

- The real number system is a set of numbers with:
 - 1) Two special numbers, 0 and 1 called the additive and multiplicative identities.
 - 2) Two binary operations of addition and multiplication.
 - 3) Two inverse “unary” operations - and \cdot^{-1} .
 - 4) An order relation “ $<$ ”
- Axiom of completeness:

Suppose A and B are non-empty subsets of \mathbb{R} with the property that if $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ then $a \leq b$. Then there exists $c \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $a \in A$ and $b \in B$, $a \leq c \leq b$.
- $L(f, P) = \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - x_{n-1}) \inf_{x \in [x_{n-1}, x_n]} f(x)$
 $U(f, P) = \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - x_{n-1}) \sup_{x \in [x_{n-1}, x_n]} f(x)$
- Principle of Bounded Monotone Convergence:

If $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an increasing sequence which is bounded above, then as $n \rightarrow \infty$ it converges to $\sup \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

If $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a decreasing sequence which is bounded below, then as $n \rightarrow \infty$ it converges to $\inf \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$
- Uniqueness of Limits:

Suppose $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and as $x \rightarrow x_0$, we have $f(x) \rightarrow L$ and $f(x) \rightarrow M$. We would expect to find that $L = M$: that limits are unique as they are for sequences.
- Thm 3.3: $\nexists x \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $x^2 = 2$
- Thm 3.17: a non empty set I is an interval iff it has the intermediate value property: if $x \in I$ and $z \in I$ and $x < y < z$ then $y \in I$.
- Density of rationals: Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$. Then $\exists p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $a < p/q < b$
- Existence of Predecessors: If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then either $n = 1$ or $n - 1 \in \mathbb{N}$
- Well ordering principle: Every non-empty subset of \mathbb{N} has a minimal element.
- Thm 5.12: If there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $a_n \geq b$ for $n > N$ then $a \geq b$
 pf: For any $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. if $n > N_\varepsilon$ then $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$ or $a - \varepsilon < a_n < a + \varepsilon$. For $n > \max(N, N_\varepsilon)$ we also have $a_n \geq b$. It follows that $b < a + \varepsilon$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$ and so $b \leq a$.
- Triangle inequality: $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$
 Reverse triangle inequality: $||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y|$
- Algebra of limits/ Combination Rules: If a sequence tends to something then a combination of sequences tends to a combination of limits.
- Hierarchy of limits: fast \rightarrow slow as $n \rightarrow \infty$
 $n^n, n!, x^n (x > 1), n^q (q \in \mathbb{Q} > 0) \rightarrow \infty$
 $n^{-n}, 1/n!, x^n (|x| < 1), n^{-q} (q \in \mathbb{Q} > 0) \rightarrow 0$
- Limit comparison test:

Suppose $(a_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(b_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ are strictly positive sequences and a_j/b_j converges to L as $j \rightarrow \infty$. Then:

 - 1) If $\sum b_j$ converges then $\sum a_j$ converges
 - 2) If $L > 0$ then $\sum a_j$ and $\sum b_j$ either both converge or both diverge.
- Cauchy Criterion, Cauchy’s general Principle of Convergence: Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence. Every Cauchy sequence converges, so the Cauchy property is equivalent to convergence,
- Leibniz alternating series test:

Suppose $(a_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a decreasing sequence tending to zero. Then $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{j+1} a_j$ converges.
- Cauchy’s Condensation Test:

Suppose $(a_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a decreasing sequence of non-negative terms. Then the following are equivalent:

 - 1) $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j$ converges;
 - 2) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k}$ converges.
- Absolute convergence implies convergence; the converse is not true.
- Comparison and limit comparison test for signed terms:

Comparison test: if $|a_j| \leq b_j$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j$ converges, then $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j$ converges absolutely and $|\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j| \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |a_j| \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j$

