

Real Analysis

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Chapter 1

The Real Number System

1.1 Ordered Field

Definition 1.1. A field F is said to be an ordered field with respect to a particular subset $P \subseteq F$ if

O1. $\forall x, y \in P, x + y \in P$ and $x \cdot y \in P$.

O2. $\forall x \in F$, one and only one of the following statements hold:

$$x \in P \vee -x \in P \vee x = 0$$

Definition 1.2. If $x \in P$, we say that x is **positive** and if $-x \in P$, then we say x is **negative**.

Definition 1.3. Given $x, y \in F$, we say that x and y have the **same sign** if $x, y \in P \vee -x, -y \in P$ (either both positive or both negative). We say that x and y have **opposite signs** if $-x, y \in P$, or $x, -y \in P$ (one positive and the other one negative).

Definition 1.4. We define the symbols $<, \leq, >$ and \geq in an ordered field as follow

- $x < y \iff y - x \in P$.
- $x > y \iff y < x \iff x - y \in P$.
- $x \leq y \iff x < y \vee x = y \iff y - x \in P \vee x = y$.
- $x \geq y \iff x > y \vee x = y \iff x - y \in P \vee x = y$.

Remark. Since $0 = 0 \implies 0 \notin P$ (hence 0 is not positive) and $-0 \notin P$ (hence 0 is not negative).

Theorem 1.5. (a) x is positive $\iff x > 0$.

(b) x is negative $\iff x < 0$.

(c) $x > 0 \iff -x < 0$.

(d) $x < y \iff y - x > 0 \iff x - y < 0$.

(e) $x > y \iff x - y > 0 \iff y - x < 0$.

Theorem 1.6. Let $x, y \in F$ an ordered field. Then one and only one of the following statements hold: $x < y, x > y \vee x = y$.

Corollary 1.6.1. Let $x \in F$. Then one and only one of the following statements hold: $x < 0, x > 0 \vee x = 0$.

Theorem 1.7. Let $x, y \in F$. Then

(a) $x \leq y \iff x \not> y$.

(b) $x \geq y \iff x \not< y$.

(c) If $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$ then $x = y$.

(d) $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.

Theorem 1.8 (Combination of Positive and Negative Elements). Let F be an ordered field. Then

(a) $\forall x, y \in F, x > 0 \wedge y > 0 \implies x + y > 0 \wedge x \cdot y > 0$.

(b) $\forall x, y \in F, x < 0 \wedge y < 0 \implies x + y < 0 \wedge x \cdot y > 0$.

(c) $\forall x \in F, x \neq 0 \implies x^2 > 0$.

(d) $\forall x \in F, x^2 \geq 0$.

(e) $\forall x, y \in F, x > 0 \wedge y < 0 \implies x \cdot y < 0$.

(f) $\forall x, y \in F, x \cdot y > 0 \implies x$ and y have same signs.

(g) $\forall x, y \in F, x \cdot y < 0 \implies x$ and y have opposite signs.

Theorem 1.9. $1 > 0$.

Corollary 1.9.1. $-1 < 0$.

Theorem 1.10. *Let $x, y, z \in F$ and ordered field. Then*

- (a) $(x < y) \wedge (y < z) \implies x < z$.
- (b) $(x \leq y) \wedge (y \leq z) \implies x \leq z$
- (c) $x < y \iff x + z < y + z$.
- (d) $(x < y) \wedge (z > 0) \implies x \cdot z < y \cdot z$
- (e) $(x \leq y) \wedge (z > 0) \implies x \cdot z \leq y \cdot z$.
- (f) $(x \leq y) \wedge (z \geq 0) \implies x \cdot z \leq y \cdot z$.
- (g) $(x < y) \wedge (z < 0) \implies x \cdot z > y \cdot z$.

Theorem 1.11. (a) *If $x > 0$ then $\frac{1}{x} > 0$.*

(b) *If $x < 0$ then $\frac{1}{x} < 0$.*

(c) *If $x < y$ and $z > 0$ then $\frac{x}{z} < \frac{y}{z}$.*

(d) *If $x < y$ and $z < 0$ then $\frac{x}{z} > \frac{y}{z}$.*

Theorem 1.12. (a) $0 < x < y \iff 0 < \frac{1}{y} < \frac{1}{x}$.

(b) $x < y < 0 \iff \frac{1}{y} < \frac{1}{x} < 0$.

(c) $(x < y) \wedge (u < v) \implies x + u < y + v$.

(d) $(0 < x < y) \wedge (0 < u < v) \implies (x \cdot u < y \cdot v) \wedge \left(\frac{x}{v} < \frac{y}{u}\right)$.

