

# Final Examination in Theory and Functions of Real Variable

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**Theorem 1.1.8** *If a nonempty set  $S$  of real numbers is bounded below, then  $\inf S$  is the unique real number  $\alpha$  such that*

(a)  $x \geq \alpha$  for all  $x$  in  $S$ ;

(b) if  $\epsilon > 0$  (no matter how small), there is an  $x_0$  in  $S$  such that  $x_0 < \alpha + \epsilon$ .

**Proof** The set  $T = \{-x \mid x \in S\}$  is bounded above if  $S$  is bounded below. If  $S$  is bounded below then  $T$  is bounded above, so  $T$  has a unique supremum, by Theorem 1.1.3. Denote  $\sup T = -\alpha$ . Then (i) if  $x \in S$  then  $-x \in T$ , so  $-x \leq -\alpha$ , so  $x \geq \alpha$ ; (ii) if  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an  $x_0 \in T$  such that  $-x_0 < -\alpha - \epsilon$ , so  $x_0 > \alpha + \epsilon$ . Therefore, there is an  $\alpha$  with properties (i) and (ii). If (i) and (ii) hold with  $\alpha$  replaced by  $\alpha_1$  then  $-\alpha_1$  is a supremum of  $T$ , so  $\alpha_1 = \alpha$  by the uniqueness assertion of Theorem 1.1.3. ■

## Theorem 1.3.3

(a) *The union of open sets is open.*

(b) *The intersection of closed sets is closed.*

*These statements apply to arbitrary collections, finite or infinite, of open and closed sets.*

**Additional Proof** In (b), showing that  $T^c = \cup\{F^c \mid F \in \mathcal{F}\}$  where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a collection of closed sets and  $T = \cap\{F \mid F \in \mathcal{F}\}$  we have  $x \in T^c \Leftrightarrow x \in F^c$  for some  $F$  in  $\mathcal{F} \Leftrightarrow x \in \cup\{F^c \mid F \in \mathcal{F}\}$ . ■

**Theorem 1.3.7 (Heine-Borel Theorem)** *If  $\mathcal{H}$  is an open covering of a closed and bounded subset  $S$  of the real line, then  $S$  has an open covering  $\widetilde{\mathcal{H}}$  consisting of finitely many open sets belonging to  $\mathcal{H}$ .*

**Additional Proof** If  $\epsilon > 0$ , then  $S \cap (\beta - \epsilon, \beta) \neq \emptyset$  and  $S^c \cap (\beta, \beta + \epsilon) \neq \emptyset$ . Hence, if  $S$  is bounded above and  $\beta = \sup S$ , then  $\beta \in \partial S$ . Analogously, If  $S$  is bounded below and  $\alpha = \inf S$  then  $\alpha \in \partial S$ . Therefore, the  $\inf S$  and  $\sup S$  are in  $\partial S$ .

(a) If  $x_0 \in \partial S$  and  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $x_0$  then, (A)  $U \cap S \neq \emptyset$ . If  $x_0$  is not a limit point of  $S$ , then (B)  $U \cap (S - \{x_0\}) = \emptyset$  for some  $U$ . Now (A) and (B) imply that  $x_0 \in S$ , and (B) implies that  $x_0$  is an isolated point of  $S$ . Therefore, a boundary point of a set  $S$  is either a

limit point or an isolated point of  $S$ . (b) If  $S$  is closed, Corollary 1.3.6 and (a) imply that  $\partial S \subset S$ ; hence,  $\overline{S} = S \cup \partial S = S$ . If  $\overline{S} = S$ , then  $\partial S \subset S$ . Now, if  $x_0$  is a limit point of  $S$ , then every neighborhood of  $x_0$  contains points of  $S$  other than  $x_0$ . If every neighborhood of  $x_0$  also contains a point in  $S^c$ , then  $x_0 \in \partial S$ . If there is a neighborhood of  $x_0$  that does not contain a point in  $S^c$ , then  $x_0 \in S^0$ . These are the only possibilities. Therefore, a limit point of a set  $S$  is either an interior point or a boundary point of  $S$ . By this and Corollary 1.3.6 and since  $S^0 \subset S$ ,  $S$  is closed. Hence,  $\partial S \subset S$  if  $S$  is closed.

