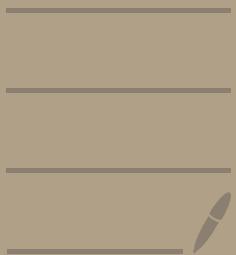


MA403

Real Analysis



Instructor: Prof. Anusha Krishnan

References:

1. Apostol
2. Rudin

Grading:

Homework (weekly ungraded)

Quiz (weekly during tutorial) (30%)

Midsem (30%)

Endsem (40%)

Calculus

- limits
- continuity
- Differentiability
- Integration
- Intermediate Value Thm
- Mean Value Thm
- Taylor's Thm

The bnd for all this is \mathbb{R} .

Why \mathbb{R} ?

Why not \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Q} ?

What makes calculus work is some spl. ppts of \mathbb{R} , especially completeness.

eg - $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational

Pf : Suppose $\exists p \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t $p^2 = 2$

$$p = \frac{m}{n}, \quad (m, n) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow p^2 = \frac{m^2}{n^2} \Rightarrow m^2 = 2n^2 \\ \Rightarrow 2 \mid m^2 \Rightarrow m = 2k, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4k^2 = 2n^2 \Rightarrow n^2 = 2k^2 \\ \Rightarrow 2 \mid n^2 \\ \Rightarrow n = 2l, \quad l \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Contdⁿ

$$\therefore (m, n) = 1$$

Hence, $\nexists p \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t $p^2 = 2$

Let us investigate more.

$$\text{Let } A = \{ p \in \mathbb{Q} : p \geq 0 \text{ & } p^2 < 2 \}$$

$$B = \{ p \in \mathbb{Q} : p \geq 0 \text{ & } p^2 > 2 \}$$

Claim: A contains no largest no. &
B contains no smallest no.

$$\text{Note, } \mathbb{Q}_{\geq 0} = A \cup B$$

Pf: It suffices to show,

- $\forall p \in A, \exists q \in A \text{ s.t } p < q$
- $\forall p \in B, \exists q \in B \text{ s.t } q < p$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } p \in \mathbb{Q}_{\geq 0}, \text{ let } q &= \frac{2p+2}{p+2} \\ &= p - \left(\frac{p^2-2}{p+2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Then, } q^2 - 2 = \frac{2(p^2 - 2)}{(p+2)^2}$$

$$\text{If } p \in A \Rightarrow p^2 < 2 \Rightarrow q > p \text{ & } q^2 < 2 \\ \Rightarrow q \in A$$

$$\text{If } p \in B \Rightarrow p^2 > 2 \Rightarrow q < p \text{ & } q^2 > 2 \\ \Rightarrow q \in B$$

This sort of 'bad behaviour' doesn't occur with \mathbb{R} .

Real Number System

There are some fundamental ppts from which all other ppts & results of calculus can be derived.

1. Field axioms

on the set \mathbb{R} , there are two ops.
addⁿ & multiⁿ s.t $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$,
 $x+y \in \mathbb{R}$ & $xy \in \mathbb{R}$

1.1. (Commutativity)

$$x+y = y+x , \quad xy = yx$$

1.2. (Associativity)

$$x + (y+z) = (x+y) + z , \quad x(yz) = (xy)z$$

1.3. (Distributivity)

$$x(y+z) = xy + xz$$

1.4 $\exists! o \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t $x + o = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

1.5. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists! (-x) \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t $x + (-x) = 0$

1.6 $\exists! 1 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t $x \cdot 1 = x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

1.7 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}, \exists! x^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t $x x^{-1} = 1$

1.8. $0 \neq 1$

2. Order axioms

On \mathbb{R} , there is a rel " $<$ " (less than)
with ppts.

2.1 If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, one and only one of
the following hold

$$x < y$$

$$x = y$$

$$y < x$$

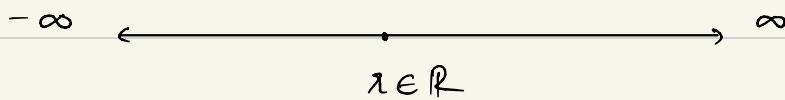
2.2. If $x < y$, $\forall z \in \mathbb{R}$, $x+z < y+z$

2.3. If $x > 0$ & $y > 0$, then $xy > 0$

2.4. If $x < y$ & $y < z$, then $x < z$

Geometric rep

Real nos. are often represented as points on a line (real line or real axis)



Intervals

For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, the set of all real nos. b/w a & b is called an interval

If $a < b$,

Open : $(a, b) = \{x : a < x < b\}$

Closed : $[a, b] = \{x : a \leq x \leq b\}$

Half-open : $(a, b] = \{x : a < x \leq b\}$

$[a, b) = \{x : a \leq x < b\}$

Infinite : $(a, \infty) = \{x : x > a\}$

$[a, \infty) = \{x : x \geq a\}$

$(-\infty, a) = \{x : x < a\}$

$(-\infty, a] = \{x : x \leq a\}$

Note, ∞ & $-\infty$ are not pts. in \mathbb{R} , but rather symbols.

Thm : Consider $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ st $a \leq b + \epsilon$ $\forall \epsilon > 0$
Then $a \leq b$.

Pf: Suppose $b < a$

Consider $\epsilon = (a - b)/2$,

$$b + \epsilon = (a + b)/2 < (a + a)/2 \Rightarrow b + \epsilon < a \rightarrow \text{Contd}^n$$

Upper bound : Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. If $\exists b \in \mathbb{R}$ st
 $\forall x \in S, x \leq b$ then b is called upper
bound of S .

Also, S is said to be bounded above by b .

- A set can have several ub.

Max. element : If b is ub. & also an elem. of S , then b is called the max. elem. of S

$$b = \max S.$$

A set with no ub is said to be unbounded above.

The concepts of lower bound, a set being bounded/unbounded below, min. elem. can be defined similarly.

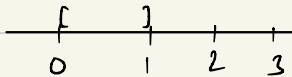
Least Upper Bound : For a set S bounded above, the real no. b is called a lub. if

1. b is ub. of S

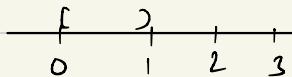
2. if $a < b$, then a is not ub of S .

- If \exists a lub, it is unique.
Hence, we refer to it as the lub.
- lub is also referred to as supremum
($\sup(S)$)
- If S has max. elem, then $\sup(S) = \max(S)$

eg - $S_1 = [0, 1]$



$$S_2 = (0, 1)$$



$$\max(S_1) = 1 \quad \sup(S_1) = 1$$

$$\max(S_2) \text{ doesn't exist} \quad \sup(S_2) = 1$$

Similarly, greatest lower bound referred to as infimum ($\inf(S)$) can be defined.

3. Completeness axiom

Every non-empty set S of real nos. which is bounded above, has a sup.

Ppts of sup

Thm : (Approximation ppt.)

For a set S with sup. b , $\forall a < b$,
 $\exists x \in S$ st $a < x \leq b$

Pf : Since $b = \sup(S)$, $\forall x \in S$, $x \leq b$

If $x \leq a$ $\forall x \in S$, then a is ub. of S .

Therefore, $b \leq a \rightarrow$ Contrdⁿ

Thm: (Additive ppt)

Given non-empty $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Let $C := \{x+y : x \in A, y \in B\}$

If each of A & B has a sup, then
 C has a sup and

$$\sup(C) = \sup(A) + \sup(B)$$

Pf: Let $a = \sup(A)$ & $b = \sup(B)$

$\forall z \in C, \exists x \in A, y \in B$ s.t $z = x+y$

$$z = x+y \leq a+b$$

So, $a+b$ is u.b of C .

Since, C is bounded, by completeness axiom, $\exists c = \sup(C)$

So, $c \leq a+b$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad a - \epsilon < a$$

By approx. ppt., $\exists x \in A$ s.t. $a - \epsilon < x \leq a$

Similarly $\exists y \in B$ s.t. $b - \epsilon < y \leq b$

$$\Rightarrow (a+b) - 2\epsilon < x+y \leq a+b$$

Since $x+y \in C$, $x+y \leq c$

$$\Rightarrow (a+b) - 2\epsilon < c$$

$$\Rightarrow (a+b) < c + 2\epsilon \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$$

Hence, $(a+b) \leq c$

$$\Rightarrow c = a+b$$

Then : (Comparison ppt)

Given non-empty $S, T \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ s.t $S \subseteq T$
 $\forall s \in S, t \in T$. If T has a sup., then
 S has a sup. and $\sup S \leq \sup T$

Pf : Let $q = \sup(T)$.

$$\therefore s \leq t \leq q \quad \forall s \in S, t \in T$$

$\therefore q$ is ub of S & S is bounded.

By completeness, S has a sup.

Let $p = \sup(S)$.

Suppose $q < p \Rightarrow q$ is not an ub.

for S ($\because p = \sup(S)$)

→ Contd"

$\therefore p \leq q \Rightarrow \sup(S) \leq \sup(T)$

Thm: (Archimedean PPT.)

If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with $x > 0$, $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t

$$nx > y$$

Pf: Let $A = \{ nx : n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \}$

Suppose $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, $nx \leq y$

$\Rightarrow y$ is u.b for A.

By completeness, $\exists a = \sup(A)$.

Since $x > 0$, $a - x < a$

By approx. ppt., $\exists s \in A$ s.t $a - x < s < a$

i.e $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t $a - x < mx \leq a$

$\Rightarrow a < (m+1)x \in A \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ

Thm: (\mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R})

If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $x < y$, $\exists p \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t

$$x < p < y$$

Pf: Since $x < y$, $(y - x) > 0$

By Archimedean ppt on $(y - x)$, i.e.

$\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t

$$n(y - x) > 1$$

Apply Archimedean ppt. on 1, nx &

1, $-nx$ i.e $\exists m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t

$$m_1 > nx$$

$$m_2 > -nx$$

$$\Rightarrow -m_2 < nx < m_1$$

Therefore, $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $-m_2 \leq m \leq m_1$
s.t $m - 1 \leq nx < m$

So, we have

$$\underbrace{nx < m \leq 1 + nx < ny}_{\text{ }} \quad \text{ } \quad \text{ }$$

$$x < \frac{m}{n}$$

$$\frac{m}{n} < y$$

Hence, $x < \frac{m}{n} < y$

Thm : (n^{th} root)

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, $\exists! y \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ s.t

$$y^n = x$$

Pf: Let $E = \{ t > 0 : t^n < x \}$

If $t_0 = \frac{x}{1+x}$, then $t_0 < x$ & $0 < t_0 < 1$

Since $t_0^n < t_0 < x$, $t_0 \in E$, so E is non-empty.

If $t_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t $t_1 > 1+x$, then $t_1 > 1$

Since $t_1^n > t_1 > x$, so $t_1 \notin E$

Hence, $1+x$ is u.b of E

By completeness, $\exists y = \sup(E)$

Note, $y > t_0$, so $y > 0$

Now, we'll show that y satisfies $y^n = x$

Let us consider the possibilities $y^n > x$ & $y^n < x$.

Note, the identity

$$(b^n - a^n) = (b-a)(b^{n-1} + b^{n-2}a + \dots + ba^{n-2} + a^{n-1})$$

so, if $0 < a < b$, then $(b^n - a^n) < (b-a)nb^{n-1}$

Case 1: Suppose $y^n < x$

Choose h s.t. $0 < h < 1$ and $h < \frac{x - y^n}{n(y+1)^{n-1}}$

Using the above identity with $a = y$, $b = y+h$,

$$\begin{aligned}(y+h)^n - y^n &< hn(y+h)^{(n-1)} \\ &< hn(y+1)^{(n-1)} \quad [\because h < 1] \\ &< x - y^n \quad \left[\because h < \frac{x - y^n}{n(y+1)^{n-1}} \right]\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow (y+h)^n < x$$

$$\Rightarrow y+h \in E \rightarrow \text{Contd}^n$$

$$\therefore y = \sup(E)$$

Case 2: Suppose $y^n > x$

Choose $k = \frac{y^n - x}{ny^{(n-1)}}$, then $0 < k < y$

If $t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ be s.t. $t_2 \geq y - k$,

$$\begin{aligned} y^n - t_2^n &\leq y^n - (y - k)^n \\ &< kny^{n-1} = y^n - x \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow t_2^n > x$$

$$\Rightarrow t_2 \notin E$$

$$\therefore t \in E \Rightarrow t < y - k \Rightarrow y - k \text{ is u.b}$$

\rightarrow Contdⁿ

$$\therefore y = \sup(E)$$

Since, both $y^n > x$ & $y^n < x$ given contdⁿ.
Therefore, $y^n = x$.

This proves existence of such a y .

To prove uniqueness, observe for any
 $0 < y_1 < y_2$, we have $y_1^n < y_2^n$.

Hence y is also unique.

Decimal representation

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ be of the form,

$$x = a_0 + \frac{a_1}{10} + \frac{a_2}{10^2} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{10^n}$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a_0 \geq 0$, and $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$0 \leq a_i \leq 9$$

Then, $x = a_0.a_1a_2\dots a_n$ is called a finite decimal rep. of x .

- Any x of this form is rational.
- Not all rational nos. have such a finite decimal rep.

eg - $x = 1/3 \neq a/10^k$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $\therefore 3 \nmid 10^k$

Then: (finite dec. approximation)

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \geq 0$, Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \geq 1$,
there is a finite decimal $x_n = a_0.a_1\dots a_n$ s.t

$$x_n \leq x < x_n + 1/10^n$$

- If $E = \left\{ a_0 + \frac{a_1}{10} + \dots + \frac{a_k}{10^k} : k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \right\}$,

then $x = \sup(E)$

Infinite dec. rep.

For a_0, a_1, \dots in the previous discussion,
we write $x = a_0.a_1a_2\dots$ to mean
that for each k , a_k is the largest int.
satisfying

$$a_0 + \frac{a_1}{10} + \dots + \frac{a_k}{10^k} \leq x < a_0 + a_1 + \dots + \frac{a_k + 1}{10^{k+1}}$$

Absolute values

If $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the abs. val. of x , denoted by $|x|$ is

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

Then: If $a \geq 0$, $|x| \leq a$ iff $-a \leq x \leq a$

Then: (Triangle Inequality)

for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $|x+y| \leq |x| + |y|$

Other forms

$$- |a-b| \leq |a-c| + |c-b|$$

$$- |a|-|b| \leq |a+b| \quad \& \quad |b|-|a| \leq |a+b|$$

$$\Rightarrow ||a|-|b|| \leq |a+b|$$

By induction, in general

$$|x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n| \leq |x_1| + \dots + |x_n| \quad \&$$

$$(|x_1| - |x_2| - \dots - |x_n|) \leq |x_1 + \dots + x_n|$$

Thm: (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality)

If a_1, \dots, a_n & b_1, \dots, b_n are any real nos.,

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \right)^2 \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2 \right)$$

Moreover, if some $a_i \neq 0$, then equality holds iff $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $a_i x + b_i = 0 \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

Pf: $\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i x + b_i)^2 \geq 0$ is true $\forall x$.

Equality holds iff $a_i x + b_i = 0 \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

Expanding, we get $Ax^2 + 2Bx + C = 0$,

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2, \quad B = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i, \quad C = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i^2$$

If $A > 0$, for $x = -B/A$, $B^2 \leq AC$

which is the req. ineq.

Else $A = 0$, so $a_i = 0$ & the ineq. is trivially satisfied.

Function / Mapping / Map

$$f: A \rightarrow B$$

- Range: set of all values $f(x)$, $x \in A$
- For $E \subseteq A$, $f(E)$ is the image of E under f .
- If Range of $f = B$, f is onto.
- For $E \subseteq B$, then the set of all $x \in A$ s.t $f(x) \in E$ is denoted $f^{-1}(E)$ and is called the pre-image (or inverse) of E under f .
- $f^{-1}(y)$ for $y \in B$ is the set of all $x \in A$ s.t $f(x) = y$
- If $\forall x_1 \neq x_2 \in A$, $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$, f is one-one
- If there exist a one-one map of A onto B , then A & B are said to be in correspondence

& have the same cardinality i.e., $A \sim B$.

The relⁿ ~ on the collection of sets is an equivalence relⁿ.

- Reflexive : $A \sim A$
- Symmetric : $A \sim B \Leftrightarrow B \sim A$
- Transitive : $A \sim B \ \& \ B \sim C \Rightarrow A \sim C$

Finite & Infinite Sets

- A set S is finite and said to contain n elem. if $\{1, \dots, n\} \sim S$

n is called the cardinality of S .

- Sets which are not finite are called infinite.

- A set S is countably inf. if $\mathbb{Z}_{>0} \sim S$

$$\delta : \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \leftrightarrow S$$

$$S = \{ s(1), s(2), \dots \}$$

or

$$= \{ s_1, s_2, \dots \}$$

Cardinality of count. inf. set is \aleph_0
(aleph nought)

- Sets which are not finite or count. inf.
(i.e countable) are called uncountable.

eg : 1 \mathbb{Z} is countable

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{ 0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots \}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_{>0} = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots \}$$

$$f: \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} n/2, & n \text{ is even} \\ -\frac{n-1}{2}, & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

2. Set of even pos. int. is countable

$$\begin{aligned} f: \mathbb{Z}_{>0} &\leftrightarrow 2\mathbb{Z}_{>0} \\ n &\mapsto 2n \end{aligned}$$

Thm: Every subset of a countable set
is countable

Pf: Let S be a countable set.

Consider $A \subseteq S$.

Case 1: A is finite.

By defⁿ A is count.

Case 2 : A is inf.

$\Rightarrow S$ is count. inf.

$$\text{i.e. } S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$$

Def. a fxⁿ k on $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ as follows.

- Let $k(1)$ be the smallest m s.t. $s_m \in A$
- Suppose $k(1), \dots, k(n-1)$ are defined.
Let $k(n)$ be the smallest $m > k(n-1)$
s.t. $s_m \in A$

Then, $m_2 > m_1 \Rightarrow k(m_2) > k(m_1)$

$\Rightarrow k$ is one-one

Hence, the composite of α & k satisfies:

$$-\quad \begin{matrix} k & & \alpha \\ \mathbb{Z}_{>0} & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \end{matrix} \longrightarrow S$$

range of $\alpha \circ k$ is A.