Limit comparison test: if $b_j > 0$, $|a_j/b_j| \rightarrow L \in \mathbb{R}$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$ and $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j$ converges, then $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j$ converges absolutely.
- Ratio test: suppose a sequence of non-zero terms such that $|a_{j+1}/a_j| \rightarrow r$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$. Then $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j$ either converges absolutely ($r < 1$); diverges ($r > 1$) or we don’t know ($r = 1$).
- Thm 19.6: $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$ is continuous and converges on $(x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$
- Bolzano’s Thm: suppose $a < b$, $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $g(a)$ and $g(b)$ have opposite signs. Then $\exists x_0 \in (a, b)$ s.t. $g(x_0) = 0$.
- Rolle’s Thm: Suppose $a < b$ and $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and differentiable on (a, b) , and s.t. $g(a) = g(b)$. Then $\exists x_0 \in (a, b)$ s.t. $g'(x_0) = 0$
- MVT: $\exists x_0 \in (a, b)$ s.t. $f'(x_0) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$
- Taylor: $f(x_0 + h) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} h^n + \frac{f^{(N+1)}(c)}{(N+1)!} h^{N+1}$
- $\exp(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n}{n!}$
- Thm 29.6: Any partitions P & Q of an interval have a common refinement. eg: make a new partition R that contains all the points of P & Q discarding duplicates.
- if P & Q are partitions of $[a, b]$ and P is a refinement of Q then: $L(f, P) \geq L(f, Q)$ and $U(f, P) \leq U(f, Q)$.
- Cauchy Criterion for Riemann Integrability: A function is integrable iff for any $h > 0 \exists P$ such that $U(f, P) - L(f, P) < h$
- FTC 1: $F(x) = \int_{p \in [a, b]} f$
- FTC 2: $\int_a^b = \int_a^b F' = F(b) - F(a)$

- Use the property of Archimedes to show that if:

$$S_1 = \left\{ \frac{2n+1}{n+1} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}, \text{ Then } \sup(S_1) = 2$$

Soln: We have for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $(2n+1)/(n+1) < (2n+2)/(n+1) = 2$, showing that 2 is an upper bound for S_1 .

To show that 2 is the least upper bound, it is enough to show that any number $2-h < 2$ is not an upper bound, i.e. that there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$\frac{2n+1}{n+1} > 2-h \iff 2n+1 > 2n+2-(n+1)h \iff (n+1)h > 1 \iff n > \frac{1}{h} - 1$$

Such n exists by Archimedes (otherwise $1/h-1$ would be an upper bound for \mathbb{N}); all steps in the calculation being "if and only if", we conclude that $2-h < 2$ is not an upper bound for S_1 , and hence that 2 is the least upper bound for S_1 , i.e. that $\sup(S_1) = 2$

- Use Archimedes to show if:

$$S_2 = \left\{ 1 - \frac{n}{2} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \text{ that } S_2 \text{ is not bounded below.}$$

Suppose for contradiction that S_2 is bounded below. Then $\exists a \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a \leq 1 - n/2$. Rearranging, $n \leq 2(1-a)$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ contradicting Archimedes.

- let $a_n = 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$)

Show directly from the definition of convergence of a sequence that as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $a_n \rightarrow 1$

Soln: To show that $1 - (-1)^n/n \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we need to lead up to the inequality $|1 - (-1)^n/n - 1| < \varepsilon$, or equivalently $1/n < \varepsilon$. So, given $\varepsilon > 0$ we choose $N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $N_\varepsilon \geq 1/\varepsilon$ (Archimedes). Now, if $n > N_\varepsilon$ then $1/n < \varepsilon$; as seen above, this is equivalent to $|a_n - 1| < \varepsilon$. We conclude that $a_n \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

- let $b_n = 1 - (-1)^n$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) show directly from the definition of convergence that b_n has no limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
Soln: Note that, for even n , $b_n = 0$ and for odd, $b_n = 2$. If $b_n \rightarrow b$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ then, because there are odd and even numbers greater than any N_ε , b would satisfy both $|b| < \varepsilon$ and $|b-2| < \varepsilon$. Equivalently, $-\varepsilon < b < \varepsilon$ and $2-\varepsilon < b < 2+\varepsilon$. But, if $\varepsilon = 1$ the first of these gives $b < 1$ and the second $b > 1$; this contradiction shows there is no limit b .

- Find the radius of convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(2n)!} (x-1)^n$
 $\left| \frac{((n+1)!(x-1)^{n+1}}{(2n+2)!} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{n!(x-1)^n} \right| = \frac{n+1}{(2n+2)(2n+1)} |x-1| = \frac{1}{2(2n+1)} |x-1| \rightarrow 0 < 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We thus have convergence $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ so $R = \infty$.

