Honours Analysis Notes

Anthony Catterwell

April 18, 2019

Contents

1	The Real Number System		
	1.1	Introduction	2
	1.2	Ordered Field Axioms	2
	1.3	Completeness Axiom	3
	1.4	Mathematical Induction	4
	1.5	Inverse Functions and Images	4
	1.6	Countable and Uncountable Sets	6
2	Seq	uences in $\mathbb R$	7
	2.1	Limits of Sequences	7
	2.2	Limit Theorems	7
	2.3	Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem	9
	2.4	Cauchy Sequences	9
	2.5	Limits Supremum and Infimum	9
3	Functions on R		
	3.1	Two-Sided Limits	11
	3.2	One-Sided Limits and Limits at Infinity	12
	3.3		13
	3.4	Uniform Continuity	14

1 The Real Number System

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Ordered Field Axioms

• Postulate 1 Field Axioms

There are functions + and \cdot defined on $\mathbb{R}^2 := \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$, which satisfy the following properties $\forall a,b,c \in \mathbb{R}$

- Closure Properties: a + b, $a \cdot b \in \mathbb{R}$
- Associative Properties: a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c and $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$
- Commutative Properties: a + b = b + a and $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$
- Distributive Law: $a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$
- Existence of Additive Identity: There is a unique element $0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that 0+a=a for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$
- Existence of Multiplicative Identity: There is a unique element $1 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $1 \neq 0$ and $1 \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$
- Existence of Additive Inverses: For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ there is a unique element $-x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$x + (-x) = 0$$

- Existence of Multiplicative Inverses: For every $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ there is a unique element $x^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$x \cdot (x^{-1}) = 1$$

• Postulate 2 Order Axioms

There is a relation < on $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ that has the following properties:

- Trichotomy Property: Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, one and only one of the following statements hold:

$$a < b, b < a, \text{ or } a = b$$

- Transitive Property: For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$a < b \text{ and}; c \implies a < c$$

- Additive Property: For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$a < b \text{ and } c \in \mathbb{R} \implies a + c < b + c$$

- Multiplicative Properties: For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$a < b \text{ and } c > 0 \implies ac < bc$$

and

$$a < b \text{ and } c < 0 \implies bc < ac$$

• Remark 1.1

We will assume that the sets \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} satisfy the following properties:

- 1. If $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, then n + m, n m and mn belong to \mathbb{Z}
- 2. If $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $n \in \mathbb{N}$ if and only if $n \geq 1$

- 3. There is no $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ that satisfies 0 < n < 1
- Definition 1.4 Absolute Value

The absolute value of a number $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is the number

$$|a| := \begin{cases} a & a \ge 0 \\ -a & a < 0 \end{cases}$$

- Remark 1.5 The absolute value is multiplicative; that is, $|ab| = |a||b| \ \forall a, b, \in \mathbb{R}$
- Theorem 1.6 Fundamental Theorem of Absolute Values Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $M \ge 0$. Then $|a| \le M \iff -M \le a \le M$.
- **Theorem 1.7** The absolute value satisfies the following three properties:
 - 1. Positive Definite: For all $a \in \mathbb{R}$, |a| > 0 with |a| = 0 if and only if a = 0.
 - 2. Symmetric: For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, |a b| = |b a|,
 - 3. Triangle Inequalities: For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|a+b| \le |a| + |b|$$
 and $||a| - |b|| \le |a-b|$

• Theorem 1.9 Let $x, y, a \in \mathbb{R}$

1.
$$x < y + \epsilon \ \forall \epsilon > 0 \iff x \le y$$

2.
$$x > y - \epsilon \ \forall \epsilon > 0 \iff x \ge y$$

3.
$$|a| < \epsilon \ \forall \epsilon > 0 \iff a = 0$$

1.3 Completeness Axiom

• Definition 1.10 Upper bounds

Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ be non-empty

- 1. The set E is said to be bounded above if and only if there is an $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a \leq M$ for all $a \in E$, in which case M is called an upper bound of E.
- 2. A number s is called a *supremum* of the set E if and only if s is an upper bound of E and $s \leq M$ for all upper bounds M of E. (In this case we shall say that E has a *finite supremeum* s and write $s = \sup E$)
- Remark 1.12 If a set has one upper bound, it has infinitely many upper bounds.
- Remark 1.13 If a set has a supremum, then it has only one supremum.
- Theorem Approximation Property for Suprema If E has a finite supremum and $\epsilon > 0$ is any positive number, then there is a point $a \in E$ such that

