

Axiom 1

Let $r \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that $S \neq \emptyset$.

- ① [The Trichotomy Law.] Exactly one of the statements $r > 0$, $r < 0$, $r = 0$ is true. [i.e., Any real number is either positive, negative or zero, where the ‘or’ is an exclusive disjunction.]
- ② [The Completeness Axiom.] If there exists $u \in \mathbb{R}$ such that u is an upper bound of S , then there exists $s \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $s = \sup S$. [i.e., Any nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} that has an upper bound has a least upper bound.]
- ③ [The Well-ordering Principle.] If $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, then there exists $m \in S$ such that $m = \min S$. [i.e., Any nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} has a least element.]

Corollary 2

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then for any $r \in \mathbb{R}$, the following statements hold.

- ① [Archimedean property of \mathbb{R} .] There exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $r < n\varepsilon$.
- ② [Existence of the floor function.] There exists a unique $\lfloor r \rfloor \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\lfloor r \rfloor \leq r < \lfloor r \rfloor + 1. \quad (1)$$

- ③ [Denseness of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} .] There exists $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $-\varepsilon < r - q < \varepsilon$.

Proposition 3

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

- ① $|ab| = |a| \cdot |b|$ [i.e., the absolute value function is multiplicative].
- ② $\pm a \leq |a|$.
- ③ $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ [|x| < \varepsilon \iff -\varepsilon < x < \varepsilon]$.
- ④ $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ [|x| \leq \varepsilon \iff -\varepsilon \leq x \leq \varepsilon]$.
- ⑤ If $\pm a \leq b$ and $b \geq 0$, then $|a| \leq b$.
- ⑥ If $|a - b| < \varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$, then $a = b$.
- ⑦ If $a \leq b + \varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$, then $a \leq b$.

Corollary 4

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

- 1 $|a|^2 = |a^2| = a^2$.
- 2 $|a| = \sqrt{a^2}$.
- 3 $|a| \leq \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.
- 4 $|a - b| = 0 \iff a = b$.
- 5 $|a - b| = |b - a|$.
- 6 $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- 7 $|a - b| \leq |a - c| + |c - b|$.
- 8 $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$.

Properties of Lattice Operations

Proposition 6

For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$a \vee b = \frac{1}{2}(a + b + |a - b|),$$

$$a \wedge b = \frac{1}{2}(a + b - |a - b|).$$

Proposition 7

For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$a \vee b = b \vee a,$$

$$a \wedge b = b \wedge a,$$

$$a \wedge b \leq r \leq a \vee b \implies |r - a| \leq |a - b|,$$

$$|r - b| \leq |a - b|.$$

Problem Set 1: Prove Propositions 6 and 7.

Definition 2

A sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ **converges** to $a \in \mathbb{R}$ if for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $n \geq N$, we have $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$. We write this in symbols as $a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$. If there exists $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$, the sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to be **convergent**.

The statement $a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ can be written symbolically as

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall n \in [N, \infty[\cap \mathbb{N} \quad [|a_n - a| < \varepsilon], \quad (1)$$

where $[N, \infty[:= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \geq N\}$. The set in the third quantifier in (1) seems to be an unnecessary complication. Since it can be seen anyway from the rest of the statement that n appears as an index of a sequence term, n must be an element of \mathbb{N} . Henceforth, we adopt the less precise but simpler notation

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall n \geq N \quad [|a_n - a| < \varepsilon],$$

as the symbolic equivalent of $a = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$.

Uniqueness of Sequence Limits

Theorem 3

If $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is convergent, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ is unique.

The algebra of convergent sequences

Let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be sequences in \mathbb{R} , and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. We define new sequences

$$(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} + (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} := (a_n + b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad (6)$$

$$c(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} := (ca_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}. \quad (7)$$

That is, $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} + (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is the sequence with $a_n + b_n$ as the n th term, while $c(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is the sequence the n th term of which is ca_n .

