## Topics in Analysis and Linear Algebra

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 $\begin{array}{c} {\rm Summer~Bootcamp~for}\\ {\rm Emory~Biostatistics~and~Bioinformatics}\\ {\rm PhD~Program} \end{array}$ 

July 22 - 28, 2021

Chapter 1. Mathematical Logics

Chapter 2. Set Theory

Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

Chapter 4. Topics in Linear Algebra

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# Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

This part is mostly based on Chapter 2 of

J. McDonald and N. Weiss, A course in real analysis, Academic Press, 2005.

## Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

- § 3.1 Real number system
- § 3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

## Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

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- § 3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

## What is a real number?



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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Image from Wikipedia.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Image from

Real number system can be formulated in three groups of axioms

- (F) Field Axioms
- (O) Order Axioms
- (C) Completeness Axioms

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Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then we have that

(F1) 
$$x + y = y + x$$
 and  $xy = yx$ . (Commutative)

(F2) 
$$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z)$$
 and  $(xy)z=x(yz)$ . (Associative)

(F3) 
$$x(y+z) = xy + xz$$
. (Distributive

(F4) There exit  $0, 1 \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $0 \neq 1$  such that for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$x + 0 = x$$
 and  $x \cdot 1 = x$ . (Identities)

(F5) For each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exits a  $-x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that x + (-x) = 0 and, if  $x \neq 0$ , there exits an  $x^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $xx^{-1} = 1$ . (Inverses

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$$x < y$$
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- (O2) x < y implies that x + z < y + z.
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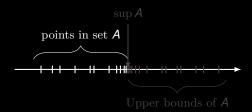
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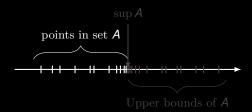
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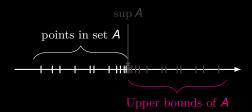
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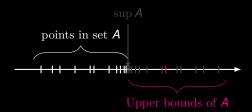
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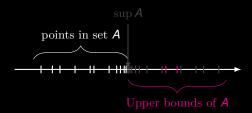
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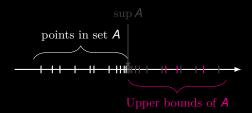
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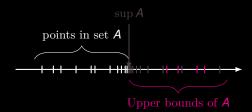
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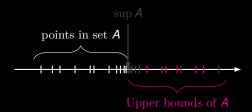
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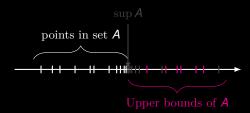
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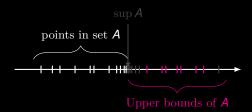
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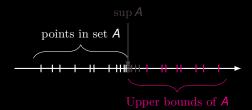
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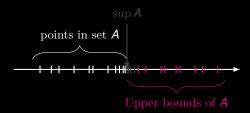
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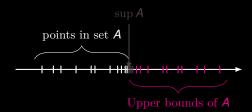
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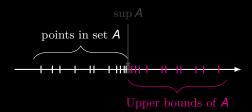
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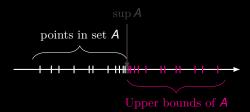
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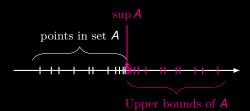
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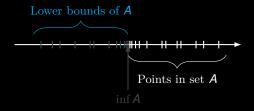
$$\sup_{n} x_{n} \le a \iff \forall n, x_{n} \le a$$

$$\sup_{n} x_{n} < a \iff \forall n, x_{n} < a$$

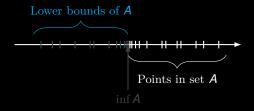
$$a < \sup_{n} x_{n} \iff \exists n, x_{n} > a$$

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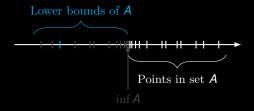
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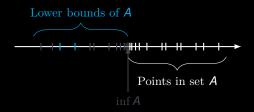
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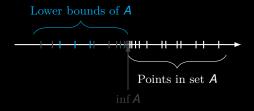
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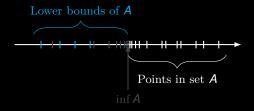
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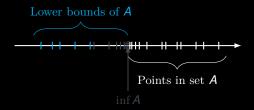
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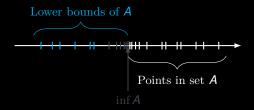
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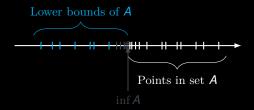
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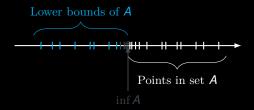
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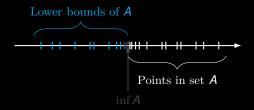
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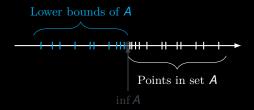
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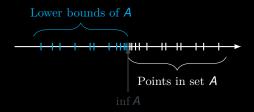
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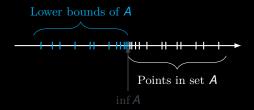
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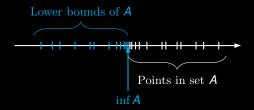
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$$a \le \inf_{n} x_n \qquad \iff \forall n, \ x_n \ge a$$
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 $\inf_{n} x_n < a \quad \iff \exists n, \ x_n < a$ 

$$\inf_{n} x_{n} \leq a \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \exists n, \ x_{n} \leq a$$

E.g. 
$$\sup[0,1) = 1$$
 and  $\inf[0,1) = 0$ .