$$\sup E - \epsilon < a \le \sup E$$

• Theorem 1.15

If $E \subset \mathbb{Z}$ has a supremum, then $\sup E \in E$. In particular, if the supremum of a set, which contains only integers, exists, that supremum must be an integer.

• Postulate 3 Completeness Axiom

If E is a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} that is bounded above, then E has a finite supremum.

• Theorem 1.16 The Archimedean Principle

Given real numbers a and b, with a > 0, there is an integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that b < na.

- Theorem 1.18 Density of Rationals If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfy a < b, then there is a $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that a < q < b.
- Definition 1.19 Upper bounds

Let $E \in \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty

- 1. The set E is said to be bounded below if and only if there is an $m \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a \geq E$, in which case m is called a lower bound of the set E.
- 2. A number t is called an *infimum* of the set E if and only if t is a lower bound of E and $t \ge m$ and write $t = \inf E$.
- 3. E is said to be bounded if and only if it is bounded both above and below.
- Theorem 1.20 Reflection Principle

Let $E \in \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty

1. E has a supremum if and only if -E has an infimum, in which case

$$\inf(-E) = -\sup E$$

2. E has an infimum if and only if -E has a supremum, in which case

$$\sup(-E) = -\inf E$$

• Theorem 1.21 Monotone Property

Suppose that $A \subseteq B$ are nonempty subsets of \mathbb{R} .

- 1. If B has a supremum, then $\sup A \leq \sup B$.
- 2. If B has an infimum, then $\inf A \ge \inf B$.

1.4 Mathematical Induction

• Theorem 1.22 Well-Ordering Principle

If E is a nonempty subset of N, then E has a least element (i.e. E has a finite infimum and inf $E \in E$).

• Theorem 1.23

Suppose for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that A(n) is a proposition which satisfies the following two properties:

- 1. A(1) is true.
- 2. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ for which A(n) is true, A(n+1) is also true.

Then A(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

• Theorem 1.26 Binomial Formula

If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and 0^0 is interpreted to be 1, then

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

1.5 Inverse Functions and Images

• **Definition 1.29** Injection, Surjection, Bijection Let X and Y be sets and $f: X \to Y$

1. f is said to be *injective* if and only if

$$x_1, x_2 \in X \text{ and } f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$$

2. f is said to be *surjective* if and only if

$$\forall y \in Y \ \exists x \in X \ \ni y = f(x)$$

3. f is called bijective if and only if it is both injective and surjective

• Theorem 1.30

Let X and Y be sets and $f: X \to Y$. Then the following three statements are equivalent.

- 1. f has an inverse;
- 2. f is injective from X onto Y;
- 3. There is a function $g: Y \to X$ such that

$$g(f(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in X$$

and

$$f(g(y)) = y \quad \forall y \in Y$$

Moreover, for each $f: X \to Y$, there is only one function g that satisfies these. It is the inverse function f^{-1} .

• Remark 1.31

Let I be an interval and let $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$. If the derivative of f is either always positive on I, or always negative on I, then f is injective on I.

• Definition 1.33 Image

Let X and Y be sets and $f: X \to Y$. The *image* of a set $E \subseteq X$ under f is the set

$$f(E) := \{ y \in Y : y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in E \}$$

The *inverse image* of a set $E \subseteq Y$ under f is the set

$$f^{-1}(E) := \{x \in X : f(x) = y \text{ for some } y \in E\}$$

• Definition 1.35 Union, Intersection

Let $\mathcal{E} = \{E_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha} \in A}$ be a collection of sets.

