

Real Analysis Lecture Notes

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Chapter 1

\mathbb{R} real number

1.1 Field Properties

1. $+$

- Communitive: $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. x + y = y + x$
- Associative: $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}. (x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$
- Identity: $\exists 0 \in \mathbb{R}. \forall x \in \mathbb{R}. x + 0 = x$
- Additive inverse: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. \exists -x \in \mathbb{R}. x + (-x) = 0$

2. \cdot

- Communitive
- Associative
- Identity: $1 \neq 0$
- Multiplicative inverse: $\exists x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}. x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = 1.$
- Distributive law: $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}. a \cdot (b + c) = ab + ac$

Theorem 1.1.1. *If $a + x = a$ then $x = 0$*

Proof. Add $-a$ to both side:

$$\begin{aligned} -a + a + x &= -a + a \\ (-a + a) + x &= (-a + a) \\ 0 + x &= 0 \\ x &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.1.2. *If $a + x = 0$ then $x = -a$*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \exists -a \in \mathbb{R}. (-a + a) + x &= -a + 0 \\ 0 + x &= -a \\ x &= -a \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.1.3. $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}. a \cdot 0 = 0$

Proof. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} a + a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 1 + a \cdot 0 \\ &= a \cdot (1 + 0) \\ &= a \cdot 1 \\ &= a \quad \Rightarrow a \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.1.4. $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}. (-1)a = -a$

Proof. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} a + (-1)a &= a \cdot 1 + a(-1) \\ &= a(1 + (-1)) \\ &= a \cdot 0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

By theorem 1.1.2

$$(-1)a = -1$$

□

1.2 Order

A relation $<$ on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

1. Trichotomy: $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. one and only one is true:

$$a = b, a < b, b < a$$

2. Transitivity: $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$. , if $a < b$ and $b < c$ then $a < c$.

3. Addictive property: $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$. , if $a < b$ then $a + c < b + c$.

4. Multiplicative property: $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

(i) if $a < b$ and $c > 0$ then $ac < bc$

(ii) if $a < b$ and $c < 0$ then $ac > bc$

Theorem 1.2.1. $\forall a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}. a^2 > 0$

Proof. Since $a \neq 0$, by Trichotomy, $a > 0$ or $a < 0$.

- If $a > 0$, then by $Mp_{(i)}$, $a^2 > a \cdot 0 = 0$, $a^2 > 0$
- If $a < 0$, then by $Mp_{(ii)}$, $a^2 > a \cdot 0 = 0$, $a^2 > 0$

□

Theorem 1.2.2. If $a > 0$ then $a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a} > 0$

Proof. $a^{-1} \neq 0$.

(i) If $a^{-1} = 0$ then $a \cdot a^{-1} = 0$, contradiction.

(ii) If $a^{-1} < 0$, by $Mp_{(ii)}$

$$\begin{aligned} a^{-1} \cdot a &< 0 \\ 1 &< 0 \end{aligned}$$

contradiction.

So by Trichotomy, $a^{-1} > 0$. □

Theorem 1.2.3. If $0 < a < 1$, then $0 < a^2 < a < 1$

Proof. By $Mp_{(i)}$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \cdot a &< a \cdot a < a \cdot 1 \\ 0 &< a^2 < a \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 1.2.1 (Square root). For $a > 0$ there is $\sqrt{a} > 0$ such that $(\sqrt{a})^2 = a$

Theorem 1.2.4. If $0 < a < 1$ then $0 < a < \sqrt{a} < 1$

Proof. First prove $\sqrt{a} < 1$

(i) If $\sqrt{a} > 1$ then $\sqrt{a} > 0$. By $Mp_{(i)}$, $(\sqrt{a})^2 > \sqrt{a} > 1$, $a > 1$, contradiction.

(ii) If $\sqrt{a} = 1$ then $a = (\sqrt{a})^2 = 1$, contradiction.

By Trichotomy, $0 < \sqrt{a} < 1$. By $Mp_{(i)}$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \cdot \sqrt{a} &< \sqrt{a} \cdot \sqrt{a} < \sqrt{a} \cdot 1 \\ 0 &< a < \sqrt{a} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.2.5. If $0 \leq a < b$ and $0 \leq c < d$ then $ac < bd$

Proof.

- When $a = 0$ or $c = 0$, $ac = 0$. And $0 < b$ and $0 < d$ so by $Mp_{(i)}$, $0 < bd$, so $ac < bd$.
- Now consider $0 < a < b$ and $0 < c < d$. By $Mp_{(i)}$, $0 < ac < bc$ and $0 < bc < bd$. By transitivity, $ac < bd$.

□

Theorem 1.2.6. If $a > 1$ then $a > \sqrt{a} > 1$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &< \frac{1}{a} < 1 \\ 0 &< \frac{1}{a} < \sqrt{\frac{1}{a}} < 1 \\ a &> \sqrt{a} > 1 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.2.7. $a, b \geq 0$ then $\sqrt{a}, \sqrt{b} \geq 0$, then $(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0$

1.3 Absolute Value Function

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Note. if $x < 0$, by $Mp(ii)$, $(-1)x > 0$, $-x > 0$.

Theorem 1.3.1. $|a| = |-a|$

Proof. By Trichotomy

(i) $a > 0$: $|a| = a$, and $-a < 0$, $|-a| = a$

□

Theorem 1.3.2. $|ab| = |a| |b|$

Theorem 1.3.3 (Fundamental Theorem Of Absolute Values). $|a| < M \iff -M < a < M$

Proof.

1. Assume $|a| < M$, to prove that $-M < a < M$.

- if $a \geq 0$, then $|a| = a$, $0 \leq a < M$. Since $0 < M$, $-M < 0$, $-M < a < M$.
- if $a < 0$, then $|a| = -a$, $0 < -a < M$, $M > 0 > a > -M$, so $-M < a < M$.

2. Assume $-M < a < M$, to prove that $|a| < M$.

- if $a \geq 0$ then $|a| = a < M$.
- if $a < 0$ then $|a| = -a$. Since $M > -a > -M$, $M > |a|$.

□

Theorem 1.3.4 (1st Triangle Inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} |a| &\leq |a| \\ -|a| &\leq a \leq |a| \\ |b| &\leq |b| \\ -|b| &\leq b \leq |b| \\ -|a| - |b| &\leq a + b \leq |a| + |b| \\ |a + b| &\leq |a| + |b| \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.3.5 (2nd Triangle Inequality). $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} |a| &= |a - b + b| \leq |a - b| + |b| \\ |a| - |b| &\leq |a - b| \\ |b| &= |b - a + a| \leq |b - a| + |a| \\ -|b - a| &\leq |a| - |b| \\ ||a| - |b|| &\leq |a - b| \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.3.6. If $|a| < \epsilon$ for $\epsilon > 0$ then $a = 0$

Proof. Suppose $|a| > 0$. set $\epsilon = \frac{|a|}{2} > 0$, then $|a| > \epsilon$. Contradiction. So $|a| = 0$, $a = 0$.