Theorem 6

For any $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$, the sequence

$$(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} := (a_n b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}},$$

is convergent [i.e., also in $\mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$], and furthermore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n. \quad (16)$$

The presence of $(1)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$ such that (29) holds makes the associative algebra $\mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$ *unital*, with $(1)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as the [*multiplicative identity*], while property (30) means that the associative algebra $\mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$ is *commutative*. An element $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $\mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$ is a **unit** if there exists $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$ such that $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (1)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. The following gives us an insight about the units in $\mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$.

Theorem 8

Let $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$ and $b_n \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\left(\frac{1}{b_n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is convergent, and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{b_n} \right) = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n}. \quad (31)$$

Corollary 9

Let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, (c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathfrak{c}(\mathbb{R})$, and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Assume that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n \neq 0$, and that $c_n \neq 0$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then the sequences

$$(c)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad (|a_n|)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad (a_n - b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad \left(\frac{a_n}{c_n} \right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \\ (a_n \vee b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad (a_n \wedge b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad (39)$$

are convergent, and furthermore,

- 1 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c = c$,
- 2 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = \left| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right|$,
- 3 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$, and
- 4 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{c_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n}$.
- 5 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \vee b_n) = a \vee b$.
- 6 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \wedge b_n) = a \wedge b$.

Some notes on subsequences

Given a sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} , and a function $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ denoted by $i \mapsto N_i$ such that

$$i < j \implies N_i < N_j, \quad (1)$$

we call $(a_{N_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ a *subsequence* of $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Given a subsequence $(a_{N_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of a sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} , by the Trichotomy Law, the condition $i \neq j$ means that either $i < j$ or $i > j$. Then by (1), we have either $N_i < N_j$ or $N_i > N_j$, which implies $N_i \neq N_j$. We have thus shown that $i \neq j$ implies $N_i \neq N_j$, and by contraposition,

$$N_i = N_j \implies i = j. \quad (2)$$

Therefore, $i \mapsto N_i$ is injective. The converse

$$i = j \implies N_i = N_j, \quad (3)$$

of (2) is true because $i \mapsto N_i$ is a function. Also, if $N_i < N_j$, then $N_i \neq N_j$, and by the contrapositive of (3), we have $i \neq j$.



Some notes on subsequences

If $i > j$, then we get, from (1), the contradiction $N_i > N_j$, and so the only possibility is $i < j$. That is,

$$N_i < N_j \implies i < j. \quad (4)$$

From (1)–(4), we obtain

$$i \leq j \iff N_i \leq N_j. \quad (5)$$

Using an elementary proof, the equivalence (5) can be used to prove that the conditions

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N_I \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall N_i \geq N_I \quad |a_{N_i} - a| < \varepsilon, \quad (6)$$

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists I \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall i \geq I \quad |a_{N_i} - a| < \varepsilon, \quad (7)$$

are equivalent. Hence, if the subsequence $(a_{N_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to some $a \in \mathbb{R}$, both notations $\lim_{N_i \rightarrow \infty} a_{N_i}$ and $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{N_i}$ are valid, and furthermore,

$$\lim_{N_i \rightarrow \infty} a_{N_i} = a \iff \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} a_{N_i} = a.$$

Some notes on subsequences

i.e., The limiting process for the convergent subsequence $(a_{N_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is the same regardless of whether we view this limiting process in terms of the original indices, as in $N_i \rightarrow \infty$, or in terms of the ‘secondary’ indices, as in $i \rightarrow \infty$.

Another important property of a subsequence $(a_{N_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is that

$$\forall i \in \mathbb{N} \ [i \leq N_i]. \quad (8)$$

If $i = 1$, then by the fact that $N_i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $N_i \geq 1 = i$.

Suppose $i \leq N_i$ for some $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Tending towards a contradiction, suppose $i + 1 > N_{i+1}$. Since both $i + 1$ and N_i are integers, we further have $i \geq N_{i+1}$. By the inductive hypothesis, $N_i \geq i \geq N_{i+1}$. But this contradicts $N_i < N_{i+1}$ because of (1) and $i < i + 1$. Therefore, $i + 1 \leq N_{i+1}$, and we have proven (8) by induction.

