

NOTES ON ANALYSIS

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1. METRIC SPACES.

Definition 1. A *metric space* is a nonempty set E with a function $d: E \times E \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ such that for all $p, q, r \in E$ the following hold

- (a) $d(p, q) \geq 0$,
- (b) $d(p, q) = 0$ if and only if $p = q$,
- (c) $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$, and
- (d) $d(p, r) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, r)$. □

The function d is called the *distance function* on E . The condition $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$ is that the distance between points is *symmetric*. The inequality $d(p, r) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, r)$ is the *triangle inequality*.

The most basic example if a metric space is when $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is a nonempty subset of the real numbers, \mathbb{R} , and the distance is defined by

$$d(p, q) = |p - q|.$$

Problem 1. Show that this makes E into a metric space. □

We have seen that if $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ and $q = (q_1, \dots, q_n)$ are points in \mathbb{R}^n and we define the *length* or *norm* of p to be

$$\|p\| = \sqrt{p_1^2 + \dots + p_n^2}$$

then the inequality

$$\|p + q\| \leq \|p\| + \|q\|$$

holds.

Proposition 2. Let E be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R}^n and for $p, q \in E$ let

$$d(p, q) = \|p - q\|.$$

Then E with the distance function d is a metric space.

Problem 2. Prove this. □

Here are some inequalities that we will be using later.

Proposition 3 (Reverse triangle inequality). Let E be a metric space with distance function d and let $x, y, z \in E$. Then

$$|d(x, y) - d(x, z)| \leq d(y, z).$$

Problem 3. Prove this. Then draw a picture in the case of \mathbb{R}^2 with its standard distance function showing why this inequality is reasonable. □

Proposition 4. Let E be a metric space with distance function d and $x_1, \dots, x_n \in E$. Then

$$d(x_1, x_n) \leq d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_2, x_3) + \cdots + d(x_{n-1}, x_n).$$

Problem 4. Prove this. Then draw a picture in the plane showing why this is reasonable. *Hint:* Induction. □

Definition 5. Let E be a metric space with distance function d . Let $a \in E$, and $r > 0$.

(a) The **open ball** of radius r centered at x is

$$B(a, r) := \{x : d(a, x) < r\}.$$

(b) The **closed ball** of radius r centered at a is

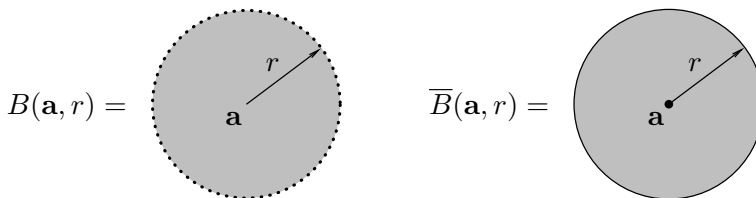
$$\overline{B}(a, r) := \{x : d(a, x) \leq r\}.$$

□

In the real numbers with their usual metric $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ the open and closed balls about a are intervals with center a :

$$\begin{aligned} B(a, r) &= (a - r, a + r) = \text{---} \left(\overbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}^r \quad a \quad \overbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}^r \right) \text{---} \\ \overline{B}(a, r) &= [a - r, a + r] = \text{---} \left[\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_r \quad a \quad \underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_r \right] \text{---}. \end{aligned}$$

In the plane, \mathbb{R}^2 , with its usual metric $d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \|\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}\|$, the open and closed balls about \mathbf{a} are disks centered at \mathbf{a} .



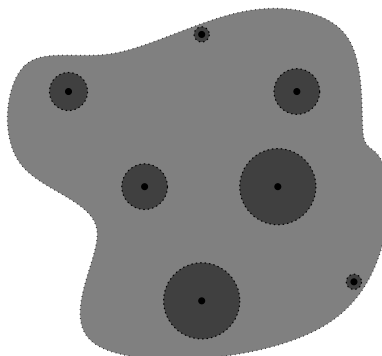


FIGURE 1. A set is open if and only if each of its points is the center of an open ball contained in the set.

Definition 6. Let E be a metric space with distance function d . Then $S \subseteq E$ is an **open set** if and only if for all $x \in S$ there is an $r > 0$ such that $B(x, r) \subseteq S$. \square

This can be restated by saying that S is open if and only if each of its points is the center of an open ball contained in S . See Figure 1.