1. The union of the collection \mathcal{E} is the set

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha} := \{x : x \in E_{\alpha} \text{ for some } \alpha \in A\}$$

2. The intersection of the collection \mathcal{E} is the set

$$\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha} := \{x : x \in E_{\alpha} \text{ for all } \alpha \in A\}.$$

• Theorem 1.36 DeMorgan's Laws

Let X be a set and $\{E_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ be a collection of subsets of X. If for each $E\subseteq X$ the symbol E^c represents the set $X\setminus E$, then

$$\left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right)^{c} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}^{c}$$

and

$$\left(\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}\right)^{c} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}^{c}$$

• Theorem 1.37

Let X and Y be sets and $f: X \to Y$.

1. If $\{E_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha} \in A$ is a collection of subsets of X, then

$$f\left(\bigcup_{\alpha\in A} E_{\alpha}\right) = \bigcup_{\alpha\in A} f(E_{\alpha}) \text{ and } f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha\in A} E_{\alpha}\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha\in A} f(E_{\alpha})$$

- 2. If B and C are subsets of X, then $f(C) \setminus f(B) \subseteq f(C \setminus B)$
- 3. If $\{E_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in A}$ is a collection of subsets of Y, then

$$f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{\alpha\in A}E_{\alpha}\right)=\bigcup_{\alpha\in A}f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$$
 and $f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\alpha\in A}E_{\alpha}\right)=\bigcap_{\alpha\in A}f^{-1}(E_{\alpha})$

- 4. If B and C are subsets of Y, then $f^{-1}(C \setminus B) = f^{-1}(C) \setminus f^{-1}(B)$.
- 5. If $E \subseteq f(x)$, then $f(f^{-1}(E)) = E$, but if $E \subseteq X$, then $E \subseteq f^{-1}(f(E))$.

1.6 Countable and Uncountable Sets

- **Definition 1.38** Countable Uncountable Let E be a set.
 - 1. E is said to be *finite* if and only if either $E = \emptyset$ or there exists an injective function which takes $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ onto E, for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - 2. E is said to be *countable* if and only if there exists and injective function which takes \mathbb{N} onto E.
 - 3. E is said to be at most countable if and only if E is either finite or countable.
 - 4. E is said to be *uncountable* if and only if E is neither finite nor countable.
- Remark 1.39 Cantor's Diagonalisation Argument The open interval (0, 1) is uncountable.

• Lemma 1.40

A nonempty set E is at most countable if and only if there is a function g from \mathbb{N} onto E.

• Theorem 1.41

Suppose A and B are sets.

- 1. If $A \subseteq B$ and B is at most countable, then A is at most countable.
- 2. If $A \subseteq B$ and A is uncountable, then B is uncountable.
- 3. \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

• Theorem 1.42

Let A_1, A_2, \ldots be at most countable sets.

- 1. Then $A_1 \times A_2$ is at most countable.
- 2. If

$$E = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j := \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} A_j := \{x : x \in A_j \text{ for some } j \in \mathbb{N}\},$$

then E is at most countable.

• Remark 1.43

The sets \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Q} are countable, but the set of irrationals is uncountable.

2 Sequences in \mathbb{R}

2.1 Limits of Sequences

• Definition 2.1 Convergence

A sequence of real numbers $\{x_n\}$ is set to *converge* to a real number $a \in \mathbb{R}$ if and only if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ (which in general depends on ϵ) such that

$$n \ge N \implies |x_n - a| < \epsilon$$

- Remark 2.4 A sequence can have at most one limit.
- Definition 2.5 Subsequence

By a subsequence of a sequence $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$, we shall mean a sequence of the form $\{x_{nk}\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$, where each $n_k\in\mathbb{N}$ and $n_1< n_2<\cdots$.

• Remark 2.6

If $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to a and $\{x_{nk}\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is any subsequence of $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$, then x_{nk} converges to a as $k\to\infty$.

• Definition 2.7 Bounded Sequences

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

- 1. The sequence $\{x_n\}$ is said to be *bounded above* if and only if the set $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is bounded above.
- 2. The sequence $\{x_n\}$ is said to be *bounded below* if and only if the set $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is bounded below
- 3. $\{x_n\}$ is said to be bounded if and only if it is bounded both above and below.
- **Theorem 2.8** Every convergent sequence is bounded.