(e) $(0 \leq x \leq y) \wedge (0 \leq u \leq v) \implies (0 \leq x \cdot u \leq y \cdot v)$

(f) $x < y \implies x < \frac{x+y}{2} < y$.

Theorem 1.13. (a) $(x < y) \wedge (w < z) \implies x + w < y + z$.

(b) $(x < y) \wedge (w \leq z) \implies x + w < y + z$.

1.2 Natural Numbers and The Principle of Mathematical Induction

Definition 1.14. A set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is said to be *inductive* if

1. $1 \in A$, and
2. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x \in A \implies x + 1 \in A$.

Theorem 1.15. The intersection of any collection of inductive sets is inductive.

Definition 1.16. The set of *natural numbers* is the intersection of all the inductive subsets of \mathbb{R} . In symbols,

$$\mathbb{N} = \cap S,$$

where S denotes the collection of all inductive subsets of \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 1.17. The set of natural numbers is the smallest inductive subset of \mathbb{R} , in the sense that if A is an inductive subset of \mathbb{R} then $\mathbb{N} \subseteq A$.

Theorem 1.18. (a) All natural numbers are positive.

(b) 1 is the smallest natural number. That is, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 1$.

(c) If n is a natural number other than 1, then $n - 1$ is also a natural number. That is $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $n > 1$, then $n - 1 \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 1.19 (The Principle of Mathematical Induction). Let $P(n)$ be a statement concerning natural numbers. Then

$$P(1) \text{ and } (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) [P(k) \implies P(k + 1)] \implies \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n).$$

Theorem 1.20. Let $P(n)$ be a statement concerning natural numbers, then following statements are equivalent:

1. The Principle of Mathematical Induction

$$P(1) \text{ and } (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) [P(k) \implies P(k + 1)] \implies \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n).$$

2. The Principle of Strong Mathematical Induction

$$P(1) \text{ and } (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) [(\forall j \leq k, P(j)) \implies P(k + 1)] \implies \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n).$$

where j ranges over natural numbers in this statement.

3. *Well Ordering Principle*

Every nonempty set of natural numbers contains a least element.

Remark. *Alternate definition of The Principle of Strong Mathematical Induction.*

$$(\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) [(\forall j < k, P(j)) \implies P(k)] \implies \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n).$$

where j ranges over natural numbers in this statement.

Theorem 1.21. *Show that:*

- (a) $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, m < n \implies n - m \in \mathbb{N}$.
- (b) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is no natural number between n and $n + 1$.
- (c) \mathbb{N} is closed under addition.
- (d) \mathbb{N} is closed under multiplication.
- (e) \mathbb{N} is not closed under subtraction or division.

1.3 Integer Powers of Real Numbers

Definition 1.22. *The set of integers is the set*

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \in \mathbb{N} \text{ or } -x \in \mathbb{N} \text{ or } x = 0\}$$

Definition 1.23. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then*

$$a^n = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } n = 1 \\ a^{n-1} \cdot a & \text{if } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

We define $a^0 = 1$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$.

Definition 1.24. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then*

$$a^{-n} = \frac{1}{a^n}$$

Theorem 1.25. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$, then for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,*

$$a^{-n} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{a^n} = \left(\frac{1}{a}\right)^n$$

Theorem 1.26. *Show that:*

- (a) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x^n \geq 0.$
- (b) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}_{> 0}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x^{-n}.$

Theorem 1.27. *Let x and y be real numbers, and let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that*

- (a) $(xy)^n = x^n y^n,$
- (b) $x^{n+m} = x^n x^m,$
- (c) $(x^n)^m = x^{nm}.$

Theorem 1.28. *Let x and y be nonzero real numbers and $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that*

- (a) $(xy)^{-n} = x^{-n} y^{-n},$
- (b) $x^{-n-m} = x^{-n} x^{-m},$
- (c) $(x^{-n})^{-m} = x^{nm}.$

Theorem 1.29. *Show that*

- (a)

$$(x^n - y^n) = (x - y) \sum_{k=1}^n x^{n-k} y^{k-1}$$

is valid for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- (b) *Suppose that x and y are positive real numbers. If $x^n < y^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, prove that $x < y$.*
- (c) *Suppose that x and y are nonnegative real numbers. If $x^n = y^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, prove that $x = y$.*
- (d) *Suppose that x and y are nonnegative real numbers. If $x^n \leq y^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, prove that $x \leq y$.*

1.4 Rational Powers of Real Numbers

Theorem 1.30 (The Existence of n th root). *For every positive real number a and every natural number n there exists a unique positive number b such that $b^n = a$.*

Proved later after introducing completeness.

