

# Continuity

## 1.1 Continuous Functions

**Definition 1.1** (Real Valued Function). Let  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Then a mapping  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a real valued function. If a domain  $E$  isn't specified, the largest possible subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  is taken where  $f(x)$  makes sense.

**Definition 1.2** (Continuity). Let  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real valued function and  $S \subset E$ . Then

1.  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if  $x_0 \in E$  iff

$$\lim f(x_n) = f(x_0)$$

for any sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $E$  that converges to  $x_0$ .

2.  $f$  is continuous on  $S$  iff  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  for all  $x_0 \in S$
3.  $f$  is continuous iff it is continuous on all of  $E$

**Theorem 1.1** (Epsilon-Delta Continuity). A real valued function  $f$  is continuous at some point  $x_0 \in \text{dom}(f)$  iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon.$$

**Definition 1.3** (Operations on Real Valued Functions). Let  $f : \text{dom}(f) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \text{dom}(g) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Then define

$$f \pm g : \text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto f(x) \pm g(x)$$

$$f \cdot g : \text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto f(x) \cdot g(x)$$

For division,

$$\frac{f}{g} : \text{dom}(f) \cap \{x \in \text{dom}(g) : g(x) \neq 0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}.$$

For maxima and minima,

$$\max(f, g) : \text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto \max \{f(x), g(x)\}$$

$$\min(f, g) : \text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto \min \{f(x), g(x)\}$$

Finally for composition,

$$g \circ f : \{x \in \text{dom}(f) : f(x) \in \text{dom}(g)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto g(f(x)).$$

**Theorem 1.2** (Basic Operations Preserve Continuity). Let  $f, g$  be real valued functions.

1. If  $f, g$  are continuous at  $x_0$ , then  $f \pm g$  and  $f \cdot g$  are continuous at  $x_0$ .
2. If  $f, g$  are continuous at  $x_0$  and  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{f}{g}$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f, g$  be real valued functions.

1. Assume that  $f, g$  are continuous at  $x_0$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $\text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g)$  that converges to  $x_0$ . Since  $f, g$  are continuous, then  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$  and  $g(x_n) \rightarrow g(x_0)$  which by the limit theorems gives  $f(x_n) + g(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0) + g(x_0)$  meaning  $f + g$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . The argument holds for  $f \cdot g$ .
2. Assume that  $f, g$  are continuous at  $x_0$  and  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in \text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g)$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $\text{dom}(f) \cap \text{dom}(g)$  that converges to  $x_0$ . Since  $f, g$  are continuous, then  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$  and  $g(x_n) \rightarrow g(x_0)$ . Note that  $g(x_n) \neq 0$  for all  $n$  by the assumption. Therefore by limit theorems it follows that  $\frac{f(x_n)}{g(x_n)} \rightarrow \frac{f(x_0)}{g(x_0)}$ , hence  $\frac{f}{g}$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . ■

**Theorem 1.3** (Composition Preserves Continuity). Let  $f, g$  be real valued functions. If  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  and  $g$  is continuous at  $f(x_0)$ , then  $g \circ f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f, g$  be real valued functions and assume that  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  and  $g$  is continuous at  $f(x_0)$ . Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $\{x \in \text{dom}(f) : f(x) \in \text{dom}(g)\}$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x_0$ . Since  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ ,  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)$ . Let  $(y_n)$  be the sequence defined by  $y_n = f(x_n)$ . Then  $y_0 = f(x_0)$ . Therefore since  $g$  is continuous at  $f(x_0)$ ,  $g(y_n) \rightarrow g(y_0) = g(f(x_0))$ . Therefore  $g \circ f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . ■

**Theorem 1.4** (Maximum Preserves Continuity). Let  $f, g$  be real valued functions. If  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  and  $g$  is continuous at  $f(x_0)$ , then  $\max(f, g)$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Proof.** First note that

$$\max(r, s) = \frac{1}{2}(r + s) + \frac{1}{2}|r - s|, \forall r, s \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Consider the case  $r \geq s$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{2}(r + s) + \frac{1}{2}|r - s| = \frac{1}{2}(r + s) + \frac{1}{2}(r - s) = r = \max(r, s).$$