2.2 Limit Theorems

• Theorem 2.9 Squeeze Theorem

Suppose that $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}, \text{ and } \{w_n\}$ are real sequences.

1. If $x_n \to a$ and $y_n \to a$ as $n \to \infty$, and if there is an $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$x_n < w_n < y_n \text{ for } n > N_0$$

then $w_n \to a$ as $n \to \infty$.

2. If $x_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ and $\{y_n\}$ is bounded, then $x_n y_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

• Theorem 2.11

Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}$. If E has a finite supremum (respectively, a finite infimum), then there is a sequence $x_n \in E$ such that $x_n \to \sup E$ (respectively, a sequence $y_n \in E$ such that $y_n \to \inf E$) as $n \to \infty$.

• Theorem 2.12

Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are real sequences and that $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. If $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are convergent, then

1.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n + y_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n$$

2.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (\alpha x_n) = \alpha \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$$

and

3.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n y_n) = (\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n) (\lim_{n \to \infty} y_n)$$

If, in addition, $y_n \neq 0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n \neq 0$, then

4.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_n}{y_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n}{\lim_{n \to \infty} y_n}$$

(In particular, all these limits exist.)

• Definition 2.14 Divergence

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

1. $\{x_n\}$ is said to diverge to $+\infty$ if and only if for each $M \in \mathbb{R}$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$n \ge N \implies x_n > M$$

2. $\{x_n\}$ is said to diverge to $-\infty$ if and only if for each $M \in \mathbb{R}$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$n \ge N \implies x_n < M$$

• Theorem 2.15

Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are real sequences such that $x_n \to +\infty$ (respectively, $x_n \to -\infty$) as $n \to \infty$.

1. If y_n is bounded below (respectively, y_n is bounded above), then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n + y_n) = +\infty \quad \text{(respectively, } \lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n + y_n) = -\infty)$$

2. If $\alpha > 0$, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (\alpha x_n) = +\infty \quad \text{(respectively, } \lim_{n\to\infty} (\alpha x_n) = -\infty)$$

3. If $y_n > M_0$ for some $M_0 > 0$ and all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (x_n y_n) = +\infty \quad \text{(respectively, } \lim_{n\to\infty} (x_n y_n) = -\infty)$$

4. If $\{y_n\}$ is bounded and $x_n \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{y_n}{x_n} = 0$$

• Corollary 2.16

Let $\{x_n\}$, $\{y_n\}$ be real sequences and α, x, y be extended real numbers. If $x_n \to x$ and $y_n \to y$, as $n \to \infty$, then

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

provided that the right side is not of the form $\infty - \infty$, and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (\alpha x_n) = \alpha x, \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n y_n) = xy$$

provided that none of these products is of the form $0 \cdot \pm \infty$.

• Theorem 2.17 Comparison Theorem

Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ are convergent sequences. If there is an $N_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$x_n \leq y_n \text{ for } n \geq N_0$$

then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n \le \lim_{n \to \infty} y_n$$

In particular, if $x_n \in [a, b]$ converges to some point c, then c must belong to [a, b].

2.3 Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

- **Definition 2.18** Increasing, Decreasing Let $\{x_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of real numbers.
 - 1. $\{x_n\}$ is said to be *increasing* (respectively, *strictly increasing*) if and only if $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \cdots$ (respectively, $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots$).
 - 2. $\{x_n\}$ is said to be decreasing (respectively, strictly decreasing) if and only if $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \cdots$ (respectively, $x_1 > x_2 > \cdots$).
 - 3. $\{x_n\}$ is said to be monotone if and only if it is either increasing or decreasing.
- Theorem 2.19 Monotone Convergence Theorem if $\{x_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above, or if $\{x_n\}$ is decreasing and bounded below, then $\{x_n\}$ converges to a finite limit.
- **Definition 2.22** Nested A sequence of sets $\{I_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is said to be nested if and only if

$$I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq \cdots$$

• Theorem 2.23 Nested Interval Property

If $\{I_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a nested sequence of nonempty closed bounded intervals, then $E:=\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}I_n$ is nonempty. Moreover, if the lengths of these intervals satisfy $|I_n \to 0|$ as $n \to \infty$ then E is a single point.