 $\mathbb{N}$  has no least upper bound, but  $\inf \mathbb{N} = 1$ 

Let 
$$A=\{x: x^2<3\}$$
. Then 
$$\sup_{x\in A} x=\sqrt{3} \quad \text{and} \quad \inf_{x\in A} x=-\sqrt{3}$$

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#### 1. Archimedean principle

For each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , there is an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that n > x.

2. Density of the irrational numbers

Between any two real numbers there is an irrational number.

3. Density of the rational numbers

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# Extended Real Number System

Def. The *extended real numbers*  $\mathbb{R}^* := \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ .

 $\infty - \infty$  cannot be defined (HW).

# Extended Real Number System

Def. The *extended real numbers*  $\mathbb{R}^* := \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ .

$x \in \mathbb{R}$	$X + \infty = \infty + X = \infty$	$\mathbf{X} - \infty = -\infty + \mathbf{X} = -\infty$
x > 0	$\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{\infty} = \mathbf{\infty} \cdot \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{\infty}$	$\mathbf{X} \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot \mathbf{X} = -\infty$
$\mathbf{x} = 0$	$0\cdot\infty=\infty\cdot0=0$	$0 \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot 0 = 0$
x < 0	$\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{\infty} = \mathbf{\infty} \cdot \mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{\infty}$	$\mathbf{X} \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot \mathbf{X} = \infty$
	$\infty + \infty = \infty$	$(-\infty) + (-\infty) = -\infty$
$x=\infty$	$\infty\cdot\infty=\infty$	$(-\infty)\cdot(-\infty)=\infty$
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$\mathbf{x} = 0$	$0\cdot\infty=\infty\cdot0=0$	$0 \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot 0 = 0$
x < 0	$\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{\infty} = \mathbf{\infty} \cdot \mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{\infty}$	$\mathbf{X} \cdot (-\infty) = (-\infty) \cdot \mathbf{X} = \infty$
	$\infty + \infty = \infty$	$(-\infty) + (-\infty) = -\infty$
$x=\infty$	$\infty\cdot\infty=\infty$	$(-\infty)\cdot(-\infty)=\infty$
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Def. Let a and b be extended real numbers such that a < b. Then the intervals on  $\mathbb{R}^*$  with endpoints a and b are as follows:

$$(a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* : a < x < b\}$$

$$[a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* : a \le x < b\}$$

$$(a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* : a < x \le b\}$$

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If both a and b are in  $\mathbb{R}$ , these intervals are the **bounded intervals** in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Otherwise, if either  $a = -\infty$  or  $b = \infty$ , then these intervals are unbounded intervals.

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If both a and b are in  $\mathbb{R}$ , these intervals are the bounded intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Otherwise, if either  $a=-\infty$  or  $b=\infty$ , then these intervals are unbounded intervals

Def. Let a and b be extended real numbers such that a < b. Then the intervals on  $\mathbb{R}^*$  with endpoints a and b are as follows:

$$(a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* : a < x < b\}$$

$$[a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* : a \le x < b\}$$

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If both a and b are in  $\mathbb{R}$ , these intervals are the bounded intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Otherwise, if either  $a=-\infty$  or  $b=\infty$ , then these intervals are unbounded intervals.

- a) If  $A = \emptyset$ , then  $\sup A = -\infty$  and  $\inf A = \infty$
- b) If A is bounded above in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\sup A \in \mathbb{R}$ ; otherwise,  $\sup A = \infty$ .
- c) If A is bounded below in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\inf A \in \mathbb{R}$ ; otherwise,  $\inf A = -\infty$

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- a)  $\inf \mathbb{N} = 1$  and  $\sup \mathbb{N} = \infty$ .
- b)  $\inf \mathbb{Z} = -\infty$  and  $\sup \mathbb{Z} = \infty$ .
- c) If I is an interval in  $\mathbb{R}^*$  with endpoints a and b,  $a \le b$ . Then  $\inf I = a$  and  $\sup I = b$ .

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 $\ensuremath{\mathsf{HW}}$  Ex. 2.10 and 2.11 on p. 43.

### Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

- § 3.1 Real number system
- $\S$  3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

Def. Let  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of real numbers. We say that the real number  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  is the *limit* of this sequence<sup>3</sup>, namely,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}x_n=L$$

if and only if for every real number  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a natural number N such that for all n > N, we have  $|x_n - L| < \epsilon$ .

Def'

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ s.t. \ (n \ge N \to |x_n - L| < \epsilon)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>In this case, we say that  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *convergent*. Otherwise, we say that  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *divergent*.

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E.g.  $\{(n-1)/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is convergent and  $\lim_{n\to\infty}(n-1)/n=1$ .

$$\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 is divergent

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E.g. 
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$$\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
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 is divergent.

- The sequence converges to a finite real number as in the previous definition.
- (ii) For each  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exits an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N$ ,  $x_n > M$
- (iii) For each  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exits an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all n > N,  $x_0 < M$

- (i) We say that the sequence converges in  $\mathbb{R}$  or the limit exits and is finite.
- (ii) We say the sequence converges to  $\infty$  and write  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = \infty$ .
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- Def. A sequence of real numbers  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$  is said to *converge in*  $\mathbb{R}^*$  if one of the following three conditions hold:
  - The sequence converges to a finite real number as in the previous definition.
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E.g.  $\{(n-1)/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$\left\{ (-1)^n \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 does not converge in  $\mathbb{R}^*$ .

$$\left\{n^2\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
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#### Monotone sequence

Def. If  $x_1 \le x_2 \le \cdots$ , then  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is said to be *nondecreasing*.