- Define $f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$; $f(x) = |x|$ (a) Consider the partition P of the interval given by $P = (-1, 0, 1/2, 1)$. Find the lower and upper sums $L(f, P)$ and $U(f, P)$.
Soln: Subintervals: $[-1, 0]$, $[0, 1/2]$, $[1/2, 1]$ have widths 1, 1/2, 1/2 and infimums 0, 0, 1/2 and supremums 1, 1/2, 1 respectively. So the lower and upper sums are given by:

$$L(f, P) = 1 \times 0 + (1/2) \times 0 + (1/2) \times (1/2) = 1/4$$

$$U(f, P) = 1 \times 1 + (1/2) \times (1/2) + (1/2) \times 1 = 7/4$$

- Let P_N be the partition formed by dividing $[-1, 1]$ into $2N$ subintervals of equal width. Given that

$L(f, P_N) = 1 - 1/N$ and $U(f, P_N) = 1 + 1/N$, show directly from the definition of the integral, and the basic fact that $L_{-1}^1 f \leq U_{-1}^1 f$, that f is integrable on $[-1, 1]$. Find $\int_{-1}^1 f$.

Soln: We are given that $L(f, P_N) = 1 - 1/N \rightarrow 1$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$. Since this is an increasing sequence, it converges to $\sup \{L(f, P_N) : N \in \mathbb{N}\} \leq L_{-1}^1 f$; combining these, we have $1 \leq L_{-1}^1 f$. Similarly, we are given that $U(f, P_N) = 1 + 1/N \rightarrow 1$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$. Since this is a decreasing sequence, it converges to $\inf \{U(f, P_N) : N \in \mathbb{N}\} \geq U_{-1}^1 f$; combining these we have, $1 \geq U_{-1}^1 f$. Now using $L_{-1}^1 f \leq U_{-1}^1 f$, we have $1 \leq L_{-1}^1 f \leq U_{-1}^1 f \leq 1$ showing that the lower and upper integrals are both 1, so the function is integrable, with integral 1.

- Suppose A is a bounded, non-empty set of real numbers and let $B = \{x - y : x, y \in A\}$. Show that $\sup(B) = \sup(A) - \inf(A)$.

Soln: Suppose $z \in B$, so $z = x - y$ for some $x, y \in A$. Then $x \leq \sup(A)$ and $y \geq \inf(A)$, so $z = x - y \leq \sup(A) - \inf(A)$. This shows that $\sup(A) - \inf(A)$ is an upper bound for B . If $h > 0$ then $\sup(A) - h/2$ is not an upper bound for A , so $\exists x \in A$ with $x > \sup(A) - h/2$. Similarly, $\exists y \in A$ with $y < \inf(A) + h/2$. Subtracting, we find that $B \ni x - y > \sup(A) - \inf(A) - h$, showing that $\sup(A) - \inf(A) - h$ is not an upper bound for B . Combining these two, we see that $\sup(A) - \inf(A)$ is the least upper bound for B , and so $\sup(B) = \sup(A) - \inf(A)$

- let $f(x) = \frac{x^4+3}{4}$ let $x_1 = 2$ and (for $n \in \mathbb{N}$) let $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$. Show that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a bounded monotonic sequence, and find its limit.

Soln: Since $1 < x_1 < 3$, it follows that by (a) and induction that $1 < x_n < 3$ for all n , showing that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded. We also have from (a) that $f(x_n) - x_n < 0$, i.e. that $x_{n+1} < x_n$, showing that $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is strictly decreasing. Now, by the principle of bounded monotonic convergence, $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is convergent, say $x_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Now on one hand, $x_{n+1} \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. But on the other hand, $x_{n+1} = (x_n^4 + 3)/4 \rightarrow (x^4 + 3)/4$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. By uniqueness of limits, $x = (x^4 + 3)/4$. Finally we can solve this equation to give $x = 1$ or $x = 3$; but $x_1 = 2$ and $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing, so $x = 3$ is impossible and we must have $x = 1$.

- Suppose $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies: $|f(x)| \leq C|x| \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $C \geq 0$. use the " $\varepsilon - \delta$ " definition of continuity to show that f is continuous at 0.

Soln: The inequality shows that $|f(0)| \leq 0$ so $f(0) = 0$. Thus, $|f(x) - f(0)| = |f(x)| \leq C|x|$. If $C \neq 0$ then, given $\varepsilon > 0$, we can let $\delta_\varepsilon = \varepsilon/C$; if $|x - 0| < \delta_\varepsilon$ then $|x| < \varepsilon/C$ so $|f(x) - f(0)| = |f(x)| \leq C\varepsilon/C = \varepsilon$. Which shows that f continuous at 0. If $C = 0$ then $f(x) = 0 \forall x$ so f trivially continuous: any δ_ε works.