- Remark 2.24 The Nested Interval Property might not hold if "closed" is omitted.
- Remark 2.25 The Nested Interval Property might not hold if "bounded" is omitted.
- Theorem 2.26 Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem
 Every bounded sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

2.4 Cauchy Sequences

• Definition 2.27 Cauchy

A sequence of points $x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ is said to be Cauchy (in R) if and only if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$n, m \ge N \implies |x_n - x_m| < \epsilon$$

- Remark 2.28 If $\{x_n\}$ is convergent, then $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy.
- Theorem 2.29 Cauchy Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers. Then $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy if and only if $\{x_n\}$ converges (to some point $a \in \mathbb{R}$).
- Remark 2.31 A sequence that satisfies $x_{n+1} x_n \to 0$ is not necessarily Cauchy.

2.5 Limits Supremum and Infimum

• Definition 2.32 Limit Supremum & Infimum Let $\{x_n\}$ be a real sequence. Then the limit supremum of $\{x_n\}$ is the extended real number

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n := \lim_{n \to \infty} (\sup_{k > n} x_k)$$

and the *limit infimum* of $\{x_n\}$ is the extended real number

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n := \lim_{n \to \infty} (\inf_{k \ge n} x_k)$$

• Theorem 2.35

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers, $s = \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n$, and $t = \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n$. Then there are subsequences $\{x_{nk}\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{x_{\ell j}\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x_{nk} \to s$ as $k \to \infty$ and $x_{\ell j} \to t$ as $j \to \infty$.

• Theorem 2.36

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a real sequence and x be an extended real number. Then $x_n \to x$ as $n \to \infty$ if and only if

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = x$$

• Theorem 2.37

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers. Then $\limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n$ (respectively, $\liminf_{n\to\infty}$) is the largest value (respectively, the smallest value) to which some subsequences of $\{x_n\}$ converges. Namely, if $x_{nk} \to x$ as $k \to \infty$, then

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \le x \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n$$

• Remark 2.38 If $\{x_n\}$ is any sequence of real numbers, then

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n$$

• Remark 2.39 A real sequence $\{x_n\}$ is bounded above if and only if $\limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n < \infty$, and is bounded below if and only if $\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n > -\infty$.

• Theorem 2.40

If $x_n \leq y_n$ for n large, then

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n \le \limsup_{n \to \infty} y_n \quad \text{and} \quad \liminf_{n \to \infty} y_n \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} y_n$$

3 Functions on R

3.1 Two-Sided Limits

• Definition 3.1 Limits

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let I be an open interval which contains a, and let f be a real function defined everywhere on I except possibly at a. Then f(x) is said to converge to L, as x approaches a, if and only if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ (which in general depends on ϵ , f, I, and a) such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

In this case we write

$$L = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$
 or $f(x) \to L$ as $x \to a$

and call L the *limit* of f(x) as x approaches a

• Remark 3.4

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let I be an open interval which contains a, and let f, g be real functions defined everywhere on I except possibly at a. If f(x) = g(x) for all $x \in I \setminus \{a\}$ and $f(x) \to L$ as $x \to a$, then g(x) also has a limit as $x \to a$, and

$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

• Theorem 3.6 Sequential Characterisation of Limits

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let I be an open interval which contains a, and let f be a real function defined everywhere on I except possibly at a. Then

$$L = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

exists if and only if $f(x_n) \to L$ as $n \to \infty$ for every sequence $\{x_n\} \in I \setminus \{a\}$ which converges to a as $n \to \infty$.

• Theorem 3.8

Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, that I is an open interval which contains a, and that f, g, are real functions defined everywhere on I except possibly at a. If f(x) and g(x) converge as x approaches a, then so do $(f+g)(x), (fg)(x), (\alpha f)(x)$, and (f/g)(x) (when the limit of g(x) is nonzer). In fact,

$$\lim_{x \to a} (f+g)(x) = \lim_{x \to a} + \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$
$$\lim_{x \to a} (\alpha f)(x) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$
$$\lim_{x \to a} (fg)(x) = \lim_{x \to a} \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

and (when the limit of g(x) is nonzero)

$$\lim_{x \to a} \left(\frac{f}{g} \right)(x) = \frac{\lim_{x \to a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \to a} g(x)}$$

• Theorem 3.9 Squeeze Theorem for Functions

Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, that I is an open interval which contains a, and that f, g, h are real functions defined everywhere on I except possibly at a.