Therefore, If  $S$  is closed and bounded, then  $\inf S$  and  $\sup S$  are both in  $S$ . ■

**Theorem 2.1.6** *A function  $f$  has a limit at  $x_0$  if and only if it has left- and right-hand limits at  $x_0$ , and they are equal. More specifically,*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$$

*if and only if*

$$f(x_0+) = f(x_0-) = L.$$

**Proof** It follows immediately from Definition 2.1.2 and Definition 2.1.5 that the existence of the limit implies the existence of the left- and right-hand limits with the same value. Conversely, if both left- and right-hand limits exist and are equal to  $L$ , then given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exist  $\delta_1 > 0$  and  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $x_0 - \delta_1 < x < x_0$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ ,  $x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta_2$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Choosing  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2) > 0$ , we get that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , which show that the limit exist. ■

**Theorem 2.1.9** *Suppose that  $f$  is monotonic on  $(a, b)$  and define*

$$\alpha = \inf_{a < x < b} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \sup_{a < x < b} f(x).$$

(a) *If  $f$  is nondecreasing, then  $f(a+) = \alpha$  and  $f(b-) = \beta$ .*

(b) *If  $f$  is nonincreasing, then  $f(a+) = \beta$  and  $f(b-) = \alpha$ .*

*(Here  $a+ = -\infty$  if  $a = -\infty$  and  $b- = \infty$  if  $b = \infty$ .)*

(c) *If  $a < x_0 < b$ , then  $f(x_0+)$  and  $f(x_0-)$  exist and are finite; moreover,*

$$f(x_0-) \leq f(x_0) \leq f(x_0+)$$

*if  $f$  is nondecreasing, and*

$$f(x_0-) \geq f(x_0) \geq f(x_0+)$$

*if  $f$  is nonincreasing.*

**Additional Proof (b)** We first prove that  $f(a+) = \beta$ . If  $M < \beta$  there is an  $x_0$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f(x_0) > M$ . Since  $f$  is nonincreasing,  $f(x) > M$  if  $a < x < x_0$ . Therefore, if

$\beta = \infty$  then  $f(a+) = \infty$ . If  $\beta < \infty$  let  $M = \beta - \epsilon$  where  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then  $\beta - \epsilon < f(x) \leq \beta + \epsilon$ , so

$$|f(x) - \beta| < \epsilon \quad \text{if } a < x < x_0. \quad (\text{A})$$

If  $a = -\infty$  this implies that  $f(-\infty) = \beta$ . If  $a > -\infty$  let  $\delta = x_0 - a$ . Then (A) is equivalent to

$$|f(x) - \beta| < \epsilon \quad \text{if } a < x < a + \delta,$$

which implies that  $f(a+) = \beta$ .

Now we prove that  $f(b-) = \alpha$ . If  $M > \alpha$  there is an  $x_0$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f(x_0) < M$ . Since  $f$  is nonincreasing,  $f(x) < M$  if  $x_0 < x < b$ . Therefore, if  $\alpha = -\infty$  then  $f(b-) = -\infty$ . If  $\alpha > -\infty$  let  $M = \alpha + \epsilon$  where  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then  $\alpha \leq f(x) < \alpha + \epsilon$ , so

$$|f(x) - \alpha| < \epsilon \quad \text{if } x_0 < x < b. \quad (\text{B})$$

If  $b = \infty$  this implies that  $f(\infty) = \alpha$ . If  $b < \infty$  let  $\delta = b - x_0$ . Then (B) is equivalent to

$$|f(x) - \alpha| < \epsilon \quad \text{if } b - \delta < x < b,$$

which implies that  $f(b-) = \alpha$ .

(c) Applying (b) to  $f$  on  $(a, x_0)$  and  $(x_0, b)$  separately shows that

$$f(x_0-) = \inf_{a < x_1 < x_0} f(x_1) \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_0+) = \sup_{x_0 < x_2 < b} f(x_2).$$

However, if  $x_1 < x_0 < x_2$  then  $f(x_1) \geq f(x_0) \geq f(x_2)$ ; hence  $f(x_0-) \geq f(x_0) \geq f(x_0+)$ . ■

**Theorem 2.2.9** Suppose that  $f$  is continuous on a finite closed interval  $[a, b]$ . Let

$$\alpha = \inf_{a \leq x \leq b} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \sup_{a \leq x \leq b} f(x).$$