Proposition 7. In any metric space E , the sets E and \emptyset are open. \square

Proof. Let $p \in E$, then for any $r > 0$ we have $B(p, r) = \{x \in E : d(x, p) < r\} \subseteq E$. Thus E contains not only some open ball about p , it contains every open ball about p . Therefore E is open.

That \emptyset is open is a case of a vicious implication. To see this consider the statement

$$p \in \emptyset \text{ and } r > 0 \implies B(p, r) \subseteq \emptyset.$$

If this statement is true, then \emptyset satisfies the definition of being open. But this is a true statement as an implication $P \implies Q$ is true whenever the hypotheses, P , is false. And the hypothesis “ $p \in \emptyset$ and $r > 0$ ” is false as “ $p \in \emptyset$ ” is false. \square

Proposition 8. Let E be a metric space. Then for any $a \in E$ and $r > 0$ the open ball $B(a, r)$ is an open set.

Problem 5. Prove this. *Hint:* Let $x \in B(a, r)$. Then $d(a, x) < r$. Set $\rho := r - d(a, x) > 0$ and show $B(x, \rho) \subseteq B(a, r)$ \square

Proposition 9. In the real numbers, \mathbb{R} , with their standard metric, the open intervals (a, b) are open.

Problem 6. Prove this. \square

Proposition 10. Let E be a metric space. Then for any $a \in E$ and $r > 0$ the complement, $\mathcal{C}(\overline{B}(a, r))$, of the closed ball $\overline{B}(a, r)$ is open.

Proposition 11. Prove this. *Hint:* If $x \in \mathcal{C}(B(a, r))$, then $d(x, a) \geq r$. Let $\rho := d(a, x) - r > 0$ and show $B(x, \rho) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(B(a, r))$. \square

Proposition 12. *If U and V are open subsets of E , then so are $U \cup V$ and $U \cap V$.*

Proof. Let $x \in U \cup V$. Then $x \in U$ or $x \in V$. By symmetry we can assume that $x \in U$. Then, as U is open, there is an $r > 0$ such $B(x, r) \subseteq U$. But then $B(x, r) \subseteq U \subseteq U \cup V$. As x was any point of $U \cup V$ this shows that $U \cup V$ is open.

Let $x \in U \cap V$. Then $x \in U$ and $x \in V$. As $x \in U$ there is an $r_1 > 0$ such that $B(x, r_1) \subseteq U$. Likewise there is an $r_2 > 0$ such that $B(x, r_2) \subseteq V$. Let $r = \min\{r_1, r_2\}$. Then

$$B(x, r) \subseteq B(x, r_1) \subseteq U \quad \text{and} \quad B(x, r) \subseteq B(x, r_2) \subseteq V$$

and therefore $B(x, r) \subseteq U \cap V$. As x was any point of $U \cap V$ this shows that $U \cap V$ is open. \square

Proposition 13. *Let E be a metric space.*

- (a) *Let $\{U_i : i \in I\}$ be a (possibly infinite) collection of open subsets of E . Then the union $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ is open.*
- (b) *Let U_1, \dots, U_n be a finite collection of open subsets of E . Then the intersection $U_1 \cap U_2 \cap \dots \cap U_n$ is open.*

Problem 7. Prove this. \square

Problem 8. In \mathbb{R} let U_n be the open set $U_n := (-1/n, 1/n)$. Show that the intersection $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} U_n$ is not open.

Definition 14. Let E be a metric space. Then a subset S of E is **closed** if and only if its complement, $\mathcal{C}(S)$ is open. \square

Because the complement of the complement is the original set this implies that a set, S , is open if and only if its complement $\mathcal{C}(S)$ is closed. Likewise a set, S , is closed if and only if its complement $\mathcal{C}(S)$ is open.

Proposition 15. *In any metric space E the sets \emptyset and E are both closed.*

Proof. We have seen the sets E and \emptyset are open, thus their complements $\mathcal{C}(E) = \emptyset$ and $\mathcal{C}(\emptyset) = E$ are closed. \square

Proposition 16. *If E is a metric space, $a \in E$, and $r > 0$, then the closed ball $\bar{B}(a, r)$ is closed.* \square

Problem 9. Show that in \mathbb{R} with its usual metric the closed intervals are closed. \square

Proposition 17. *If E is a metric space, then every finite subset of E is closed.*

Problem 10. Prove this. \square

Problem 11. In the real numbers show that the half open interval $[0, 1)$ is neither open or closed. \square