- so k is one-one

$$\text{Since } s_{k(m)} = s_{k(n)} \Rightarrow k(m) = k(n) \\ \Rightarrow m = n$$

So, $sok : \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \leftrightarrow A$

Hence, A is count. inf.

Then : \mathbb{R} is uncountable

Pf : By prev. thm, it suffices to
show $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < x < 1\}$ is
uncountable.

Suppose S is countable. i.e $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$

Write each s_n as an inf. decimal.

$$s_n = 0.a_{n1}a_{n2}a_{n3}\dots$$

Def. the real no. y as,

$$y = 0.b_1 b_2 b_3 \dots$$

where b_i is determined as follows

$$b_n = \begin{cases} 1, & a_{nn} \neq 1 \\ 2, & a_{nn} = 1 \end{cases}$$

Since y differs from s_n at n^{th} dec. place
 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, so y is not equal to any
elem. of S .

Therefore, $0 < y < 1$ & $y \notin S \rightarrow \text{Contd}^n$

Thm : $\mathbb{Z}_{>0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is countable

Pf : $f: \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$
 $(n, m) \mapsto 2^n 3^m$

f is not onto if codomain is $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.
But we can take range of f as the
codomain which will make f a bijection.

\therefore range of $f \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \Rightarrow$ countable

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is countable

Set Algebra

Let F be an arbitrary collection of sets.

- The union of all sets in F is def. to be the set of items which belong to at least one of the sets in F .

$$\bigcup_{A \in F} A$$

- The intersection of all sets in F is def. to be the set of items which belong to all of the sets in F .

$$\bigcap_{A \in F} A$$

- Complement of A relative to B

$$B \setminus A = \{x \in B : x \notin A\}$$

Then : 1. $\bigcup_{A \in F} B - A = \bigcap_{A \in F} (B - A)$

2. $\bigcup_{A \in F} B - A = \bigcap_{A \in F} (B - A)$

Then : If F is a count. coll. of count. sets,
then the union of all sets in F is also count.

Pf : Case 1 : F is a count. coll. of disjoint sets

Let $F = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ s.t

$A_n = \{a_{1n}, a_{2n}, \dots\}$ & $n=1, 2, \dots$

Let $S = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$

If $x \in S$, then $x \in A_n$ for some n .

So, $x = a_{mn}$ for some m .

Since the coll. of sets F is disjoint, the
nos. m, n are uniquely determined by x .

Def $f: S \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$

$$x \mapsto (m, n)$$

if $x = a_{mn}$

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is count.

$\therefore S$ is countable

Case 2: $F = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ is any count.
coll. of count. sets

Consider $G = \{B_1, B_2, \dots\}$ s.t

$$B_1 = A_1$$

$$B_2 = A_2 - A_1$$

$$\vdots$$
$$B_n = A_n - \bigcup_{k=1}^{n-1} A_k$$

By construction, G is coll. of disjoint sets &

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$$

By Case 1, $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k$ is countable

Therefore, $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$ is countable

Thm: \mathbb{Q} is countable

Pf: Let $A_n = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : p > 0 \text{ & } p = m/n,$
for some $n\}$

Then we can def. a bij. b/w A_n &
subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{>0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \Rightarrow A_n$ is countable.

$$\mathbb{Q}_{>0} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$$

$\therefore \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$ is countable

$$\text{Now, } \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}_{\leq 0} \cup \{0\} \cup \mathbb{Q}_{> 0}$$

$$\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$$

$$\sim \mathbb{Q}_{> 0} \quad \text{finite} \quad \text{countable}$$

Hence, \mathbb{Q} is countable.

Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_n)$$

$\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{k}^{\text{th}} \text{ component/coordinate} \\ \text{vector with} \\ n \text{ components/coordinates} \end{array} \right)$

The set of all vecs. with n comps. is called n -dim Euclidean sp. \mathbb{R}^n

For $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- $x + y := (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$
- $ax := (ax_1, \dots, ax_n)$
- $0 = (0, \dots, 0)$

- Dot/Inner prod : $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$

- Length / Norm : $\|\mathbf{x}\| = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x})^{1/2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{1/2}$

- Distance b/w \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{y} : $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$

Then : for $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

1. $\|\mathbf{x}\| > 0$ & $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0$ iff $\mathbf{x} = 0$

2. $\|a\mathbf{x}\| = |a| \|\mathbf{x}\|$, $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}$

3. $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\|$

4. $\|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$ (Cauchy-Schwarz ineq.)

5. $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$ (Triangle ineq.)

open balls & open sets in \mathbb{R}^n

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ & $r > 0$.

The set of all pts. $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $\|x - a\| < r$
is called a ball with center a & radius r .
It is denoted by $B(a, r)$

- Interior pt : Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and $a \in S$.
 a is called an int. pt. of S if $\exists r > 0$
s.t. $B(a, r) \subseteq S$
- The set of all int. pts. of S is
called the interior of S & is denoted
by $\text{int}(S)$.
- Open set : $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open set
if $S = \text{int}(S)$
i.e. all pts. of S are int. pts.

eg: - In \mathbb{R} , any open interval is an open set.

Moreover, union of open intervals is an open set.

A closed interval $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is not an open set since a & b are not interior pts. of $[a, b]$.

$\{a\}$ is not an open set in \mathbb{R} .

- In \mathbb{R}^2 , any open ball is an open set.

Pf: Let $x \in B(a, r)$ s.t $\|x-a\|=d$.

Claim: for $R < r-d$, $B(x, R) \subseteq B(a, r)$

for $y \in B(x, R)$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|y-a\| &\leq \|y-x\| + \|x-a\| \\ &\leq R+d < r\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in B(a, r)$$

An open rectangle $(a, b) \times (c, d) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open set.

- In \mathbb{R}^n , $S = \emptyset$ & $S = \mathbb{R}^n$ are open sets.
(vacuously)

Thm: The union of any collection of open sets is an open set.

Pf: Let F be a collection of open sets.

$$\text{Let } S = \bigcup_{A \in F} A$$

Let $x \in S$. Then $x \in A$ for some $A \in F$.

$$\begin{aligned}\because A \text{ is open} \Rightarrow \exists r > 0 \text{ s.t. } B(x, r) \subseteq A \\ \Rightarrow B(x, r) \subseteq S\end{aligned}$$

$\therefore x$ is an int. pt. of S , $\forall x \in S$

Hence, S is an open set.

Theorem: The intersection of any finite collection of open sets is open.

Pf: Let F be a finite collection of open sets.

$$\text{Let } S = \bigcap_{k=1}^m A_k$$

Let $x \in S$. Then $x \in A_k \forall k$.

Each A_k is open, i.e. $\exists r_k > 0$ s.t. $B(x, r_k) \subseteq A_k$

Let $r = \min\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$.

Then $B(x, r) \subseteq B(x, r_k) \subseteq A_k \forall k$

$$\Rightarrow B(x, r) \subseteq S$$

$\therefore x$ is an int. pt. of S , $\forall x \in S$

Hence, S is an open set.

Why does it fail for infinite collection of sets?

e.g.: Let $A_n = \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right)$

$$S = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \{0\} \rightarrow \text{closed set}$$

Open sets in \mathbb{R}

Let S be an open subset of \mathbb{R} . An open interval I (not necessarily finite) is called a component interval of S if $I \subseteq S$ & \nexists open interval $J \neq I$ s.t. $I \subseteq J \subseteq S$.

e.g.: If $S = (1, 5) \cup (7, 10)$, then $(1, 5)$ & $(7, 10)$ are comp. intervals of S .

Thm 1: Every pt. of a non-empty open set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ belongs to exactly one comp. interval of S .

Thm 2: Every non-empty open set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is the union of a countable coll. of disjoint comp. intervals of S .

Pf: (Thm 1)

Let $x \in S$. Since $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is open, x is contained in some open interval I , with $I \subseteq S$ (possibly many)

Let $I_x = (a_x, b_x)$, where

$$a_x = \inf \{a : (a, x) \subseteq S\}$$

$$b_x = \sup \{b : (x, b) \subseteq S\}$$

Here, a_x & b_x may possibly be $-\infty$ & ∞ resp.

claim: \nexists open $J \neq I_x$ s.t. $I_x \subseteq J \subseteq S$
ie I_x is comp. interval of S containing x .

If J_x is another comp. interval of S containing x , then $I_n \cup J_x$ is an open interval contained in S s.t. $I_n \subseteq I_n \cup J_x$ & $J_x \subseteq I_n \cup J_x$

$$\Rightarrow I_n = I_n \cup J_x \quad \& \quad J_x = I_n \cup J_x \quad (\because I_n \text{ & } J_x \text{ are comp. intervals})$$

Hence, I_n is the only comp. interval of S containing x .

Pf: (Thm 2)

for $x \in S$, let I_x be the comp. interval of S containing x .

If $I_x \cap I_y \neq \emptyset$, then $I_x \cup I_y$ is an open interval contained in S s.t. $I_x \subseteq I_x \cup I_y$ & $I_y \subseteq I_x \cup I_y$

$$\Rightarrow I_x = I_x \cup I_y \quad \& \quad I_y = I_x \cup I_y \quad (\because I_x \text{ & } I_y \text{ are comp. intervals})$$

Therefore, the (distinct) intervals I_n form a disjoint collection.

we now show the collection has countably many intervals.

Let $\mathbb{Q} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$

Def. a fnⁿ F by $F(I_n) = n$ if $x_n \in I_n$ with the smallest index n .

$$\therefore F(I_x) = F(I_y) \Rightarrow I_x \cap I_y \neq \emptyset \text{ so } I_x = I_y$$

$\therefore F$ is a big b/w coll. of I_n & some subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$

Hence, coll. of I_n is countable.

Closed set : A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be closed if $\mathbb{R}^n - S$ is open

eg : 1. $[a, b]$ is closed in \mathbb{R}

2. $[a_1, b_1] \times \dots \times [a_n, b_n]$ is closed in \mathbb{R}^n

Thm : The union of a finite coll. of closed sets is closed.

The intersection of an arbitrary coll. of closed sets is closed.

eg : 1. $A_n = \left[\frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n}\right] \leftarrow$ closed

$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = (0, 1) \leftarrow$ open

Thm : If A is open & B is closed, then
 $A - B$ is open & B is closed.

Pf : $A - B = A \cap (\mathbb{R}^n - B) \Rightarrow A - B$ is open

\uparrow \uparrow
open open

$B - A = B \cap (\mathbb{R}^n - A) \Rightarrow B - A$ is closed

\uparrow \uparrow
closed closed

Note : A set could be both open & closed
eg - $\emptyset, \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

Also, a set could be neither open nor closed
eg - $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}, (a, b]$

Accumulation/limit pt : If $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then x is called an acc./lt. pt. of S if every ball $B(x)$ contains at least one pt. of S distinct from x .

eg: 1. $S = \left\{ \frac{1}{n}, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \right\}$ has 0 as lt. pt.

2. Every pt. of set $T = [a, b]$ is a lt. pt. of the set $S = (a, b)$

3. For $S = [0, 1] \cup \{2\}$, all pts. in $[0, 1]$ are lt. pt.

Thm : If x is a lt. pt. of S , then every ball $B(x)$ around x contains infinitely many pts. of S .

Pf : Suppose \exists a ball $B(x)$ which contains finitely many pts. of S say a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m

Let $r > 0$ be s.t. $r < \min\{ \|x - a_1\|, \dots, \|x - a_m\| \}$

Then $B(x, r)$ contains no pts. of S ,

which is a contdⁿ to x being a lt. pt. of S .

Thm : A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed iff it contains all its lt. pts.

Pf : (\Rightarrow) Suppose S is closed. Let x be a lt. pt. of S .

Claim : $x \in S$

Suppose $x \notin S \Rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^n - S$.

$\therefore S$ is closed $\Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n - S$ is open.

So, \exists ball $B(x)$ s.t. $B(x) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n - S$

$\Rightarrow B(x)$ does not contain any pts. of S , which is a contdⁿ to x being a lt. pt. of S .

\Leftrightarrow Suppose S contains all of its lt. pts.

Claim: S is closed or $\mathbb{R}^n - S$ is open.

Suppose $y \in \mathbb{R}^n - S$ s.t. any ball $B(y)$, is not completely contained in $\mathbb{R}^n - S$.

$\Rightarrow B(y)$ contains some pt. of S

$\Rightarrow y$ is a lt. pt. of S

$\Rightarrow y \in S \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ

Closure: If S' denote the set of all lt. pts. of S , the closure of S (denote \bar{S}) is defined to be the set $\bar{S} = S \cup S'$

Note: \bar{S} is a closed set

eg: 1. $S = (0, 1) \Rightarrow \bar{S} = [0, 1]$

2. $S = \{1/n : n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}\}, S' = \{0\}$

$$\bar{S} = \{0, 1, 1/2, \dots\}$$

Bounded set : A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be bounded if $\exists \alpha > 0$, s.t $S \subseteq B(0, \alpha)$

Theorem : (Bolzano-Weierstrass)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be bounded & contain infinitely many pts. Then S has a lt. pt.

Pf: Case 1: $n = 1$

Bounded $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ $\Rightarrow S \subseteq [-a, a]$
 $(\because \exists a \text{ st } S \subseteq B(0, a))$

At least one of $[-a, 0]$ & $[0, a]$ contain inf. many pts. of S .

Let one such interval be I_1 .
Bisect I_1 . At least one of the two halves must contain inf. many pts. of S .

Pick one such half, say $I_2 = [a_2, b_2]$

By continuing the process, we obtain a count.
 coll. of subintervals I_1, I_2, \dots s.t
 interval $I_m = [a_m, b_m]$ has length $b_m - a_m = a/2^{m-1}$

$$1. \quad a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a$$

So, $\{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ has a sup. say a_∞

$$2. \quad b_1 \geq b_2 \geq \dots \geq -a$$

So, $\{b_1, b_2, \dots\}$ has an inf. say b_∞

Claim: $a_\infty \leq b_\infty$

Since, each b_i is ub for $\{a_n\}$,

$$a_\infty \leq b_i \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \quad (\because a_\infty \text{ is sup})$$

$\Rightarrow a_\infty$ is lb. for $\{b_n\}$.

$$\Rightarrow a_\infty \leq b_\infty \quad (\because b_\infty \text{ is inf.})$$

Claim: $a_\infty = b_\infty$ (Because as $m \rightarrow \infty$, $b_m - a_m \rightarrow 0$)

Suppose $a_\infty < b_\infty$. Let $\lambda = b_\infty - a_\infty$

Pick large m s.t $\frac{a}{2^{m-1}} < \lambda$

$$\therefore b_m \geq b_\infty \quad \& \quad a_m \leq a_\infty \Rightarrow b_m - a_m \geq b_\infty - a_\infty$$

$$\Rightarrow a/2^{m-1} \geq r \rightarrow \text{Contd}^n$$

Let $x = a_\infty = b_\infty$

Claim: x is lt. pt. of S .

Let $B(x, r)$ be some open ball around x

Pick large n s.t $b_n - a_n = \frac{a}{2^{n-1}} < r$

$\therefore b_n \geq x \text{ & } a_n \leq x \Rightarrow I_n = [a_n, b_n] \subseteq B(x, r)$

$\because I_n$ contains inf. many pts. of S

$\therefore B(x, r)$ contains a pt. of S diff. from x .

Hence, x is a lt. pt. of S

Case 2: $n > 1$

$\therefore S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is bounded

$\therefore \exists a > 0$ s.t. $S \subseteq B(O, a)$

$$\Rightarrow S \subseteq [-a, a] \times \dots \times [-a, a] = [-a, a]^n$$

Each $[-a, a]$ can be bisected as $(-a, 0) \cup [0, a]$

So, S can be written as union of 2^n subsets.

$\therefore S$ is an inf. set, at least one of these subsets (say I_1) contains inf. many pts. in S .

$$I_1 = [a_1', b_1'] \times \dots \times [a_n', b_n']$$

Sim. bisecting each side of I_1 , I_1 can be written as a union of 2^n subsets and one of these subsets (say I_2) contains inf. many pts. of S .

$$I_2 = [a_1^2, b_1^2] \times \dots \times [a_n^2, b_n^2]$$

By continuing the process, we obtain a count. coll. of n -dim. subsets I_1, I_2, \dots

s.t. $b_k^m - a_k^m = \frac{a}{2^{m-1}}, \quad k=1, 2, \dots$

Sim. to proof for \mathbb{R}^1 , we have

$$x_k^\infty = \sup \{a_k^m\} = \inf \{b_k^m\}, \quad \forall m, \\ 1 \leq k \leq n$$

Then, the pt. $x^\infty = \{x_1^\infty, \dots, x_n^\infty\}$ is a lt. pt. of x^∞ .

Application of BW theorem

Theorem: Let $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ be a count. coll. of sets in \mathbb{R}^n s.t each A_k is non-empty, closed, bounded and $A_{k+1} \subseteq A_k \quad \forall k$. Then the intersection $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$ is closed and non-empty.

Pf: Let $S = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$. Then S is closed

Case 1: $\exists k_0$ s.t A_{k_0} is a finite set.

(Proof is trivial)

Case 2: $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, A_k is inf. set.

\Rightarrow We can select a set of distinct pts.

$$T = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \text{ s.t } \forall k \geq 1, x_k \in A_k$$

$\therefore T \subseteq A_1$ which is bounded $\Rightarrow T$ is bounded

By BW thm, T has lim. pt. say x_∞

for each k , $x_i \in A_k \quad \forall i \geq k$

$\Rightarrow x_\infty$ is a lim. pt. of

$$T_k = \{x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots\} \subseteq A_k$$

So, x_∞ is lim. pt. of A_k .