Then  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are respectively the minimum and maximum of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ ; that is, there are points  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $[a, b]$  such that

$$f(x_1) = \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_2) = \beta.$$

**Additional Proof** Showing that there is an  $x_2$  such that  $f(x_2) = \beta$ , suppose there is no  $x_2$  in  $[a, b]$  such that  $f(x_2) = \beta$ . Then  $f(x) < \beta$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . We will show that this leads to a contradiction. Suppose  $t \in [a, b]$ . Then  $f(t) < \beta$ , so  $f(t) < (f(t) + \beta)/2 < \beta$ . Since  $f$  is continuous at  $t$ , there is an open interval  $I_t$  about  $t$  such that (A)  $f(x) < (f(t) + \beta)/2$  if  $x \in I_t \cap [a, b]$ . The collection  $H = \{I_t | a \leq t \leq b\}$  is an open covering of  $[a, b]$ . Since  $[a, b]$  is compact, the Heine-Borel theorem implies that there are finitely many points  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n$  such that the intervals  $I_{t_1}, I_{t_2}, \dots, I_{t_n}$  cover  $[a, b]$ . Define  $\beta_1 = \max\{(f(t_i) + \beta)/2 | 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ . Then, since  $[a, b] \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n (I_{t_i} \cap [a, b])$ , (A) implies that  $f(x) < \beta_1$  ( $a \leq t \leq b$ ). But  $\beta_1 < \beta$ , so this contradicts the definition of  $\beta$ . Therefore  $f(x_2) = \beta$  for some  $x_2$  in  $[a, b]$ . ■

**Theorem 2.2.14** *If  $f$  is monotonic and nonconstant on  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  if and only if its range  $R_f = \{f(x) | x \in [a, b]\}$  is the closed interval with endpoints  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ .*

**Proof** In the case where  $f$  is nonincreasing, Theorem 2.1.9(b) implies that the set  $\widetilde{R}_f = \{f(x) | x \in (a, b)\}$  is a subset of the open interval  $(f(b-), f(a+))$ . Therefore

$$R_f = \{f(b)\} \cup \widetilde{R}_f \cup \{f(a)\} \subset \{f(b)\} \cup (f(b-), f(a+)) \cup \{f(a)\}. \quad (\text{A})$$

Now suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f(a) = f(a+)$ ,  $f(b-) = f(b)$ , so (A) implies that  $R_f \subset [f(b), f(a)]$ . If  $f(b) < \mu < f(a)$ , then Theorem 2.2.10 implies that  $\mu = f(x)$  for some  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . Hence,  $R_f = [f(b), f(a)]$ .

For the converse, suppose  $R_f = [f(b), f(a)]$ . Since  $f(a) \geq f(a+)$  and  $f(b-) \geq f(b)$ , (A) implies that  $f(a) = f(a+)$  and  $f(b-) = f(b)$ . We know from Theorem 2.1.9(c) that if  $f$  is nonincreasing and  $a < x_0 < b$ , then  $f(x_0-) \geq f(x_0) \geq f(x_0+)$ . If either of these inequalities is strict, then  $R_f$  cannot be an interval. Since this contradicts our assumption,  $f(x_0-) = f(x_0) = f(x_0+)$ . Therefore  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . We can now conclude that  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . ■

**Theorem 2.3.4** *If  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable at  $x_0$ , then so are  $f + g$ ,  $f - g$ , and  $fg$ , with*

- (a)  $(f + g)'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0)$ ;
- (b)  $(f - g)'(x_0) = f'(x_0) - g'(x_0)$ ;
- (c)  $(fg)'(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + f(x_0)g'(x_0)$ .

*The quotient  $f/g$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  if  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ , with*

$$(d) \left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x_0) = \frac{f'(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)}{[g(x_0)]^2}.$$

**Additional Proof**

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{(f + g)(x) - (f + g)(x_0)}{x - x_0} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{g(x) - g(x_0)}{x - x_0} \\ &= f'(x_0) + g'(x_0). \end{aligned}$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{(f - g)(x) - (f - g)(x_0)}{x - x_0} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{g(x) - g(x_0)}{x - x_0} \\ &= f'(x_0) - g'(x_0). \end{aligned}$$

(d)

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{(f/g)(x) - (f/g)(x_0)}{(x - x_0)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g(x)}{(x - x_0)g(x)g(x_0)} \\&= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{[f(x)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g(x_0) + f(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g(x)]}{(x - x_0)g(x)g(x_0)} \\&= \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{1}{g(x)} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \\&\quad + \frac{f(x_0)}{g(x_0)} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{1}{g(x)} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{g(x) - g(x_0)}{x - x_0} \\&= \frac{f'(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)}{(g(x_0))^2}.\end{aligned}$$