1. If
$$g(x) \le h(x) \le f(x) \ \forall x \in I \setminus \{a\}$$
, and

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = L,$$

then the limit of h(x) exists, as $x \to a$, and

$$\lim_{x \to a} h(x) = L.$$

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x)g(x) = 0$$

• Theorem 3.10 Comparison Theorem for Functions

Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, that I is an open interval which contains a, and that f, g are real functions defined everywhere on I except possibly at a. If f and g have a limit as x approaches a and $f(x) \leq g(x) \ \forall x \in I \setminus \{a\}$, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) \le \lim_{x \to a} g(x)$$

3.2 One-Sided Limits and Limits at Infinity

• Definition 3.12 Converge from left & right Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and f be a real function.

1. f(x) is said to converge to L as x approaches a from the right if and only if f is defined on some open interval I with left endpoint a and for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ (which in general depends on ϵ , f, I, and a) such that

$$a + \delta \in I$$
 and $a < x < a + \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$

in this case we call L the right-hand limit of f at a, and denote it by

$$f(a+) := L =: \lim_{x \to a+} f(x)$$

2. f(x) is said to converge to L as x approaches a from the left if and only if f is defined on some open interval I with left endpoint a and for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ (which in general depends on ϵ , f, I, and a) such that

$$a + \delta \in I$$
 and $a < x < a + \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$

in this case we call L the *left-hand limit* of f at a, and denote it by

$$f(a-) := L =: \lim_{x \to a-} f(x)$$

• Theorem 3.14

Let f be a real function. Then the limit

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

exists and equals L if and only if

$$L = \lim_{x \to a+} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a-} f(x)$$

• Definition 3.15 Convergence

Let $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$ and let f be a real function.

1. f(x) is said to converge to L as $x \to \infty$ if and only if there exists a c > 0 such that $(c, \infty) \subset \text{Dom}(f)$ and given $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that x > M implies $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$, in which case we shall write

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \to L \text{ as } x \to \infty$$

Similarly, f(x) is said to converge to L as $x \to -\infty$ if and only if there exists a c > 0 such that $(infty, -c) \subset \text{Dom}(f)$ and given $\epsilon > 0$ there is $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that x > M implies $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$, in which case we shall write

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \to L \text{ as } x \to \infty$$

2. The function f(x) is said to converge to ∞ as $x \to a$ if and only if there is an open interval I containing a such that $I \setminus \{a\} \subset \mathrm{Dom}(f)$ and given $M \in \mathbb{R}$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $0 \le |x - a| < \delta$ implies f(x) < M, in which case we shall write

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \infty$$
 or $f(x) \to \infty$ as $x \to a$

Similarly, f(x) is said to converge to $-\infty$ as $x \to a$ if and only if there is an open interval I containing a such that $I \setminus \{a\} \subset \mathrm{Dom}(f)$ and given $M \in \mathbb{R}$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ implies f(x) < M, in which case we shall write

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = -\infty$$
 or $f(x) \to -\infty$ as $x \to a$

• Theorem 3.17

Let a be an extended real number, and let I be a nondegenerate open interval which either contains a or has a as one of its endpoints. Suppose further that f is a real function defined on I except possibly at a. Then

$$\lim_{x \to a; x \in I} f(x)$$

exists and equals L if and only if $f(x_n) \to L$ for all sequences $x_n \in I$ which satisfy $x_n \neq a$ and $x_n \to a$ as $n \to \infty$.

3.3 Continuity

• Definition 3.19 Continuous

Let E be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} and $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$.

1. f is said to be *continuous* at a point $a \in \mathbb{E}$ if and only if given $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ (which in general depends on ϵ, f , and a) such that

$$|x-a| < delta$$
 and $x \in E \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$

2. f is said to be continuous on E if and only if f is continuous at every $x \in E$.