□

1.4 Supremum and Infimum

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}, E \neq \emptyset$.

Definition 1.4.1 (Bounded above). $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}. \forall x \in E. x < M$. M is the upper bound.

Definition 1.4.2 (Supremum).

(i) $\forall x \in E. x \leq \sup E$

(ii) If M is a upper bound of E , then $\sup E \leq M$ (Or, no $M \leq \sup E$ is an upperbound)

Definition 1.4.3 (Bounded below). $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}. \forall x \in E. x > M$. M is the lower bound.

Definition 1.4.4 (Infimum).

(i) $\forall x \in E. x \geq \inf E$

(ii) If M is a lower bound of E , then $\inf E \geq M$

Ex 1.4.1. $E = [0, 1] = \{x \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\}, \sup E = 1, \inf E = 0$

Ex 1.4.2. $E = (0, 1) = \{x \mid 0 < x < 1\}, \sup E = 1, \inf E = 0$

Proof. Show if $M < 1$ then it's not an upper bound, therefore all upperbound of E greater or equal to 1. If $\frac{1}{2} < M < 1$ then

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

We have $\frac{M+1}{2} \in E, \frac{M+1}{2} > M$, M is not an upper bound. Therefore all upper bounds M must be ≥ 1 . So, by def, $\sup E = 1$. \square

Theorem 1.4.1. If $s = \sup E$ and $r = \sup E$ then $s = r$

Proof. $s \leq$ all upper bounds, r is an upper bound, $s \leq r$. $r \leq$ all upper bounds, s is an upper bound, $r \leq s$. Therefore, by Trichotomy, $s = r$. \square

Theorem 1.4.2. If $a \in E$, and a is an upperbound for E then $\sup E = a$.

Proof. a satisfies (i) for being a sup. Since $a \in E$. If M is a upperbound of E , $a < M$. a satisfies (ii) for being a sup. So $a = \sup E$. \square

Definition 1.4.5. M is **not** an upperbound for E means $\exists x \in E. x > M$.

Theorem 1.4.3. For E , $\sup E$ exists, $\epsilon > 0$.

$$\sup E - \epsilon < \sup E$$

So $\sup E - \epsilon$ is not an upperbound, meaning $\exists x \in E. \sup E - \epsilon < x \leq \sup E$.

Ex 1.4.3. Let A be an nonempty, bounded set, $c > 0$. $B = \{x = ca, a \in A\}$. Prove that $\sup B = c \cdot \sup A$

Proof. By completeness, $\sup A$ exists. $\forall x \in B, \exists a \in A. x = c \cdot a$. Since $a \leq \sup A$ we have $x = ca \leq c \cdot \sup A$. So $c \cdot \sup A$ is an upperbound of B . By completeness, $\sup B$ exists. Follows that $\sup B \leq c \cdot \sup A$. Now, since $\sup B$ is an upperbound of B ,

$$\begin{aligned}\forall x \in B. x &\leq \sup B \\ \forall a \in A. ca &\leq \sup B \\ a &\leq \frac{\sup B}{c}\end{aligned}$$

So $\frac{\sup B}{c}$ is an upperbound for A , entails $\frac{\sup B}{c} \geq \sup A$, namely $\sup B \geq c \cdot \sup A$. So $\sup B = c \cdot \sup A$. \square

Ex 1.4.4. Let A, B be nonempty, bounded sets. What is $\sup(A - B)$

$$\begin{aligned}\sup(A - B) &= \sup(A + (-B)) \\ &= \sup(A) + \sup(-B) \\ &= \sup(A) - \inf(B)\end{aligned}$$

1.5 Completeness

Definition 1.5.1. If $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $E \neq \emptyset$ and E is bounded above then $\sup E$ exists. (is a real number)

Ex 1.5.1. For rational number:

$$E = \left\{ \frac{n}{m} \in \mathbb{Q} \mid \frac{n}{m} < \pi \right\}, \sup E = \pi \notin \mathbb{Q}$$

So \mathbb{Q} is not complete.

Definition 1.5.2 ($\sup \mathbb{Z}$). if $E \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, and $\sup E$ exists, then $\sup E \in E$.

1.6 Archimedean Principle (AP)

Definition 1.6.1. For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a > 0$, there is an $N \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $Na > b$.

Proof.

1. If $a > b$, then $N = 1$
2. If $a \leq b$ then let

$$E = \{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid ka \leq b\}$$

Since $a \leq b$, $k = 1 \in E$, so E is not empty, $k \in E \Rightarrow k \leq \frac{b}{a}$, $\frac{b}{a}$ is an upper bound of E . By Completeness, $\sup E$ exists. Call $n = \sup E$. By $\sup \mathbb{Z}$, $n \in E$. Now $n + 1$ is not in E , therefore $(n + 1)a > b$. Set $N = n + 1$.

\square

1.7 Density of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R}

Definition 1.7.1 (Density). $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}. a < b, \exists r \in \mathbb{Q}. a < r < b.$

Proof. By A.P. then there is an $N \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{N} < b - a$. Let

$$E = \left\{ k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \frac{k}{n} \leq a \right\}$$

E is nonempty, bounded above by Na . By Completeness, $\sup E$ exists. By $\sup \mathbb{Z}$, $\sup E \in E$. Set $n = \sup E$, then

$$\begin{aligned} n+1 &\notin E \\ \frac{n+1}{n} &> a \\ \frac{n}{n} \leq a &< \frac{n+1}{n} \\ &= \frac{n}{n} + \frac{1}{n} < a + b - a = b \\ a &< \frac{n+1}{n} < b \end{aligned}$$

let $r = \frac{n+1}{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$. □

1.8 Reflection

Definition 1.8.1 ($-E$). $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Let $-E = \{a \mid a = -x, x \in E\}.$

Theorem 1.8.1. If $\sup E$ exists, then $\inf(-E)$ exists, and equals to $-\sup E$.

Proof. Since $\sup E$ exists,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in E. x &\leq \sup E \\ \forall x \in E. -x &> -\sup E \\ \forall a \in -E. a &\geq -\sup E \end{aligned}$$

So $-\sup E$ is a lower bound for $-E$.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall a \in -E. a &\geq M \\ \forall a \in -E. -a &\leq -M \\ \forall x \in E. x &\leq -M \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\sup E \leq -M$, $-\sup E \geq M$. □

1.9 Monotonicity

Theorem 1.9.1. If $A \subseteq B$, $A \neq \emptyset$, $\sup B$ exists, then $\sup A \leq \sup B$.