But A_k is closed, hence $x_\infty \in A_k$

Therefore $x_\infty \in A_k \quad \forall k \geq 1$

$$\Rightarrow x_\infty \in \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k = S \quad \Rightarrow \quad S \neq \emptyset$$

Cover: A coll. F of sets is said to be a cover
(covering) of a given set S if $S \subseteq \bigcup_{A \in F} A$

F is also said to cover S .

If F is a coll. of open sets that covers S ,
then F is called an open cover.

eg: 1. $F = \{(1/n, 2/n) : n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}\}$ is an open
cover of $S = (0, 1)$

F is a countable open cover.

2. $S = \mathbb{R}$ is covered by the coll. F of
all open intervals (a, b) .

F is uncountable open cover. But it has
a countable subcoll. that still covers \mathbb{R}

eg: $(n, n+2), n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$

Thm: Suppose $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and let \mathcal{F} be an open cover of A . Then there is a countable subcoll. of \mathcal{F} which covers A .

Lem: Let $G = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ denote the countable coll. of all balls in \mathbb{R}^n with rational radii & centres at rational coordinates.

Suppose $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ & let S be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n which contains x . Then $x \in A_k \subseteq S$ for some $A_k \in G$

Pf: (Lem)

$\because S$ is an open set containing x
 $\Rightarrow \exists r > 0$ s.t. $B(x, r) \subseteq S$

If $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, then $y_k \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t
 $|y_k - x_k| < r/4n$

Let $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$

Then $\|y-x\| \leq |x_1-y_1| + \dots + |y_n-x_n| < \pi/4$

Let $q \in Q$ s.t $\pi/4 < q < \pi/2$

Then $\|y-x\| < q \Rightarrow x \in B(y, q)$

Also, if $z \in B(y, q)$, then

$$\|z-x\| \leq \|z-y\| + \|y-x\| < q+q < \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow z \in B(x, \pi)$$

$$\Rightarrow B(y, q) \subseteq B(x, \pi)$$

So, $B(y, q)$ is the req. elem. A_k of Q .

Pf: (Thm)

Let $G = \{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ as in the prev. lemma.

Let $x \in A$, let $S \in F$ s.t. $x \in S$.

By the lemma $\exists A_k \in G$ s.t. $x \in A_k \subseteq S$

There will be many such A_k for each x .

Let us choose the one with the smallest index
say $m = m(x)$.

Then $x \in A_{m(x)} \subseteq S$.

The set of open balls $A_{m(x)}$ as x varies in A ,
is a countable coll. of open sets which covers A .

for each $A_{m(x)}$, pick one of the sets S of F
which contains $A_{m(x)}$. Then the coll. of such
 S is a count. subcoll. of F which covers A .

Thm : (Heine-Borel)

Let F be an open cover of a closed and bounded set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then a finite subcoll. of F also covers A .

Pf : By prev. thm, \exists count. subcoll. of F say $\{I_1, I_2, \dots\}$ which covers A .

For $m \geq 1$, consider the finite union $S_m = \bigcup_{j=1}^m I_j$
This is a union of open sets & hence is open.

Also, $A \subseteq \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} I_j$.

We will show $\exists m$ s.t. $A \subseteq S_m$

for this, def. a count. coll. of sets $\{T_1, T_2, \dots\}$ as follows.

$$T_1 = A$$

$$T_m = A - S_m = A \cap (\mathbb{R}^n - S_m)$$

We want to show $\exists m$ s.t. $T_m = \emptyset$

- Note,
1. each T_m is closed
(intersection of closed sets)
 2. $T_{m+1} \subseteq T_m$
 3. each T_m is bounded ($T_m \subseteq A$)

If each T_m is non-empty, $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k$ is non-empty.

Then, if $x \in \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} (A - S_k)$,
it means that x is an elem. of A which is
not contained in any of the sets S_k .

This is a cond'n to $A \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} S_k$.

$\therefore \exists m$ s.t $T_m = \emptyset$

Compact set : A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact if every open cover of S has a finite subcover

Thm : Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then the following statements are eq.

1. S is compact
2. S is closed & bounded
3. Every infinite subset of S has a lim. pt. in S .

Pf : $2 \Rightarrow 1$ By Heine - Borel thm

$1 \Rightarrow 2$ Suppose S is a compact set.

The coll. of balls $B(O, m)$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is an open cover of S .

$\therefore S$ is compact \Rightarrow it has a finite subcover say $\{B(O, m_1), \dots, B(O, m_k)\}$

Let $R = \max\{m_1, \dots, m_k\}$. Then $S \subseteq B(O, R)$
So, S is bounded

Suppose S is not closed. Then \exists a lim. pt. y of S s.t. $y \notin S$.

For each $x \in S$, def. $r_x = \frac{\|x-y\|}{2} > 0$

The coll. $F = \{B(x, r_x) : x \in S\}$ is an open cover of S .

$\because S$ is compact $\rightarrow \exists$ a finite subcover
say $\{B(x_1, r_1), \dots, B(x_m, r_m)\}$

Let $r = \min\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$

Then $B(y, r) \cap B(x_k, r_k) = \emptyset$

$\Rightarrow B(y, r) \cap S = \emptyset \rightarrow$ Contrdⁿ

$\therefore y$ is a lim. pt. of S

So, S is closed

eg - 1. $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is compact in \mathbb{R}

2. Let $S = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ be a finite set in \mathbb{R} .
Then S is compact.

3. $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is bounded but not closed.
So \mathbb{Z} is not compact.

4. $\left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n=1, 2, \dots \right\}$ is bounded but not closed.
So, not compact

(Continuing the proof)

2 \rightarrow 3. If T is an infinite subset S , then T is bounded ($\because S$ is bounded)

By Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, T has a lim. pt. x .
Then x is also a lim. pt. of S .

$\therefore S$ is closed $\Rightarrow x \in S$

$\exists \Rightarrow 2$ first we show S is bounded.

If S is unbounded, then $\forall m > 0$, $\exists x_m \in S$ st
 $\|x_m\| > m$. (x_m lies outside $B(0, m)$)

If $T = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$, then T is an infinite subset
of S .

\therefore By 3, T has a lim. pt. in S , say y .

But, if we choose m large enough st $m > 1 + \|y\|$
then $\|x_m - y\| \geq \|x_m\| - \|y\|$
 $> m - \|y\| > 1$

i.e. If m larger than $1 + \|y\|$, the pt. x_m lies
outside the ball $B(y, 1)$

This contradicts the fact that y is a lim. pt. of T .

Next, we show that S is closed. To do this, let x be a lim. pt. of S . We will show that $x \in S$.

Consider open balls $B(x, 1/k)$, $k=1, 2, \dots$

\because each open ball around x contains infinitely many pts. of S , we obtain a countable set of distinct pts, say $T = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subseteq S$ s.t. $x_k \in B(x, 1/k)$

Then x is also lim. pt. of T .

We will show that x is the only lim. pt. of T (because then by 3, $x \in S$)

3 will imply that T has a lim. pt. in S .

If we showed that x is the only lim. pt. of T , then x must be in S .

Suppose $y \neq x$ is a lim. pt. of T .
for $x_k \in T$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|y - x\| &\leq \|y - x_k\| + \|x_k - x\| \\ &< \|y - x_k\| + 1/k\end{aligned}$$

Take k_0 large enough st $\frac{1}{k} < \frac{1}{2}\|y - x\|$ A $k \geq k_0$

Then, for $k \geq k_0$, we have

$$\|y - x\| < \|y - x_k\| + \frac{1}{2}\|y - x\|$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\|y - x\| < \|y - x_k\|$$

So, if we set $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}\|y - x\|$, then this becomes

$$\lambda < \|y - x_k\|$$

i.e. $x_k \notin B(y, \lambda) \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ ($\because y$ is lim. pt. of T)

$\therefore x$ is the only lim. pt. of T

Hence, by prev. discussion $x \in S$ i.e. S is closed.

Metric space

A metric sp. is a non-empty set M together with a fnⁿ $d: M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the following ppts. $\forall x, y, z \in M$

1. $d(x, x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in M$
2. $d(x, y) > 0 \quad \forall x \neq y \in M$
3. $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
4. $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$

The fnⁿ d is called the dist. fnⁿ of the metric sp. (M, d)

1. $M = \mathbb{R}^n, \quad d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$

2. Discrete Metric space

For any non-empty set M , define $d: M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x = y \\ 1, & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$$

discrete metric

3. If (M, d) is a metric space, and non-empty $S \subseteq M$, then (S, d) is also a metric space with the restriction of d to S .

(S, d) is called a metric subspace of (M, d)

e.g. - (\mathbb{Q}, d) with $d = |x - y|$ is a metric subspace of (\mathbb{R}, d)

4. (\mathbb{R}^2, d) with $d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + 4(x_2 - y_2)^2}$

Note, $d(x, y) = d_{\text{Euc.}}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = \|\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}\|$

where $\tilde{x} = (x_1, 2x_2)$, $\tilde{y} = (y_1, 2y_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } d(x, y) &= \|\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}\| \leq \|\tilde{x} - \tilde{z}\| + \|\tilde{z} - \tilde{y}\| \\ &= d(x, z) + d(z, y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$$

5. $M = \{ (x_1, x_2) : x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \}$

$d(x, y) =$ length of smaller arc along the unit circle joining x & y

6. $M = \{ (x_1, x_2, x_3) : x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = 1 \}$

$d(x, y) =$ length of the shorter arc along the great circle joining x & y .

7. $M = \mathbb{R}^n$

$$d(x, y) = |x_1 - y_1| + \dots + |x_n - y_n|$$

8. $M = \mathbb{R}^n$

$$d(x, y) = \max \{ |x_1 - y_1|, \dots, |x_n - y_n| \}$$

In \mathbb{R}^n , we had notions like open & closed sets, lim. pt., closure, etc.

These concepts can be extended to an arbitrary metric sp.

Open Ball : If $a \in M$, then the ball with radius $r > 0$ & center a is defined as

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

Sometimes, we write it as $B_M(a, r)$.

If S is a metric subsp. of M & $a \in S$, then

$$B_S(a, r) = S \cap B_M(a, r)$$

Interior pt. : For $S \subseteq M$, $x \in S$, x is called an int. pt. of S if $\exists \lambda > 0$ s.t. $B_M(x, \lambda) \subseteq S$

The interior $\text{int } S$ is the set of interior pts. of S

Open set : A set S is open in M if
 $S = \text{int } S$

Closed set : A set S is closed in M if
 $M - S$ is open.

eg : L Every ball $B_M(a, r)$ in a metric sp. is open in M .

So, in $M = [0, 1]$, $d = |x - y|$,
 $(0, 1/8)$ & $(1/4, 3/4)$ are open sets.

$$= B_M(0, 1/8) = B_M(1/2, 1/4)$$

2. In a discrete metric sp. every subset S is open.

\therefore If $x \in S$, $B(x) \cap S = \{x\}$ so
 $\{x\}$ is open in M .

And for any set S , $S = \bigcup_{x \in S} \{x\}$

i.e union of open sets is open
(though we have not proved it yet!)

3. In $M = [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ every interval of the form $[0, x) \times (x, 1]$, where $0 < x < 1$ is an open set in M .

Then : Let (S, d) be a metric subspace of (M, d)

Let $X \subseteq S$. X is open in S iff $X = S \cap A$ for some set A open in M .

Pf : (\Leftarrow) Suppose A is open in M & $X = S \cap A$

If $x \in X$, then $x \in A$, so $\exists r > 0$ s.t
 $B_M(x, r) \subseteq A$

Then $B_S(x, r) = S \cap B_M(x, r) \subseteq S \cap A = X$

Hence, X is open.

(\Rightarrow) Suppose X is open in S .

so, $\forall x \in X, \exists r_x > 0$ s.t $B_S(x, r_x) \subseteq X$

Note, $B_S(x, r_x) = B_M(x, r_x) \cap S$

$$\text{Def. } A = \bigcup_{x \in X} B_M(x, r_x)$$

Then A is open in M &

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap S &= \left(\bigcup_{x \in X} B_M(x, r_x) \right) \cap S = \bigcup_{x \in X} B_M(x, r_x) \cap S \\ &= \bigcup_{x \in X} B_S(x, r_x) = X \end{aligned}$$

Then: Let (S, d) be a metric subsp. (M, d) .

Let $Y \subseteq S$ be closed in S iff $Y = S \cap B$
for a set B closed in M .

Pf (\Leftarrow) If $Y = S \cap B$ for closed $B \subseteq M$, then
 $B = M - A$ for some open $A \subseteq M$.

$$\text{So, } Y = S \cap B = S \cap (M - A) = S - \underbrace{(A \cap S)}_{\substack{\text{open in } S \\ \text{by prev. thm}}}$$

Hence Y is closed in S .

\Rightarrow Suppose Y is closed in S .

Then $Y = S - X$ for open $X \subseteq S$

By prev. thm., $X = S \cap A$ for some open $A \subseteq M$

$$\Rightarrow Y = S - X = S - S \cap A = S \cap M - S \cap A = S \cap \underbrace{M - A}_{\text{closed in } M}$$

Accumulation/lim pt.: for $S \subseteq M$, $x \in M$ is a lim. pt. of S if every ball $B(x, r)$ contains at least one pt. of S diff. from x .

Closure: for S , let S' be the set of all lim pts. of S . The closure \bar{S} of S is defined as

$$\bar{S} = S \cup S'$$

The following thems are valid in every metric space. They are proved exactly the same as we did for \mathbb{R}^n , simply by replacing $\|x-y\|$ with $d(x,y)$

1. The union of any coll. of open sets in (M, d) is open & the intersection of any finite coll. of open sets is open.
2. The union of any finite coll. of closed sets in (M, d) is closed & the intersection of any coll. of closed sets is closed.
3. If A is open & B is closed, then $A-B$ is open & $B-A$ is closed
4. For any subset S of M , the following are eq.
 - S is closed in M
 - S contains all its lim. pts.
 - $S = \bar{S}$

eg : Let $M = \mathbb{Q}$ with $d(x, y) = |x - y|$
Let $S = \mathbb{Q} \cap (a, b)$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$

Then S is closed in \mathbb{Q}

Pf : $S = \mathbb{Q} \cap (a, b) = \mathbb{Q} \cap [a, b]$ $\left\{ \because a, b \notin \mathbb{Q} \right\}$

$\therefore [a, b]$ is closed in \mathbb{R}

$\therefore S$ is closed in \mathbb{Q} ($\because \mathbb{Q}$ is metric subspace of \mathbb{R})

The proof of the following theorems used not only the metric pts. of \mathbb{R} but also special pts. of \mathbb{R} (coming from completeness axiom), that are not necessarily valid in arbitrary metric spaces.

1. Bolzano - Weierstrass theorem

2. If $\{A_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are closed, non-empty, bounded sets in \mathbb{R}^n s.t. $A_k \subseteq A_{k+1} \forall k$ then $\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$ is closed & non-empty

3. For any $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, any any cover F of A ,
 F has countable cover.

4. Heine-Borel thm

Open Cover: for a metric sp. (M, d) & $S \subseteq M$.

A coll. F of open subsets of M is said to be
an open cover of S if $S \subseteq \bigcup_{A \in F} A$

Compact set: A subset $S \subseteq M$ is compact if
every open cover of S has a finite subcover.

Bounded set: S is bounded if $\exists a, r \in M$ s.t
 $S \subseteq B(a, r)$

Thm : Let S be a compact subset of M .

Then -

1. S is closed and bounded
2. Every infinite subset of S has a lim. pt. in S .

Pf : Proof of 1. is same as $1 \Rightarrow 2$ in earlier proof.

2. Let T be an inf. subset of S s.t no pt of S is a lim. pt. for T .

Then, for any $x \in S$, \exists a ball $B(x)$ which contains no point of T . (if $x \notin T$) or exactly one pt. of T (if $x \in T$)

As x ranges over S , the coll. of these balls is an open cover of S .

$\therefore S$ is compact $\Rightarrow \exists$ a finite subcoll. of these balls that covers S , and hence it also covers T ($\because T \subseteq S$)

which is a cont'dⁿ as T is an inf. set. & each ball contains at most 1 pt. of T .

e.g.: In $M = \mathbb{Q}$, with $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ & $S = \mathbb{Q} \cap (a, b)$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.

S is closed & bounded but not compact.

Thm: Let X be a closed subset of a compact metric sp. M . Then X is compact.

Pf: Let F be an open cover of X ,
i.e. $X \subseteq \bigcup_{A \in F} A$

$\because X$ is closed $\Rightarrow Y = M - X$ is open

\therefore The coll. $\tilde{F} = F \cup \{Y\}$ is an open cover of M .

$\because M$ is compact, \exists a finite subcoll. of \tilde{F} which covers M .

wlog, let this finite subcoll. be $\{A_1, \dots, A_k\} \cup \{Y\}$

In particular, $\{A_1, \dots, A_k\}$ is a finite open cover of X , which is a finite subcover of F .

Boundary pt : Let subset $S \subseteq M$ metric sp. A pt $x \in M$ is called a b'ry pt of S if every ball $B_M(x, r)$ contains at least one pt. of S & at least one pt. of $M-S$.

The set of all b'ry pts of S is called the boundary of S & is denoted by ∂S .

e.g. : $M = \mathbb{R}$, $d(x, y) = |x-y|$
 $S = \mathbb{Q}$, $\partial S = \mathbb{R}$

Note : $\partial S = \overline{S} \cap \overline{(M-S)}$

Dense set : In a metric sp. M , if A & S are subsets satisfying $A \subseteq S \subseteq \bar{A}$, then we say A is dense in S .

eg: $M = \mathbb{R}$, $S = \mathbb{R}$, $A = \mathbb{Q}$

$$\bar{A} = \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow A \subseteq S \subseteq \bar{A}$$

So, \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .

Separable metric sp. : A metric sp. M is said to be separable if \exists a countable subset A which is dense in M .

eg: \mathbb{R} is separable because the set \mathbb{Q} is a countable dense subset.