Proposition 1

If $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $a \in \mathbb{R}$, then any convergent subsequence of $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ also converges to a .

The limit superior of a sequence

Let us return our attention to an arbitrary sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} .

Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let us collect the terms of the sequence “at index n and beyond” in the following set:

$$\{a_k : k \geq n\} = \{a_n, a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \dots\}. \quad (11)$$

If the set (11) has an upper bound $M \in \mathbb{R}$, then its supremum

$$\sup_{k \geq n} a_k := \sup\{a_k : k \geq n\} = \sup\{a_n, a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \dots\}, \quad (12)$$

exists as an element of \mathbb{R} . Otherwise, we define $\sup_{k \geq n} a_k$ as ∞ . Note

that the number $\sup_{k \geq n} a_k$ depends on n , and so we now have a new sequence

$$\sup_{k \geq 1} a_k, \quad \sup_{k \geq 2} a_k, \quad \sup_{k \geq 3} a_k, \quad \dots, \quad \sup_{k \geq n} a_k, \quad \dots \quad (13)$$

of extended real numbers, where in the subscripts after the “ $k \geq$ ” we find the indices of the terms of the sequence (13).

The limit superior of a sequence

Observe that the supremum (12) of (11) need not be one of the terms in (11), and so it is important to note here that (13) is not necessarily a subsequence of $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. If the set of all terms in the sequence (13) has a lower bound $M' \in \mathbb{R}$, then the infimum

$$\begin{aligned}\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n &= \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sup_{k \geq n} a_k := \inf \left\{ \sup_{k \geq n} a_k : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}, \\ &= \inf \left\{ \sup_{k \geq 1} a_k, \sup_{k \geq 2} a_k, \dots \right\},\end{aligned}$$

of the set of all terms of (13) exists as an element of \mathbb{R} .

Otherwise, we define $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ as $-\infty$. We call the number

$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ the *limit superior or upper limit* of the sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Lemma 2

Let $M \in \mathbb{R}$, and consider a sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} . If $a_n \leq M$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq M$.

Lemma 3

If $-\infty < \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n < \infty$, then there exists a subsequence $(a_{N_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that for any $i \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\left| a_{N_i} - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \right| < \frac{1}{i}. \quad (14)$$

Bounded sequences and the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Given a real number $M > 0$, we say that a sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} is *bounded by* M if $|x_n| \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Any sequence bounded by some positive real number is a *bounded sequence*.

Lemma 4

If $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and if $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are bounded sequences in \mathbb{R} , then the sequences

$$(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} + (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad c(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, \quad (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}},$$

are also bounded.

Proof of Lemma 4

Suppose $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are bounded by M and N , respectively. By routine computations using the properties of inequalities in \mathbb{R} , we find that the sequences $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} + (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $c(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are bounded by $M + N$, $|c| \cdot M$ and MN , respectively. \square

Lemma 6

If $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded, then $-\infty < \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n < \infty$.

We summarize in the following the logical relationship between the notions of boundedness and convergence of a sequence in \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 7

- ① *A convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} is bounded.*
- ② *A bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} is not necessarily convergent.*
- ③ *[The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem.] A bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} has a convergent subsequence.*

Cauchy Sequences

Definition 1

A sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} is Cauchy or is a **Cauchy sequence** in \mathbb{R} if for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any $m, n \geq N$, we have $|a_m - a_n| < \varepsilon$.

Theorem 2

Every convergent sequence in \mathbb{R} is Cauchy.

Proof.

We encounter in here another ‘epsilon-over-two’ technique.