If 
$$x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \cdots$$
, then  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is said to be **nonincreasing**

 $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is said to be **monotone** if it is either nondecreasing or nonincreasing.

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 $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is said to be *monotone* if it is either nondecreasing or nonincreasing.

E.g.  $\{(n-1)/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is monotone and it is nondecreasing.

$$\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 is not monotone.

$$\{n^2\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
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 is monotone and it is nondecreasing.

Moreover, we have the following:

a) If  $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is nondecreasing, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = \sup\{x_n: n\in\mathbb{N}\}$$

In particular,  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges in  $\mathbb R$  if it is bounded above and is  $\infty$  otherwise.

b) If  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is nonincreasing, then

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# **Proof.** We will prove the case when $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is nondecreasing. The nonincreasing case can be proved in a similar way.

As  $\sup_n x_n$  always exists in  $\mathbb{R}^*$ , we need to consider two cases:

Case I:  $\sup_n x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Case II:  $\sup_n x_n = \infty$ 

Let's prove Case I here. Let  $X = \sup_n x_n$ . In order to show that  $\lim_n x_n = x$ , by monotonicity, we need to show that

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \ \forall n \ \text{s.t.} \ (n \geq N) \to (x - a_n \leq \epsilon).$$

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$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \ \forall n \ \text{s.t.} \ (n \ge N) \to (x - a_n \le \epsilon).$$

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \ \forall N \ \exists n \ \text{s.t.} \ (n \geq N) \land (x - a_n > \epsilon).$$

Hence, there are infinitely many terms falling below  $X - \epsilon$ . Since  $\{X_n\}$  is nondecreasing, this implies all  $a_n$  fall below  $X - \epsilon$ , i.e.,

$$a_n < x - \epsilon$$
, for all  $n \ge 1$ 

which is equivalent to  $\sup_n x_n < x - \epsilon$ . This contradicts with the fact that  $\sup_n x_n = x$ .

Therefore

$$\lim_{n} X_{n} = X = \sup_{n} X_{n}.$$

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$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \ \forall N \ \exists n \ \text{s.t.} \ (n \geq N) \land (x - a_n > \epsilon).$$

Hence, there are infinitely many terms falling below  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{\epsilon}$ .

Since  $\{x_n\}$  is nondecreasing, this implies all  $a_n$  fall below  $x - \epsilon$ , i.e.,

$$a_n < x - \epsilon$$
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Therefore

$$\lim_n X_n = X = \sup_n X_n$$

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \ \forall N \ \exists n \ \text{s.t.} \ (n \geq N) \land (x - a_n > \epsilon).$$

Hence, there are infinitely many terms falling below  $\textit{X}-\epsilon.$ 

Since  $\{x_n\}$  is nondecreasing, this implies all  $a_n$  fall below  $x - \epsilon$ , i.e.,

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Therefore.

$$\lim_n X_n = X = \sup_n X_n.$$

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \ \forall N \ \exists n \ \text{s.t.} \ (n \geq N) \land (x - a_n > \epsilon).$$

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Therefore,

$$\lim_n x_n = x = \sup_n x_n.$$

E.g.  $\{(n-1)/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is nondecreasing and converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ . It is bounded above.

$$\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 is not monotone.

$$\left\{n^2\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 is nondecreasing, does not converge in  $\mathbb{R}$ , converges in  $\mathbb{R}^*$ .

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 is nondecreasing, does not converge in  $\mathbb{R},$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}^*.$ 

#### Def. Let $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of real numbers.

- a) A real number x is said to be a *cluster point* of  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists an  $n \geq N$  such that  $|x x_n| < \epsilon$ .
- b)  $\infty$  is a cluster point of  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  if for each  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exits an n > N such that  $x_n > M$ .
- c)  $-\infty$  is a cluster point of  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  if for each  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exits an  $n \geq N$  such that  $x_0 < M$ .

$$\forall \epsilon \,\forall N \,\exists n \quad (n \ge N) \to (|x - x_n| < \epsilon). \tag{1}$$

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# E.g.1 $\{(n-1)/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ has one cluster point: 1.

$$\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$
 has two cluster points:  $-1$  and  $+1$ .

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**E.g.2** Consider the sequence  $\{2, 1, 0, 2, 2, \frac{1}{2}, 2, 3, \frac{2}{3}, 2, 4, \frac{3}{4}, \cdots\}$ , that is,

$$x_n = \begin{cases} (n-3)/n & \text{if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \\ 2 & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ (n+1)/3 & \text{if } n \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \end{cases}$$

It has three cluster points:  $1, 2, \infty$ .

E.g.3 Let  $\{r_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be an enumeration of the rational numbers. By the density of the rational numbers, every extended real number is a cluster point of the sequence  $\{r_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

Proof Suppose that  $\{x_n\}$  is a convergent sequence and let x be its limit, namely,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$ . We need to prove:

- (1) x is a cluster point.
- (2) x is the only cluster point of  $\{x_n\}$ .

We also need to consider two cases:

Case I:  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

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We will focus on Case I only

Now we first prove (1).