Limit: A seq. $\{x_n\}$ of pts. in a metric sp. (X, d) is said to converge if \exists a pt. $p \in X$ s.t $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, s.t. $d(x_n, p) < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq N$

We say that $\{x_n\}$ converges to p & write

$$x_n \rightarrow p \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

If \nexists such a pt. $p \in S$, then the seq. $\{x_n\}$ is said to diverge.

eg: In \mathbb{R} , a seq. $\{x_n\}$ is called increasing if $x_n \leq x_{n+1} \quad \forall n$.

If an increasing seq. is bounded above, it converges to supremum.

Rem: $d(x_n, p) < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$ is

eq. to $x_n \in B(p, \epsilon)$ whenever $n \geq N$

Thm: A seq. $\{x_n\}$ in a metric sp. (S, d) can converge to at most one pt. in S .

If a seq. $\{x_n\}$ converges, the unique pt. to which it converges is called the limit of the seq. & is denoted by $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$

eg: The seq. $\{1 - \frac{1}{n}\}$ in \mathbb{R} converge to $p=1$,
but it does not converge in the metric
subsp. $[0, 1)$

Thm: In a metric sp. (S, d) a seq. $\{x_n\}$ converges iff every subseq. $\{x_{k(n)}\}$ converges

Thm: In a metric sp. (S, d) assume $x_n \rightarrow p$ & let $T = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ be the range of $\{x_n\}$

Then T is bounded

Pf: Let $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t. $d(x_N, p) < 1 \quad \forall n \geq N$

So, $\forall n \geq N, x_n \in B(p, 1)$

Def. $R = \max\{1, d(x_1, p), d(x_2, p), \dots, d(x_{N-1}, p)\}$

Then $T \subseteq B(p, R)$

$\therefore T$ is bounded

Thm: Given a metric sp. (S, d) & a subset $T \subseteq S$.

If a pt. $p \in S$ is a lim. pt. of T , then \exists a seq. $\{x_n\}$ of pts. in T s.t. $x_n \rightarrow p$

Thm : Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is conv. in a metric sp. (S, d) .

Then $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \text{ s.t } d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N$

Pf : Let $p = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$

Given $\epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \text{ s.t } d(x_n, p) < \epsilon/2 \quad \forall n \geq N$

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_n, x_m) &\leq d(x_n, p) + d(x_m, p) \\ &< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \quad [\because n, m \geq N] \\ &\leq \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Cauchy seq. : A seq. $\{x_n\}$ in metric sp. (S, d)
is Cauchy if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \text{ s.t }$
 $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N$

The thm above states that every conv. seq.
is a Cauchy seq. The converse is not true
in a general metric sp.

eg: $\left\{1 - \frac{1}{n}\right\}$ is Cauchy but not conv. in $[0, 1)$

Consider $x_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} \dots$

Not easy to find lim. But easy to show it is Cauchy.

Thm: In \mathbb{R}^k , every Cauchy seq. is conv.

Pf: Let $\{x_n\}$ be Cauchy in \mathbb{R}^k .

Case 1: The set $T = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ is finite.

Then all but a finite no. of terms are x_n equal.
Hence, $\{x_n\}$ converges.

Case 2: The set $T = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ is infinite.

$\because \{x_n\}$ is Cauchy $\Rightarrow \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t $\|x_n - x_m\| < 1$
 $\forall n, m \geq N$

Let $R = \max\{1, \|x_1 - x_N\|, \dots, \|x_{N-1} - x_N\|\}$

Then $T \subseteq B(x_N, R)$, so T is bounded.

By BW thm, T has a lim. pt p in \mathbb{R}^k

Claim: $x_n \rightarrow p$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t $\|x_n - x_{N_0}\| < \epsilon/2 \quad \forall m, n \geq N_0$

Also, $\exists m_0 \geq N_0$ s.t $\|x_{m_0} - p\| < \epsilon/2$

$\therefore \forall n \geq N_0$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|x_n - p\| &\leq \|x_n - x_{m_0}\| + \|x_{m_0} - p\| \\ &< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \\ &\leq \epsilon\end{aligned}$$

Hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = p$

Complete metric sp. : A metric sp. (S, d) is called complete if every Cauchy seq. converges in S .

$T \subseteq S$ is called complete if (T, d) is complete.

eg: 1. \mathbb{R}^k is complete

2. $\{0, 1\}$ is not complete

3. \mathbb{R}^n with $d(x, y) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i - y_i|$ is complete.

Thm: In any metric sp. (S, d) , every compact set is complete.

Pf: Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy seq. in T .

If $A = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ is finite, then $\{x_n\}$ conv. to one of the items of A .

$\therefore \{x_n\}$ converges in T .

If A is infinite, then since T is compact subset of S , A has a lim. pt. p in T .

Then $x_n \rightarrow p$

Suppose we have 2 metric sp. (S, d_S) & (T, d_T) .

Let $A \subseteq S$ & $f: A \rightarrow T$

Limit of f : If p is a lim. pt. of A & if b $\in T$,
then $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = b$ is def. as

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } x \in A, x \neq p, d_S(x, p) < \delta \\ \Rightarrow d_T(f(x), b) < \epsilon$$

Then: Suppose p is a lim. pt. of A & b $\in T$.

Then the following are eq.

$$1. \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = b$$

$$2. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = b \text{ for every seq. } \{x_n\} \text{ of pts. in} \\ A - \{p\} \text{ which conv. to } p.$$

Pf : (\Rightarrow)

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a seq. in $A - \{p\}$ which conv. to p .

Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $\delta > 0$ be s.t. $d_S(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(x), b) < \epsilon$

$$x \neq p$$

Let $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ be s.t. $d_S(x_n, p) < \delta \quad \forall n \geq N$

Then $n \geq N \Rightarrow d_S(x_n, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(x_n), b) < \epsilon$ i.e.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = b$$

(\Leftarrow) Suppose $\exists \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\forall \delta > 0$, $\exists x \in A$ s.t.
 $0 < d_S(x, p) < \delta$ but $d_T(f(x), b) \geq \epsilon$

Taking $\delta = 1/n$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ we get a seq.

x_1, x_2, \dots s.t. $0 < d(x_n, p) < 1/n$ but $d_T(f(x_n), b) \geq \epsilon$

Then $x_n \rightarrow p$ but $f(x_n)$ does not converge to b .

Continuous fnⁿ: Let (S, d_S) & (T, d_T) be two metric sp.
if $f: S \rightarrow T$. f is said to be continuous at p
in S if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ s.t

$$d_S(x, p) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$$

If f is cont. at every pt. of a subset A in S ,
we say f is cont. on A .

Alt: f is cont. at p iff $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ s.t
 $f(B_S(p, \delta)) \subseteq B_T(f(p), \epsilon)$

If p is a lim. pt. of S , then if f is cont.
at p , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p)$

Thm: Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a fnⁿ from one metric sp (S, d_S) to another (T, d_T) & assume $p \in S$.

Then, f is cont. at p iff. \forall seq. $\{x_n\}$ in S conv. to p , the seq. $\{f(x_n)\}$ in T conv. to $f(p)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n\right)$$

Thm: Let $(S, d_S), (T, d_T), (U, d_U)$ be metric sp. & let $f: S \rightarrow T$ & $g: T \rightarrow U$. Let $h = g \circ f: S \rightarrow U$. If f is cont. at p & g is cont. at $f(p)$, then h is cont. at p .

Pf: Let $b = f(p)$. Given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t $d_T(y, b) < \delta \Rightarrow d_U(g(y), g(b)) < \epsilon$.

for this δ , $\exists \delta' \text{ s.t } d_S(x, p) < \delta' \Rightarrow d_T(f(x), f(p)) < \delta$

Combining these statements & taking $y = f(x)$, we get

$$d_S(x, p) < \delta' \Rightarrow d_U(g(f(x)), g(f(p))) < \epsilon$$

$$\text{i.e. } d_S(x, p) < \delta' \Rightarrow d_U(h(x), h(p)) < \epsilon$$

Hence h is cont. at p .

Then: Let $f: S \rightarrow T$. Then f is cont. on S iff
A open set $Y \subseteq T$, the inverse image $f^{-1}(Y)$ is
open in S .

Pf: (\Rightarrow)

Let f be cont. on S & $Y \subseteq T$ be open.
Let $p \in f^{-1}(Y)$. Let $y = f(p)$

$\because Y$ is open $\Rightarrow \exists \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $B_T(y, \epsilon) \subseteq Y$

$\because f$ is cont. at $p \Rightarrow \exists \delta > 0$ s.t.
 $f(B_S(p, \delta)) \subseteq B_T(y, \epsilon)$

Hence $B_S(p, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_T(y, \epsilon)) \subseteq f^{-1}(Y)$

So p is an interior pt. of $f^{-1}(Y)$.

\therefore this holds for any $p \in f^{-1}(Y)$

$\therefore f^{-1}(Y)$ is open in S .

(\Leftarrow)

Suppose $f^{-1}(Y)$ is open in S for every open set Y in T .

Let $p \in S$ & $y = f(p)$.

$\forall \epsilon > 0$, $B_T(y, \epsilon)$ is open in T .

$\therefore f^{-1}(B_T(y, \epsilon))$ is open in S .

We have $p \in f^{-1}(B_T(y, \epsilon))$

$\therefore \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $B_S(p, \delta) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_T(y, \epsilon))$ i.e
 $f(B_S(p, \delta)) \subseteq B_T(y, \epsilon)$

Hence, f is cont. at p .

Then: Let $f: S \rightarrow T$. Then f is cont. on S iff
A closed sets Y in T , the inverse image $f^{-1}(Y)$
is closed in S .

Thm : Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be continuous. Let X be a compact subset of S . Then $f(X)$ is a compact subset of T .

Pf : Let F be an open cover of $f(X)$, so

$$f(X) \subseteq \bigcup_{A \in F} A$$

Then $G = \{ f^{-1}(A) : A \in F \}$ is an open cover of X .

$\because X$ is compact $\Rightarrow G$ has a finite subcover say $\{ f^{-1}(A_1), \dots, f^{-1}(A_k) \}$

Then $\{ A_1, \dots, A_n \}$ is a finite subcover for $f(X)$.

$\therefore f(X)$ is compact.

Rem : In particular, $f(X)$ is closed & bounded.

Then: Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be cont. Let $X \subseteq S$ be compact

Then \exists pts. $p, q \in S$ s.t. $f(p) = \inf f(X)$
 $f(q) = \sup f(X)$

Pf: By prev. thm, $f(X)$ is compact.

In fact, it is closed & bounded.

Let $m = \inf f(X)$. Then $m \in f(X)$ & since $f(X)$ is closed, $\exists p \in X$ s.t. $m = f(p)$

Sim., $\exists q \in X$ s.t. $f(q) = \sup f(X)$

eg: 1. A cont. f^n : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ attains its maxi & min.

2. $f: (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = x$ does not attain its min. value.

3. $f: (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = 1/x$ is not even bounded above.

Thm: Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Assume that f is cont. at a pt. $c \in (a, b)$ & that $f(c) \neq 0$.

Then $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $f(x)$ has the same sign as $f(c)$ in $(c-\delta, c+\delta)$

Pf: Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

$\because f$ is cont. at $c \Rightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ s.t.
 $x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta) \Rightarrow f(c)-\epsilon < f(x) < f(c)+\epsilon$

Take $\epsilon = f(c)/2$. Then $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $f(c)/2 < f(x) < 3f(c)/2$
for $x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta)$

So, $f(x) > 0$ for $x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta)$

Sim., $f(x) < 0$ for $x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta)$ by taking $\epsilon = |f(c)|/2$
in the case $f(c) < 0$

Thm: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be cont. & suppose $f(a)$ & $f(b)$ have opposite signs. Then there is at least one pt. $c \in (a, b)$ s.t. $f(c) = 0$

Pf: Suppose $f(a) > 0$ & $f(b) < 0$

Let $A = \{x : x \in [a, b] \text{ & } f(x) > 0\}$

Then A is non-empty since $a \in A$ & bounded above by b .

Let $c = \sup A$. Then $a < c < b$

We will prove $f(c) = 0$

If $f(c) \neq 0$, then $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. on $(c-\delta, c+\delta)$,
f has the same sign as $f(c)$.

If $f(c) > 0$, then $\exists x > c$ s.t. $f(x) > 0 \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ
 $(x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta))$ $(\because c = \sup A)$

If $f(c) < 0$, then $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $f(x) < 0$ for $x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta)$.
 $\therefore c = \sup A \Rightarrow \exists p \in (c-\delta, c)$ s.t. $p \in A \Rightarrow f(p) > 0 \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ
 $(\because f(p) > 0 \wedge p \in (c-\delta, c+\delta))$

Thm (Intermediate Value Thm)

Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont. & suppose $f(a) \neq f(b)$.

Then f takes every value between $f(a)$ & $f(b)$ in the interval (a, b) .

Pf: Let k be a no. b/w $f(a)$ & $f(b)$ & apply the prv. thm to $g(x) = f(x) - k$

As a consequence, the image under a cont. fnⁿ f of a compact interval $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, is another compact interval $[\inf f(S), \sup f(S)]$

Disconnected metric sp.: A metric sp. S is disconnected if $S = A \cup B$ where A & B are disjoint, non-empty, open sets in S .

We can S connected if it is not disconnected.

A subset $X \subseteq S$ is connected if when thought of as a metric subsp. of S , it is connected.

eg: 1. $S = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is disconnected

$$\therefore S = (-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$$

2. Every open interval in \mathbb{R} is connected

3. \mathbb{Q} is disconnected.

$$\therefore \mathbb{Q} = A \cup B, \text{ where } A = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : p^2 < 2\}$$

$$B = \{p \in \mathbb{Q} : p^2 > 2\}$$

Thm: Let $f: S \rightarrow M$ be a fn^n b/w metric sp.
Let X be a connected subset of S . If f is
cont. on X , then $f(X)$ is connected subset of M .

Pf: Suppose $f(X)$ is disconnected i.e
 $f(X) = A \cup B$ where A & B are disjoint,
non-empty, open sets in M .

Let \tilde{f} denote the restriction of f to X .

Let $U = \tilde{f}^{-1}(A)$ & $V = \tilde{f}^{-1}(B)$. Then U & V are
disjoint open sets in X s.t $X = U \cup V \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ
($\because X$ is connected)

Rem: This is a generalization of the
Intermediate Value Thm for continuous fn's.

Thm: Let cont. $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be compact & connected. Then $\exists p, q \in X$ s.t
 $f(p) = \inf f(X)$ & $f(q) = \sup f(X)$

Also, if $p, q \in X$ with $f(a) \neq f(b)$ & c is any number b/w $f(a)$ & $f(b)$, then $\exists x \in X$ s.t $f(x) = c$

Uniform continuity : Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a fnⁿ from one metric sp (S, d_S) to another (T, d_T) . Then, f is said to be uniformly cont. on $A \subseteq S$ if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t if $p, q \in A$,

$$d_S(p, q) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon$$

eg : 1. $f: (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(n) = 1/n$ is not uniformly cont.

Take $\epsilon = 10$ & let $0 < \delta < 1$. We will find p, q s.t $|p - q| < \delta$ but $|f(p) - f(q)| > \epsilon$

If $p = \frac{\delta}{10}$, $q = \frac{\delta}{20}$, then $|p - q| = \frac{\delta}{10} < \delta$

$$\text{but } |f(p) - f(q)| = \left| \frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{q} \right| = \frac{10}{\delta} > 10$$

2. $f: (0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = x^2$ is uniformly cont.

To prove, let $\epsilon > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}|f(p) - f(q)| &= |p^2 - q^2| = |p+q||p-q| \\&\leq (|p| + |q|) |p-q| \\&\leq 2|p-q|\end{aligned}$$

Choose $\delta = \epsilon/2 \Rightarrow |p-q| < \delta \Rightarrow |p-q| < \epsilon/2$

$$\Rightarrow |f(p) - f(q)| < \epsilon$$

Rem: For uniform cont., δ should depend only
on ϵ , not the pts. p, q .

Thm: Let $f: S \rightarrow T$ be a fnⁿ from metric sp.
 (S, d_S) to (T, d_T) . Let A be a compact subset of S
& assume that f is cont. on A . Then f is
uniformly cont. on A .

Pf: Let $\epsilon > 0$. Let $a \in A$.

Since f is cont. on A , $\exists r_a > 0$ s.t. $d_T(f(x), f(a)) < \epsilon/2$
whenever $x \in B_A(a, r_a)$

The coll. $F = \{B_A(a, r_a/2), a \in A\}$ is an open
cover of A .

Since A is compact, F has a finite subcover.

$$F' = \{B_A(a_1, r_1/2), \dots, B_A(a_k, r_k/2)\}$$

$$\text{Let } \delta = \min\{r_1/2, \dots, r_k/2\}$$

Claim: $p, q \in A$ st $d_S(p, q) < \delta \Rightarrow d_T(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon$

Suppose $p, q \in A$ s.t $d_S(p, q) < \delta$

Since f' is a cover of A , \exists some i , $1 \leq i \leq k$

for which $p \in B_A(a_i, \lambda_i/2)$ i.e $d_S(p, a_i) < \lambda_i/2$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} d_S(q, a_i) &\leq d_S(q, p) + d_S(p, a_i) \\ &< \delta + \lambda_i/2 \leq \lambda_i/2 + \lambda_i/2 \\ &< \lambda_i \end{aligned}$$

i.e $q \in B_A(a_i, \lambda_i)$

$$\Rightarrow d_T(f(q), f(a_i)) < \epsilon/2$$

Also, $p \in B_A(a_i, \lambda_i/2) \subseteq B_A(a_i, \lambda_i)$

$$\Rightarrow d_T(f(p), f(a_i)) < \epsilon/2$$

$$d_T(f(p), f(q)) \leq d_T(f(p), f(a_i)) + d_T(f(q), f(a_i))$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$

$$< \epsilon$$

Let $f: S \rightarrow S$ (metric sp.). A pt. p in S is called a fixed pt. of f if $f(p) = p$

Contraction: The fnⁿ f is called a contraⁿ if \exists positive $\alpha < 1$ (called contraⁿ constant) s.t

$$d(f(x), f(y)) < \alpha d(x, y) \quad \forall x, y \in S$$

Note: A contraⁿ of any metric sp. S is uniformly continuous on S .