Problem 12. The integers, \mathbb{Z} , are a metric space with the metric $d(m, n) = |m - n|$. Note that for this metric space if $m \neq n$ that $d(m, n)$ is a nonzero positive integer and thus $d(m, n) \geq 1$. Assuming these facts prove the following

- (a) Let $r = 1/2$, then for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ the open ball $B(n, r)$ is the one element set $B(n, r) = \{n\}$ and therefore $\{n\}$ is open.
- (b) Every subset of \mathbb{Z} is open. *Hint:* Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$, then $S = \bigcup_{n \in S} \{n\}$ and use Proposition 13 to conclude that S is open.
- (c) Every subset of \mathbb{Z} is closed. □

Proposition 18. Let E be a metric space.

- (a) Let $\{F_i : i \in I\}$ be a (possibly infinite) collection of closed subsets of E . Then the intersection $\bigcap_{i \in I} F_i$ is closed.
- (b) Let F_1, \dots, F_n be a finite collection of closed subsets of E , then the union $U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_n$ is closed.

Problem 13. Prove this. *Hint:* The correct way to do this is to deduce it directly from Proposition 13. For example to show that the union of two closed sets is closed, let F_1 and F_2 be closed. Then the compliments $\mathcal{C}(F_1)$ and $\mathcal{C}(F_2)$ are open and the intersection of two open sets is open. Therefore $\mathcal{C}(F_1) \cap \mathcal{C}(F_2)$ is open and thus the compliment of this set is closed. That is

$$F_1 \cup F_2 = \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{C}(F_1) \cap \mathcal{C}(F_2))$$

is closed. □

Let E be a metric space. Then a function $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **Lipschitz** if and only if there is a constant $M \geq 0$ such that

$$|f(p) - f(q)| \leq Md(p, q) \quad \text{for all } p, q \in E.$$

Proposition 19. Let E be a metric space and $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a Lipschitz function. Then for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$ the sets

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}[(c, \infty)] &= \{p \in E : f(p) < c\} \\ f^{-1}[(c, \infty)] &= \{p \in E : f(p) < c\} \\ f^{-1}[(c, \infty)] &= \{p \in E : f(p) < c\} \end{aligned}$$

are open and the sets

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}[(c, \infty)] &= \{p \in E : f(p) \geq c\} \\ f^{-1}[(c, \infty)] &= \{p \in E : f(p) \geq c\} \end{aligned}$$

are closed.

Half of the proof. Assume that f satisfies $|f(p) - f(q)| \leq Md(p, q)$ for $p, q \in E$. We will show that $f^{-1}[(c, \infty)]$ is open. We need to show that for any

$q \in f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]$ the set $f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]$ contains an open ball about q . As $q \in f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]$ we have $f(q) < c$. Therefore

$$r = \frac{c - f(q)}{M}$$

is positive. Let $p \in B(q, r)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(p) &= f(q) + (f(p) - f(q)) \\ &\leq f(q) + |f(p) - f(q)| && \text{(as } (f(p) - f(q)) \leq |f(p) - f(q)|) \\ &\leq f(q) + Md(p, q) && \text{(as } f \text{ is Lipschitz)} \\ &< f(q) + Mr && \text{(as } p \in B(q, r), \text{ so } d(p, q) < r) \\ &= f(q) + M \left(\frac{c - f(q)}{M} \right) && \text{(from our definition of } r) \\ &= c. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore if $p \in B(q, r)$ we have $f(p) < c$ and thus $B(q, r) \subseteq f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]$. Whence $f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]$ contains an open ball about any of its points q and therefore $f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]$ is open.

We now show $f^{-1}[c, \infty] = \{p \in E : f(p) \geq c\}$ is closed. We know $f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)] = \{p \in E : f(p) < c\}$ is open. Its complement is

$$\mathcal{C}(f^{-1}[(-\infty, c)]) = f^{-1}[c, \infty].$$

Therefore $f^{-1}[c, \infty]$ is the complement of an open set, which means that $f^{-1}[c, \infty]$ is closed. \square

Problem 14. Prove the other half of Proposition 19, that is show $f^{-1}[(c, \infty)]$ is open and $f^{-1}[(-\infty, c]]$ is closed. \square

Proposition 20. Let E be a metric space and $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a Lipschitz function. Then for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$ the set

$$f^{-1}[c] = \{p \in E : f(p) = c\}$$

is a closed set.