**Proof** Suppose that  $\{x_n\}$  is a convergent sequence and let x be its limit, namely,  $\lim_{n\to\infty}x_n=x$ . We need to prove:

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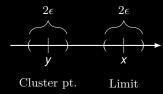
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$$\lim_{n} x_{n} = x \qquad \forall \epsilon \; \exists N \; \forall n \; (n \geq N) \to (|x_{n} - x| < \epsilon)$$
 
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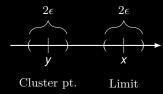
(1) is proved by choosing any  $\tilde{n} \ge \max \left( \tilde{N}, N \right)$ .



By choosing any  $\epsilon < |x - y|/2$ , we see that

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- 2. In the  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of X, all but finite many terms are here.

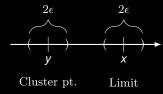
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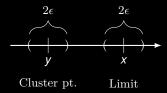
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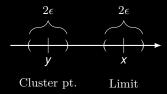


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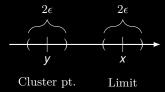


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### A few more properties

- 1. A sequence is convergent iff each subsequence is convergent.
- 2. Sandwich theorem: If  $x_n \le c_n \le b_n$  for all n > N and  $x_n \to L$  and  $b_n \to L$ , then  $c_n \to L$ .

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## Limit superior and limit inferior

Def. The *limit inferior* of a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is defined as

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n := \sup_n \left(\inf_{m\geq n} x_m\right) \in \mathbb{R}^*.$$

The *limit superior* of  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is defined as

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**4**0

# Remark Since the sequences $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ defined as

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Hence.

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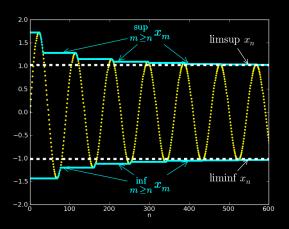
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Image from Wikipedia.

- a)  $\limsup x_n = x \in \mathbb{R}$  iff for each  $\epsilon > 0$ .
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Variations

$$X_n = (-1)^n \frac{n+5}{n}$$

$$x_n = 3 + \sin(n\pi) \frac{n^2}{n^2 + 8}$$

Similar examples

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**E.g.2** Consider the sequence  $\{2, 1, 0, 2, 2, \frac{1}{2}, 2, 3, \frac{2}{3}, 2, 4, \frac{3}{4}, \cdots\}$ , that is,

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It has three cluster points:  $1, 2, \infty$ , among which

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E.g.3 Let  $\{r_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be an enumeration of the rational numbers. By the density of the rational numbers, every extended real number is a cluster point of the sequence  $\{r_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , amount which

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It remains to prove that x is the largest cluster point. The case when  $x = \pm \infty$  is left for the motivated students.

Now assume that  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Only finite many terms exceed x + 1, hence,  $\infty$  is not a cluster point.

Let  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t. x < y. Set  $\epsilon = (y - x)/2$ .

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### **Properties**

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2. A sequence  $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of real numbers **converges** in  $\mathbb{R}^*$  if and only if it has exactly one cluster point. In such cases, the limit of the sequence is the unique cluster point. In other words,

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n = \limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n = c \iff \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = c$$

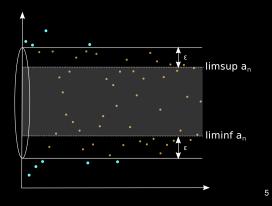
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E.g. For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , the interval

$$\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n - \epsilon, \lim\sup_{n\to\infty} x_n + \epsilon\right)$$

contains all but finitely many numbers in  $\{x_n\}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Image is from Wikipedia.

E.g. (Continued) Similarly, if

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n < \limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n,$$

then for all  $\epsilon$  with

$$0 < \epsilon < \frac{1}{2} \left( \limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n - \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n \right),\,$$

infinitely many numbers in  $\{x_n\}$  fall outside of the interval

$$\left(\liminf_{n\to\infty} x_n + \epsilon, \limsup_{n\to\infty} x_n - \epsilon\right).$$

## Cauchy criterion

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A sequence of real numbers converges in  $\mathbb{R}^*$  if and only if it has exactly one cluster point.

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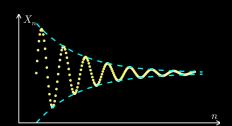
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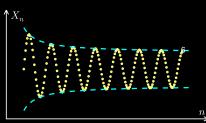
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### **Cauchy Criterion**





<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Images from Wikipedia.

Def.' A sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *Cauchy* iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall m, n \geq N \ \{|x_n - x_m| < \epsilon\}.$$

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- (i) The consecutive terms become arbitrarily close to each other as  $n \to \infty$ .
- (ii) The sequence is not Cauchy.

Sol. (i) This is because

$$a_{n+1} - a_n = \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}} < \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}} \to 0$$
, as  $n \to \infty$ .

(ii) To show  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is not Cauchy, let's negate the statement as follows:

$$\neg (\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall m, n \ge N \ \{|x_n - x_m| < \epsilon\}$$

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Indeed, let's choose m = N and n = 4N

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Γ

HW Ex. 2.15, 2.17 (a), 2.18, 2.19, 2.22, 2.29.

# Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

- § 3.1 Real number system
- § 3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

# Open sets

**Def.** A subset  $O \subset \mathbb{R}$  is said to be an *open set* if for each  $x \in O$ , there exits an r > 0 such that  $(x - r, x + r) \subset O$ .

(0,1] is not an open set.

Let K be a nonempty countable subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then K cannot be an open set. For example,  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{G}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}$  are not open sets.