Thm: (*contra*" Mapping Principle)

A *contra*" f of a complete metric sp. S has a unique fixed pt.

Pf: first, let us find a fixed pt. later, we show that it is unique.

Existence

Take any pt. $x_0 \in S$ & consider the seq. obtained by repeatedly applying f.

$$x_0, f(x_0), f(f(x_0)), \dots$$

i.e. define a seq. $\{p_n\}$ as follows

$$p_0 = x_0, \quad p_{n+1} = f(p_n) \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

We will prove that $\{p_n\}$ converges to a fixed pt. of f.

First, we prove that $\{p_n\}$ is a Cauchy seq.

$$d(p_{n+1}, p_n) = d(f(p_n), f(p_{n+1})) \leq \alpha d(p_n, p_{n+1})$$

So, by ind^n , we have

$$d(p_{n+1}, p_n) \leq \alpha^n d(p_1, p_0) = c\alpha^n$$

By triangle ineq.,

$$\begin{aligned} d(p_m, p_n) &\leq \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} d(p_{k+1}, p_k) \leq \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} c\alpha^k \\ &= c \frac{\alpha^n - \alpha^m}{1-\alpha} < \frac{c\alpha^n}{1-\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

Since $\alpha^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, this ineq. shows that $\{p_n\}$ is a Cauchy seq.

$\because S$ is complete $\Rightarrow \exists p \in S$ s.t. $p_n \rightarrow p$

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

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n+1} = p$$

as f is cont.

i.e. p is a fixed pt. of f .

Uniqueness

Suppose \exists 2 fixed pt. p & p' i.e. $f(p) = p$ & $f(p') = p'$

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(p), f(p')) &\leq \alpha d(p, p') \Rightarrow d(p, p') \leq \alpha d(p, p') \\ &\Rightarrow d(p, p') = 0 \quad (\because \alpha < 1) \\ &\Rightarrow p = p' \end{aligned}$$

Derivative

If $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then for 2 distinct pts. x & c in (a, b) , we can form the difference quotient

$$\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

Then, f is said to be differentiable at c if the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$ exists.

The limit, denoted by $f'(c)$ is called the derivative of f at c .

This process defines a new fnⁿ f' , whose domain is the set of those pts. in (a, b) where f is diff. The fnⁿ f' is called the first derivative of f .

Similarly, nth derivative of f , denoted by $f^{(n)}$ is defined to be the first derivative of $f^{(n-1)}$.

Note: To consider $f^{(n)}$, we require $f^{(n+1)}$ to be defined on an open interval.

Thm: If f is defined on (a, b) & diff. at $c \in (a, b)$, then \exists a fnⁿ f^* which is cont. at c & satisfies

$$f(x) - f(c) = (x - c) f^*(x) \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$$

with $f'(c) = f^*(c)$

Conversely, if \exists a fnⁿ f^* , cont. at c , which satisfies the above eqⁿ, then f is diff. & $f'(c) = f^*(c)$

Pf: If $f'(c)$ exists, def. $f^*(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}, & x \neq c \\ f'(c), & x = c \end{cases}$

Then f^* is cont. at c & the eqⁿ holds
 $\forall x \in (a, b)$

Conversely, if $f(x) - f(c) = (x-c) f^*(x)$ for some f^*
then divide by $x-c$ & let $x \rightarrow c$, we see
that $f'(c)$ exists & equals $f^*(c)$.

$$f^*(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

Cor: If f is diff. at c , then f is cont. at c .

Pf: Let $x \rightarrow c$ in $f(x) - f(c) = (x-c) f^*(x)$

Thm : Assume f & g are defined on (a, b) &
 diff. at c . Then $f+g$, $f-g$, fg are also
 diff. at c & if $g(c) \neq 0$, then f/g is also
 diff. at c .

Their derivatives are given by

$$(f \pm g)'(c) = f'(c) \pm g'(c)$$

$$(fg)'(c) = f'(c)g(c) + f(c)g'(c)$$

$$(f/g)'(c) = \frac{f'(c)g(c) - f(c)g'(c)}{(g(c))^2}, \quad g(c) \neq 0$$

Pf : We will prove it for fg .

$$\text{By prev. thm, } f(x) = f(c) + (x-c)f^*(x)$$

$$g(x) = g(c) + (x-c)g^*(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x)g(x) - f(c)g(c) = (x-c) \left\{ g(c)f^*(x) + f(c)g^*(x) + (x-c)f^*(x)g^*(x) \right\}$$

Divide by $(x-c)$ & let $x \rightarrow c$ to obtain the formula

Diff. & approximating by linear fnⁿ

f is diff. at $c \in (a, b)$, means $\lim_{n \rightarrow c} \frac{f(n) - f(c)}{n - c}$ exists. & $f'(c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow c} \frac{f(n) - f(c)}{n - c}$

Rearrange, $0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow c} \frac{f(n) - f(c) - (n - c)f'(c)}{n - c}$

If we consider the linear fnⁿ $T: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $T(v) = f'(c)v$ for $v \in \mathbb{R}$.

Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow c} \frac{f(n) - (f(c) + T(n-c))}{n - c} = 0$

Hence, $f(c) + T(n-c) = f(c) + f'(c)(n-c)$ is a linear approximation to $f(n)$ at c .

Then : (Chain Rule)

Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let g be defined on $f((a, b))$.

Let $c \in (a, b)$ s.t $f(c)$ is an interior pt. of $f((a, b))$.

If f is diff. at c & g is diff. at $f(c)$,

then gof is diff. at c & we have

$$(gof)'(c) = g'(f(c)) f'(c)$$

Pf : We can write $f(x) - f(c) = (x - c) f^*(x)$ $\forall x \in (a, b)$

where f^* is a fn which is cont. at c ,

& satisfying $f^*(c) = f'(c)$

Also, $g(y) - g(f(c)) = (y - f(c)) g^*(y)$ where
 g^* is cont. at $f(c)$ & satisfying $g^*(f(c)) = g'(f(c))$

Writing $y = f(x)$, we have

$$g(f(x)) - g(f(c)) = (f(x) - f(c)) g^*(f(x))$$

By cont. for composite fn's

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g^*(f(x)) = g^*(f(c)) = g'(f(c))$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow c} \frac{g(f(n)) - g(f(c))}{n - c}$ exists

and equals $\lim_{n \rightarrow c} \frac{f(n) - f(c)}{n - c} \lim_{n \rightarrow c} g^*(f(n))$
 $= f'(c) g'(f(c))$

Then: Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Suppose for some $c \in (a, b)$, we have $f'(c) > 0$.

Then there is an interval $(c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon) \subseteq (a, b)$ on which $f(x) > f(c)$ if $x > c$ &
 $f(x) < f(c)$ if $x < c$

Pf: We have $f(n) - f(c) = (n - c) f^*(n)$

where f^* is continuous & satisfies $f^*(c) = f'(c)$
(so $f^*(c) > 0$)

By a theorem proved earlier, \exists an interval $(c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon) \subseteq (a, b)$ in which $f^*(x)$ has the same sign as $f^*(c)$

This implies that $f(n) - f(c)$ has the same sign as $(n-c)$ on the interval $(c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon)$.

Note: Sim. result holds if $f'(c) < 0$ at some interior pt. c of (a, b)

Local Maximum & Minimum:

Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ & $c \in (a, b)$. Then f is said to have a local maximum at c if \exists an open interval $(c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon) \subseteq (a, b)$ s.t

$$f(x) \leq f(c) \quad \forall x \in (c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon)$$

If $f(x) \geq f(c) \quad \forall x \in (c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon)$, then f is said to have local minimum.

Thm: Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ & assume f has a local max or local min. at an interior pt. c of (a, b) . If f is diff. at c , then $f'(c) = 0$.

Pf: By the prev. thm, if $f'(c) > 0$, then f cannot have a local max or local min at c . Sim. statement if $f'(c) < 0$. Therefore we must have $f'(c) = 0$.

Note: 1. Converse of the thm is not true.

eg: $f(x) = x^3$, then $f'(0) = 0$ but 0 is neither a pt. of local max. or local min.

2. $f(x) = |x|$ has local min at $x=0$, but f is not diff. at 0.

Theorem : (Rolle's Theorem)

Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont. & suppose that f is diff. at each pt. in (a, b) . If $f(a) = f(b)$, there is at least one interior pt c at which $f'(c) = 0$

Pf : for the sake of contdⁿ, let us suppose that f' is never 0 in (a, b) .

\therefore f is cont. on the compact set $[a, b]$, it attains its max M & its min m somewhere $[a, b]$.

Neither of these extreme values can occur in (a, b) , since f' would vanish at that pt. So, both max. & min are attained at the endpts.

$\therefore f(a) = f(b)$, we must have $M = m$ and hence f is constant on $[a, b] \rightarrow$ Contdⁿ

$(f' \text{ is never } 0 \text{ on } (a, b))$

Therefore $f'(c) = 0$ for some $c \in (a, b)$.

Thm: (Mean Value Thm)

Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont. & suppose that f is diff. at each pt. in (a, b) .

Then $\exists c \in (a, b)$ s.t

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b-a)$$

Pf: Let $h(x) = f(x)(b-a) - x(f(b)-f(a))$

Then h is cont. on $[a, b]$ & diff. on (a, b) .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also, } h(a) &= f(a)(b-a) - a(f(b)-f(a)) \\ &= bf(a) - af(b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} h(b) &= f(b)(b-a) - b(f(b)-f(a)) \\ &= bf(a) - af(b) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $h(a) = h(b)$, so by Rolle's thm,

$h'(c) = 0$ at some $c \in (a, b)$.

i.e $f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b-a)$ for some $c \in (a, b)$

Thm: Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont. & suppose that f is diff. at each pt. in (a, b) .

1. If f' takes only +ve values on (a, b) , then f is strictly increasing on $[a, b]$.

2. If f' takes only -ve values on (a, b) , then f is strictly decreasing on $[a, b]$.

Pf: Let $x < y$ & apply the Mean value thm, to the subinterval $[x, y] \subseteq [a, b]$

$$f(y) - f(x) = f'(c)(y - x) \quad \text{for some } c \in (x, y).$$

The statements follow.

Taylor Polynomial

Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a fnⁿ which is diff. upto n^{th} order, i.e. $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists for each $x \in (a, b)$

The n^{th} order Taylor polynomial of f at x is

$$P(h) = f(x) + \frac{f'(x)h}{1!} + \frac{f''(x)h^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x)h^n}{n!}$$

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

Here, variable is h , & the coeffs. are $\frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!}$
are const.

Diff. P w.r.t h at $h=0$, gives

$$P(0) = f(x)$$

$$P'(0) = f'(x)$$

⋮

$$P^{(n)}(0) = f^{(n)}(x)$$

We call $R(h) = f(x+h) - P(h)$ the
Taylor remainder.

Then: Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ & let $x \in (a, b)$.

Suppose that f is n^{th} -order diff. at x .

Then

1. P approximates f to the order n at x in the following sense the Taylor remainder

$$R(h) = f(x+h) - f(x) \text{ satisfies } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(h)}{h^n} = 0$$

2. If, in addⁿ, f is $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$ order diff. on (a, b) , then $\exists \theta \in (x, x+h)$ s.t

$$R(h) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\theta)}{(n+1)!} h^{n+1}$$

Rem : 1. Diff. at x ,

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

2. (2) generalizes mean value thm.

Pf : 1. We observed that, $P(0) = f^n$

$$P^{(n)}(0) = f^{(n)}(x)$$

Hence, first n derivatives of $R(h)$ exist & equal 0 at $h=0$.

Now, if $h > 0$, we have

$$R(h) = R(h) - 0 = R(h) - R(0)$$

$$\Rightarrow R(h) - R(0) = R'(\theta_1) h \quad [\text{MVT on } R: (0, h) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}]$$

for some $\theta_1 \in (0, h)$

Further, $R'(0) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow R'(\theta_1) = R'(\theta_1) - R'(0) = R''(\theta_2) \theta_1 \quad [\text{MVT on } R': (0, \theta_1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}]$$

for some $\theta_2 \in (0, \theta_1)$

$$\Rightarrow R(h) = R''(\theta_2) \theta_1 h$$

Proceeding in this way, by repeated applications of MVT, we have

$$R(h) = R^{(\lambda)}(\theta_{\lambda-1}) \theta_{\lambda-2} \dots \theta_1 h$$

where $0 < \theta_{\lambda-1} < \dots < \theta_1 < h$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{R(h)}{h^\lambda} \right| &= \left| \frac{R^{(\lambda)}(\theta_{\lambda-1}) \theta_{\lambda-2} \dots h}{h^\lambda} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{R^{(\lambda)}(\theta_{\lambda-1}) - 0}{h} \right| \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $h \rightarrow 0$ as $R^{(\lambda)}$ exists at 0, and
 $R^{(\lambda)}(0) = 0$.

If $h < 0$, then we have a sim. argument
with $h < \theta_1 < \dots < \theta_{\lambda-1} < 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{2.} \text{ Fix } h > 0. \text{ Def. } g(t) &= f(n+t) - P(t) - \frac{R(h)}{h^{1+1}} t^{1+1} \\
 &= R(t) - \frac{R(h)}{h^{1+1}} t^{1+1}
 \end{aligned}$$

for $0 \leq t \leq h$

$\therefore P(t)$ is a poly. of degree 1,

$$P^{(1+1)}(t) = 0 \quad \forall t$$

$$\text{Hence, } g^{(1+1)}(t) = f^{(1+1)}(n+t) - (1+1)! \frac{R(h)}{h^{1+1}}$$

Also, note that,

$$g(0) = g'(0) = \dots = g^{(1)}(0) = 0$$

&

$$g(h) = R(h) - R(h) = 0$$

By MVT applied to $g: (0, h) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\exists t_1 \in (0, h)$

$$\text{s.t. } g'(t_1) = \frac{g(h) - g(0)}{h} = \frac{0 - 0}{h} = 0$$

By MVT applied to $g': (0, t_1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\exists t_2 \in (0, t_1)$

s.t $\frac{g'(t_2)}{t_1} = \frac{g'(t_1) - g'(0)}{t_1} = 0$

Continuing in this way, we get nos.

$$h > t_1 > t_2 \dots > t_{\lambda+1} > 0 \text{ s.t } g^{(k)}(t_k) = 0 \quad \forall k=1, \dots, \lambda+1.$$

The last eqn, $g^{(\lambda+1)}(t_{\lambda+1})$ implies

$$\frac{f^{(\lambda+1)}(x+t_{\lambda+1}) - (\lambda+1)!}{h^{(\lambda+1)}} R(h) = 0$$

Now, if we set $\theta = x+t_{\lambda+1}$, then we have

$$R(h) = \frac{f^{(\lambda+1)}(\theta) h^{\lambda+1}}{(\lambda+1)!}$$

Discontinuities of real-valued fn's

Let $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ & let $c \in (a, b)$. If $f(x) \rightarrow A$ as $x \rightarrow c$ through values greater than c , we say that A is the righthand limit of f at c , and we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = A$

The righthand limit A is also denoted by $f(c^+)$

Another way of stating this is that $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$, s.t $|f(x) - f(c^+)| < \epsilon$ whenever $c < x < c + \delta < b$

Note: This defⁿ does not req. f to be defined at the pt. c . If f is defined at c & if $f(c^+) = f(c)$ we say that f is cont. from the right at c .

Lefthand limits & continuity from left at c are defined sim. if $c \in (a, b]$

If $a < c < b$, then f is cont. at c iff
 $f(c) = f(c^+) = f(c^-)$

We say that c is a discontinuity of f if f is not cont. at c . In this case, one of the following cond's is satisfied.

1. Either $f(c^+)$ or $f(c^-)$ does not exist

2. Both $f(c^+)$ & $f(c^-)$ exist but $f(c^+) \neq f(c^-)$

3. Both $f(c^+)$ & $f(c^-)$ exist but $f(c^+) = f(c^-) \neq f(c)$

In case of 3., the pt. c is called a removable discontinuity since the discontinuity can be removed by redefining f at c to have the value $f(c^+) = f(c^-)$.

In case of 1 & 2, we call c an irremovable discontinuity.

Jump

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If $f(c^+)$ & $f(c^-)$ both exist at some int. pt. c , then

1. $f(c) - f(c^-)$ is called the lefthand jump of f at c
2. $f(c^+) - f(c)$ is called the righthand jump of f at c
3. $f(c^+) - f(c^-)$ is called the jump of f at c .

If any one of these numbers is ± 0 , the c is called a jump discontinuity of f .

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ & let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then f is said to be increasing (or non-decreasing) on S if
 $\forall x, y \in S, x < y \Rightarrow f(x) \leq f(y)$

If $x < y \Rightarrow f(x) < f(y)$, then f is said to be strictly increasing on S .

Decreasing & strictly decreasing can be defined sim.

A fun is called monotone on S , if it is increasing on S or decreasing on S .

Thm: If f is inc. on $[a, b]$, then $f(c^+)$ & $f(c^-)$ both exist for each $c \in (a, b)$ & we have $f(c^-) \leq f(c) \leq f(c^+)$. At the endpts, we have $f(a) \leq f(a^+) \quad \& \quad f(b^-) \leq f(b)$

Pf: Let $A = \{f(x) : a < x < c\}$

$\because f$ is inc., A is bounded above by $f(c)$.

Let $\alpha = \sup(A)$. Then $\alpha \leq f(c)$

We will prove $f(c^-)$ exists & equals α .