Definition 1.31. *The set of **rational numbers** is the set*

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R} : \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n \neq 0, \text{ and } x = \frac{m}{n} \right\}$$

If x is positive real number and $r = \frac{m}{n}$, we define x^r by

$$x^r := (x^m)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

Remark. *Show that this definition is well defined.*

If $x < 0$ and n is even, $x^{\frac{1}{n}}$ has no meaning. Since if n is even ($n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$) then

$$x = (x^{\frac{1}{n}})^n = (x^{\frac{1}{n}})^{2k} = ((x^{\frac{1}{n}})^k)^2 \geq 0$$

If n is odd, then we define $x^{\frac{1}{n}}$ by

$$x^{\frac{1}{n}} := - \left((-x)^{\frac{1}{n}} \right)$$

Remark. *n th root of 0 is 0 for $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.*

1.5 Additional Properties of Inequalities

Theorem 1.32. *Show that:*

- (a) *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 < x < y \iff x^n < y^n$.*
- (b) *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x \leq y \iff x^n \leq y^n$.*
- (c) *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 < x < y \iff x^{\frac{1}{n}} < y^{\frac{1}{n}}$.*
- (d) *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x \leq y \iff x^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq y^{\frac{1}{n}}$.*

Theorem 1.33 (Forcing Principle). *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Then*

- (a) $\forall \epsilon > 0, x \leq \epsilon \implies x \leq 0$.
- (b) $\forall \epsilon > 0, x \leq y + \epsilon \implies x \leq y$.
- (c) $\forall \epsilon > 0, |x| \leq \epsilon \implies x = 0$.
- (d) $\forall \epsilon > 0, |x - y| \leq \epsilon \implies x = y$.

1.6 Intervals

Definition 1.34. $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, we define the $[a, b]$ to be the set

$$[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}$$

Note that $[a, a] = \{a\}$ and $[2, 1] = \emptyset$ since $2 \leq x \leq 1$ is false, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

An **interval** in \mathbb{R} is any subset $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall x, y \in I, x < y \implies [x, y] \subseteq I$.

Theorem 1.35. Show that following sets are intervals:

- (a) $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\};$
- (b) $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\};$
- (c) $(-\infty, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < b\};$
- (d) $(a, \infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x\};$

1.7 Absolute Value

Definition 1.36. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0; \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 1.37. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |x|^2 = |x^2| = x^2$.

Theorem 1.38. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |x| = \sqrt{x^2}$.

Theorem 1.39. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |x| \geq 0$.

Theorem 1.40. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |-x| = |x|$.

Theorem 1.41. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, -|x| \leq x \leq |x|$.

Theorem 1.42. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, |x| = 0 \iff x = 0$.

Theorem 1.43. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, |x| = y \implies x = y \text{ or } x = -y$.

Theorem 1.44. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $a > 0$. Then

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \left[|x| < a \iff -a < x < a \right]$$

Theorem 1.45. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $a \geq 0$. Then*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \left[|x| \leq a \iff -a \leq x \leq a \right]$$

Theorem 1.46. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $a > 0$. Then*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \left[|x| > a \iff x < -a \vee x > a \right]$$

Theorem 1.47. *Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $a \geq 0$. Then*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \left[|x| \geq a \iff x \leq -a \vee x \geq a \right]$$

Theorem 1.48. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, |x + y| \leq |x| + |y|.$

Theorem 1.49. $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}, |x - z| \leq |x - y| + |y - z|.$

Theorem 1.50. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, ||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y| \iff |x| - |y| \leq |x - y| \wedge |y| - |x| \leq |x - y|.$

Theorem 1.51. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, ||x| - |y|| \leq |x + y| \iff |x| - |y| \leq |x + y| \wedge |y| - |x| \leq |x + y|.$

Theorem 1.52. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, |xy| = |x||y|.$

Theorem 1.53. $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with $y \neq 0$, $\left| \frac{x}{y} \right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}.$

Theorem 1.54. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, |x^n| = |x|^n.$

1.8 Some Useful Inequalities and Identities

Theorem 1.55 (Bernoulli's inequality). *Prove that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and every real number $x \geq -1$,*

$$(1 + x)^n \geq 1 + nx$$

Theorem 1.56. *Let $x \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$. Prove that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n x^k = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

Lemma 1.57. *Let n and k be natural numbers and let $1 \leq k \leq n$. Then*

$$\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n+1}{k}$$

Theorem 1.58 (Binomial Theorem). *If x and y are arbitrary real numbers and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then*

