

# Analysis 1 - Course Review

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# 1. Preliminaries

We first review some basic concepts, formally.

## Definition 1.1 (Sets)

A **set** is a collection of objects, usually satisfying some common properties. These objects are referred to as **members** (or **elements**) of the set.

We write  $x \in A$  if  $x$  is a member of  $A$  and  $x \notin A$  otherwise.

## Example 1.1

Some familiar sets:

- (a) The emptyset  $\emptyset$ , which has no element;
- (b) The singleton  $\{x\}$ , which has exactly one element;
- (c)  $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ , or any interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

A set with at least one element is called **nonempty**.

# 1. Preliminaries

## Definition 1.2 (Set Operations)

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be any two sets.

- (a) We say that  $A$  is a **subset** of  $B$ , in symbol  $A \subset B$  or  $B \supset A$ , if each member of  $A$  is also a member of  $B$ . Otherwise, we write  $A \not\subset B$ ;
- (b) We say that  $A$  **equals**  $B$ , i.e.  $A = B$ , if  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ ;
- (c) We define the **union**, **intersection** and **difference** of  $A$  and  $B$  as

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\},$$

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\},$$

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

If  $A \subset B$ , we sometimes refer to  $B \setminus A$  as the **complement** of  $A$ , i.e.  $A^c$ .

# 1. Preliminaries

## Definition 1.3 (Functions & Sequences)

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be nonempty sets.

- (a) A **mapping**  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a rule assigning to each member  $x$  in  $X$  a unique member  $f(x)$  in  $Y$ ;
- (b) If  $Y = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $f$  is called a **function**;
- (c) If  $X = \mathbb{N}$ , then  $f$  is called a **sequence**.

- $X$  and  $Y$  are called the **domain** and **range** of  $f$ ;
- For a function  $f$ , we usually concern on cases where  $X$  is an interval;
- A sequence has a representation  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , where  $x_n = f(n)$ .

**Exercise.** Try to provide examples of functions & sequences by yourself.

## 2. Supremum & Infimum

### Definition 2.1

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}$  be nonempty and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  be arbitrary.

- (a)  $\alpha$  is called a **lower bound** of  $X$  if all members of  $X$  are not smaller than  $\alpha$ .  $X$  is called **bounded below** if it has a lower bound;
- (b)  $\alpha$  is called an **upper bound** of  $X$  if all members of  $X$  are not greater than  $\alpha$ .  $X$  is called **bounded above** if it has an upper bound;
- (c)  $X$  is called **bounded** if it is bounded above and bounded below.

### Example 2.1

- (a) 2 and 3 are lower bounds of  $[4, \infty)$ , so  $[4, \infty)$  is bounded below;
- (b) 5 is an upper bound of  $(0, 1)$ , so  $(0, 1)$  is bounded above;
- (c)  $[-3, 3]$  is bounded but  $(7, \infty)$  and  $\mathbb{N}$  are not bounded.

## 2. Supremum & Infimum

### Definition 2.2 (Supremum & Infimum)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}$  be nonempty and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  be arbitrary.

- (a) If  $\alpha$  is an upper bound of  $X$ , then we call  $\alpha$  the **supremum** of  $X$ , in symbol  $\alpha = \sup X$  if it is the smallest upper bound;
- (b) If  $\alpha$  is a lower bound of  $X$ , then we call  $\alpha$  the **infimum** of  $X$ , in symbol  $\alpha = \inf X$  if it is the largest lower bound.

A bounded below (above) set must have an infimum (a supremum).

### Example 2.2

$$\inf[0, 1] = \sup(-\infty, 0) = \inf \left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} = \sup \{ -|z| : z \in \mathbb{Z} \} = 0.$$

**Question.** How to determine supremum/infimum of an arbitrary set?

## 2. Supremum & Infimum

### Theorem 2.1

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}$  be nonempty and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  be arbitrary.

(a) If  $\alpha$  is an upper bound of  $X$ , then  $\alpha$  is the supremum of  $X$  if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists x \in X : x > \alpha - \epsilon.$$

(b) If  $\alpha$  is a lower bound of  $X$ , then  $\alpha$  is the infimum of  $X$  if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists x \in X : x < \alpha + \epsilon.$$

In other words,

- the supremum subtracting  $\epsilon$  is no longer an upper bound;
- the infimum adding  $\epsilon$  is no longer a lower bound.

### Example 2.3

Any  $\epsilon > 0$  is not a lower bound of  $\left\{ \frac{1}{n} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$ .



### 3. Convergent of Sequences

#### Definition 3.1

Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ . We say that  $\{x_n\}$  is

- (a) **increasing** (**decreasing**) if  $x_n \leq x_{n+1}$  ( $x_n \geq x_{n+1}$ ) holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ;
- (b) **strictly increasing** if  $x_n < x_{n+1}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ;
- (c) **strictly decreasing** if  $x_n > x_{n+1}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ;
- (d) **bounded below** (**above**) if so is the set  $\{x_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

#### Definition 3.2 (Convergent)

We say that  $\{x_n\}$  **converges** to  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , denoted  $x_n \rightarrow \alpha$  or  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \alpha$ , if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : |x_n - \alpha| < \epsilon, \forall n > N.$$

$\alpha$ , if exists, is called the **limit** of the **convergent** sequence  $\{x_n\}$ .

A sequence is called **divergent** if it is not convergent.

### 3. Convergent of Sequences

**Question.** How to verify convergence of an arbitrary sequence?

#### Theorem 3.1 (Monotone Convergence Theorem)

- (a) An increasing, bounded above sequence is convergent;
- (b) A decreasing, bounded below sequence is convergent.