Problem 15. Prove this. *Hint:* Write $f^{-1}[c]$ as the intersection of two closed sets. \square

We can now give some more examples of open and closed sets in the plane, \mathbb{R}^2 where we are using the distance function $d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \|\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}\|$. Let $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2)$ be a vector in \mathbb{R}^2 define $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x_1, x_2) = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + b$$

where b is a real number. If $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$ this can be written in vector form as

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b.$$

If $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ then

$$\begin{aligned}
 |f(\mathbf{p}) - f(\mathbf{q})| &= |\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{p} + b - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{q} + b)| \\
 &= |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q})| \\
 &\leq \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}\| && \text{(Cauchy-Schwartz)} \\
 &= Md(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})
 \end{aligned}$$

where $M = \|\mathbf{a}\|$. Thus f is a Lipschitz function.

Consider the case where $\mathbf{a} = (1, 0)$ and $b = 0$. Then for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$. In this case $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1$, or in slightly different notation $f(x, y) = x$. Therefore Proposition 19 implies the sets

$$\{(x, y) : x > c\}, \quad \{(x, y) : x < c\}$$

are open and that

$$\{(x, y) : x \geq c\}, \quad \{(x, y) : x \leq c\}$$

are closed.

Problem 16. Let $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be a nonzero vector and $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

(a) Show that the line

$$\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : ax + by = c\}$$

is closed.

(b) Show that the half plane

$$\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : ax + by > c\}$$

is open (call such a half plane an **open half plane**).

(c) Show that the half plane

$$\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : ax + by \geq c\}$$

is closed (call such a half plane a **closed half plane**).

(d) Show that the triangle

$$T = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x, y > 0, x + y < 1\}$$

is an open set. *Hint:* Write this as the intersection of three open half planes.

(e) Show that the triangle

$$S = \{(x, y) : x, y \geq 0, x + y \leq 1\}$$

is a closed subset of the plane. *Hint:* Write this as the intersection of three closed half planes. \square

1.1. Definition of limit in a metric space and some special limits in \mathbb{R} .

Definition 21. Let E be a metric space and $\langle p_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty} = \langle p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots \rangle$ a sequence in E . Then

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

if and only if for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a $N > 0$ such that

$$n > N \implies d(p_n, p) < \varepsilon.$$

In the case we say that the sequence $\langle p_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ **converges** to p . \square

Problem 17. Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ in the metric space E . Let $a_n = p_{2n}$. Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = p$ also holds. \square

Here are some examples of working with limits in \mathbb{R} .

Example 22. If $\langle x_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence in \mathbb{R} with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 5x_n = 5x$.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Note that

$$|5x_n - 5x| = 5|x_n - x|.$$

From the definition of $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ there is a $N > 0$ such that

$$n > N \implies |x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{5}.$$

But then (multiply by 5)

$$n > N \implies |5x_n - 5x| < \varepsilon.$$

But this is just the definition of $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 5x_n = 5x$. \square

Proposition 23. Let $\langle x_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\langle y_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be sequences in \mathbb{R} with

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y.$$

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n + y_n) = x + y.$$

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then from the definition of $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$, there is a $N_1 > 0$ such that

$$n > N_1 \implies |x - x_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Likewise $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$ implies there is a $N_2 > 0$ such that

$$n > N_2 \implies |y - y_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Set

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

If $n > N$, then $n > N_1$ and $n > N_2$ and thus

$$|(x + y) - (x_n + y_n)| \leq |x - x_n| + |y - y_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

That is

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad |(x + y) - (x_n + y_n)| < \varepsilon$$

which is exactly the definition of $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n + y_n) = x + y$. \square

Proposition 24. Let $\langle x_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\langle y_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be sequences in \mathbb{R} with

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y.$$

Then for any real numbers a and b

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (ax_n + by_n) = ax + by.$$

Problem 18. Prove this. \square

Proposition 25. If $\langle x_n \rangle$ be a convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} . Then $\langle x_n \rangle$ is bounded. That is a constant M such that $|x_n| \leq M$ for all n . \square

Problem 19. Prove this. *Hint:* Let $\varepsilon = 1$. Then there is a N such that

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad |x - x_n| < 1.$$

Therefore is $n > N$ we have

$$|x_n| = |x + (x_n - x)| \leq |x| + |x_n - x| < |x| + 1.$$

This bounds all the terms with $n > N$. Let

$$M = \max \{|x| + 1, |x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_N|\}.$$