Suppose $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$n \geq N \implies |a_n - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \quad (1)$$

In particular, for any two indices $m, n \geq N$ that satisfy the hypothesis of (1), we have $|a_m - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $|a_n - a| = |a - a_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. By the triangle inequality,

$$|a_m - a_n| = |(a_m - a) + (a - a_n)| \leq |a_m - a| + |a - a_n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is Cauchy. □

Cauchy Sequences

Proving the converse of Theorem 2 shall take us into some longer argumentation. First, we need the sort of dual of the notion of limit superior. The *limit inferior* or *lower limit* of a sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} is defined as $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n := \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{k \geq n} a_k$, which is analogously defined as how we defined $\inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sup_{k \geq n} a_k$ in the previous lecture.

Lemma 3

For any sequence $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R} ,

- (i) $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-a_n)$;
- (ii) $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$;
- (iii) if M is a real number such that $M \leq a_n$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $M \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$;
- (iv) the condition $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ holds if and only if $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is convergent;
- (v) if $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is indeed convergent, then $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to the common value of $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ and $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$.

Theorem 4 (Cauchy convergence criterion)

Every Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} is convergent.

700 **Lemma 3.1.** If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $]a, b[\neq \emptyset$, then there exist a sequence in $]a, b[$ that converges to a and a sequence that converges to b .

Notation 3.2. Throughout Section 3, we fix $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and we use the symbol X to mean any of the intervals $]a, b[$, $[a, b]$, $]a, b]$, $[a, b[$. We call a, b the *endpoints* of X . We also assume henceforth that $|X| > 1$, i.e., $a < b$.

Lemma 3.3. If c is an endpoint or an element of X , then there exists a sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $X \setminus \{c\}$ such that $c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n$.

Definition 3.4. Let c be an endpoint or an element of X , let $L \in \mathbb{R}$, and consider a function $f : X \setminus \{c\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that L is the *limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches c* , or that $f(x)$ approaches L as x approaches c , and denote this in symbols by $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$, if for any sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $X \setminus \{c\}$ such that $c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n$, we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(c_n) = L$. If there exists $L \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$, then we say that *the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists*.

Lemma 3.5. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ is unique.

Theorem 3.6 (The Squeeze Theorem). *Let $c \in X$, and consider functions $f, g, h : X \setminus \{c\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that*

(i) $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ for any $x \in X \setminus \{c\}$; and

750 *(ii) $L := \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x)$.*

Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists and is equal to L .

Lemma 3.7. Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$, $c \in X$, and consider functions $f_1, f_2, f_3 : X \setminus \{c\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Suppose further that $f_3(x) \neq 0$ for any $x \in X \setminus \{c\}$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_3(x) \neq 0$. We have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x = c, \quad (3.II)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} k = k, \quad (3.I2)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f_1(x) + f_2(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_1(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_2(x), \quad (3.I3)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} k \cdot f_1(x) = k \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_1(x), \quad (3.I4)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f_1(x)f_2(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_1(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_2(x), \quad (3.I5)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{1}{f_3(x)} = \frac{1}{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_3(x)}, \quad (3.I6)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} |f_1(x)| = \left| \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_1(x) \right|, \quad (3.I7)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f_1(x) \vee f_2(x)) = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_1(x) \right) \vee \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_2(x) \right), \quad (3.I8)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f_1(x) \wedge f_2(x)) = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_1(x) \right) \wedge \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f_2(x) \right). \quad (3.I9)$$

Definition 3.8. A function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is *continuous at $c \in X$* if for any sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in X that converges to c , we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(c_n) = f(c)$. Continuity of a function on some element of its domain is often called the *local definition of continuity* or *continuity at a point*. If f is continuous on every $c \in X$, we say that f is *continuous on X* .

Definition 3.9. Let $C(X)$ be the set of all functions continuous on the interval X .

Theorem 3.10. Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$, let $f_1, f_2, f_3 \in C(X)$, and let $p \in \mathbb{R}[x]$. Suppose further that $f_3(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in X$, and that for any convergent sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in X , we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_3(c_n) \neq 0$. Then

$$\text{id}, k, f_1 + f_2, kf_1, f_1f_2, \frac{1}{f_3}, |f_1|, f_1 \vee f_2, f_1 \wedge f_2, p|_X \in C(X).$$

(i) [The Intermediate Value Theorem.] If $f(a) \neq f(b)$ and

$$k \in [f(a) \wedge f(b), f(b) \vee f(a)], \quad (3.36)$$

then there exists $c \in X$ such that $f(c) = k$. [i.e., The equation $f(x)=k$ always has a solution in X for any k that satisfies (3.36).]