If  $r < s$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2}(r + s) + \frac{1}{2}|r - s| = \frac{1}{2}(r + s) - \frac{1}{2}(r - s) = s = \max(r, s).$$

Therefore the original equation holds. Note then that

$$\max(f(x), g(x)) = \frac{1}{2}(f(x) + g(x)) - \frac{1}{2}|f(x) - g(x)|.$$

Since the absolute value function is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ , by 1.2 and 1.4 it follows that the maximum of two functions is also continuous. ■

## 1.2 Properties of Continuous Functions

**Definition 1.4** (Function Boundedness). Let  $f : \text{dom}(f) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real valued function.  $f$  is bounded iff there is some  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$|f(x)| \leq M, \forall x \in \text{dom}(f).$$

**Example 1.1.** Consider the function  $\sqrt{x-1}$ . Assume towards contradiction that it is bounded. That is,  $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

**Theorem 1.5.** Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous. Then

1.  $f$  is bounded
2.  $f$  assumes its max and its min. That is  $\exists x_m, x_M \in [a, b]$  such that

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

**Proof.** Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous.

1. Assume towards contradiction that  $f$  is not bounded. Then  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is some  $x_n \in [a, b]$  such that  $|f(x_n)| \geq n$ . Therefore  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a sequence in  $[a, b]$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is bounded, there is some subsequence  $(n_j)$  such that  $(x_{n_j})$  converges to  $x_\infty \in [a, b]$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, then  $|f(x_{n_j})| \xrightarrow{j \rightarrow \infty} |f(x_\infty)|$ . However,  $n_j \leq |f(x_{n_j})|$  meaning the limit as  $j \rightarrow \infty$  would be infinite. Hence a contradiction.
2. By the first claim,  $f$  is bounded. Therefore  $m = \inf_{x \in [a, b]} f(x) > -\infty$ . Then  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\exists x_n \in [a, b]$  such that  $m \leq f(x_n) \leq m + \frac{1}{n}$ . This gives a sequence  $(x_n)$  that is bounded (because it is in  $[a, b]$ ). Therefore by Bolzano Weistrass,  $\exists (n_j)$  such that  $x_{n_j} \rightarrow x_{\min}$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,

$$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} m \leq \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} f(x_{n_j}) \leq \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} m + \frac{1}{n_j} \implies f(x_{\min}) = m.$$

Therefore the infimum  $m$  is achieved by  $f$  in its domain and therefore  $m$  is the minimum value and  $x_{\min}$  is the minimum argument. The argument for the maximum follows the same by replacing  $\inf$  with  $\sup$  and flipping the inequality to squeeze towards the supremum. ■

**Remark.** If the interval is not closed, then the theorem is not true in general. Consider

$$f : (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto \frac{1}{x}.$$

Note that  $f$  is continuous but is unbounded and has no max. Furthermore

$$f : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto x^2.$$

$f$  in this case is continuous and bounded, but it doesn't have a maximum.

**Theorem 1.6** (Intermediate Value Theorem). Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function where  $I$  is an interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $y_0 \in (\min(f(a), f(b)), \max(f(a), f(b)))$  with  $a < b$  and  $a, b \in I$ , then there exists  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(x_0) = y_0$ .

**Proof.** WLOG, take  $f(a) > y_0 > f(b)$ . Let  $S = \{x \in [a, b] : f(x) > y_0\}$ . Note  $S$  is non empty since  $a \in S$ . Since  $S$  is bounded, let  $x_0 = \sup S$ . Therefore for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is some  $s_n \in S$  such that  $x_0 \geq s_n \geq x_0 - \frac{1}{n}$  since  $x_0 - \frac{1}{n}$  is not an upper bound. Therefore

$$\lim s_n = x_0, f(s_n) > y_0, \forall n \implies f(x_0) = \lim f(s_n) \geq y_0.$$

Next, take  $x_0 \leq \xi_n = \min \{x_0 + \frac{1}{n}, b\}$ . Then

$$f(x_0) = \lim f(\xi_n) \leq y_0.$$

Therefore  $y_0 \leq f(x_0) \leq y_0 \implies f(x_0) = y_0$ . ■

**Corollary 1.1.** If  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $I$  is an interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  is continuous, then

$$f(I) = \{f(x) : x \in I\}$$

is an interval or a singleton.