Then $|x_n| \leq M$ for all n , which shows that the sequence is bounded. \square

Theorem 26. Let

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$$

in \mathbb{R} . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n y_n = xy.$$

Problem 20. Prove this. *Hint:* Start with

Scratch work that the no one else needs to see: Our goal is to make $|x_n y_n - xy|$ small. We compute

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n y_n - xy| &= |x_n y_n - x y_n + x y_n - xy| \quad (\text{Adding and subtracting trick.}) \\ &\leq |x_n y_n - x y_n| + |x y_n - xy| \\ &= |x_n - x| |y_n| + |x| |y_n - y| \end{aligned}$$

The factors $|x_n - x|$ and $|y_n - y|$ are both good in that we can make them small. The factor $|x|$ is independent of n and thus is not a problem. The sequence $\langle y_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is convergent and thus bounded, so we bound the factor $|y_n|$. We now return to our regularly scheduled proof.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. The sequence $\langle y_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is convergent thus it is bounded. Therefore there is an M so that

$$|y_n| \leq M \quad \text{for all } n.$$

As $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ there is a $N_1 > 0$ such that

$$n > N_1 \quad \text{implies} \quad |x_n - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(M+1)}$$

and as $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = y$ there is a $N_2 > 0$ such that

$$n > N_2 \quad \text{implies} \quad |y - y_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(|x| + 1)}.$$

Now let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ and use the calculation from our scratch work to show

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad |x_n y_n - xy| < \varepsilon$$

which completes the proof. \square

Corollary 27. *If $\langle x_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence in \mathbb{R} with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$, then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n^2 = x^2.$$

Proof. Use $\langle x_n \rangle = \langle y_n \rangle$ in Theorem 26. \square

Proposition 28. *Let k be a positive integer and $\langle p_n \rangle$ a sequence in \mathbb{R} with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$. Then*

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

Problem 21. Prove this. *Hint:* What is probably the easiest way is to use induction. \square

Problem 22. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the quadratic polynomial $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ where a, b, c are constants. Let $\langle p_n \rangle$ be a convergent sequence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = f(p). \quad \square$$

Lemma 29. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a \neq 0$. Let $|x| > \frac{|a|}{2}$. Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|a|}{2} < |x| &< \frac{3|a|}{2}, \\ \frac{1}{|x|} &< \frac{2}{|a|}, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{a} \right| \leq \frac{2|x - a|}{|a|^2}.$$

Problem 23. Prove this. \square

Proposition 30. *Let $\langle x_n \rangle$ be a sequence with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a$ and $a \neq 0$. Then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x_n} = \frac{1}{a}.$$

Problem 24. Prove this. *Hint:* First note there is a N_1 such that

$$n > N_1 \quad \text{implies} \quad |x_n - a| < \frac{|a|}{2}.$$

Now let $\varepsilon > 0$. There is also a N_2 such that

$$n > N_2 \quad \text{implies} \quad |x_n - a| < \frac{|a|^2}{2}\varepsilon.$$

Now let $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ and use the last lemma to show that

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad \left| \frac{1}{x_n} - \frac{1}{a} \right| < \varepsilon.$$

□

Proposition 31. Let E be a metric space and $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a Lipschitz map. (That is there is a constant M such that for all $p, q \in E$ the inequality $|f(p) - f(q)| \leq Md(p, q)$ holds.) Let $\langle p_n \rangle$ be a sequence in E with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ where $p \in E$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = f(p).$$

Problem 25. Prove this. □

1.1.1. *Limits and rational functions.* We show that limits play well with polynomials and rational functions. Recall a polynomial, $f(x)$, is a function of the form

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where n is a nonnegative integer and a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are real numbers. If $a_n \neq 0$, then the **degree** of $f(x)$ is $\deg f(x) = n$. The following is trivial, but useful in doing induction proofs involving polynomials.