Proof. If $a \in A \subseteq B$ then $a \in B$, $a \leq \sup B$. $\sup B$ is an upperbound for A . By Completeness $\sup A$ exists and $\sup A \leq \sup B$. \square

Theorem 1.9.2. *If $A \subseteq B$, $A \neq \emptyset$, and $\inf B$ exists, then $\inf A \geq \inf B$.*

Definition 1.9.1 (Sup and Inf of any set). *Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.*

- *For $E \neq \emptyset$, If E is not bounded above by any number, then $\sup E = \infty$. If E is not bounded below by any number, then $\inf E = -\infty$.*
- *For $E = \emptyset$, $\sup E = -\infty$, $\inf E = \infty$.*

Chapter 2

Sequences on \mathbb{R}

2.1 Limits of Sequences

Definition 2.1.1 (Limit).

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0. \exists N. n \geq N \rightarrow |x_n - L| < \epsilon$$

Theorem 2.1.1. If $x_n \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then all subsets also converge to L .

Theorem 2.1.2. If $x_n \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then $\{x_n\}$ is bounded

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \exists M. |x_n| \leq M$$

Ex 2.1.1. True or False. If x_n converges then $\frac{x_n}{n}$ converges.

Answer. True. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_n}{n} = 0$.

Proof. Consider, since $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. |x_n| \leq M$, without lost of generality, $M > 0$.

$$\frac{|x_n|}{n} \leq \frac{M}{n}$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$. By A.P, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$. so that $M < N\epsilon$.

$$\forall n \geq N. \left| \frac{x_n}{n} - 0 \right| \leq \frac{M}{n} \leq \frac{M}{N} < \epsilon$$

□

Ex 2.1.2. True or False. If x_n does not converge, then $\frac{x_n}{n}$ does not converge.

Answer. False. Consider $x_n = (-1)^n$. x_n does not converge but $\frac{x_n}{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Given $\epsilon > 0$. By A.P, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$. $1 < N\epsilon$. For $n \geq N$ we get

$$\left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$$

□

Theorem 2.1.3. $\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{n}} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof. Given $\epsilon > 0$. By A.P., $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$. $\pi^2 < N \cdot \epsilon^2$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\pi^2}{N} &< \epsilon^2 \\ \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{N}} &< \epsilon\end{aligned}$$

For all $n \geq N$ we get

$$\left| 1 + \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{n}} - 1 \right| = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{N}} < \epsilon$$

□

Theorem 2.1.4. Assume that $x_n \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi x_n - 2}{x_n} = \pi - 2$$

Proof. By assumption, take $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, there exists N so that $\forall n \geq N$. $|x_n - 1| \leq \frac{1}{2}$, gives $\frac{1}{2} < x_n < \frac{3}{2}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\left| \frac{\pi x_n - 2}{x_n} - (\pi - 2) \right| &= \left| \frac{\pi x_n - 2}{x_n} - \frac{(\pi - 2)x_n}{x_n} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{2x_n - 2}{x_n} \right| \\ &= \frac{2}{|x_n|} |x_n - 1| \\ &\leq 4 |x_n - 1|\end{aligned}$$

By assumption, for any $\epsilon > 0$, $|x_n - 1| < \frac{\epsilon}{4}$

$$\left| \frac{\pi x_n - 2}{x_n} - (\pi - 2) \right| < \epsilon$$

□

Theorem 2.1.5 (Comparison). If $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $y_n \rightarrow y$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and if $x_n \leq y_n$ for $n \geq N_0$ then $x \leq y$.

Proof. Suppose not, $x > y$. For $\epsilon = \frac{x-y}{2} > 0$, then there is N_1 s.t. $n \geq N_1 \rightarrow |x_n - x| < \frac{x-y}{2}$ and N_2 s.t. $n \geq N_2 \rightarrow |y_n - y| < \frac{x-y}{2}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{x+y}{2} &= x - \frac{x-y}{2} < x_n \\ y_n &< \frac{x-y}{2} + y = \frac{x+y}{2} \\ y_n &< \frac{x+y}{2} < x_n \text{ for } n > \max(N_1, N_2)\end{aligned}$$

□

Ex 2.1.3. True or False. If $x_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then $\frac{1}{x_n} \rightarrow \infty$.

Answer. False. $x_n = -\frac{1}{n}$

Theorem 2.1.6. If $x_n \geq 0$ and $x_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then $\sqrt{x_n} \rightarrow \sqrt{x}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Since $x_n \geq 0$ by comparison $x \geq 0$.

- If $x = 0$, consider $|\sqrt{x_n} - 0| = \sqrt{x_n}$ since $x_n \rightarrow 0$, given $\epsilon > 0$ there is an N so that $n \geq N \rightarrow |x_n - 0| < \epsilon^2$. $x_n < \epsilon^2$, $\sqrt{x_n} < \epsilon$, $|\sqrt{x_n} - 0| < \epsilon$.

- If $x > 0$, consider

$$\begin{aligned} |\sqrt{x_n} - \sqrt{x}| &= \left| (\sqrt{x_n} - \sqrt{x}) \frac{\sqrt{x_n} + \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x_n} + \sqrt{x}} \right| \\ &= \frac{|x_n - x|}{\sqrt{x_n} + \sqrt{x}} \\ &\leq \frac{|x_n - x|}{\sqrt{x}} \end{aligned}$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$ then there is an N s.t.

$$n \geq N \rightarrow |x_n - x| < \sqrt{x}\epsilon$$

So

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

□

Theorem 2.1.7. If $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then there is a sequence r_n from \mathbb{Q} s.t. $r_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ by density of \mathbb{Q} there is an $r_n \in \mathbb{Q}$ with

$$x - \frac{1}{n} < r_n < x + \frac{1}{n} \iff 0 \leq |r_n - x| < \frac{1}{n}$$

By squeeze theorem,

$$|r_n - x| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \iff r_n \rightarrow x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

□

2.2 Increasing and decreasing

Definition 2.2.1 (Increasing). $\{x_n\}$ is increasing means $x_n \leq x_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $x_n < x_{n+1}$ then strictly increasing.

Definition 2.2.2 (Decreasing). $\{x_n\}$ is decreasing means $x_n \geq x_{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $x_n > x_{n+1}$ then strictly decreasing.

Theorem 2.2.1 (Monotone Convergence Theorem). If x_n is increasing and bounded above, then $x_n \rightarrow \sup \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. Given $\epsilon > 0$, there is an $x_n \in E = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ so that

$$\sup E - \epsilon < x_n \leq \sup E < \sup E + \epsilon$$

for $n \geq N$, $x_N \leq x_n$, so

$$\sup E - \epsilon < x_N \leq x_n < \sup E + \epsilon \iff |x_n - \sup E| < \epsilon$$

□

Ex 2.2.1. If $0 < |a| < 1$ then $a^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof. Consider $|a^n - 0| = |a|^n$, to prove $|a|^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Here, $0 < |a| < 1$, $|a|^2 < |a|$. If $|a|^n < |a|^{n+1}$ then $|a|^{n+1} < |a|^{n+2}$. By induction, $|a|^{n+1} < |a|^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. $|a|^n$ is decreasing and bounded below by 0. By MCT, $|a|^n \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Now note that

$$|a|^{2n} = |a|^n |a|^n \rightarrow L \cdot L = L^2 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