**Proof.** Let  $J = f(I)$ . Take  $y_0, y_1 \in J$  with  $y_0 < y_1$ . Note that if  $y_0 < y < y_1$ , then by 1.6,  $y \in J$ . If  $\inf J < \sup J$ , then  $J$  is an interval and if they are the same then  $J$  is a singleton. ■

**Example 1.2.** Let  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  be continuous. Then  $\exists x_0 \in [0, 1]$  such that  $f(x_0) = x_0$ . That is,  $f$  has a fixed point.

**Proof.** Let  $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1] : x \mapsto f(x) - x$ . Note then that  $g(0) = f(0) - 0 \geq 0$  and  $g(1) = f(1) - 1 \leq 0$ . Therefore by 1.6,  $\exists x_0 \in [0, 1]$  such that  $g(x_0) = 0$  meaning  $f(x_0) - x_0 = 0 \implies f(x_0) = x_0$ . ■

**Example 1.3.** If  $y > 0$ , then it has a positive  $m$  root.

**Proof.** Let  $f(x) = x^m, x \geq 0$ . Note that  $f$  is continuous and  $\exists b > 0$  such that  $y < b^m$ . Then

$$f(0) < y \leq f(b) \implies \exists x \in (0, b) \text{ s.t. } f(x) = x^m = y.$$

■

**Theorem 1.7.** Let  $g : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a strictly increasing function over the interval  $J$ . Then if  $g(J)$  is also an interval,  $g$  is continuous.

**Proof.** Take  $x_0 \in J$  such that  $x_0$  is not an endpoint. Then  $g(x_0)$  is not an end point of  $g(J) = I$  by monotonicity. Therefore it is possible to find a neighborhood  $(g(x_0) - \epsilon_0, g(x_0) + \epsilon_0) \subset I$ . Take  $\epsilon$  such that  $0 < \epsilon < \epsilon_0$  and for some  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $J$ ,

$$g(x_1) = g(x_0) - \epsilon, g(x_2) = g(x_0) + \epsilon.$$

By monotonicity,

$$x_1 < x_0 < x_2 \text{ and } g(x_0) - \epsilon \leq g(x_1) < g(x) < g(x_2) \leq g(x_0) + \epsilon, \forall x \in (x_1, x_2)$$

which implies  $|g(x) - g(x_0)| < \epsilon$ . Take  $\delta = \min \{x_2 - x_0, x_0 - x_1\}$ . Then

$$|x - x_0| < \delta \implies x_1 < x_0 < x_2 \implies |g(x) - g(x_0)| < \epsilon.$$

Therefore  $g$  is continuous. ■

**Theorem 1.8.** Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous and strictly increasing where  $I$  is an interval. Then

1.  $f(I) = J$  is an interval
2.  $f^{-1} : J \rightarrow I$  exists and is strictly increasing and continuous.

**Proof.** ■

**Theorem 1.9.** Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be one to one and continuous where  $I$  is an interval. Then  $f$  is strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