• Remark 3.20

Let I be an open interval which contains a point a and $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous at $a \in \mathbb{I}$ if and only if

$$f(a) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$$

• Theorem 3.21

Suppose that E is a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} , that $a \in E$, and that $f : E \to \mathbb{R}$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- 1. f is continuous at $a \in E$.
- 2. If x_n converges to a and $x_n \in E$, then $f(x_n) \to f(a)$ as $n \to \infty$.

• Theorem 3.22

Let E be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} and $f,g:E\to\mathbb{R}$. If f,g are continuous at a point $a\in E$ (respectively continuous on the set E), then so are f+g, fg, and αf (for any $\alpha\in\mathbb{R}$). Moreover, f/g is continuous at $a\in E$ when $g(a)\neq 0$ (respectively, on E when $g(x)\neq 0$ $\forall x\in E$).

• Definition 3.23 Composition

Suppose that A and B are subsets of R, that $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g: B \to \mathbb{R}$. If $F(A) \subseteq B$ for every $x \in A$, then the *composition* of g with f is the function $g \circ f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$(g \circ f)(x) := g(f(x)), \quad x \in A$$

• Theorem 3.24

Suppose that A and B are subsets of \mathbb{R} , that $f:A\to\mathbb{R}$ and $g:B\to\mathbb{R}$, and that $f(x)\in B$ $\forall x\in A$.

1. If $A := I \setminus \{a\}$, where I is a nondegenerate interval which either contains a or has a as one of its endpoints, if

$$L := \lim_{x \to a: x \in I} f(x)$$

exists and belongs to B, and if g is continuous and $L \in B$, then

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g \left(\lim_{x \to a; x \in I} f(x) \right)$$

2. If f is continuous at $a \in A$ and g is continuous at $f(a) \in B$, then $g \circ f$ is continuous at $a \in A$.

• Definition 3.25 Bounded

Let E be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} . A function $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be bounded on E if and only if there is an $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in E$, in which case we shall say that f is dominated by M on E.

• Theorem 3.26 Extreme Value Theorem

If I a is closed, bounded interval and $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on I, then f is bounded on I. Moreover if

$$M = \sup_{x \in I} f(x)$$
 and $m = \inf_{x \in I} f(x)$

then there exist points $x_m, x_M \in I$ such that

$$f(x_M) = M$$
 and $f(x_m) = m$

• Remark 3.27 The Existence Value Theorem is false if either "closed" or "bounded" is dropped from the hypotheses.

• Lemma 3.28

Suppose that a < B and that $f : [a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$. If f is continuous at a point $x_0 \in [a,b)$ and $f(x_0) > 0$, then there exist a positive number ϵ and a point $x_1 \in [a,b)$ such that $x_1 > x_0$ and $f(x) > \epsilon \ \forall x \in [x_0,x_1]$.

• Theorem 3.29 Intermediate Value Theorem

Suppose that a < b and that $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. If y_0 lies between f(a) and f(b), then there is an $x_0 \in (a, b)$ such that $f(x_0) = y_0$.

• Remark 3.34 The composition of two functions $g \circ f$ can be nowhere continuous, even though f is discontinuous only on \mathbb{Q} and g is discontinuous at only one point.

3.4 Uniform Continuity

• Definition 3.35 Uniform continuity

Let E be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} and $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$. Then \mho is said to be uniformly continuous on E if and only if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|x-a| < delta$$
 and $x, a, \in E \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$

• Lemma 3.38

Suppose that $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and that $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous. If $x_n \in E$ is Cauchy, the $f(x_n)$ is Cauchy.

\bullet Theorem 3.39

Suppose that I is a closed, bounded interval. If $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on I, then f is uniformly continuous on I.

\bullet Theorem 3.40

Suppose that a < b and that $f:(a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$. Then f is uniformly continuous on (a,b) if and only if f can be continuously extended to [a,b]; that is, if and only if there is a continuous function $g:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies

$$f(x) = g(x), \quad x \in (a, b)$$