But $|a|^{2n}$ is the subseq of every terms of $|a|^n$. By the subsequence theorem,

$$|a|^{2n} \rightarrow L \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore $L^2 = L$, gives that $L = 0, 1$. Since $|a| < 1$ and $|a|^n$ is decreasing, $L = 0$. □

Ex 2.2.2. If $a > 0$ then $a^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof. For $a > 1$ and $n < m$,

$$a^n < a^m$$

Take the $\frac{1}{mn}$ root, we get

$$(a^n)^{\frac{1}{mn}} < (a^m)^{\frac{1}{mn}}$$

$$a^{\frac{1}{m}} < a^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$$1 < a^{\frac{1}{n+1}} < a^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$a^{\frac{1}{n}}$ is decreasing and bounded below by 1. By the MCT, $a^{\frac{1}{n}} \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. But

$$a^{\frac{1}{2}n} = \sqrt{a^{\frac{1}{n}}} \rightarrow \sqrt{L}$$

Therefore $L = \sqrt{L}$, $L^2 = L$, $L = 1, 2$. Since it's bounded below by 1, $L = 1$. □

Ex 2.2.3. If $0 < x_1 < 1$, $x_{n+1} = 1 - \sqrt{1 - x_n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, prove that x_n converges and find the limit.

Proof. Induct on x_n

Base case.

$$x_2 = 1 - \sqrt{1 - x_1}$$

$$0 < x_1 < 1$$

$$0 > -x_1 > -1$$

$$1 > 1 - x_1 > 0$$

$$1 > \sqrt{1 - x_1} > 1 - x_1 > 0$$

$$-1 < -\sqrt{1 - x_1} < x_1 - 1 < 0$$

$$0 < 1 - \sqrt{1 - x_1} < x_1 < 1$$

$$x_2 < x_1 < 1$$

Inductive step. Suppose $0 < x_n < 1$ repeat the argument with x_1 replaced by x_n ,

$$0 < x_{n+1} < x_n < 1$$

By induction the sequence is decreasing and is bounded below by 0. Therefore by MCT it converges. Now find the L . $x_n \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$L = 1 - \sqrt{1 - L}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - L} = 1 - L$$

$$1 - L = 1, 0$$

$$L = 1, 0$$

$$\Rightarrow L = 0$$

□

Ex 2.2.4. $x_0 > 0$ and $x_n = \frac{3}{2} + \frac{2}{3}x_{n-1}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Show x_n converges and find the limit.

Proof.

$$x_1 = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3}x_0 < \frac{1}{3}x_0 + \frac{2}{3}x_0 = x_0$$

$$2 < x_1 < x_0$$

If $2 < x_{n+1} < x_n$ then the same arg gives $2 < x_{n+2} < x_{n+1}$. By induction, x_n converges and bounded below by 2. By MCT, $x_n \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Now find L .

$$L = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3}L$$

$$L = 2$$

□

Ex 2.2.5. $x_0 < 3$, $x_n = \frac{3}{7} + \frac{6}{7}x_{n-1}$, prove it converges and find the limit.

Proof.

$$x_0 = \frac{1}{7}x_0 + \frac{6}{7}x_0 < \frac{3}{7} + \frac{6}{7}x_0 = x_1 < \frac{3}{7} + \frac{18}{7} = 3$$

$$x_n = \frac{1}{7}x_n + \frac{6}{7}x_n < \frac{3}{7} + \frac{6}{7}x_n = x_{n+1} < \frac{3}{7} + \frac{18}{7} = 3$$

x_n is increasing and bounded above. By MCT, $x_n \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Taking the limit in

$$x_n = \frac{3}{7} + \frac{6}{7}x_{n-1}$$

We get

$$L = \frac{3}{7} + \frac{6}{7}L$$

$$L = 3$$

□

Chapter 3

Functions on \mathbb{R}

3.1 Limits

Definition 3.1.1. Let I be an open interval, $a \in I$, $\hat{I} = I \setminus \{a\}$, $f : \hat{I} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ means

$$\forall \epsilon > 0. \exists \delta > 0. \forall x \in \hat{I}. (0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon)$$

Ex 3.1.1. $f(x) = mx + b$, $a \in \mathbb{R}$

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

Ex 3.1.2. $f(x) = x^3 + x + 1$, prove $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 11$

Proof. For $|x - 2| < 1$, $1 < x < 3$ and $|x^2 + 2x + 5| \leq 20$. For $|x - 2| < 1$ we have

$$|x^3 + x + 1 - 11| \leq |x^2 + 2x + 5| |x - 2| \leq 20 |x - 2|$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta = \min(1, \frac{\epsilon}{20})$. For $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$ we get

$$|x^3 + x + 1 - 11| \leq 20 |x - 2| < 20 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{20} = \epsilon$$

□

Definition 3.1.2 (Sequential Characterization of Limits). Let x_n be sequence from \hat{I} ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a \rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = L$$

Definition 3.1.3 (Polynomial). $n \in \mathbb{N}$, a polynomial of degree N

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n = \sum_{k=0}^n x_k x^k, \quad a_n \neq 0$$

Theorem 3.1.1.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} P(x) = P(x_0)$$

Proof. Recall

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} mx + b = mx_0 + b$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^2 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x = x_0 \cdot x_0 = x_0^2 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^3 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^2 \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x = x_0^2 \cdot x_0 = x_0^3 \end{aligned}$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^n = x_0^n$ then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^{n+1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^n \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x = x_0^n \cdot x_0 = x_0^{n+1}$$

By induction $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x^n = x_0^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For $P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} P_n(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} a_0 + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} a_1x + \cdots + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} a_nx^n \\ &= a_0 + a_1x_0 + \cdots + a_nx_0^n \\ &= P_n(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 3.1.4 (Rational Function). $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are polynomials with $Q(x) \neq 0$, then a rational function R is

$$R(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k}{\sum_{k=0}^m b_k x^k}$$

Theorem 3.1.2.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} R(x) = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} P(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} Q(x)} = \frac{P(x_0)}{Q(x_0)}, \quad Q(x_0) \neq 0$$

Theorem 3.1.3. If $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are polynomials with $\deg(P) \leq \deg(Q)$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \deg(P) < \deg(Q) \\ a_n/b_n & \deg(P) = \deg(Q) \end{cases}$$

Proof. For $m > n$

$$\begin{aligned} &\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(a_n x^n + \cdots + a_0) \frac{1}{x^m}}{(b_m x^m + \cdots + b_0) \frac{1}{x^m}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{a_n x^n}{x^m} + \cdots + \frac{a_0}{x^m} \right)}{\left(\frac{b_m x^m}{x^m} + \cdots + \frac{b_0}{x^m} \right)} \\ &= \frac{0 + \cdots + 0}{b_m + 0 + \cdots + 0} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

3.2 Convergence and Divergence

Definition 3.2.1 (Convergence). $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ means

$$\forall \epsilon > 0. \exists N. x > N \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$ means

$$\forall \epsilon > 0. \exists N. x < -N \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