820

(ii) [The Extreme Value Theorem.] There exist $c_1, c_2 \in X$ such that for any $x \in X$, we have $f(x) \in [f(c_1), f(c_2)]$. [i.e., The function f attains its maximum and minimum values—extreme values—in X .]

Corollary 3.12.

(i) If $f \in C(X)$, $c_1, c_2 \in X$ and

$$k \in [f(c_1) \wedge f(c_2), f(c_1) \vee f(c_2)],$$

then there exists $c \in X$ such that $f(c) = k$.

(ii) If $X = [a, b]$, then for any $f \in C(X)$, the set $f(X)$ is a closed interval.

Theorem 3.13. A function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at $c \in X$ if and only if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f|_{X \setminus \{c\}}(x) = f(c). \quad (3.52)$$

(i) for any sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in X that converges to c , we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(c_n) = f(c)$,

(ii) for any sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $X \setminus \{c\}$ that converges to c , we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(c_n) = f(c)$,

are equivalent. The only difference in the phrasing of the said statements is whether the sequence $(c_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is in X or in $X \setminus \{c\}$. If the condition $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(c_n) = f(c)$ holds for

has an upper bound in \mathbb{R} , and so

$$\|f\|_{\infty} := \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in X\},$$

1015

exists as a real number. By the uniqueness of the supremum, this gives us a function $C(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f \mapsto \|f\|_{\infty}$, which we call the *uniform norm*, the *sup norm*, the *supremum norm*, the *Chebyshev norm* or the *infinity norm* on $C(X)$.

Proposition 3.15.

For any $f, g \in C(X)$ and any $k \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(i) \quad \|f\|_{\infty} = 0 \iff f = 0.$$

1020

$$(ii) \quad \|kf\|_{\infty} \leq |k| \cdot \|f\|_{\infty}.$$

$$(iii) \quad \|f + g\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_{\infty} + \|g\|_{\infty}.$$

Corollary 3.16. *For any $f, g, h \in C(X)$,*

$$(i) \quad \|f - g\|_{\infty} = 0 \iff f = g.$$

$$(ii) \quad \|f - g\|_{\infty} = \|g - f\|_{\infty}.$$

$$(iii) \quad \|f - g\|_{\infty} \leq \|f - h\|_{\infty} + \|h - g\|_{\infty}.$$

The properties of the sup norm on $C(X)$ outlined in Corollary 3.16 are analogous to the properties of the distance function in \mathbb{R} from Corollary 1.5(iv),(v),(vii). Thus, we have, for $C(X)$, a function $C(X) \times C(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $(f, g) \mapsto \|f - g\|_\infty$, which satisfies an identity of indiscernibles, a property of symmetry, and a triangle inequality, if X is a closed interval.

Theorem 3.17. Let $L \in \mathbb{R}$, let c be an element or an endpoint of X , and consider a function $f : X \setminus \{c\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The condition $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ holds if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \in X \ [0 < |x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon]. \quad (3.69)$$

Theorem 3.18. A function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at $c \in X$ if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \in X \quad [|x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon]. \quad (3.75)$$

Definition 3.19. A function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is *uniformly continuous on X* if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall c \in X \quad \forall x \in X \quad [|x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon]. \quad (3.8I)$$

If indeed f is uniformly continuous then the number $\delta = \delta(\varepsilon)$ in (3.8I) is called a *modulus of continuity* of f .

Theorem 3.20.

(i) A uniformly continuous function on X is continuous on X .

(ii) A continuous function on X is not necessarily uniformly continuous on X .

(iii) If X is a closed interval, then any continuous function on X is uniformly continuous on X .