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- 2. If A and B are open sets, so is  $A \cap B$ . (finite intersection)
- 3. If  $\{O_i\}_{i\in I}$  is a collection of open sets, then  $\bigcup_{i\in I} O_i$  is open.

Proof. Exercise.

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Def. For  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$  with a < b, (a, b) is an open set, which is called an *open interval*.

Thm. Each open set O is a countable union of disjoint open intervals.

Moreover, the representation is unique in the sense that if  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $\mathcal{D}$  are two pairwise disjoint collections of open intervals whose union is  $\mathcal{O}$ , then  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{D}$ .

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Def. Let  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ . A real number x is called a *limit point* of E if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $y \in E$  such that  $|y - x| < \epsilon$ .

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# E.g. $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R}$ and $\overline{\emptyset} = \emptyset$ .

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that a < b. Then

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If A is a finite subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\overline{A} = A$ .

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Def. A subset  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  is said to be a *closed set* if  $\overline{F} = F$ , i.e, F contains all its limit points.

Intervals such as [a, b],  $[a, \infty)$ ,  $(-\infty, b]$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  are closed sets. They are called *closed intervals*.

 $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$  are closed sets.

The sets of rationals  $\mathbb{Q}$  and irrationals  $\mathbb{Q}^c$  are neither open nor close.

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# Thm. A set is open if and only if its complement is closed.

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- 1.  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\emptyset$  are closed sets.
- 2. If A and B are closed sets, so is  $A \cup B$ . (finite union)
- 3. If  $\{F_i\}_{i\in I}$  is a collection of closed sets, then  $\bigcap_{i\in I}F_i$  is closed. (arbitrary intersection)

Let 
$$Q_n = \left[-1 + \frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n}\right]$$
. Then  $\bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} Q_n = (0, 1)$  is an open set.

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# Relative open and closed sets

#### Def. Let $G \subset D \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

a) G is said to be open in D if for each  $x \in G$ , there is an r > 0 such that

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$\mathbb{N}$	$A\subset\mathbb{N}$		

E.g.

D	G	Is $G$ open in $\mathbb R$	Is $G$ open in $D$
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Thm. Let  $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ . A set  $G \subset D$  is open in D if and only if there is an open set O of  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $G = D \cap O$ .

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 $\mbox{HW Ex. } 2.38, \, 2.46, \, 2.47, \, 2.49, \, 2.52 \mbox{ on p. } 63-64.$ 

# Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

- § 3.1 Real number system
- § 3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

Def. A *real-valued function* is a function whose range is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ , we say that f is a *real-valued function on*  $\Omega$ .

### Algebraic operations

Let f, g be real-valued functions on  $\Omega$  and let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then for all  $x \in \Omega$ ,

$$(f+g)(x) := f(x) + g(x)$$
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## Continuous functions

Def. Let  $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x_0 \in D$ . We say that f is continuous at  $x_0$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x \in D$  and  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ .

We say that f is **continuous on** D if it is continuous on every point of D. We use C(D) to denote the collection of all continuous functions on D.

If f is not continuous at  $x_0$ , then we say that f is **discontinuous at**  $x_0$  or that  $x_0$  is a **point of discontinuity** of f.

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$$f \in C(D)$$

$$\updownarrow$$

$$\forall x \in D \text{ } f \text{ is continuous at } x$$

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- a) Let  $D = (0, \infty)$  and define f(x) = 1/x. Then f is continuous function on D.
- by the observation of the continuous function except at 0.
- Let D = R and define f(x) = [x]. Then f is continuous except at points of Z.
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Corr. A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous if and only if  $f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$  is open (in  $\mathbb{R}$ ) whenever  $\mathcal{O}$  is open (in  $\mathbb{R}$ )

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### Proof. "⇒"

Suppose that f is continuous on D. Let O be an arbitrary open set in  $\mathbb{R}$ . We need to show that  $f^{-1}(O)$  is open in D.

Hence, we need to show that for any  $x_0 \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ , one can find  $\delta > 0$  such that  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta) \cap \mathcal{D} \subset f^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$ .

Notice that

$$x_0 \in f^{-1}(O) \iff f(x_0) \in O$$

Since O is open, one can find r > 0 such that r-neighborhood of  $f(x_0)$  is in O.

By the continuity of f at  $x_0$ 

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \forall x \in D \ |x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$$

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Because

$$f(x) \in (f(x_0) - r, f(x_0) + r) \subset C$$

we have that

$$f(x) \in O$$

or equivalently,

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Hence, if  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta) \cap D$ , then  $x \in f^{-1}(O)$ , i.e.,

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Suppose  $f^{-1}(O)$  is open in D for each open set  $O \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

For each  $x_0 \in D$ , we need to prove f is continuous at  $x_0$ , namely,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \forall x \in D \ |x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$$

Now fix arbitrary  $x_0 \in D$  and arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$ 

Let  $O = (f(x_0) - \epsilon, f(x_0) + \epsilon)$ , which is an open interval.

By the assumption,  $f^{-1}(O)$  is open in D. Hence, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that

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In other words,

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Now fix arbitrary  $x_0 \in D$  and arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Let  $O = (f(x_0) - \epsilon, f(x_0) + \epsilon)$ , which is an open interval.