Definition 3.2.2 (Divergence). $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ means

$$\forall M. \exists N. x > N \Rightarrow f(x) > M$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty$ means

$$\forall M. \exists N. x < -N \Rightarrow f(x) < -M$$

Definition 3.2.3 (One-sided limit). $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \infty$ means,

$$\forall M. \exists \delta > 0. a < x < a + \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > M$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = -\infty$ means,

$$\forall M. \exists \delta > 0. a - \delta < x < a \Rightarrow f(x) < -M$$

Ex 3.2.1. Prove

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{2x^2 + x + 5}{3x} = -\infty$$

Proof. Consider

$$\frac{2x^2 + x + 5}{3x} < \frac{1}{3}x$$

we want

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{3}x &< -(|M| + 1) \\ x &< -3(|M| + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Given M . Let $N = -3(|M| + 1)$. For $x < N$ we get

$$\frac{2x^2 + x + 5}{3x} < \frac{1}{3}x < \frac{1}{3}N = \frac{1}{3}(-3)(|M| + 1) = -(|M| + 1) < -|M| \leq M$$

□

Ex 3.2.2. To prove

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{2x}{x^3 - 1} = +\infty$$

Proof. Consider

$$\frac{2x}{x^3 - 1} = \frac{2x}{(x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)} = \frac{1}{x - 1} \cdot \frac{2x}{x^2 + x + 1} > \frac{1}{x - 1} \cdot \frac{2}{7} \quad \text{for } 1 < x < 2$$

We want

$$\frac{1}{x - 1} \cdot \frac{2}{7} > |M| + 1$$

Given M , let $\delta = \min(1, \frac{2}{7(|M|+1)})$ for $0 < x - 1 < \delta$. We get

$$\frac{2\delta}{x^3 - 1} > \frac{1}{x - 1} \cdot \frac{2}{7} > \frac{7(|M| + 1)}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{7} = |M| + 1 > |M| \geq M$$

□

3.3 Continuity

Definition 3.3.1 (Continuity). $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $a \in E$.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a) \iff \forall \epsilon > 0. \exists \delta > 0. \forall x \in E. |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$$

- f is continuous at a
- If f is continuous at every point $a \in E$, then f is said to be continuous on E

Theorem 3.3.1 (Extreme Value Theorem). f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

$$\exists x_m, x_M \in [a, b]. \forall x \in [a, b]. f(x_m) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_M)$$

Proof. $f([a, b])$ is a nonempty set, then $\sup f([a, b])$ and $\inf f([a, b])$ exists. By definition of \sup , there exists $y_n \in f([a, b])$ with $y_n \rightarrow \sup f([a, b])$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, therefore there are $x_n \in [a, b]$ with $f(x_n) = y_n$. By B-W there is $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x_M \in [a, b]$. By continuity, $f(x_{n_k}) \rightarrow f(x_M)$, $y_{n_k} \rightarrow \sup f([a, b])$, gives that $f(x_M) = \sup f([a, b])$. Similarly, $f(x_m) = \inf f([a, b])$. □

Theorem 3.3.2 (Intermediate Value Theorem). If f is cont on $[a, b]$ and if y is any value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ then there is a c between a, b with $f(c) = y$.

Proof. Suppose without loss of generality, $f(a) < y < f(b)$. Since f is cont at a , for $\epsilon = \frac{y - f(a)}{2} > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ so that $x \in [a, b]$, $|x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \frac{y - f(a)}{2}$, so $f([a, a + \delta])$ is bounded above by y . Let $E = \{t \mid f([a, t]) \text{ is bounded above by } y\}$ is bounded above by b . Consider $\sup E$, exists by Completeness. E is nonempty $t = a + \delta \in E$, bounded above by b . Let $t_n \in E$, $t_n \rightarrow \sup E$, gives that $f(t_n) \leq y$. By Continuity, $f(t_n) \rightarrow f(\sup E) \leq y$.

If $f(\sup E) = y$, done. If $f(\sup E) < y$, then by Continuity of f at $\sup E$, for $\epsilon = \frac{y - f(\sup E)}{2}$ there is a $\hat{\delta} > 0$ such that

$$|x - \sup E| < \hat{\delta} \Rightarrow \left| f(x) - f(\sup E) \right| < \frac{y - \sup E}{2}$$

$f(x) < \frac{y + \sup E}{2} < y$ for all $x \in (\sup E - \delta, \sup E + \delta)$. Contradiction. □

Ex 3.3.1. If f is continuous on $[a, b] = I$ then $f(I) = J$ is a closed bounded interval.

Proof. By the extreme value theorem, $\exists x_m, x_M \in [a, b]$. so that $\forall x \in [a, b]. f(x_m) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_M)$. This shows that

$$f([a, b]) \subseteq [f(x_m), f(x_M)]$$

Let $f(x_m) < y < f(x_M)$. By the IVT there is an x between x_m, x_M with $y = f(x)$. This shows

$$[f(x_m), f(x_M)] \subseteq f([a, b])$$

which means

$$J = [f(x_m), f(x_M)]$$

□

Ex 3.3.2. f, g are cont on $[a, b]$ with $f(a) < g(a)$ and $f(b) > g(b)$. Shows that $\exists c \in [a, b]. f(c) = g(c)$

Proof. Consider $h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$. Then $h(a) < 0 < h(b)$. By IVT, there is a c between a, b with $h(c) = 0$. This shows that $f(c) = g(c)$. □

3.4 Uniform continuity

Definition 3.4.1 (Uniform Continuity). $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uniform continuous means

$$\forall \epsilon > 0. \exists \delta > 0. \forall x, y \in E. |x - y| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$$

Theorem 3.4.1. If $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is unif cont, x_n from E is Cauchy, then $f(x_n)$ is Cauchy.

Ex 3.4.1. $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is not unif cont on $(0, 1)$

Proof. Let $x_n = \frac{1}{n+1}, n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\begin{aligned} x_n &\in (0, 1) \\ x_n &\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

therefore x_n is Cauchy. If $f(x) = 1/x$ were unif cont then $f(x_n)$ is Cauchy, and therefore converges. But $f(x_n) = \frac{1}{1/(n+1)} = n+1$ which diverges to ∞ , contradiction, therefore $f(x) = 1/x$ is not unif cont. \square

Theorem 3.4.2. f cont on $[a, b]$, f is uniformly continuous on $[a, b]$

Theorem 3.4.3. f cont on (a, b) , f is uniformly continuous iff

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ exists}$$

Proof. (of \Rightarrow) Let $x_n \in (a, b)$ with $x_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. x_n is Cauchy. Then $f(x_n)$ is Cauchy. Therefore there exists L s.t. $f(x_n) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Let $y_n \in (a, b)$ with $y_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Similarly, there exists K s.t. $f(y_m) \rightarrow K$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} |L - K| &= |L - f(x_n) + f(x_n) - f(y_m) + f(y_m) - K| \\ &= |L - f(x_n)| + |f(x_n) - f(y_m)| + |f(y_m) - K| \end{aligned}$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \exists N_1. n \geq N_1 &\Rightarrow |L - f(x_n)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ \exists N_2. m \geq N_2 &\Rightarrow |f(y_m) - K| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ \exists \delta > 0. |x - y| < \delta &\Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \end{aligned}$$