$\because \alpha = \sup A, \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists f(x_1) \in A$ s.t

$$\alpha - \epsilon < f(x_1) \leq \alpha$$

$\because f$ is inc., $\forall x \in (x_1, c)$, we have

$$|f(x) - \alpha| < \epsilon$$

Therefore, setting $\delta = c - x_1$, we have that

$$c - \delta < x < c \Rightarrow |f(x) - \alpha| < \epsilon$$

which is saying that α is the lighthand limit of f at c .

The proofs for $f(c^+)$, $f(a^+)$, $f(b^-)$ are sim.

fn's of bounded variation

Partition:

Let $[a, b]$ be compact interval. A (finite) set of pts.

$P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ satisfying

$a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$ is called a partition of $[a, b]$

The interval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ is called the k^{th} subinterval of P .

We write $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$

Note that $\sum_{k=1}^n \Delta x_k = b - a$

We write $P[a, b]$ for the coll. of all possible partitions of $[a, b]$.

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. Write $\Delta f_k = f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})$

$$\text{Write } \Sigma(P) = \sum_{k=1}^n |\Delta f_k|$$

If $\exists M \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ s.t $\Sigma(P) \leq M \forall$ partitions P of $[a, b]$, then f is to be of bounded variation on $[a, b]$

Thm: If f is monotone on $[a, b]$, then f is of bounded variation on $[a, b]$.

Pf: Suppose f is inc. & let P be any partition of $[a, b]$

$$\text{Then } \Delta f_k = f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1}) \geq 0$$

$$\text{So, } |\Delta f_k| = \Delta f_k = f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \Sigma(P) = \sum_{k=1}^n |\Delta f_k| = \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1}) = f(x_n) - f(x_1) \\ = f(b) - f(a)$$

If we set $M = f(b) - f(a)$, we see that
 $\Sigma(P) \leq M$ & partitions P .

Then : If f is cont. on $[a,b]$ & if f' exists &
 $\exists A > 0$ s.t $|f'(x)| \leq A$ $\forall x \in (a,b)$, then f is
of bounded var. on $[a,b]$.

Pf : By MVT,

$$f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1}) = f'(t_k)(x_k - x_{k-1}) \quad \text{for some} \\ t_k \in (x_{k-1}, x_k)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n |\Delta f_k| = \sum_{k=1}^n |f'(t_k)| (x_k - x_{k-1})$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=1}^n A (x_k - x_{k-1}) = A(b-a)$$

Then: If f is of bounded var. on $[a, b]$, i.e
 $\sum(P) \leq M$ A partitions P of $[a, b]$, then f is
 bounded on $[a, b]$ & in particular, $|f(x)| \leq |f(a)| + M$
 $\forall x \in [a, b]$

Pf: Let $x \in [a, b]$. Consider the partition $P = \{a, x, b\}$.
 Then $\sum(P) = |f(x) - f(a)| + |f(b) - f(x)|$
 $\leq M$
 $\Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| \leq M.$

Then, Δ inequality implies
 $|f(x)| \leq |f(x) - f(a)| + |f(a)|$
 $\leq M + |f(a)|$

eg: L $f(x) = \begin{cases} x \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2x}\right), & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$

f is cont. on $[0, 1]$. But if we take

$$P = \left\{ 0, \frac{1}{2^n}, \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}, \dots, \frac{1}{2}, 1 \right\}, \text{ then}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I(P) &= \sum_{k=1}^n |\Delta f_k| = \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n-2} + \frac{1}{2n-2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n$ diverges

$\therefore I(P)$ is not bounded wrt n.

So, f is not of bounded var.

$$2. f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right), & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{on } (0, 1]$$

$$f'(x) = \sin(1/x) + 2x \cos(1/x)$$

$$\therefore |f'(x)| \leq 3 \text{ on } [0, 1]$$

$\therefore f$ is of bound. var. on $[0, 1]$

3. $f(x) = x^{1/3}$ is monotonic, hence of bound. var.
on every compact interval $[a, b]$.

However, $f'(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow 0$

Variation :

Let f be of bound. var. on $[a, b]$. The number $V_f(a, b) = \sup \{ V(P) : P \in P[a, b] \}$ is called the variation of f on the interval $[a, b]$

Note : Since f is of bound. var., so $V_f(a, b)$ is finite & ≥ 0 .

$V_f(a, b) = 0$ iff f is const. on $[a, b]$

Thm : Suppose f & g are of bound. var. on $[a, b]$.

Then so are $f+g$, $f-g$, fg .

Also, $V_{f \pm g} \leq V_f + V_g$ &

$$V_{fg} \leq A V_f + B V_g \text{ where } A = \sup \{ |g(x)| : x \in [a, b] \}$$
$$B = \sup \{ |f(x)| : x \in [a, b] \}$$

Pf: We will prove the statement for fg.

Let $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$. Let P be a partition of $[a, b]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } |\Delta h_k| &= |f(x_k)g(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})g(x_{k-1})| \\ &= |f(x_k)g(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})g(x_k) \\ &\quad + f(x_{k-1})g(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})g(x_{k-1})| \\ &\leq |g(x_k)| |f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})| + |f(x_{k-1})| |g(x_k) - g(x_{k-1})| \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{fg}(P) &\leq A \sum_f(P) + B \sum_g(P) \\ &\leq A V_f(a, b) + B V_g(a, b) \end{aligned}$$

Then: (Additive prop. of var.)

Let f be of bound. var. on $[a, b]$, & let $c \in [a, b]$. Then, f is of bound. var. on $[a, c]$ & $[c, b]$ & $V_f(a, b) = V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$

Pf: Let P_1 be a partition of $[a, c]$ & let P_2 be a partition of $[c, b]$.

Then $P_0 = P_1 \cup P_2$ is a partition of $[a, b]$.

$$\text{Then } \sum(P_1) + \sum(P_2) = \sum(P_0) \leq V_f(a, b)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum(P_1) \leq V_f(a, b) \quad \& \quad \sum(P_2) \leq V_f(c, b)$$

So, f is of bound. var. on $[a, c]$ & $[c, b]$.

$\Sigma(P_1) + \Sigma(P_2) = \Sigma(P_0) \leq V_f(a, b)$ & the additive ppt. of supremum implies that $V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b) \leq V_f(a, b)$

Now, to prove the reverse inequality.

Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\} \in P[a, b]$ & let $P_0 = P \cup \{c\}$

If $c \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$, then

$$|f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})| \leq |f(x_k) - f(c)| + |f(c) - f(x_{k-1})|$$

So, $\Sigma(P) \leq \Sigma(P_0)$

Consider, partition $P_1 = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, c\}$ of $[a, c]$

& $P_2 = \{c, x_k, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[c, b]$

$$\Rightarrow \Sigma(P) \leq \Sigma(P_0) = \Sigma(P_1) + \Sigma(P_2) \leq V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$$

Therefore, $V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$ is an upper bound of $\{\Sigma(P) : P \in P[a, b]\}$. So, $V_f(a, b) \leq V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$

$$\Rightarrow V_f(a, b) = V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$$

Then : Let f be of bounded var. on $[a, b]$. Let
 V be defined on $[a, b]$ as follows.

$$V(a) = 0$$

$$V(x) = V_f(a, x) \quad \text{if } x \in (a, b]$$

Then, 1. V is an inc. fnⁿ on $[a, b]$
2. $V - f$ is an inc. fnⁿ on $[a, b]$

Riemann Integration

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded fnⁿ.

Let $P = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of (a, b) ,
i.e $P \in \mathcal{P}(a, b)$.

We write $M_i = \sup \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$
 $m_i = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$

We define the upper sum of f wrt partition P
to be :

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i$$

We define the lower sum of f wrt partition P
to be :

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i$$

$\therefore f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is assumed to be bounded, there
are two numbers m, M s.t

$$m \leq f(x) \leq M \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$$

Then, note that $U(P, f) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i = M(b-a)$

$$L(P, f) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i = m(b-a)$$

Also,

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i = U(P, f)$$

In short, we have

$$m(b-a) \leq L(P, f) \leq U(P, f) \leq M(b-a)$$

for all possible partitions P of $[a, b]$.

We define the upper Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$ to be the number $\overline{\int_a^b f(x) dx}$ defined by

$$\overline{\int_a^b f(x) dx} = \inf \{ U(P, f) : P \in \mathcal{P}(a, b) \}$$

Sim, lower Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$ is defined to be the number $\underline{\int_a^b f(x) dx}$ defined by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sup \{ L(P, f) : P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \}$$

If the upper & lower integrals are equal, we say that f is Riemann-integrable on $[a, b]$. If this happens, we denote the common value

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

by the symbol $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ & we call this the Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$.

e.g.: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ def. by $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in [a, b] \cap \mathbb{Q} \\ 0, & x \in [a, b] \cap \mathbb{Q}^c \end{cases}$

Let $P = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$.

Then $m_i = 0$ for each i (\because each $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ contains an irrational no.) & $M_i = 1$ for each i (\because each $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ contains a rational no.)

$$\text{Therefore } L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i = 0$$

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i = (b-a)$$

$$\text{So, } \int_a^b f(x) dx = \inf \{ U(P, f) : P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \} = \inf \{ b - a \}$$
$$= (b - a)$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sup \{ L(P, f) : P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \} = \sup \{ 0 \}$$
$$= 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \neq \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

& thus f is not Riemann-integrable.

Refinement: We say partition P^* is a refinement of the partition P if $P \subset P^*$

Given two partitions P_1 & P_2 , we say P^* is their common refinement if $P^* = P_1 \cup P_2$

Thm: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded fnⁿ. If P^* is a refinement of P , then

$$L(P, f) \leq L(P^*, f)$$

$$U(P, f) \geq U(P^*, f)$$

Pf: First, let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ & suppose that P^* contains just one more pt. than P . Let x^* be this extra pt. & suppose $x_{i-1} < x^* < x_i$.

$$\text{Let } w_1 = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x^*]\}$$

$$w_2 = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x^*, x_i]\}$$

Then $w_1 \geq m_i$ & $w_2 \geq m_i$ where

$$m_i = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence, } L(P^*, f) - L(P, f) &= w_1(x^* - x_{i-1}) + w_2(x_i - x^*) \\ &\quad - m_i(x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &= (w_1 - m_i)(x^* - x_{i-1}) \\ &\quad + (w_2 - m_i)(x_i - x^*) \\ &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } L(P^*, f) \geq L(P, f)$$

If P^* contains k more pts. than P , repeat the procedure k times.

Sim., we can prove $U(P^*, f) \leq U(P, f)$.

Thm: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be b'nd. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \bar{\int}_a^b f(x) dx$$

Pf: Let P_1 & P_2 be any two partitions of $[a, b]$, & let P^* be their common refinement.

Then, by the thm proved above,

$$L(P_1, f) \leq L(P^*, f) \leq U(P^*, f) \leq U(P_1, f)$$

Keep P_2 fixed & take the supremum over all P , we get $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq U(P_2, f)$

Now, taking the infimum as P_2 ranges over all partitions of $[a, b]$, we get

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \bar{\int}_a^b f(x) dx$$

Then: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be b'nd. Then the following two statements are equivalent:

1. f is Riemann-integrable
2. $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$ a partition P s.t. $U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon$

Pf: (\Rightarrow) Suppose f is Riemann-integrable. Let $\epsilon > 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \inf \{U(P, f) : P \in \mathcal{P}(a, b)\} &= \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad \exists P_1 \in \mathcal{P}(a, b) \\ \text{s.t. } U(P_1, f) - \int_a^b f(x) dx &< \epsilon/2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \sup \{L(P, f) : P \in \mathcal{P}(a, b)\} &= \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad \exists P_2 \in \mathcal{P}(a, b) \\ \text{s.t. } \int_a^b f(x) dx - L(P_2, f) &< \epsilon/2 \end{aligned}$$

Let P be the common refinement of P_1 & P_2 .

Then,

$$U(P, f) \leq U(P_1, f) < \int_a^b f(x) dx + \epsilon/2 < L(P_2, f) + \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \leq L(P, f) + \epsilon$$

So, P is a partition of $[a, b]$ which satisfies

$$U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon$$

(\Leftarrow) Let $\epsilon > 0$ & P be a partition of $[a, b]$ s.t

$$U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon$$

We have, $L(P, f) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^{\bar{b}} f(x) dx \leq U(P, f)$

This implies, $0 \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^{\bar{b}} f(x) dx \leq \epsilon$

This holds $\forall \epsilon > 0 \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^{\bar{b}} f(x) dx$

So, f is Riemann integrable.

eg: let $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by

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

Let $\epsilon > 0$. Consider the partition $\{0, \frac{1-\epsilon}{2}, \frac{1+\epsilon}{2}, 1\}$

$$\text{Then, } U(P, f) = 0 \cdot \left(\frac{1-\epsilon}{2}\right) + 1 \cdot (\epsilon) + 0 \cdot \left(\frac{1+\epsilon}{2}\right)$$
$$= \epsilon$$

$$L(P, f) = 0 \cdot \left(\frac{1-\epsilon}{2}\right) + 0 \cdot (\epsilon) + 0 \cdot \left(\frac{1+\epsilon}{2}\right)$$
$$= 0$$

So, for this partition, $U(P, f) - L(P, f) = \epsilon$

Hence, f is Riemann-integrable.

Then: let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be cont. Then f is Riemann integrable.

Pf: let $\epsilon > 0$. f is uniformly cont. on $[a, b]$,
so $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{b-a}$ (\because compact)

whenever $|x-y| < \delta$

If P is any partition of $[a, b]$ s.t. $\Delta x_i < \delta$
 $\forall i=1, \dots, n$ then $M_i - m_i \leq \frac{\epsilon}{b-a}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, } U(P, f) - L(P, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{b-a} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i}_{(b-a)} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Hence, f is Riemann int'ble on $[a, b]$.

Thm: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotonic. Then f is RI on $[a, b]$

Pf: Let $\epsilon > 0$. For any $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, consider the partition P for which $\Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n}$ for each $i=1, \dots, n$

We will assume that f is increasing. Then

$$M_i = f(x_i), \quad m_i = f(x_{i-1})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } U(P, f) - L(P, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})) \left(\frac{b-a}{n} \right) \\ &= \frac{(b-a)}{n} (f(b) - f(a)) \end{aligned}$$

So, by choosing n large enough s.t $(b-a)(f(b) - f(a)) < \epsilon$, we have obtained a partition P which satisfies $U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon$

This proves that f is RI.

Thm: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bnd & suppose that f has only finitely many pts. of discontinuity on $[a, b]$. Then f is RI.

Pf: Let $\epsilon > 0$. Let $M = \sup\{|f(x)| : x \in [a, b]\}$
 let $E \subset [a, b]$ be the set of pts. at which f is discontin.

$\because E$ is finite, we can cover E by finitely many intervals $[u_j, v_j] \subset [a, b]$ s.t

$$1. \sum_{j=1}^m v_j - u_j < \epsilon$$

2. Each pt. of E lies in (u_j, v_j) for some
 $j = 1, \dots, m$

Def. K to be the set $K = [a, b] \setminus \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^m (u_j, v_j) \right)$

Then K is a compact set.

Hence, f is uniformly cont. on K .

So, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ whenever $x, y \in K$
 with $|x-y| < \delta$

Now, let P be a partition of $[a, b]$ s.t

1. P contains each u_j
2. P contains each v_j
3. no pt. of any (u_j, v_j) occurs in P
4. If x_{i-1} is not one of the u_j 's then $\Delta x_i < \delta$

Now, observe that for this partition, $M_i - m_i \leq 2M$
 for each i & $M_i - m_i \leq \epsilon$ unless x_{i-1} is one
 of the u_j 's

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence, } U(P, f) - L(P, f) &\leq \underbrace{(b-a)\epsilon}_{\text{on } K} + \underbrace{2M\epsilon}_{\text{on } [a, b] \setminus K} \\ M_i - m_i &\leq \epsilon \quad [\Delta x_i < \epsilon] \\ &= (b-a+2M)\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

This is true for any $\epsilon > 0$, so it shows that
 f is RI.

Then: Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is RI. Suppose $m \leq f(x) \leq M \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$. Suppose $\varphi: [m, M] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont. Let $h(x) = \varphi(f(x))$ on $[a, b]$. Then h is RI.

Pf: $[a, b] \xrightarrow{f} [m, M] \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{R}$

Let $\epsilon > 0$. $\because \varphi$ is cont. on $[m, M]$, hence $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\delta < \epsilon$ & $|\varphi(s) - \varphi(t)| < \epsilon$ if $s, t \in [m, M]$ with $|s - t| < \delta$.

$\because f$ is RI on $[a, b]$, there is a partition $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[a, b]$ s.t. $U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \delta^2$

$$\text{Let } M_i = \sup \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$$

$$m_i = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$$

$$M_i^* = \sup \{h(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$$

$$m_i^* = \inf \{h(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$$

Divide the nos. $1, \dots, n$ into two gps. A & B:

$i \in A$ if $M_i - m_i < \delta$, $i \in B$ if $M_i - m_i \geq \delta$

for $i \in A$, $M_i^* - m_i^* \leq \epsilon$ (by uniform cont.)
 of $\varphi: [m, M] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)

for $i \in B$, $M_i^* - m_i^* \leq 2K$, where $K = \sup\{|\varphi(t)| : t \in [m, M]\}$

$$\text{We have, } \sum_{i \in B} \Delta x_i \leq \sum_{i \in B} (M_i^* - m_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

$$< \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i^* - m_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

$$= U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \delta^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i \in B} \Delta x_i < \delta$$

$$\text{Therefore, } U(P, h) - L(P, h) = \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i^* - m_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

$$= \sum_{i \in A} (M_i^* - m_i^*) \Delta x_i + \sum_{i \in B} (M_i^* - m_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

$$< \delta(b-a) + 2K\delta = (b-a+2K)\delta$$

$$< (b-a+2K)\epsilon$$

$\therefore \epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, this shows h is RI.