■

**Theorem 2.4.1 (L'Hospital's Rule)** Suppose that  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable and  $g'$  has no zeros on  $(a, b)$ . Let

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow b-} g(x) = 0$$

or

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} f(x) = \pm \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow b-} g(x) = \pm \infty,$$

and suppose that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L \quad (\text{finite or } \pm \infty).$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L.$$

**Additional Proof** For the case where  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \pm \infty$ , If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \infty$  and  $M$  is an arbitrary real number, there is an  $x_0$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} > M$  if  $x_0 < c < b$ . By the argument given in the text, we can assume also that  $g$  has no zeros in  $[x_0, b)$  and (A)  $\frac{f(x) - f(t)}{g(x) - g(t)} > M$  if  $x, t \in [x_0, b)$ . If  $\lim_{t \rightarrow b-} f(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow b-} g(t) = 0$  then letting  $t \rightarrow b-$  in (A) shows that  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \geq M$  if  $x, t \in [x_0, b)$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \infty$  in this case. If  $\lim_{t \rightarrow b-} f(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow b-} g(t) = \infty$ , let  $u$  and  $x_1$  be as in the proof given in the text. Then (B)  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)u(x)} > M$  if  $x_1 < x < b$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} u(x) = 1$ , there is an  $x_2 \geq x_1$  such that  $u(x) \geq \frac{1}{2}$  if  $x_2 < x < b$ . Therefore, (B) implies that  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} > \frac{M}{2}$  if  $x_2 < x < b$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \infty$  in this case also. ■

**Theorem 3.3.2** *If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $c$  is a constant, then  $cf$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and*

$$\int_a^b cf(x)dx = c \int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

**Proof** Trivial if  $c = 0$ . Suppose  $c \neq 0$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . If  $\hat{\sigma}$  is a Riemann sum of  $cf$ , then  $\hat{\sigma} = \sum_{j=1}^n cf(c_j)(x_j - x_{j-1}) = c \sum_{j=1}^n f(c_j)(x_j - x_{j-1}) = c\sigma$ , where  $\sigma$  is a Riemann sum for  $f$ . Since  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , Definition 3.1.1 implies that there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\left| \sigma - \int_a^b f(x)dx \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{|c|}$  if  $\sigma$  is a Riemann sum of  $f$  over any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  such that  $\|P\| < \delta$ . Therefore,  $\left| \hat{\sigma} - \int_a^b cf(x)dx \right| < \epsilon$  if  $\hat{\sigma}$  is a Riemann sum of  $cf$  over any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  such that  $\|P\| < \delta$ , so  $cf$  is integrable over  $[a, b]$ , again by Definition 3.1.1. ■

**Theorem 3.3.3** *If  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  are constants, then  $c_1f_1 + c_2f_2 + \dots + c_nf_n$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and*

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (c_1f_1 + c_2f_2 + \dots + c_nf_n)(x)dx &= c_1 \int_a^b f_1(x)dx + c_2 \int_a^b f_2(x)dx \\ &+ \dots + c_n \int_a^b f_n(x)dx. \end{aligned}$$

**Proof** If  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are constants, then Theorem 3.3.2 implies that  $c_1f_1$  and  $c_2f_2$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $\int_a^b c_1f_1(x)dx = c_1 \int_a^b f_1(x)dx$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ . Therefore, Theorem 3.3.1 implies  $P_2$ . Now suppose  $n \geq 2$  and  $P_n$  is true. Let  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_{n+1}$  be integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{n+1}$  be constants. By Theorem 3.3.1,  $c_1f_1, c_2f_2, \dots, c_{n+1}f_{n+1}$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $\int_a^b c_1f_1(x)dx = c_1 \int_a^b f_1(x)dx$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n+1$ . Now  $\int_a^b (c_1f_1 + c_2f_2 + \dots + c_{n+1}f_{n+1})(x)dx = \int_a^b [(c_1f_1 + c_2f_2 + \dots + c_nf_n)(x) + c_{n+1}f_{n+1}(x)]dx = \int_a^b (c_1f_1 + c_2f_2 + \dots + c_nf_n)(x)dx + \int_a^b c_{n+1}f_{n+1}(x)dx$  (by  $P_2$ ) =  $c_1 \int_a^b f_1(x)dx + c_2 \int_a^b f_2(x)dx + \dots + c_n \int_a^b f_n(x)dx + c_{n+1} \int_a^b f_{n+1}(x)dx$  by  $P_n$  and Theorem 3.3.2. Therefore,  $P_n$  implies  $P_{n+1}$ . ■