By the assumption,  $f^{-1}(O)$  is open in D. Hence, there is  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta) \cap D \subset f^{-1}(O)$$

In other words,

$$\forall x \in D\left(|x-x_0| < \delta \to x \in f^{-1}(O)\right).$$

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### Pointwise limits

- Def. Let  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of real-valued functions on a set  $\Omega$ , that is,  $f_n: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then we say that  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges pointwise on  $\Omega$  if for each  $x \in \Omega$ , the sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of real numbers converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ .
  - If  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges pointwise in  $\Omega$ , then we define
    - $f:\Omega \to \mathbb{R}$
    - by:
    - $f(x) := \lim_{n \to \infty} t_n(x),$
    - which is called the *pointwise limit of the sequence of functions*  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  In this case, we also call the sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges
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- a) Let  $f_n: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $f_n(x) = (1 + x/n)^n$ . Then  $f_n \to f$  pointwise on  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $f(x) = e^x$ .
- b) Let  $f_n: D \to \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $f_n(x) = x^n$ . (i) If D = [0, 1] then  $f_n \to f$  pointwise  $f_n(x) = f_n(x)$ .

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1. \end{cases}$$

- (ii) If D = [-1, 1],  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  fails to converge pointwise because the sequence  $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , does not converge.
- (iii) If D = [0,3], {f<sub>0</sub>}<sup>∞</sup><sub>n=1</sub> fails to converge pointwise because the sequence {3<sup>n</sup>}<sup>∞</sup><sub>n=1</sub> does not converge in ℝ.

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- b) Let  $t_n:D o\mathbb{R}$  defined as  $t_n(x)=x^n$ .
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Def. Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a collection of real-valued functions on  $\Omega$ . We say that  $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under pointwise limits if whenever  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset \mathcal{F}$  and  $f_n \to f$  pointwise on  $\Omega$ , then  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ .

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Def. Let  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of real-valued functions on a set  $\Omega$ , that is,  $f_n: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then we say that  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges uniformly to the real-valued function f on  $\Omega$ , if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that whenever  $n \geq N$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in \Omega$ . We write  $f_n \to f$  uniformly.

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Let  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of real-valued functions on a set  $\Omega$ .

 $f_n \to f$  pointwise on  $\Omega$  iff

$$\forall x \in \Omega \left[ \forall \epsilon > 0 \,\exists N \in \mathbb{N} \,\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \right] \left( n \geq N \to |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \right)$$

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### Thm. C(D) is closed under uniform limits.

More precisely, let  $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose that  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset G(D)$  and that  $f_n \to f$  uniformly. Then  $f \in G(D)$ .

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**Proof.** In order to show  $f \in C(D)$ , we need to show that

$$\forall x_0 \in D \, \forall \epsilon > 0 \, \exists \delta > 0 \, \bigg( |x - x_0| < \delta \to |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon \bigg).$$

Let's fix arbitrary  $x_0 \in D$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ 

 $f_n \to f$  uniformly implies that for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_N(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3$$
 for all  $x \in D$ 

Because  $f_N$  is continuous on D, and hence, at  $x_0$ , we can find  $\delta > 0$  such that

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Hence, whenever  $x \in D$  and  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ ,

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \le |f(x) - f(x_0)| + |f(x) - f(x_0)| + |f(x) - f(x_0)|$$

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$$\forall x_0 \in D \, \forall \epsilon > 0 \, \exists \delta > 0 \, \bigg( |x - x_0| < \delta \to |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon \bigg).$$

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 $f_n \to f$  uniformly implies that for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_N(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3$$
 for all  $x \in D$ .

Because  $f_N$  is continuous on D, and hence, at  $x_0$ , we can find  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f_N(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3$$
 whenever  $x \in D$  and  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ .

Hence, whenever  $x \in D$  and  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ .

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \le |f(x) - f(x_0)| + |f(x) - f(x_0)| + |f(x) - f(x_0)|$$

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Therefore,  $f \in C(D)$ .

- a) Let  $f_n : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $f_n(x) = (1 + x/n)^n$ . Then  $f_n \to f$  pointwise on  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $f(x) = e^x$ . Does  $f_n \to f$  uniformly?
- b) Let  $f_n: D \to \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $f_n(x) = x^n$  with D = [0,1]. Then  $f_n \to f$  pointwise with

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1. \end{cases}$$

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- d) Let  $D \subset \mathbb{R}$  and define  $f_n(x) = x/n$ . Then  $f_n \to 0$  pointwise on D However,
  - (i) If D = [a, b] with  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , then the converge is uniform
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Finally, the collection C(D) of real-valued continuous functions is closed under:  $+, \cdot$ , scalar multiplication, and uniform convergence.

HW Ex. 3.59, 2.60, 2.61, 2.66, on p. 71 - 73.

# Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

- § 3.1 Real number system
- § 3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

- ► Left (right)-continuity
- ► Lower (upper) semi-continuity
- ▶ Uniform continuity

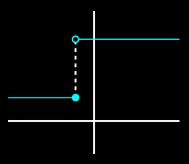
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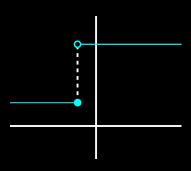
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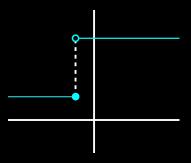
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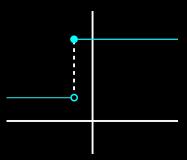
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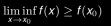
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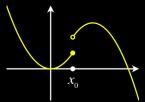




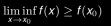
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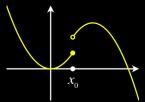
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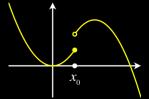
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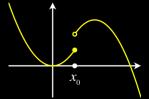
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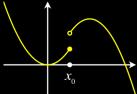
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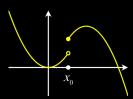
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#### (Global) Uniform Continuity

Def. Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. Let I be an interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then f is uniformly continuous over I if for every real number  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exits a real number  $\delta > 0$  such that for every  $x, y \in I$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$ , then  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ .

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \forall x \in I \ \forall y \in I \ \{|x - y| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon\}$$

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$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \forall x \in I \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \{|x - x_0| < \delta \to |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon\}$$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \,\exists \delta > 0 \,\forall x \in I \,\forall y \in I \,\{|x - y| < \delta \to |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon \}$$

$$\Pi_3\text{-form}$$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \ \forall x \in I \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \{|x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon\}$$
 
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### **Properties**

- Prop. 1 Every uniformly continuous function is continuous, but the converse does not hold.
  - Ex.  $f(x) = x^3$  is a continuous functions on  $I = \mathbb{R}$ . Show that f is no uniformly continuous on  $I = \mathbb{R}$ .
  - Sol. In order to show f is not uniformly continuous on I, we need to show

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Sol. (Continued) In other words, we need to find  $\epsilon > 0$  such that no matter how small  $\delta > 0$  is chosen, we can always find out  $x, y \in I$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$  and  $|f(x) - f(y)| \ge \epsilon$ .

Let's choose  $\epsilon = 1$ . For any  $\delta > 0$ , we can choose

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}$$
 and  $y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}} + \frac{\delta}{3}$ 

Then we see that

$$|x - y| \le \delta$$

and

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = |x^3 - y^3|$$

$$= |x - y| \times |x^2 + xy + y^2|$$

$$\ge \frac{\delta}{3} \times \left(\frac{1}{(\sqrt{\delta})^2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}} + \frac{1}{(\sqrt{\delta})^2}\right)$$

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Prop. 2 If I is compact <sup>7</sup> set such as I = [a, b], then

f is continuous at all points in  $I \iff f$  is uniformly continuous on I.

E.g. f(x) = 1/x is not uniformly continuous on (0, 1).

 $f(x) = x^3$  is uniformly continuous on [-1,1] but neither on  $\mathbb{R}$  nor or  $[0,\infty)$ .

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### Why does it matter at all?

**Answer:** Uniformly continuous functions map Cauchy sequences to Cauchy sequences.

Thm Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a uniformly continuous function and let  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a Cauchy sequence. Then  $\{f(x_n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is also a Cauchy sequence.

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Some part of subsection is taken from Chapter 1 Section 4 of

P. Billingsley, Probability and Measure, Wiley, 1995.

Def. For a sequence  $A_1, A_2 \cdots$  of sets, define the *limits superior and inferior* of the sequence  $\{A_n\}$  as

$$\limsup_n A_n := \bigcap_{n=1}^\infty \bigcup_{k=n}^\infty A_k, \quad \text{and} \quad \liminf_n A_n := \bigcup_{n=1}^\infty \bigcap_{k=n}^\infty A_k.$$

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**Remark** Both  $\limsup_n A_n$  and  $\liminf_n A_n$  are sets.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{set} & \text{logic} \\ \hline \bigcap & \forall \\ \bigcup & \exists \end{array}$$

$$\omega \in \limsup_{n} A_{n} \iff \omega \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_{k}$$

$$\iff (\forall n \geq 1) (\exists k \geq n) \ \omega \in A_{k}$$

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Def. If both  $\limsup_n A_n$  and  $\liminf_n A_n$  exist and are equal, then the *limit set* of the sequence  $\{A_n\}$  is defined to be

$$\lim_n A_n := \lim \sup_n A_n = \lim \inf_n A_n,$$

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# **Properties**

(i) By De Morgan's law,

$$\lim\inf_{n}A_{n}=\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty}\bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty}A_{k}=\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty}A_{k}^{c}\right)^{c}=\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty}A_{k}^{c}\right)^{c}=\left(\limsup_{n}A_{n}^{c}\right)^{c}$$

# **Properties**

(ii) Monotone increasing and decreasing sets:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
\bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k \\
| \cap A_k
\end{pmatrix} \uparrow \begin{pmatrix}
\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k \\
| \cap A_n
\end{pmatrix} = \lim \inf_{n} A_n \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_k = \lim \inf_{n} A_n$$

$$| \cap A_n$$

$$|$$

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# Interpretation Under a Probability Space

Suppose that  $\{A_n\}$  are events from a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$ 

(i) The above Property (ii) can be translated to a probability statement:

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_{k}\right) \uparrow \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} A_{k}\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\liminf_{n} A_{n}\right)$$

$$\downarrow \land \qquad \liminf_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_{n})$$

$$\downarrow \land \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup \mathbb{P}(A_{n})$$

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$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_{k}\right) \downarrow \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} A_{k}\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n} A_{n}\right)$$

# (ii) Borel Cantelli lemma

$$\sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n) \text{ converges} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 0.$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\geq \mathbb{P}\left(A_n^c \text{ all but finitely many}\right) = 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(\left\{A_n^c \text{ all but finitely many}\right\}^c\right) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(A_n \text{ i.o.}\right) \\ &= 1 - \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k\right) \\ &\geq 1 - \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_k) \\ &= 1 - 0 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