#### Theorem 3.2 (Squeeze Theorem)

Let  $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}, \{z_n\}$  be sequences in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $x_n \leq y_n \leq y_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and both  $\{x_n\}, \{z_n\}$  converges to  $\alpha$ , then so is  $\{y_n\}$ .

#### Example 3.1

Determine convergence and limits (if exist) of the following sequences:

- (a)  $a_n = (-1)^n/n$ ,  $b_n = n/2^n$ ,  $c_n = 0$ ,  $d_n = \ln(n+1)$ ;
- (b)  $e_1 = 1$  and  $e_{n+1} = n \cdot e_n/(n+1)$ .

### 3. Convergent of Sequences

#### Theorem 3.3

Assume that  $x_n \rightarrow \alpha$ .

- (a) If  $\beta$  is another limit of  $x_n$ , then  $\beta = \alpha$ ;
- (b) Every subsequence of  $\{x_n\}$  also converges to  $\alpha$ .

**Example.** Why the sequence  $a_n = (-1)^n$  diverges?

#### Theorem 3.4

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}$  be nonempty and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $\exists \{x_n\} \subset X : x_n \rightarrow \alpha$ . Then:

- (a) If  $\alpha$  is an upper bound of  $X$ , then  $\alpha$  is the supremum of  $X$ ;
- (b) If  $\alpha$  is a lower bound of  $X$ , then  $\alpha$  is the infimum of  $X$ .

#### Example 3.2

Determine  $\inf X$  and  $\sup X$ , where  $X = \mathbb{Q}^c \cap [0, 1]$ .

## 4. Limits - Continuity - Differentiability of Functions

In the remaining sections, assume  $f, g : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x_0 \in \mathcal{I}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

### Definition 4.1 (Limits & Continuity of Functions)

(a)  $\alpha$  is called the **left limit** of  $f$  at  $x_0$ , in symbol  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \alpha$ , if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 : x \in \mathcal{I} \cap (x_0 - \delta, x_0) \text{ implies } |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon;$$

(b)  $\alpha$  is called the **right limit** of  $f$  at  $x_0$ , in symbol  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = \alpha$ , if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 : x \in \mathcal{I} \cap (x_0, x_0 + \delta) \text{ implies } |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon;$$

(c)  $\alpha$  is called the **limit** of  $f$  at  $x_0$ , in symbol  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \alpha$ , if it is both the left limit and right limit of  $f$  at  $x_0$ . We say that  $f$  is **continuous** at  $x_0$ ;

(d) We say that  $f$  is **continuous** on  $\mathcal{I}$  if  $f$  is continuous at every point in  $\mathcal{I}$ .

Note that if  $\alpha$  is the limit of  $f$  at  $x_0$ , then  $f(x_0) = \alpha$ .

## 4. Limits - Continuity - Differentiability of Functions

### Definition 4.2 (Derivative & Differentiability)

We say that  $\alpha$  is the **derivative** of  $f$  at  $x_0$ , in symbol  $f'(x_0) = \alpha$ , if

$$\alpha = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}.$$

We say that  $f$  is **differentiable** if  $f'$  exists and is continuous on  $\mathcal{I}$ .

**Note.**  $f'(x_0)$  is the slope of the tangent line to the graph of  $f$  at  $x_0$ .

### Derivative Rules

- (a)  $(f(g(x)))' = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$ ;
- (b)  $(u \pm v)' = u' \pm v'$ ,  $(u/v)' = (u'v - v'u)/v^2$ ;
- (c) Derivative of familiar functions...

## 5. Applications of Derivatives

### Theorem 5.1 (L'Hospital Rule)

Assume  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable on  $\mathcal{I}$  except at  $x_0$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

provided the latter limit exists and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) \in \{0, \pm\infty\}$ .

We say in such cases that the former limit is in **indeterminate form**.

### Example 5.1

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x)}{\frac{d}{dx}(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = \cos 0 = 1.$$

## 5. Applications of Derivatives

### Definition 5.1

We say that  $x_0$  is:

- (a) a **maximum** of  $f$  on  $\mathcal{I}$  if  $f(x_0) = \sup \{f(x) : x \in \mathcal{I}\}$ ;
- (b) a **minimum** of  $f$  on  $\mathcal{I}$  if  $f(x_0) = \inf \{f(x) : x \in \mathcal{I}\}$ ;
- (c) an **extremum** of  $f$  if it is either a maximum or a minimum;
- (d) a **stationary point** of  $f$  if  $f'(x_0) = 0$ .

### Theorem 5.2 (Extreme Value Theorem)

If  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathcal{I}$ , then  $f$  has a minimum and a maximum.

### Theorem 5.3

If  $f$  is differentiable, then every extremum is a stationary point.

## 5. Applications of Derivatives

### Theorem 5.4 (Intermediate Value Theorem)

If  $\mathcal{I} = [a, b]$  and  $f$  is continuous, then  $\exists c, d \in \mathbb{R} : f(\mathcal{I}) = [c, d]$ .

### Theorem 5.5 (Mean Value Theorem)

If  $\mathcal{I} = [a, b]$  and  $f$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then

$$\exists c \in (a, b) : f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

### Corollary 5.6 (Rolle's Theorem)

If  $\mathcal{I} = [a, b]$ ,  $f$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and  $f(a) = f(b)$ , then

$$\exists c \in (a, b) : f'(c) = 0.$$