**Proof.** Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be one to one and continuous where  $I$  is an interval.

1. If  $a < b < c$  in  $I$ , then  $f(a) < f(b) < f(c)$ . Assume towards contradiction that this is not the case. Then  $f(b) > \max \{f(a), f(c)\}$  or  $f(b) < \min \{f(a), f(c)\}$ . Consider the second case. Take  $f(b) < y < \min \{f(a), f(c)\}$  and use 1.6 on  $[a, b]$  and  $[b, c]$  to find  $x_1 \in (a, b)$  and  $x_2 \in (b, c)$  such that  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) = y$ . This contradicts the assumption that  $f$  is one to one since  $x_1 \neq x_2$ . The other case follows similarly.
2. Take  $a_0 < b_0$  with  $a_0, b_0 \in I$ . WLOG, let  $f(a_0) < f(b_0)$ . Note that  $f(x) < f(a_0)$

for  $x < a_0$  since  $x < a_0 < b_0$  and therefore follows from (1). Additionally,  $f(a_0) < f(x) < f(b_0)$  for  $a_0 < x < b_0$  and  $f(x) > f(b_0)$  for  $x > b_0$ . It then follows that  $f(x) < f(a_0)$  for all  $x < a_0$  and  $f(x) > f(a_0)$  for all  $x > a_0$ .

3. Take  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  such that  $x_1 < x_2$ . If  $x_1 \leq a_0 \leq x_2$ , then by (2),  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ . If  $x_1 < x_2 \leq a_0$ , then  $f(x_1) < f(a_0)$  and  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ . Lastly, if  $a_0 \leq x_1 < x_2$ , then  $f(a_0) < f(x_2)$  and  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ . Therefore  $f$  is strictly increasing. ■

### 1.3 Uniform Continuity

**Remark.** Consider  $f : \text{dom}(f) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and assume that  $f$  is continuous on some  $S \subset \text{dom}(f)$  iff  $\forall x_0 \in S, \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x \in \text{dom}(f)$ . Note that in general,  $\delta$  is dependent on the value  $x_0$  and  $\epsilon$ .

**Example 1.4.** Consider  $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto \frac{1}{x^2}$ . Take  $x_0 > 0$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| = \left| \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{x_0^2} \right| = \frac{1}{x^2 x_0^2} (x - x_0)(x + x_0) = \frac{(x + x_0)}{x^2 x_0^2} (x - x_0).$$

If  $|x - x_0| < \frac{x_0}{2}$ , then  $|x| > \frac{|x_0|}{2}$  and  $|x| < \frac{3|x_0|}{2}$ . Then,  $|x + x_0| < \frac{5|x_0|}{2}$ . Therefore

$$\frac{(x + x_0)}{x^2 x_0^2} (x - x_0) \leq \frac{\frac{5|x_0|}{2}}{\left(\frac{x_0}{2}\right)^2 x_0^2} \cdot |x - x_0| = \frac{10}{x_0^3} |x - x_0|.$$

By taking  $\delta = \min \left\{ \frac{x_0}{2}, \frac{x_0^2 \epsilon}{10} \right\}$ ,  $|x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$ . In this case, we see that  $\delta$  is reliant on both  $x_0$  and  $\epsilon$ .

**Definition 1.5** (Uniform Continuity). A function  $f : S \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is uniformly continuous iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x - \tilde{x}| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| < \epsilon, x, \tilde{x} \in S.$$

If  $f$  is said to be uniformly continuous, it is assumed to be uniformly continuous on its domain of definition unless specified.

**Remark.** Note that uniform continuity is a "stronger" notion of continuity. Note that

$$|x - \tilde{x}| < \delta$$

does not rely on some fixed argument  $\tilde{x}$  unlike normal continuity. Fixing  $\tilde{x}$  would produce an identical definition of continuity, therefore a function that is uniformly continuous is also continuous. Additionally, continuity is a property at a point while uniform continuity is property on a set. A function that is uniformly continuous at a point is meaningless.

**Example 1.5.** The function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, \infty)$  for any  $a > 0$ .

**Proof.** Note that

$$|f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| = \left| \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{\tilde{x}^2} \right| \leq \frac{x + \tilde{x}}{x^2 \tilde{x}^2} |x - \tilde{x}| = \left( \frac{1}{x \tilde{x}^2} + \frac{1}{x^2 \tilde{x}} \right) |x - \tilde{x}| \leq \frac{2}{a^3} |x - \tilde{x}|.$$

Take then  $\epsilon > 0$  and let  $\delta = \frac{a^3 \epsilon}{2}$ . Then

$$|x - \tilde{x}| < \delta \implies \frac{2}{a^3} |x - \tilde{x}| < \epsilon \implies |f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| < \epsilon.$$

Therefore  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, \infty)$ . ■

**Example 1.6.** The function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  is not uniformly continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .

**Proof.** Take  $\epsilon = 1$  and show that  $\forall \delta > 0$ , there is  $x, \tilde{x} \in (0, 1)$  such that  $|x - \tilde{x}| < \delta$  but  $|f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| > 1$ . Take  $\tilde{x} = x + \frac{\delta}{2}$ . Note

$$\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{\tilde{x}^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{\left(x + \frac{\delta}{2}\right)^2} = \frac{\delta x + \frac{\delta^2}{4}}{x^2 \left(x + \frac{\delta}{2}\right)^2} = \frac{\delta^2 \frac{5}{4}}{\frac{9}{4} \delta^4} = \frac{5}{9} \frac{1}{\delta^2} > \frac{20}{9} > 1$$

for  $\delta < \frac{1}{2}$ . ■

**Example 1.7.** The function  $f(x) = x^2$  is uniformly continuous on  $[-7, 7]$ .

**Proof.** Note that

$$|f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| = |x^2 - \tilde{x}^2| = |x + \tilde{x}| |x - \tilde{x}| \leq 14 |x - \tilde{x}|.$$

Therefore, take  $\epsilon > 0$  and choose  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{14}$ . Then

$$|x - \tilde{x}| < \delta \implies 14 |x - \tilde{x}| < \epsilon \implies |f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| < \epsilon$$

Hence  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[-7, 7]$ . ■

**Theorem 1.10** (Closed Interval Implies Uniform Continuity). If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f : \text{dom}(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real valued function and assume that it is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ . Assume towards contradiction that  $f$  is not uniformly continuous. Then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall \delta > 0$  there is  $x, \tilde{x} \in [a, b]$  where  $|x - \tilde{x}| < \delta$  and  $|f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| \geq \epsilon$ . Take  $\delta_n = \frac{1}{n}$  to find a sequence of arguments  $(x_n)$  and  $(\tilde{x}_n)$  in  $[a, b]$  such that  $|x_n - \tilde{x}_n| <$

$\delta_n$  and  $|f(x_n) - f(\tilde{x}_n)| \geq \epsilon$ . By ??, there exists a subsequence  $(n_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n_k} &\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} x_0 \\ \tilde{x}_{n_k} &\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} x_0 \quad (\text{since } |x_n - \tilde{x}_n| < \delta_n) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $[a, b]$  is closed, then the limit point  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ . Therefore since  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_{n_k}) &\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_0) \\ f(\tilde{x}_{n_k}) &\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_0) \end{aligned}$$

which means that  $|f(x_{n_k}) - f(\tilde{x}_{n_k})| \rightarrow 0$ . However this contradicts the assumption that  $|f(x_{n_k}) - f(\tilde{x}_{n_k})| \geq \epsilon > 0$  for all  $k$ . ■

**Example 1.8.** The following functions are uniformly continuous

$$\begin{aligned} [x \mapsto x^7 3], x \in [-15, 31] \\ [x \mapsto \sqrt{x}], x \in [0, 413] \\ [x \mapsto e^x], x \in [-1000, 1000] \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 1.11** (Uniform Continuity Preserves Cauchy Sequences). If  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $S$ , then a Cauchy sequence  $(s_n)$  in  $S$  is mapped to a Cauchy sequence  $(f(s_n))$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof.** Take  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then find  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - \tilde{x}| \implies |f(x) - f(\tilde{x})| < \epsilon$  for  $x, \tilde{x} \in S$ . Since  $(s_n)$  is Cauchy, then  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|s_n - s_m| < \delta$  for all  $n > N$ . Then  $|f(s_n) - f(s_m)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n > M$  and hence  $(f(s_n))$  is also Cauchy. ■

**Example 1.9.** Consider  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  on the interval  $(0, 1]$ .  $f$  is not uniformly continuous.