For this δ , there is an N_3 such that

$$n \geq N_3 \Rightarrow |x_n - a| < \frac{1}{2}\delta$$

And there is an N_4 such that

$$m \geq N_4 \Rightarrow |y_m - a| < \frac{1}{2}\delta$$

Then for $n, m \geq \max(N_3, N_4)$

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - y_m| &= |x_n - a + a - y_m| \\ &\leq |x_n - a| + |a - y_m| \\ &< \frac{1}{2}\delta + \frac{1}{2}\delta = \delta \end{aligned}$$

This gives

$$\begin{aligned}\forall \epsilon > 0. \quad |L - K| < \epsilon \\ L = K\end{aligned}$$

So for any sequence $x_n \in (a, b)$ with $x_n \rightarrow a$, $f(x_n) \rightarrow L$. By SCL

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$$

Similarly,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = K$$

□

Theorem 3.4.4. *If $f(x)$ satisfies on E*

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq C|x - y|$$

Then f is unif cont on E .

Proof. Given $\epsilon > 0$ let $\delta = \epsilon/C > 0$ and for $|x - y| < \delta$ we get

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq C|x - y| < C \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{C} = \epsilon$$

□

Theorem 3.4.5. *$g(x) = |x|$ is uniformly continuous*

Proof. Consider

$$||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y|$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta = \epsilon$ for $|x - y| < \delta$ we get $||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y| < \delta = \epsilon$

□

Ex 3.4.2. *$f(x) = x \log(1/x)$ on $(0, 1)$. Is it unif cont on $(0, 1)$?*

Answer.

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \log\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\log(\frac{1}{x})}{1/x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{-\frac{x^{-2}}{x^{-1}}}{-x^{-2}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \\ &= 0 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} x \log\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

It is uniformly continuous.

Ex 3.4.3. Use the definition to prove that $f(x) = 3x^2 + x + 5$ is unif cont on $[1, 4]$

Proof. Consider

$$\begin{aligned}|f(x) - f(y)| &= |3x^2 + x + 5 - (3y^2 + y + 5)| \\ &= |3(x^2 - y^2) + x - y| \\ &= |3(x + y)(x - y) + x - y| \\ &= |x - y| |3(x + y) + 1| \\ &\leq 25|x - y|\end{aligned}$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{25}$. For $|x - y| < \delta$, we get

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq 25|x - y| < 25 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{25} = \epsilon$$

□

Ex 3.4.4. $f(x) = x$ is unif cont on $(1, 0)$ since $|f(x) - f(y)| = |x - y|$. Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta = \epsilon$, then $|x - y| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| = |x - y| < \epsilon$

Theorem 3.4.6. $f, g : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are unif cont and bounded, $f \cdot g : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is unif cont.

Proof. Since f, g are bounded, $\exists M, K > 0$. s.t.

$$\forall x \in E. |f(x)| \leq M$$

$$\forall x \in E. |g(x)| \leq K$$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)g(x) - f(y)g(y)| &= |f(x)g(x) - f(y)g(x) + f(y)g(x) - f(y)g(y)| \\ &\leq |g(x)| |f(x) - f(y)| + |f(y)| |g(x) - g(y)| \\ &\leq K |f(x) - f(y)| + M |g(x) - g(y)| \end{aligned}$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$ there is δ_1, δ_2 s.t.

$$\forall x, y \in E. |x - y| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2K}$$

$$\forall x, y \in E. |x - y| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |g(x) - g(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2M}$$

Let $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$. If $|x - y| < \delta$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)g(x) - f(y)g(y)| &\leq K |f(x) - f(y)| + M |g(x) - g(y)| \\ &< K \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2K} + M \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2M} \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

□

Chapter 4

Differentiability on \mathbb{R}

4.1 Derivative

Definition 4.1.1 (Derivative). I is an open interval of \mathbb{R} , $a \in I$, $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. f is differentiable at a means

$$\exists f'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

4.2 Differentiability

Definition 4.2.1 (Differentiability). If f is differentiable at every point of I , then f is differentiable on I . We have $f' : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If f' is continuous on I then we say that $f \in C^1(I)$.

Definition 4.2.2. $o(h)$ means $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{o(h)}{h} = 0$, and it goes to zero faster than h as $h \rightarrow 0$.

Theorem 4.2.1. h is not $o(h)$

Theorem 4.2.2. If f is differentiable at a , then

$$f(a + h) - f(a) - f'(a)h = o(h), \quad \text{for } |h| < \delta$$

Proof.

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a) - f'(a)h}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} - f'(a) \right) = 0$$

□

Remark 4.2.1. $f(a + h) = f(a) + f'(a)h + o(h)$

Theorem 4.2.3. If $\exists m$. $f(a + h) - f(a) - mh = o(h)$, f is differentiable at a and $f'(a) = m$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a) - mh + mh}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{o(h)}{h} + m \right) \\ &= m \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4.2.4. *f differentiable at a implies f is continuous at a*

Proof. Note that

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

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \\ &= f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Remark 4.2.2. *If f is not continuous at a , then f is not differentiable at a*

Ex 4.2.1. $f(x) = |x|$ is not differentiable at $x = 0$.

Proof. $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|h|}{h}$, does not exist.

□

Ex 4.2.2. f is not differentiable at $x = 0$.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin(1/x) & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Ex 4.2.3.

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

Answer. At $a = 0$, $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^2 \sin(1/h)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \sin(1/h) = 0$. But $f \notin C^1(\mathbb{R})$.

Theorem 4.2.5. *f, g differentiable at a implies $f + g, fg$ are differentiable at a . Moreover*

$$(f \cdot g)'(a) = f'(a)g(a) + f(a)g'(a)$$

Ex 4.2.4. True or False. $f = g^2$, f is differentiable on $[a, b]$ implies g is differentiable on (a, b) .

Answer. False. Let

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ -1 & x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

g is nowhere continuous so nowhere differentiable. But $f(x) = 1$ and differentiable on $[a, b]$.

Ex 4.2.5. True or False. f is differentiable on $(a, b]$ and

$$\frac{f(x)}{x - a} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } x \rightarrow a^+$$

then f is uniformly continuous on (a, b)

Answer. True. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(x)}{x - a} (x - a) = 1 \cdot 0 = 0$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$. By uniformly continuous theorem, f is uniformly continuous on $[a, b]$.

