)

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{m,n} = 0$$

But if we take limit

$$t \leftarrow t_0$$

then it converges to  $t_0$