**Proof.** Consider the sequence  $s_n = \frac{1}{n}$ .  $(s_n)$  is convergent and in the domain of  $f$ , but  $f(s_n) = n^2$  which is not Cauchy. Hence  $f$  is not uniformly continuous. ■

**Definition 1.6** (Function Extension).  $\tilde{f} : \text{dom}(\tilde{f}) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is an extension of  $f : \text{dom}(f) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  iff

1.  $\text{dom}(f) \subset \text{dom}(\tilde{f})$
2.  $\tilde{f}(x) = f(x)$  for  $x \in \text{dom}(f)$



**Example 1.10.** Consider the function  $f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}$  on the interval  $(0, \frac{1}{\pi}]$ . Let

$$\tilde{f} = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in (0, \frac{1}{\pi}] \\ r & x = 0 \end{cases}.$$

If  $r = 0$ , then  $\tilde{f}$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[0, \frac{1}{\pi}]$  and hence is uniformly continuous.

**Example 1.11.** Consider  $f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$  with  $x \in (0, \frac{1}{\pi}]$ .  $f$  can be extended to the closed interval by setting  $f(0) = r \in \mathbb{R}$ . However, no choice for  $r$  makes the extension continuous.

**Theorem 1.12** (Uniform Continuity Extension Equivalency).  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is uniformly continuous on  $(a, b)$  iff  $f$  has a uniformly continuous extension  $\tilde{f}$  on  $[a, b]$ .

**Proof.** Consider both implications

$\Leftarrow$ ) Assume that  $\tilde{f}$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Since  $f(x) = \tilde{f}(x)$  for  $x \in (a, b)$ ,  $f$  must be uniformly continuous.

$\Rightarrow$ ) Assume that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f$  has a continuous extension  $\tilde{f}$  on  $[a, b]$ , then it is uniformly continuous. Therefore it is sufficient to define  $\tilde{f}$  at  $a$  and  $b$ . Consider  $b$ . It is possible to take  $x_n \in (a, b)$  such that  $\lim x_n = b$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is convergent, it is also Cauchy. Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous,  $(f(x_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is also a Cauchy sequence and therefore is convergent. Therefore there is some  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\lim f(x_n) = y$ . Define then  $\tilde{f}(b) = y$ . It still needs to be verified that for any other sequence that converges to  $b$  that the functional sequence converges to  $y$ . Let  $(\tilde{x}_n)$  be a sequence different than before that converges to  $b$ . Consider a new sequence  $(s_n) = (x_1, \tilde{x}_1, x_2, \tilde{x}_2, \dots)$ . Note that  $(s_n)$  is Cauchy since  $\lim s_n = b$ . Therefore  $(f(s_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is also Cauchy, meaning  $(f(s_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  has a limit. Therefore all its subsequential limits are the same, hence

$$\lim s_{2k} = \lim \tilde{x}_n = \lim s_{2k-1} = \lim x_n = y.$$

Therefore all convergent sequences to  $b$  will converge to  $y$  under  $f$ . The same construction follows for  $a$ .

Both implications therefore establish the equivalency. ■

**Example 1.12.** Consider  $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$  with  $x \neq 0$ . Let

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

It turns out that  $\tilde{f}$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and therefore is uniformly continuous on any closed interval.

**Theorem 1.13.** Let  $f$  be continuous on an interval  $I$ . If  $f$  restricted to  $\overset{\circ}{I}$  is differentiable and the derivative is bounded, then  $f$  is uniformly continuous.

**Proof.** Apply MVT with  $a < b$  and  $a, b \in I$ . Then

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(x) \cdot (b - a), x \in (a, b).$$

Therefore  $|f(b) - f(a)| \leq |f'(x)(b - a)| = |f'(x)|(b - a)$ . Since  $f'(x)$  is bounded, there is some  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|f'(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x$ . Take  $\epsilon > 0$  and let  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{M}$ . Then

$$|b - a| < \delta \implies |f(b) - f(a)| < \epsilon.$$

Hence  $f$  is uniformly continuous. ■