**Theorem 3.3.11** *If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $a \leq c \leq b$ , then  $F(x) = \int_c^x f(t)dt$  is differentiable at any point  $x_0$  in  $(a, b)$  where  $f$  is continuous, with  $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$ . If  $f$  is continuous from the right at  $a$ , then  $F'_+(a) = f(a)$ . If  $f$  is continuous from the left at  $b$ , then  $F'_-(b) = f(b)$ .*

**Additional Proof** Since  $\frac{1}{x-a} \int_a^x f(a)dt = f(a)$ , we can write

$$\frac{F(x) - F(a)}{x - a} - f(a) = \frac{1}{x - a} \int_a^x [f(t) - f(a)]dt.$$

From this and Theorem 3.3.5, (A)  $\left| \frac{F(x) - F(a)}{x - a} - f(a) \right| \leq \frac{1}{|x - a|} \left| \int_a^x |f(t) - f(a)| dt \right|$ . Since  $f$  is continuous from the right at  $a$ , there is for each  $\epsilon > 0$  a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(t) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  if  $a \leq x < a + \delta$  and  $t$  is between  $x$  and  $a$ . Therefore, from (A),  $\left| \frac{F(x) - F(a)}{x - a} - f(a) \right| < \epsilon \frac{|x - a|}{|x - a|} = \epsilon$  if  $a < x < a + \delta$ . This proves that  $F'_+(a) = f(a)$ .

Since  $\frac{1}{b - x} \int_x^b f(b) dt = f(b)$ , we can write

$$\frac{F(x) - F(b)}{b - x} - f(b) = \frac{1}{b - x} \int_x^b [f(b) - f(t)] dt.$$

From this and Theorem 3.3.5, (B)  $\left| \frac{F(x) - F(b)}{b - x} - f(b) \right| \leq \frac{1}{|b - x|} \left| \int_x^b |f(b) - f(t)| dt \right|$ . Since  $f$  is continuous from the left at  $b$ , there is for each  $\epsilon > 0$  a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(b) - f(t)| < \epsilon$  if  $b - \delta \leq x < b$  and  $t$  is between  $x$  and  $b$ . Therefore, from (B),  $\left| \frac{F(x) - F(b)}{b - x} - f(b) \right| < \epsilon \frac{|b - x|}{|b - x|} = \epsilon$  if  $b - \delta < x < b$ . This proves that  $F'_-(b) = f(b)$ . ■

**Theorem 4.1.7** Let  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ , where  $L$  is in the extended reals, and suppose that  $s_n = f(n)$  for large  $n$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L.$$

**Proof** Suppose that  $s_n = f(n)$  for  $n \geq N_1$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  there is an integer  $N > N_1$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  if  $x > N$ , so  $|s_n - L| = |f(n) - L| < \epsilon$  if  $n \geq N$ . Therefore,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L$ . ■

**Theorem 4.2.3** If  $\{s_n\}$  is monotonic and has a subsequence  $\{s_{n_k}\}$  such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_{n_k} = s \quad (-\infty \leq s \leq \infty),$$

then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s.$$

**Additional Proof** If  $\{s_n\}$  is nonincreasing, then  $\{s_{n_k}\}$  is also, so it suffices to show that (A)  $\inf\{s_{n_k}\} = \inf\{s_n\}$  and apply Theorem 4.1.6(b). Since the set of terms of  $\{s_{n_k}\}$  is contained in the set of terms of  $\{s_n\}$ , (B)  $\inf\{s_n\} \leq \inf\{s_{n_k}\}$ . Since  $\{s_n\}$  is nonincreasing, there is for every  $n$  an integer  $n_k > n$  such that  $s_n \geq s_{n_k}$ . This implies that  $\inf\{s_n\} \geq \inf\{s_{n_k}\}$ . This and (B) imply the conclusion. ■

**Theorem 4.3.19** If  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.

**Proof** Suppose that  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} |a_n| < \infty$ . Let  $b_n = |a_n| - a_n$ ; then  $0 \leq b_n \leq 2|a_n|$ , so  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} b_n$

converges absolutely, by the comparison test. Since  $a_n = |a_n| - b_n$ ,  $\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, by Theorem 4.3.3. ■



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