Thm: (Properties of integral)

1. If $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are RI, then $f+g$ is RI & cf is RI for each $c \in \mathbb{R}$, and

$$\int_a^b f(x) + g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

2. If $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$

3. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is RI & $c \in (a, b)$, then f is RI on $[a, c]$ & $[c, b]$, and

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Thm: Let $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be RI. Then

1. fg is RI

2. $|f|$ is RI. & $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$

Pf: 1. If we take $\varphi(t) = t^2$, we can conclude that since $f+g$ & $f-g$ are RI (prev. thm), therefore $(f+g)^2$ & $(f-g)^2$ are RI.

$$\text{Then, } fg = \frac{1}{4} [(f+g)^2 - (f-g)^2]$$

So, fg is RI.

2. If we take $\varphi(t) = |t|$, we see that $|f|$ is RI.

Choose $c = \pm 1$ in such a way that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| &= c \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b c f(x) dx \\ &\leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So, } \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

Integration & Differentiation

If $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then we say F is diff at a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{F(x) - F(a)}{x - a}$ exists and if it

exists we set $f'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{F(x) - F(a)}{x - a}$

Sim, we will say that F is diff at b if $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \frac{F(x) - F(b)}{x - b}$ exists and if it exists, we set

$$f'(b) = \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \frac{F(x) - F(b)}{x - b}$$

Thm: Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be RI. For $a \leq x \leq b$, def.

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

Then F is cont. on $[a, b]$.

Additionally, if f is cont. at some pt. $x_0 \in [a, b]$, then F is diff. at x_0 , and $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$

Pf: Suppose $|f(t)| \leq M$ for $a \leq t \leq b$.

$$\text{If } a \leq x < y \leq b, \text{ then } |F(y) - F(x)| = \left| \int_x^y f(t) dt \right| \leq M(y-x)$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, we see that if $|x-y| < \delta = \epsilon/M$, then $|F(x) - F(y)| < \epsilon$

So, we conclude that F is cont.

(in fact, F is uniformly cont.)

Now, to investigate diff. first, observe that for $x \in [a, b], x \neq x_0$, we have

$$\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x f(t) - f(x_0) dt$$

Now, suppose that f is cont. at x_0 .

Given $\epsilon > 0$, choose $\delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(t) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$
whenever $|t - x_0| < \delta$

Hence, if $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$, $x \neq x_0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f(x_0) \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x f(t) - f(x_0) dt \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x |f(t) - f(x_0)| dt \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x \epsilon dt = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$ exists & equals $f(x_0)$

Note: If $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is RI, we def.

$$\int_b^a f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Theorem : (Fundamental theorem of calculus)

Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is RI. Suppose $F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is diff. fxn s.t. $F' = f$. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Pf : Let $\epsilon > 0$. Choose a partition $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[a, b]$ s.t. $U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon$

By the mean-value theorem, \exists pts. $t_i \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)$ s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}) &= f'(t_i) \Delta x_i \\ &= f(t_i) \Delta x_i \quad \text{for } i=1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, } \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i) \Delta x_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1}) \\ &= F(b) - F(a) \end{aligned}$$

Now, note

$$L(P, f) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i) \Delta x_i \leq U(P, f) \quad [\because f(t_i) \in [m, M]]$$

$$\text{Also, } L(P, f) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq U(P, f)$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i) \Delta x_i \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\text{Therefore, } 0 = \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx - (F(b) - F(a)) \right| < \epsilon$$

This is true & $\epsilon > 0$, so we conclude that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Then : (Integration by parts)

Suppose f & g are diff. fn's on $[a, b]$.

Suppose $f' = f$, $g' = g$, and suppose f, g are RI.

Then, $\int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b f(x) G(x) dx$

Pf : Let $H(x) = f(x) G(x)$ & apply the fundamental theorem of calculus to H and

$$H'(x) = f(x) g(x) + f(x) G(x)$$

Note that H' is RI so assumptions of FTC are satisfied.

Thm: (Change of variable)

Suppose $g: [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$ is a fnⁿ of class C¹ s.t. $a = g(c)$, $b = g(d)$. If $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a cont. fnⁿ, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_c^d f(g(t)) g'(t) dt$$

Pf: Let $F(u) = \int_a^u f(u) du$

Then F is diff & $F' = f$. Therefore the composition $H(t) = F(g(t))$ is a fnⁿ of class C¹, on interval $[c, d]$

Also, by the chain rule,

$$\begin{aligned} H'(t) &= f(g(t)) g'(t) \\ &= f(g(t)) g'(t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, } \int_c^d f(g(t)) g'(t) dt &= \int_c^d H'(t) dt \\ &= H(d) - H(c) \\ &= F(g(d)) - F(g(c)) \\ &= f(b) - f(a) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

Improper Integral

Suppose $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is RI when restricted to any closed subinterval $[a, c]$ where $c < b$. Here we will allow the cases where $f(x)$ becomes unbounded as $x \rightarrow b$, or the case where $b = \infty$.

If the lim. of $\int_a^c f(x) dx$ exists as $c \rightarrow b$ then we define the $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ improper Riemann integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow b} \int_a^c f(x) dx$$

provided the limit exists.

Sim, we can def. the improper integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

(if the limit exists) when f is RI on $[t, b]$ for each $t \in (a, b]$

for a two-sided improper integral, fix some $m \in (a, b)$
& require that both $\int_m^b f(x) dx$ & $\int_a^m f(x) dx$ exist.

Rectifiable paths & arc length

A path in \mathbb{R}^k is a cont. map $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$

for $P = \{t_0, t_1, \dots, t_n\}$ a partition of $[a, b]$, the pts.
 $\gamma(t_0), \dots, \gamma(t_n)$ are the vertices of an
inscribed polygon.

The length of this polygon is denoted by $\Lambda(P, \gamma)$

& is defined to be

$$\Lambda(P, \gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^n \|\gamma(t_i) - \gamma(t_{i-1})\|$$

If the set of numbers $\Lambda(P, \gamma)$ is bound. A partitions P of $[a, b]$, then the path of γ is said to be
rectifiable and its length, denoted by $\Lambda(\gamma)$ is
def. by

$$\Lambda(\gamma) = \sup \{\Lambda(P, \gamma) : P \in \mathcal{P}(a, b)\}$$

If the set of numbers $\Lambda(P, \gamma)$ is unbounded, then γ is said to be non-rectifiable.

The next result relates rectifiable paths & f^{n^n} of bound. var.

Then: Let $\gamma = (f_1, \dots, f_k) : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ be a path.

Then, γ is rectifiable iff each component $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is of bound. var. on $[a, b]$

eg: The graph of the f^{n^n} $f(x) = \begin{cases} x \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2x}\right), & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & , x=0 \end{cases}$

is a non-rectifiable curve.

Then: If $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is a path s.t γ' is cont. on $[a, b]$, then γ is rectifiable, and

$$\Lambda(\gamma) = \int_a^b \|\gamma'(t)\| dt$$

Recall some stuff about seq. of real nos.

- A seq. $\{a_n\}$ of pts. in \mathbb{R} is said to converge if
 \exists a pt $p \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_0$ s.t. $|a_n - p| < \epsilon$
whenever $n > N$

- A seq. $\{a_n\}$ is said to be Cauchy if $\forall \epsilon > 0,$
 $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_0$ s.t. $|a_m - a_n| < \epsilon$ whenever $n, m \geq N$

$\because \mathbb{R}$ is complete, a seq. $\{a_n\}$ in \mathbb{R} is
convergent iff it is Cauchy.

- A seq. $\{a_n\}$ is said to diverge to $+\infty$ if
 $\forall M > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_0$ s.t. $a_n > M$ whenever $n \geq N$

In this case, we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$

- If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-a_n) = +\infty$, we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$
& we say $\{a_n\}$ diverges to $-\infty$.

Limit superior & limit inferior

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a seq. of real nos. Suppose there is a real no. U satisfying the two cond's:

1. $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t $n > N \Rightarrow a_n < U + \epsilon$

2. $\forall \epsilon > 0$ & given $m > 0$, \exists integer $n > m$ s.t
 $a_n > U - \epsilon$

Then U is called the limit superior of $\{a\}$,
and we write

$$U = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$$

If the set $\{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ is not bounded above,
we define $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$

If the set $\{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$ is bounded above, but
not bounded below, and if the seq. $\{a_n\}$ has no
finite $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty}$, then we say that $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$

The limit inferior of $\{a_n\}$ is defined as

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n, \text{ where } b_n = -a_n \text{ for } n=1, 2, \dots$$

Rem: The defⁿ of $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ & $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$
is equivalent to the following:

Let E be the set of nos. x (including $\pm\infty$) s.t
 $a_{n_k} \rightarrow x$ for some subseq. $\{a_{n_k}\}$. Then

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sup E$$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \inf E$$

Ex: If $\{a_n\}$ is a convergent seq., with

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a, \text{ then}$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$$

eg: 1. $a_n = (-1)^n (1 + 1/n)$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -1$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 1$$

Note that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{2k+1} = -1$, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_{2k} = 1$

2. $a_n = (-1)^n$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -1$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 1$$

3. $a_n = (-1)^n n$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$$

4. $a_n = n^2 \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$$

5. $a_n = n^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$$

Infinite series

Given a seq. $\{a_n\}$ in \mathbb{R} , we form a new seq. $\{s_n\}$ as follows

$$s_n = a_1 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$

The formal sum $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ is called an infinite series.
The no. s_n is called the n^{th} partial sum of the series.

The series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ is said to converge or diverge, accordingly as the seq. $\{s_n\}$ converges or diverges.

If $\{s_n\}$ converges to s , we say that the series converges & write $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = s$

eg: If $0 < x < 1$, then the geometric series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$ converges to $\frac{1}{1-x}$. If $x \geq 1$, the series diverges.

Pf: If $x \neq 1$, then $s_n = \sum_{k=0}^n x^k = \frac{1-x^{n+1}}{1-x}$

Therefore, the result follows by letting $n \rightarrow \infty$.

If $x=1$, then $s_n = n$ & $\{s_n\}$ diverges & so the series diverges.

Thm: (Cauchy condⁿ for series)

The series $\sum a_n$ converges iff $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_0$ st

$\forall m \geq n > N$,

$$\left| \sum_{k=n}^m a_k \right| < \epsilon$$

Pf: Let $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$. Observe that $s_m - s_{n-1} = \sum_{k=n}^m a_k$, and use the fact that a seq. of real nos. is conv. iff it is Cauchy.

By taking $n=m$, we have $|a_n| < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$. Hence we have

Cor: If $\sum a_n$ converges then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

Rmk: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ is a necessary but not sufficient condⁿ for conv. of $\sum a_n$

e.g.: $a_n = 1/n$

If we take $n = 2^p + 1$ & $m = 2^p + 2^p$, then

$$\sum_{k=n}^m a_k = \frac{1}{2^p+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^p+2^p} \geq \frac{2^p}{2^p+2^p} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Hence, the Cauchy condⁿ cannot be satisfied when $\epsilon < 1/2$. Therefore the series diverges

Thm: A series of non-negative terms conv. iff its partial sums form a bounded seq.

Pf: Let $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$. Note that $\{s_n\}$ is a monotone seq. i.e. $s_k \leq s_{k+1} \quad \forall k=1, 2, \dots$

If $\{s_n\}$ conv., it means $s_n \rightarrow s$ for some $s \in \mathbb{R}$ & $s_n \leq s \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. So $\{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$ is bounded above by s (& bounded below by s_1)

for the converse, if the set $A = \{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$ is b'd from above, and so A has a supremum, say $\sup A = s$.

Then using prop. of sup., it can be seen that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s$, i.e. the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges to s .

Thm: (Comparison Test)

If $a_n > 0, b_n > 0$, for $n=1, 2, \dots$ & if $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ s.t $a_n \leq b_n$ for $n \geq N$, then convergence of $\sum b_n$ implies convergence of $\sum a_n$

Pf: If the partial sums of $\sum b_n$ are b'nd, then the partial sums of $\sum a_n$ are also b'nd.

Apply the prv. thm.

Thm: If $\{a_n\}$ is a decreasing seq. conv. to 0, the alternating series $\sum (-1)^{n+1} a_n$ converges, say to 1.

We have $0 < (-1)^n (1 - a_n) < a_{n+1}$ for $n=1, 2, \dots$

A series $\sum a_n$ is called absolutely conv. if $\sum |a_n|$ conv. It is called conditionally conv. if $\sum a_n$ conv. but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges

Thm: Absolute conv. of $\sum a_n$ implies conv.

Pf: Apply the Cauchy condⁿ to the ineq.

$$|a_1 + \dots + a_m| \leq |a_1| + \dots + |a_m|$$

eg: The converse is not true.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1}/n$ converges, but does not absolutely conv.

Thm: (Root Test)

Given a series $\sum a_n$, let $\rho = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$.

Then,

- a) If $\rho < 1$, $\sum a_n$ converges
- b) If $\rho > 1$, $\sum a_n$ diverges
- c) If $\rho = 1$, test gives no information

Pf: a) If $\rho < 1$, choose α s.t. $\rho < \alpha < 1$.

By defⁿ of ρ , $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ s.t. $|a_n| < \alpha^n \forall n \geq N$.
Therefore ($\because \{\alpha^n\}$ conv.), the comparison test tells us that $\{|a_n|\}$ conv. Hence, $\sum a_n$ conv. as well.

b) If $\rho > 1$, then there are infinitely many $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ for which $|a_n| > 1$. Hence we cannot have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$, so $\sum a_n$ diverges.

c) Consider the series $\sum \frac{1}{n}$, $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$. In both cases $\rho = 1$ & first series diverges but the second converges
(proof by comparison with $\sum \frac{1}{n(n-1)}$)

Thm: (Ratio test)

The series $\{a_n\}$

a) converges if $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$

b) diverges if $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \geq 1 \quad \forall n \geq n_0$ where
no is some fixed integer.

Pf: If $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$, then we can find

a number $x < 1$ & $N \in \mathbb{Z}_0$ s.t. $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < x \quad \forall n \geq N$

$$\text{Then, } |a_{N+1}| < x |a_N|$$

$$|a_{N+2}| < x |a_{N+1}| < x^2 |a_N|$$

:

$$|a_{N+p}| < x^p |a_N|$$

Hence, $|a_n| < |a_N| x^{-N} x^n \quad \text{for } n \geq N$

Therefore, the result follows by comparison test
($\because x^n$ conv.)

b) If $|a_{n+1}| \geq |a_n| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$, we see that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ does not hold, so result follows.

Thm: For any seq. $\{a_n\}$ of tve nos., we have

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n}$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n}$$

Pf: We will prove the second ineq., the first can be done similarly.

Let $\alpha = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$. If $\alpha = +\infty$, there is nothing to prove. So let us assume α is finite.

Choose $\beta > \alpha$. Hence, by defⁿ of lim. sup, there is an $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} < \beta$ for $n \geq N$.

$$\Rightarrow a_{n+p} \leq \beta^p a_n \quad \forall p > 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } a_n \leq a_N \beta^{-N} \beta^n \quad \forall n \geq N$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt[n]{\alpha_n} \leq \sqrt[n]{\alpha_N \beta^{-N}} \cdot \beta \quad \forall n \geq N$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\alpha_n} \leq \beta$$

(We need that $\forall p > 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{p} = 1$)

This is true if $\beta > \alpha$, hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\alpha_n} \leq \alpha$

Power series :

An infinite series of the form $\sum a_n x^n$ is called a power series in the variable x . The nos. a_n are called the coeffs. of the series.

In general, the series could converge or diverge depending on the value of x .

Thm: Given the power series $\sum a_n x^n$, let $f = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$
 & define $R = 1/f$. Then, $\sum a_n x^n$ conv. if $|x| < R$
 & diverges if $|x| > R$.

Pf: Apply the root test to the series $\sum b_n$,
 where $b_n = a_n x^n$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|b_n|} = |x| \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \frac{|x|}{R}$$

Note: R is called the radius of convergence of
 the power series $\sum a_n x^n$

eg:

1. The series $\sum n^n x^n$ has $R=0$

2. The series $\sum \frac{x^n}{n!}$ has $R = +\infty$

3. The series $\sum \frac{x^n}{n}$ has $R = 1$

If diverges if $x=1$ & converges if $x=-1$.

y. The series $\sum \frac{x^n}{n^2}$ has $R=1$

It conv. when $|x|=1$

If $\sum a_n x^n$ is a power series with radius of convergence R , the $f(x) = \sum a_n x^n$ def. by

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

makes sense for $x \in (-R, R)$

Is f cont.? diff.? Riemann integrable?

Sequences & series of functions

Let $\{f_n\}$ be a seq. of f_n 's def. on a set E ,
and suppose that the seq. nos. $\{f_n(x)\}$ conv. $\forall x \in E$

The f_n^n f defined by

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) \quad (x \in E)$$

is called the limit f_n^n of seq. $\{f_n\}$, and we say
that $\{f_n\}$ conv. pointwise to f on the set E .

Are properties of functions (like continuity,
differentiability, integrability) preserved under the
limit?

Note: f is cont. at a lim. pt. x means

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(t) = f(x)$$

So, if we ask whether the lim. of a seq. of
cont. f_n 's is cont., we are asking whether

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{t \rightarrow x} f_n(t)$$

is true i.e can we change the order of the limits?

In general, no.

e.g.: Consider the double seq. $s_{m,n} = \frac{m}{m+n}$ for $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$

for every fixed n , $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} s_{m,n} = 1$

So, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} s_{m,n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 = 1$

for every fixed m , $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_{m,n} = 0$

So, $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_{m,n} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} s_{m,n} \neq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_{m,n}$

Eg: A seq. of cont. fn's with discontinuous lim.

Let $f_n(x) = \frac{x^{2n}}{1+x^{2n}}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$ exists for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

The limit f_n f is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } |x| < 1 \\ 1/2, & \text{if } |x| = 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } |x| > 1 \end{cases}$$

Each f_n is cont. on \mathbb{R} , but f is discontin. at $x = \pm 1$

e.g.: A seq. of $f_n(x)$ for which

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx \neq \int_0^1 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) dx$$

Let $f_n(x) = n^2 x(1-x)^n$ if $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $n=1, 2, \dots$

If $0 \leq x \leq 1$, the limit $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$ exists
& equals 0 ie $f \equiv 0$.