Theorem 4.2.6. For $f(x) = x^n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(a) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x^n - a^n}{x - a} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{(x - a)(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}a + \cdots + xa^{n-2} + a^{n-1})}{x - a} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}a + \cdots + xa^{n-2} + a^{n-1}) \\
 &= a^{n-1} + a^{n-2} \cdot a + \cdots + a \cdot a^{n-2} + a^{n-1} \\
 &= na^{n-1} \\
 f'(x) &= nx^{n-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4.2.7. $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^n} = x^{-n}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \neq 0$. $f'(x) = -nx^{-n-1}$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(a) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\frac{1}{x^n} - \frac{1}{a^n}}{x - a} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\frac{-(x^n - a^n)}{a^n x^n}}{x - a} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{-(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}a + \cdots + xa^{n-2} + a^{n-1})}{a^n x^n} \\
 &= \frac{-na^{n-1}}{a^{2n}} \\
 &= -na^{-n-1} \\
 f'(x) &= -nx^{-n-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4.2.8. $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) - f(y) = f\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$, $f(1) = 0$. Then

(a) If f is continuous at 1, f is continuous on $(0, \infty)$.

Proof. Since f is continuous at 1,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0. \exists \delta > 0. (|x - 1| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(1)| < \epsilon)$$

Let $a \in (0, \infty)$, consider

$$|f(x) - f(a)| = \left| f\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) \right| < \epsilon \text{ when } \left| \frac{x}{a} - 1 \right| < \delta_1$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta = a\delta_1$. If $|x - a| < \delta$ then $f(x) - f(a) < \epsilon$

□

(b) If f is differentiable at 1, f is differentiable on $(0, \infty)$.

Proof. Since f is differentiable at 1

$$f'(1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(x) - f(1)}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{x - 1}$$

Let $a \in (0, \infty)$, consider

$$f'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)}{\frac{x}{a} - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)}{\frac{x}{a} - 1} = \frac{1}{a} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)}{\frac{x}{a} - 1} = \frac{1}{a} f'(1)$$

□

Definition 4.2.3 (Local Maximum and Minimum). $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, I is an open interval. f has a local maximum at c means

$$\exists \delta > 0. |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) \leq f(c)$$

f has a local minimum at c means

$$\exists \delta > 0. |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) \geq f(c)$$

Theorem 4.2.9. If f has an local maximum at c and is differentiable at c , then $f'(c) = 0$.

Proof.

$$f'(c) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h}$$

$$f(c+h) - f(c) \leq 0$$

□

Definition 4.2.4 (Even and Odd Function). $f : (-a, a) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. f is **even** means $f(x) = f(-x)$. f is **odd** means $f(-x) = -f(x)$

Theorem 4.2.10. f is differentiable on $(-a, a)$. f is odd implies f' is even.

Proof.

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

$$f'(-x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(-x+h) - f(-x)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-f(x-h) + f(x)}{h}$$

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

$$= \lim_{-h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

$$= f'(x)$$

□

Theorem 4.2.11 (Chain Rule). $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g : B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(A) \subseteq B$. f is differentiable at $a \in A$, g is differentiable at $b \in f(A)$. Then $g \circ f$ is differentiable at a and $(g \circ f)'(a) = g'(f(a))f'(a)$

Proof. By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} f(a+h) &= f(a) + f'(a)h + o(h) \\ g(b+k) &= g(b) + g'(b)k + o(k) \\ (g \circ f)(a+h) &= g(f(a+h)) \\ &= g(f(a) + f'(a)h + o(h)) \end{aligned}$$

Let $k = f'(a)h + o(h)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= g(b+k) \\ &= g(b) + g'(b)k + o(k) \\ &= g(b) + g'(b)f'(a)h + g'(b)o(h) + o(h) \\ &= (g \circ f)(a) + (g \circ f)'(a)h + o(h) \end{aligned}$$

□

4.3 The Mean Value Theorem

Theorem 4.3.1 (Mean Value Theorem). $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. f is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}$

Theorem 4.3.2. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) and $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ then f is strictly increasing.

Proof. For $x, y \in (a, b)$ with $x < y$, apply MVT to f on $[x, y] \subseteq [a, b]$. Then

$$\exists c \in (x, y). f(y) - f(x) = f'(c)(y - x) > 0$$

□

Theorem 4.3.3. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) and $f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ then f is a constant function.

Proof. For $x, y \in (a, b)$ with $x < y$, apply MVT to f on $[x, y] \subseteq [a, b]$. Then

$$\exists c \in (x, y). f(y) - f(x) = f'(c)(y - x) = 0$$

□

Corollary 4.3.1. f, g continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) and $f'(x) = g'(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then $\forall x \in [a, b]. g(x) = f(x) + c$.

Proof. Let $h(x) = g(x) - f(x)$. h is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) and $h'(x) = g'(x) - f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. By the previous theorem, h is a constant function. Then $g(x) = f(x) + c$ for some $c \in \mathbb{R}$. □

Theorem 4.3.4 (Generalized Mean Value Theorem). If f, g are continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) then $\exists c \in (a, b)$. with

$$(f(b) - f(a)) \cdot g'(c) = (g(b) - g(a)) \cdot f'(c)$$

Proof. Let

$$h(x) = (f(b) - f(a))(g(x) - g(a)) - (g(b) - g(a))(f(x) - f(a))$$

h is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) . $h(a) = h(b) = 0$.

$$h'(x) = (f(b) - f(a)) \cdot g'(x) - (g(b) - g(a)) \cdot f'(x)$$

Apply Rolle's Theorem to h on $[a, b]$. Then $h'(c) = 0$ for some $c \in (a, b)$. □

Theorem 4.3.5. *If f is increasing on $[a, b]$, then for all $c \in [a, b)$*

$$f(c+) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c+} f(x) \text{ exists}$$

For all $c \in (a, b]$

$$f(c-) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c-} f(x) \text{ exists}$$

When $f(c+) \neq f(c-)$, then f is not continuous at c . A jump discontinuity $j(c) = f(c+) - f(c-)$.

Proof. Let $c \in [a, b)$. Consider the set $f((c, b))$, since f is increasing, this set is bounded below by $f(c)$. Call $f(c+) = \inf f((c, b))$. For any $\epsilon = \frac{1}{n}$ there is a point $f(x_n) \in f((c, b))$, then

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

by Squeeze Theorem, $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(c+)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Given $\epsilon > 0$ there exists N so that

$$n \geq N \Rightarrow |f(x_n) - f(c+)| < \epsilon$$

Since $x_n \in (c, b)$, $c < x_n$, $f(c+) \leq f(x_n)$, $0 \leq f(x_n) - f(c+) < \epsilon$. For $c < x < x_n$, $f(x) \leq f(x_n)$ since f is increasing. Then

$$0 \leq f(x) - f(c+) \leq f(x_n) - f(c+) < \epsilon$$

Let $\delta = x_n - c$, for $c < x < c + \delta$ we have $|f(x) - f(c+)| < \epsilon$. □

Theorem 4.3.6. *If f is monotone on $[a, b]$ that f has at most a countable set of jump discontinuity.*