# (ii) Borel Cantelli lemma

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$$\begin{split} 1 \geq \mathbb{P}\left(A_n^c \text{ all but finitely many}\right) &= 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(\left\{A_n^c \text{ all but finitely many}\right\}^c\right) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(A_n \text{ i.o.}\right) \\ &= 1 - \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k\right) \\ &\geq 1 - \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k = n}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_k) \\ &= 1 - 0 = 1. \end{split}$$

# **Exercise**

(i) Let 
$$A_n = \left(-\frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n}\right]$$
:

$$A_{1} = (-1,0]$$

$$A_{2} = \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$$

$$A_{3} = \left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right]$$

$$A_{4} = \left(-\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}\right]$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$A_{100} = \left(-\frac{1}{100}, \frac{99}{100}\right]$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

Show that

$$\lim \sup_{n} A_{n} = \lim \inf_{n} A_{n} = [0, 1).$$

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Show that

$$\lim \sup_{n} A_{n} = \lim \inf_{n} A_{n} = [0, 1).$$

$$\lim\inf_n A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{k}, \frac{k-1}{k} \right] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ 0, \frac{n-1}{n} \right] = [0, 1)$$

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Finally

$$\lim\sup_n A_n = \lim\inf_n A_n = [0,1).$$

$$\lim\inf_{n} A_{n} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{k}, \frac{k-1}{k} \right] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ 0, \frac{n-1}{n} \right] = [0, 1)$$

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Finally,

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# **Exercise**

(ii) Let 
$$A_n = \left(\frac{(-1)^n}{n}, 1 - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right]$$
:

Show that  $\lim_{n} A_n$  doesn't exist by demonstrating that

$$\lim\inf_n A_n = (0,1) \subset [0,1] = \lim\sup_n A_n$$

# **Exercise**

(ii) Let 
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$$A_{3} = \left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{4}{3}\right] \qquad A_{4} = \left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}\right]$$

$$A_{5} = \left(-\frac{1}{5}, \frac{6}{5}\right] \qquad A_{6} = \left(\frac{1}{6}, \frac{5}{6}\right]$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$A_{99} = \left(-\frac{1}{99}, \frac{100}{99}\right] \qquad A_{100} = \left(\frac{1}{100}, \frac{99}{100}\right]$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

Show that  $\lim_{n} A_{n}$  doesn't exist by demonstrating that

$$\lim\inf_n A_n = (0,1) \subset [0,1] = \lim\sup_n A_n.$$

$$\lim \inf_{n} A_{n} 
= \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k}, \frac{k - (-1)^{k}}{k} \right] 
= \left\{ \bigcup_{n=1,3,5}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k}, \frac{k - (-1)^{k}}{k} \right] \right\} \bigcup \left\{ \bigcup_{n=2,4,6}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k}, \frac{k - (-1)^{k}}{k} \right] \right\} 
= \left\{ \bigcup_{n=1,3,5}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{n}{n+1} \right] \right\} \bigcup \left\{ \bigcup_{n=2,4,6}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{n}, \frac{n-1}{n} \right] \right\} 
= (0,1) \cup (0,1) 
= (0,1)$$

Sol. (continued) Similarly,

$$\begin{split} & \limsup_{n} A_{n} \\ &= \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k}, \frac{k - (-1)^{k}}{k} \right] \\ &= \left\{ \bigcap_{n=1,3,5}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k}, \frac{k - (-1)^{k}}{k} \right] \right\} \bigcap \left\{ \bigcap_{n=2,4,6}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k}, \frac{k - (-1)^{k}}{k} \right] \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \bigcap_{n=1,3,5}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{n}, \frac{n+1}{n} \right] \right\} \bigcap \left\{ \bigcap_{n=2,4,6}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{n+2}{n+1} \right] \right\} \\ &= [0,1] \cap [0,1] \\ &= [0,1] \end{split}$$

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HW (Ex. 1.8 (c) on p. 11 of McDonald and Weiss) Let

$$A_n = \begin{cases} \left[0, 1 + \frac{1}{n}\right] & \text{if } n \text{ is an even integer,} \\ \left[-1 - \frac{1}{n}, 0\right] & \text{if } n \text{ is an odd integer.} \end{cases}$$

Determine  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} A_n$  and  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} A_n$ .

Solution:

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} A_n = \{0\} \subset [0,1] = \limsup_{n \to \infty} A_n$$

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# Chapter 3. Real Number System and Calculus

- § 3.1 Real number system
- § 3.2 Sequences of real numbers
- § 3.3 Open and closed sets
- § 3.4 Real-valued functions
- § 3.5 Various other types of continuity
- § 3.6 Liminf and limsup of sets
- § 3.7 Some techniques in calculus

- 1.  $\int_0^1 \tan^{-1}(x) dx$
- 2.  $\int_0^x t^2 e^t dt$
- 3.  $\int e^x \sin(x) dx$
- 4.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 1)e^{-x} dx$
- 5.  $\int_{4}^{9} \frac{\ln y}{y} dy$
- 6.  $\int_{1}^{3} r^{3} \ln r dr$
- 7.  $\int_{1}^{2} (\ln x)^{2} dx$
- 8.  $\int_{\sqrt{\pi/2}}^{\sqrt{\pi}} \theta^3 \cos(\theta^2) d\theta$
- 9.  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n+1}(x) dx = \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots 2n}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdots (2n+1)}$
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# Taylor expansions

- 1. *e*<sup>x</sup>
- $2. \sin(x)$
- 3.  $e^{x^2}$

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