Proposition 32. Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$. There there is a polynomial $g(x)$ of degree $(n - 1)$ and a constant c such that

$$f(x) = xg(x) + c.$$

Proof. Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$. Then factor out x from all the non-constant terms:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= x(a_n x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_2 x + a_1) + a_0 \\ &= xg(x) + c \end{aligned}$$

where $g(x) = a_n x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_2 x + a_1$ and $c = a_0$. □

Theorem 33. Let $\langle p_k \rangle_{k=1}^\infty$ be a convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} , say

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} p_k = p.$$

Then for any polynomial $f(x)$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(p_k) = f(p).$$

Problem 26. Prove this. *Hint:* Use induction on $\deg f(x)$. The base case is $\deg f(x) = 0$, that is $f(x) = a_0$ is a constant. This case $f(p_k) = a_0$ for all n and thus $\langle f(p_k) \rangle_{k=1}^\infty$ is a sequence of constants and so the result is true in this case. The case of $\deg f(x) = 1$ is also easy. In this case $f(x) = a_1x + a_0$. And from some of our earlier results we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(p_k) &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (a_1 p_k + a_0) \\ &= a_1 p + a_0 \\ &= f(p).\end{aligned}$$

Now do the induction step. Assume we know the result is true for polynomials of degree $(n - 1)$ and let $f(x)$ be a polynomial of degree n . By Proposition 32 write

$$f(x) = xg(x) + c$$

where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $(n - 1)$ and c is a constant. Then by the induction hypothesis we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g(p_k) = g(p).$$

Now use our earlier results about limits of products and sums to finish the induction step and complete the proof. \square

Lemma 34. Let $g(x)$ be a polynomial and $p \in \mathbb{R}$ a point with $g(p) \neq 0$. Let $\langle p_k \rangle_{k=1}^\infty$ a sequence with

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} p_k = p.$$

Then $g(p_k) \neq 0$ for all but at most finitely many k 's, and this the sequence

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{g(p_k)} \right\rangle_{k=1}^\infty$$

is defined for all but finitely many values of k and

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{g(p_k)} = \frac{1}{g(p)}.$$

Problem 27. Prove this. *Hint:* First show that $g(p_k) \neq 0$ for all but finitely many k . One way to do this is to let $\varepsilon = |g(p)|/2$ in the definition of a limit. We know from Theorem 33 that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g(p_k) = g(p).$$

Let $\varepsilon = |g(p)|/2$ in the definition of $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g(p_k) = g(p)$. to find a $N > 0$ such that

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad |g(p_k) - g(p)| < |g(p)|/2.$$

Use this to show

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad |g(k)| > |g(p)|/2$$

and therefore

$$n > N \quad \text{implies} \quad g(p_k) \neq 0.$$

You should now be able to use Proposition 30 to finish the proof.

A **rational function** is a function

$$h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

where $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are polynomials, $g(x)$ is not identically zero and the domain of $h(x)$ is the set of points where $g(x) \neq 0$.

Theorem 35. Let $\langle p_k \rangle_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be a convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} ,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} p_k = p.$$

Let

$$h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

be a rational function with $g(p) \neq 0$. Then

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} h(p_k) = h(p).$$

Problem 28. Prove this by putting together Lemma 34 and Proposition 30. \square

We can now do some limits you recall from calculus. For example let us compute

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 - 3n + 7}{4n^2 + 6}.$$

Divide the numerator and denominator of the fraction in the limit to get

$$\frac{3n^2 - 3n + 7}{4n^2 + 6} = \frac{3 - 3(1/n) + 7(1/n)^2}{4 + 6/(1/n)^2} = \frac{f(1/n)}{g(1/n)}$$

where $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are the polynomials

$$f(x) = 3 - 3x + 7x^2 \quad g(x) = 4 + 6x^2.$$

And have seen that

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

Therefore Theorem 35 gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 - 3n + 7}{4n^2 + 6} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(1/n)}{g(1/n)} = \frac{f(0)}{g(0)} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

Problem 29. Find the following limits and give a justification (which can just be quoting the right proposition or theorem) for your answer.

(a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^3 + 5n_6}{7n^3 - 8n + 7}$

(b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-3n^2 + 1}{7n^5 - 19}$

\square

Problem 30. Let $0 < a < 1$. Give a ε, N proof that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^n = 0.$$

Hint: Let $\varepsilon > 0$. We have proven that for $a \in (0, 1)$ there is a natural number N with $a^N < \varepsilon$. □

Problem 31. Let $a > 0$ and $x \geq a/4$. Show

$$|\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| \leq \frac{2|x - a|}{3\sqrt{a}}. \quad \square$$

Proposition 36. If $\langle a_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} , say

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$$

with $a > 0$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{a_n} = \sqrt{a}.$$

Problem 32. Give a N, ε proof of this. □

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