Proof. For increasing function f , recall at a jump discontinuity, $c \in (a, b)$, $j(c) = f(c+) - f(c-)$. If there are discontinuity at c and $\cap c \in (a, b)$ with $c < \cap c$, $f(c+) \leq f(\cap c-)$. For $K \in \mathbb{N}$ let $E_k = \{c \in (a, b) \mid j(c) < \frac{1}{k}\}$. If there are N then

$$\begin{aligned} N \cdot \frac{1}{k} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} j(c_i) \leq f(b) - f(a) \\ \Rightarrow N &\leq k \cdot (f(b) - f(a)) \\ \Rightarrow E_k &\text{ is finite} \end{aligned}$$

then $E = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k$ is all jump discontinuity. E is at most countable. □

Ex 4.3.1. *Prove that $1 + x < e^x$ for $x > 0$*

Proof. Let $f(x) = e^x - (1 + x)$, $f(0) = 0$, $f'(x) = e^x - 1$. f' is continuous and differentiable on $[0, \infty)$. $f''(x) = e^x > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. g is strictly increasing, for $0 < x$, $g(0) < g(x)$, $0 < e^x - 1$, then f is strictly increasing. For $0 < x$, $f(0) < f(x)$, $e^x - (1 + x) > 0$, $e^x > 1 + x$. □

Ex 4.3.2. *Prove that $(1 + x)^x \leq 1 + \alpha x$, for $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ and $x \geq 0$.*

Proof. When $\alpha = 1$, $1 + x \leq 1 + x$. Set $f(x) = (1 + x)^\alpha$ is continuous and differentiable for $0 < \alpha \leq 1$, $x \geq 0$.

$$f'(x) = \alpha(1 + x)^{\alpha-1}$$

For $x > 0$, apply MVT for f on $[0, x]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \exists c \in (0, x). \quad f(x) - f(0) &= f'(c) \cdot x \\ (1 + x)^\alpha - 1 &= \alpha(1 + c)^{\alpha-1} \cdot x < \alpha \cdot x \\ (1 + x)^\alpha &< 1 + \alpha \cdot x \end{aligned}$$

□

4.4 Taylor's Theorem and L'Hospital's Rule

Observe If f is differentiable on (a, b) and x, x_0 are two points from (a, b) , apply MVT to f . From x to x_0 , then $\exists c \in [x, x_0]$. $f(x) - f(x_0) = f'(c)(x - x_0)$, or $f(x) = f'(c)(x - x_0) + f(x_0)$.

Definition 4.4.1 (Taylor's Polynomial). If f is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ times differentiable on (a, b) then

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k$$

is the Taylor's Polynomial of degree n .

Theorem 4.4.1 (Taylor's). If f is $n + 1$ times differentiable on (a, b) then

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x - a)^{n+1}}_{R_n(x)}$$

where $R_n(x)$ is the error in approximating $f(x)$ by $P_n(x)$.

Proof. Let

$$G(t) = f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(t)(x - t)^k}{k!}$$

is continuous and differentiable on the interval from x to x_0 . Then

$$G(x) = 0, \quad G(x_0) = f(x) - P_n(x), \quad G'(t) = -\frac{f^{(n+1)}(t)}{n!} (x - t)^n$$

Now let

$$H(t) = \frac{(x - t)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

is continuous and differentiable on the interval from x to x_0 . Then

$$H(x) = 0, \quad H(x_0) = \frac{(x - x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}, \quad H'(t) = -\frac{(x - t)^n}{n!}$$

Apply the GMVT to G, H on the interval from x to x_0 . Then there exists $c \in (x, x_0)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} (G(x) - G(x_0))H'(c) &= (H(x) - H(x_0))G'(c) \\ (f(x) - P_n(x))\frac{(x - c)^n}{n!} &= \frac{(x - x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} (x - c)^n \\ f(x) - P_n(x) &= \frac{(x - x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot f^{(n+1)}(c) \\ f(x) &= \frac{(x - x_0)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot f^{(n+1)}(c) + P_n(x) \end{aligned}$$

□

Ex 4.4.1. $f(x) = e^x$, $x_0 = 0$

Answer.

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{x^k}{k!} \end{aligned}$$

For some $c \in (0, x)$

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = \frac{e^c x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

If $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, then

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \frac{e}{(n+1)!} < .000009$$

Ex 4.4.2. $f(x) = \sin x$, $x_0 = 0$

Answer.

$$\begin{aligned} P_{2n+1}(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \\ R_{2n+1}(x) &= \frac{f^{(2n+2)}(c)}{(2n+2)!} x^{2n+2} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{for some } c \in (0, x))$$

For $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, when $n = 4$

$$|R_9(x)| < .00000003$$

Ex 4.4.3. What is

$$x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots - \frac{x^{4n-1}}{(4n-1)!}$$

Answer.

$$\sin(x) = P_{4n-1}(x) + R_{4n-1}(x)$$

Ex 4.4.4. $f(x) = \log x$, $x = 1$

Answer.

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(k)}(1) &= (-1)^{k+1} (k-1)! \\ P_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(1)}{k!} (x-1)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(1)}{k!} (x-1)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} (x-1)^k \\ R_n(x) &= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (n+1)! (n-1)^{n+1} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{n+2} n!}{(n+1)c^{n+1}} (x-1)^{n+1} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{n+2}}{(n+1)^2 c^{n+1}} (x-1)^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 4.4.2 (L'Hospital's Rule). *I is an open interval, a is in I and is an endpoint of I . f, g are differentiable on I with $f(x) \neq 0 \neq g'(x)$ for all $x \in I$.*

$$\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} f(x) = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} g(x) = 0 \text{ or } \infty \implies \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = B \in \bar{\mathbb{R}} = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

Proof.

(Easy case) $a \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} f(x) = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} g(x) = 0$$

Define $f(a) = g(a) = 0$. Then for any $x \in I$, f, g are continuous and differentiable on the interval from a to x . Apply GMVT to f, g on the interval from a to x , then there exists $c \in (a, x)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} (f(x) - f(a))g'(c) &= (g(x) - g(a))f'(c) \\ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} &= \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} \\ \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} &= \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ x \in I}} \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \lim_{\substack{c \rightarrow a \\ c \in I}} \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = B \end{aligned}$$

(Harder case) $a = +\infty$

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

Given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N > 0$ so that

$$\begin{aligned} x > N &\Rightarrow |f(x) - 0| < \epsilon \\ &\Rightarrow |g(x) - 0| < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

So for $y = \frac{1}{x}$

$$\begin{aligned} y < \frac{1}{N} &\Rightarrow \left| f\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) - 0 \right| < \epsilon \\ &\Rightarrow \left| g\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) - 0 \right| < \epsilon \\ \lim_{y \rightarrow 0^+} g(1/y) &= 0 = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0^+} g(1/y) \\ \lim_{y \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f'(1/y) \cdot \frac{1}{-y^2}}{g'(1/y) \cdot \frac{1}{-y^2}} &= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f'(1/y)}{g'(1/y)} = B \end{aligned}$$

□