Hence, $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$

But, $\int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = \frac{n^2}{(n+1)(n+2)}$

So, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = 1$

eg: A seq. of diff. fn's $\{f_n\}$ with $\lim 0$ for which $\{f'_n\}$ diverges

Let $f_n(x) = \frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{n}}$ if $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n=1, 2, \dots$

Then, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = 0$ for each x .

But, $f_n(x) = \sqrt{n} \cos(nx)$

So, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'_n(x)$ does not exist for any x .

Uniform convergence

A seq. of fn's $\{f_n\}$ is said to converge uniformly to f on a set S , if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_>0$ st $n \geq N$ implies $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in S$

Note: In pointwise convergence, N depends on both ϵ & x whereas in uniform convergence, n depends only on ϵ .

We say that the series $\sum f_n$ converges uniformly on the set S , if the seq. $\{s_n\}$ of partial sums

$$s_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k(x)$$

converges uniformly on S .

Thm: (Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence)

A seq. $\{f_n\}$ of f_n 's defined on a set S converges uniformly on S iff $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_>0$ s.t $m, n \geq N$ implies $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in S$

Pf: Suppose that $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly on S , to a f_n f . Then $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_>0$ s.t $n \geq N$ implies $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/2 \quad \forall x \in S$.

Therefore, if $m, n \geq N$, then $\forall x \in S$

$$\begin{aligned} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| &\leq |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f_m(x) - f(x)| \\ &< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \\ &< \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

So, $\{f_n\}$ satisfies the Cauchy condⁿ.

Conversely, suppose that $\{f_n\}$ satisfies the Cauchy condⁿ.

Then, for each $x \in S$, the seq. of real nos. $\{f_n(x)\}$ is a Cauchy seq. Since \mathbb{R} is complete, $\{f_n(x)\}$ converges to some real no. Define $f(x)$ to be this no. Then we have obtained a $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t. f is the pt. wise limit of the seq. $\{f_n\}$.

We still need to show that $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly to f .

Given any $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t. $m, n \geq N$ implies that $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon/2 \forall x \in S$.

In the expression, keep $n \geq N$ fixed and let m tend to ∞ .

Then we have:

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq \epsilon/2 < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in S \quad \forall n \geq N$$

Thm: (Weierstrass M test)

Let $\{M_k\}$ be a seq. of non-ve nos. s.t $\sum M_k$ converges, and let $\{f_k\}$ be a seq. of f^n 's defined on a set S , s.t $0 \leq |f_k(x)| \leq M_k \quad \forall k=1, 2, \dots, \forall x \in S$

Then $\sum f_k$ converges uniformly on the set S .

Pf: Given $\epsilon > 0$, the Cauchy criterion for conv. of $\sum M_k$ implies that $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_>0$ s.t $m > n \geq N$ implies $\sum_{k=n}^m M_k < \epsilon$

$$\text{Then } \left| \sum_{k=n}^m f_k(x) \right| \leq \sum_{k=n}^m M_k < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in S \text{ & } \forall m, n \geq N$$

Then, the Cauchy conv. of f^{n^m} implies that $\sum f_k$ conv. uniformly.

Then: (Uniform convergence & continuity)

Assume that $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on S . If each f_n is cont. at a pt. $c \in S$, then the lim. f_n f is also cont. at c .

Pf: Suppose that c is a lim. pt. of S .

For every $\epsilon > 0$, there is an $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t. $n \geq N$ implies

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3 \quad \forall x \in S$$

$\because f_N$ is cont. at c , there is a ball $B(c, r)$ s.t.

$$|f_N(x) - f_N(c)| < \epsilon/3 \quad \forall x \in B(c, r) \cap S$$

Then, for $x \in B(c, r) \cap S$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(c)| &\leq |f(x) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - f_N(c)| \\ &\quad + |f_N(c) - f(c)| \\ &< \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

i.e. f is cont. at c .

e.g.: Consider the seq. of f_n 's if $\{f_n\}$ where
 $f_n: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is given by $f_n(x) = x^n$

$\{f_n\}$ converges pt. wise to f where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 0, & x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Here, f is not cont. & the convergence is
not uniform.

function space

Let $\mathcal{C}([a,b])$ denote the set of all cont. fn's from $[a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Note that $\mathcal{C}([a,b])$ has the structure of a vector sp. over \mathbb{R} .

Def. the sup. norm on $\mathcal{C}([a,b])$ as

$$\|f\| = \sup \{|f(x)| : x \in [a,b]\}$$

The sup norm satisfies the norm axioms.

- $\|f\| \geq 0$ & $\|f\| = 0$ iff $f = 0$
- $\|cf\| = |c|\|f\| \quad \forall c \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\|f+g\| \leq \|f\| + \|g\|$

If we define the dist. b/w $f \in \mathcal{C}([a,b])$ & $g \in \mathcal{C}([a,b])$ to be $d(f,g) = \|f-g\|$
 $= \sup \{|f(x)-g(x)| : x \in [a,b]\}$

Note: $f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is cont. & $[a,b]$ is compact,

hence f is bounded i.e. $\exists M > 0$ s.t. $|f(x)| \leq M \quad \forall x \in [a,b]$

Then $\|f\| \leq M$, in particular it is $< \infty$

so, $(\ell([a,b]), d)$ is a metric sp.

A seq. $\{f_n\}$ conv. uniformly to f on $[a,b]$ iff
 $f_n \rightarrow f$ wrt to the metric of $\ell([a,b])$

Why?

$\{f_n\}$ conv. to f uniformly means $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$
s.t. $n \geq N$ implies $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in [a,b]$

$$\Leftrightarrow |(f_n - f)(x)| < \epsilon$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \|f_n - f\| < \epsilon$$

$$\Leftrightarrow d(f_n, f) < \epsilon$$

Theorem: $(\ell([a,b]), d)$ is a complete metric sp.

Pf: Let $\{f_n\}$ be a Cauchy seq. in $(\ell([a,b]), d)$.

That is $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t. $n, m \geq N$ implies

$$d(f_n, f_m) < \epsilon \quad (\text{i.e. } \|f_n - f_m\| < \epsilon)$$

That is, $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in [a,b] \quad \forall n, m \geq N$

Then, by the Cauchy criterion, $\exists f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
s.t. $\{f_n\}$ conv. to f uniformly.

We still need to show that f is cont.

But this follows since $\{f_n\}$ are cont. & conv. uniformly to f

Hence, $f \in C[a, b]$ & since $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $[a, b]$, we have $\|f_n - f\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
(i.e. $d(f_n, f) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$).

Then: (Uniform conv. & integration)

Suppose $f_n: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann-integrable for $n=1, 2, \dots$ Suppose $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $[a, b]$, then f is Riemann-integrable on $[a, b]$ &
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

Pf: Given $\epsilon > 0$, let $N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$
 $\forall x \in [a, b]$, $\forall n \geq N$.

$$\text{Then, } f_N(x) - \epsilon < f(x) < f_N(x) + \epsilon \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$$

T'fore,

$$\int_a^b f_N(x) - \epsilon \, dx \leq \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \leq \int_a^b f_N(x) \, dx \leq \int_a^b f_N(x) + \epsilon \, dx$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq \int_a^b f(x) \, dx - \int_a^b f_N(x) \, dx \leq 2\epsilon(b-a)$$

This is true $\forall \epsilon > 0$, hence $\int_a^b f \, dx = \int_a^b f_N \, dx$
so f is Riemann-integrable.

Similarly, we see that,

$$\left| \int_a^b f_n(x) \, dx - \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \right| < \epsilon(b-a)$$

Whenever $n \geq N$.

$$\text{Hence, } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) \, dx = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

Thm: (Term by term integration)

A uniformly convergent series of Riemann-integrable functions $\sum f_k$ can be integrated term by term.

$$\int_a^b \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(x) dx = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_a^b f_k(x) dx$$

Pf: The seq. of partial sums $\{s_n\}$ uniformly converges to $\sum f_k$

Each s_n is Riemann-integrable since it is a sum of finitely many Riemann-integrable functions.

By the prev. thm.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n \int_a^b f_k(x) dx &= \int_a^b \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(x) dx = \int_a^b s_n(x) dx \\ &\rightarrow \int_a^b \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Thm: (Uniform convergence & differentiation)

Suppose $\{f_n\}$ is a seq. of f_n 's which are diff. on (a, b) & suppose that $[f_n(x_0)]$ converges for $x_0 \in (a, b)$.

Suppose that $\{f'_n\}$ converges uniformly to some f_n' on (a, b) .

Then $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly to some f_n on (a, b) & $f'(x) = g(x)$ for each $x \in (a, b)$.

Pf: Let $c \in (a, b)$.

Define $g_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(c)}{x - c}, & x \neq c \\ f_n'(c), & x = c \end{cases}$

Then, $g_n(c) = f_n'(c)$, so $\{g_n(c)\}$ converges.

Step 1: We will prove that $\{g_n\}$ converges uniformly on (a, b) .

Let $h(x) = f_n(x) - f_m(x)$

By assumption, $h'(x)$ exists $\forall x \in (a, b)$ & equals $f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)$. If $x \neq c$, we have

$$\frac{g_n(x) - g_m(x)}{x - c} = \frac{h(x) - h(c)}{x - c}$$

By Mean-Value theorem applied to h , we have

$$g_n(x) - g_m(x) = h(x_1) = f'_n(x_1) - f'_m(x_1) \text{ for some } x_1 \text{ b/w } x \text{ & } c.$$

Since $\{f'\}$ converges uniformly on (a, b) , the Cauchy criterion implies that $\{g_n\}$ converges uniformly on (a, b) .

Step 2: We will prove that $\{f_n\}$ converges uniformly on (a, b) .

Consider the sequence $\{g_n\}$ formed by using $c = x_0$.

Then, by defⁿ of g_n , $f_n(x) = f_n(x_0) + (x - x_0) g_n(x)$
A $x \in (a, b)$ A n.

Hence, we have

$$f_n(x) - f_m(x) = f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0) + (x - x_0)(g_n(x) - g_m(x))$$

Using this eqn along with the conv. of $\{f_n(x_0)\}$ & the uniform conv. of $\{g_n\}$, the Cauchy criterion shows that $\{f_n\}$ conv. uniformly on (a, b) to some fxⁿ f.

Step 1: We will prove that $f'(x)$ exists $\forall x \in (a, b)$ & $f'(x) = g(x)$.

Consider the seq. $\{g_n\}$ defined using an arbitrary pt. $c \in (a, b)$. Def. $G(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(x)$

$\because f'$ is assumed to exist, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g_n(x) = g_n(c)$
So, each g_n is cont. at c .

Since $g_n \rightarrow G$ uniformly on (a, b) , therefore G is also cont. at c .

Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} G(x)$ exists, and equals $G(c)$.

for $x \neq c$,

$$G(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(c)}{x - c} = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

Hence, $G(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} G(x)$ implies $f'(c)$ exists, and equals $G(c)$.

$$\text{But } g(c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(c) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n'(c)$$

$$\text{Hence, } f(c) = g(c)$$

$\because c$ was arbitrary, this proves that f is diff at all pts. of (a, b) , & $f' = g$ on (a, b) .

Thm: (Term-by-term diff.)

A uniformly conv. series of diff. fn's can be differentiated term-by-term, provided that the derivative series converges uniformly :

$$\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(x) dx \right)' = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f'_k(x) dx$$

Pf: Apply the prev. thm to seq. of partial sums.

Recall, the power series $\sum a_k x^k$ has radius of conv. R , given by $R = \frac{1}{\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}}$

Its interval of conv. is $(-R, R)$.

Thm: If $x < R$, then the power series $\sum a_k x^k$ conv. uniformly on the interval $[-x, x]$.

Pf: Pick β s.t. $x < \beta < R$

Then, $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N$, we have

$$\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < \frac{1}{\beta}$$

So, if $|x| \leq x$, then $|a_n x^n| \leq \left(\frac{x}{\beta}\right)^n$

Note, that $\sum \left(\frac{x}{\beta}\right)^n$ is a conv. geometric series.
Hence, by the M-test, $\sum a_k x^k$ conv. uniformly when $x \in [-x, x]$.

Thm: A power series can be integrated & diff. term-by-term on its interval of conv. i.e for $f(x) = \sum a_k x^k$ & $|x| < R$, we have

$$\int_0^x f(t) dt = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{k+1} x^{k+1} \quad \& \quad f'(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k a_k x^{k-1}$$

Moreover, the integral series & the derivative series have the same radius of conv. as the original series.

Pf: By the prev. thm, the series conv. uniformly on any interval $[-\lambda, \lambda] \subset (-R, R)$.

Hence, term-by-term integration is valid.

$$\text{Also, } \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \sqrt[n]{\left| \frac{a_{n-1}}{n} \right|} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\left| a_{n-1} \right|^{\frac{1}{n-1}} \right)^{\frac{(n-1)}{n}} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$$\therefore \frac{n-1}{n} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ and } \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

we see that the integral series has the same radius of conv. R as the original series.

A similar calc. for the derivative series shows that it too has the same radius of conv. R.

Therefore the derivative series also conv. uniformly on any $[-\lambda, \lambda] \subset (-R, R)$

Hence, term-by-term diff. is valid.

If $f(x) = \sum a_k x^k$, then f can be diff & int. term as many times as we want for $x \in (-R, R)$

$$\therefore f^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} k(k-1)\dots(k-n+1)x^{k-n}$$

& hence, $f^{(n)}(0) = n! a_n$

So, we can write

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k \quad \text{for } x \in (-R, R)$$

Generally, if

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x - x_0)^k$$

with interval of convergence $(x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$

$$\text{then } f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k \quad \text{for } x \in (x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$$

Analytic fnⁿ: A fnⁿ f is said to be analytic if it can be expressed locally as a conv. power series.

That is, $f:(a,b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be analytic if $\forall x_0 \in (a,b)$, \exists a power series $\sum a_k(x-x_0)^k$ & $\delta > 0$ s.t if $|x-x_0| < \delta$, then the series conv. &

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(x-x_0)^k$$

Note: If f is analytic, then f is C^∞ (i.e f is in C^k for $k=0,1,2,\dots$ - also called smooth fnⁿs)

eg: (non-analytic smooth $f(x^n)$)

Def. $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

One can check that $f^{(k)}(0) = 0$ for each k .

Hence, the power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k$ conv. to the 0 fn.

But $f \neq 0$, so f is not analytic in a neighbourhood of $x=0$.

Thm: Let $f \in C^{\infty}$ on (a, b) . Let $x_0 \in (a, b)$. Suppose $\exists \delta > 0$ & a const. $M > 0$ s.t. $|f^{(n)}(x)| \leq M^n$ for each $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ & $n = 1, 2, \dots$

Then, for each $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$, we have

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

Pf: By Taylor's thm, $\forall x \in (a, b)$ & $\forall n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_1)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

for some x_1 b/w x & x_0

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } \left| f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k \right| &\leq |f^{(n)}(x_0)| |x - x_0|^n \\ &\leq \frac{|M(n-x_0)|^n}{n!} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Thm: There exists a cont. fnⁿ $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is nowhere diff.

Pf: Def. $\varphi_0(x) = |x|$ for $-1 < x < 1$

Extend φ_0 to a fnⁿ def. on all of \mathbb{R} by requiring it to be periodic with period 2: $\varphi_0(x+2) = \varphi_0(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

The fnⁿ φ_k ($k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$) def. by

$$\varphi_k(x) = \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^k \varphi_0(4^k x)$$

has a period $2/4^k$

That is, if $t = x + 2m/4^k$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$\varphi_k(t) = \varphi_k(x)$$

By the M-test, the series $\sum \varphi_k(x)$ conv. uniformly to a limit fnⁿ f ,

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \varphi_k(x)$$

f is cont. since it is uniform limit of cont. fnⁿs.

We claim that f is nowhere diff.

Fix a real no. x .

We will show that $f'(x)$ does not exist.

Def. $s_n = \pm \frac{1}{2} 4^{-n}$ with sign chosen s.t

no integer lies b/w $4^n x$ & $4^n(x+s_n)$

(can do this since the length $4^n |s_n|$ of this interval is $1/2$)

We will show that

$$\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(x+s_n) - f(x)}{s_n}$$

does not converge to a limit as $s_n \rightarrow 0$ (i.e $n \rightarrow \infty$),
hence $f'(x)$ does not exist.

$$\text{We have, } \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi_k(x+s_n) - \varphi_k(x)}{s_n}$$

There are 3 types of terms in the series -
 $k > n$, $k = n$, $k < n$.

$$\text{If } k > n, \text{ we have } s_n = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-n} = 4^{k-(n+1)} \cdot \frac{2}{4^k}$$

So, s_n is an integer multiple of the period φ_k ,
and hence $\varphi_k(x+s_n) - \varphi_k(x) = 0$.

Hence, the infinite series expression for $\Delta f / \Delta x$ reduces to

$$\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} = \frac{\varphi_n(x+s_n) - \varphi_n(x)}{s_n} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\varphi_k(x+s_n) - \varphi_k(x)}{s_n}$$

$$\text{Observe, } \frac{\varphi_n(x+s_n) - \varphi_n(x)}{s_n} = 3^n$$

$$\text{Also, } \left| \frac{\varphi_k(x+s_n) - \varphi_k(x)}{s_n} \right| \leq 3^k \quad \text{for } k < n$$

Hence, we have

$$\left| \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} \right| \geq 3^n - (3^{n-1} + \dots + 1)$$

$$= 3^n - \left(\frac{3^n - 1}{3 - 1} \right) = \frac{1}{2} (3^n + 1)$$

which tends to ∞ as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ ($n \rightarrow \infty$)

Hence, $f'(x)$ does not exist.