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} y^k$$

Theorem 1.59. *If x and y are arbitrary real numbers then*

$$|xy| \leq \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2).$$

Theorem 1.60. *Let x_1, \dots, x_n be nonnegative real numbers, and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Prove that*

$$\sqrt[m]{x_1 + \dots + x_n} \leq \sqrt[m]{x_1} + \dots + \sqrt[m]{x_n}$$

Theorem 1.61 (The Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality). *If x_1, \dots, x_n and y_1, \dots, y_n are arbitrary real numbers, then*

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

Theorem 1.62 (Minokowski's Inequality). *If x_1, \dots, x_n and y_1, \dots, y_n are arbitrary real numbers, then*

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Chapter 2

Cardinality

Definition 2.1. Let A and B be sets. Then we say that A and B are *equinumerous* ($A \approx B$) provided that there exists a bijection from the set A to the set B .

Theorem 2.2. Let A , B , and C be sets.

- (a) For each set A , $A \approx A$.
- (b) For all sets A and B , if $A \approx B$, then $B \approx A$.
- (c) For all sets A , B and C , if $A \approx B$ and $B \approx C$, then $A \approx C$.

Theorem 2.3. Let E be the set of all even natural numbers and let D be the set of all odd natural numbers. Prove that,

- (a) $\mathbb{N} \approx E$.
- (b) $\mathbb{N} \approx D$.
- (c) $\mathbb{N} \approx \mathbb{Z}$.
- (d) $\mathbb{R}_{>0} \approx \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 2.4. Suppose $A \approx B$ and $C \approx D$. Then:

- (a) $A \times C \approx B \times D$.
- (b) If A and C are disjoint and B and D are disjoint, then $A \cup C \approx B \cup D$.

2.1 Finite Sets

Theorem 2.5. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $\mathbb{N}_n \approx \mathbb{N}_m$, then $n = m$.

Corollary 2.5.1. If $A \approx \mathbb{N}_m$ and $A \approx \mathbb{N}_n$ then $m = n$.

Definition 2.6. We define $\mathbb{N}_k = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$. A set A is a **finite set** provided that $A = \emptyset$ or $A \approx \mathbb{N}_k$ for some natural number k .

If A is finite, we say that the **cardinality** of A , denoted as $|A|$, is 0 if $A = \emptyset$, or k if $A \approx \mathbb{N}_k$.

A set is an **infinite set** provided that it is not a finite set. So a set A is infinite $\iff A \neq \emptyset$ and there is not bijection between A and \mathbb{N}_k , $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Lemma 2.7. If $A \approx \emptyset$ then $A = \emptyset$.

Theorem 2.8. Any set equivalent to a finite set A is a finite set and has the same cardinality as A .

Theorem 2.9. Suppose A and B are finite sets. Then

$$A \approx B \iff |A| = |B|.$$

Theorem 2.10. Suppose A and B are finite sets. Then

- (a) If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then $A \cup B$ is finite and $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$.
- (b) $A \cup B$ is finite, and $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$.
- (c) $A \times B$ is finite, and $|A \times B| = |A| \times |B|$.

Lemma 2.11. If A is a finite set and $x \notin A$, then $A \cup \{x\}$ is a finite set and $|A \cup \{x\}| = |A| + 1$.

Lemma 2.12. For each natural number m , if $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}_m$, then A is a finite set and $|A| \leq m$.

Theorem 2.13. If S is a finite set and A is a subset of S , then A is a finite set and $|A| \leq |S|$.

Corollary 2.13.1. If A is a finite set and $x \in A$, then $A - \{x\}$ is a finite set and $|A - \{x\}| = |A| - 1$.

Theorem 2.14 (The Pigeonhole Principle). Let A and B be finite sets. If $|A| > |B|$, then any function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is not an injection.

Theorem 2.15. For every finite set A , $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^{|A|}$.

Theorem 2.16. A finite set is not equivalent to any of its proper subsets.

2.2 Countably Infinite and Countable Sets

Theorem 2.17. *If a set A is equivalent to any of its proper subset, then A is infinite.*

Corollary 2.17.1. (a) *The set of natural numbers is infinite.*

(b) *The set of real numbers is infinite.*

Corollary 2.17.2. *If A is an infinite set and B is a finite set, then A and B are not equivalent.*

Theorem 2.18. *Let A and B be sets.*

(a) *If A is infinite and $A \approx B$, then B is infinite.*

(b) *If A is infinite and $A \subseteq B$, then B is infinite.*

Definition 2.19. *A set A is **countably infinite** provided that $A \approx \mathbb{N}$. So A is countably infinite \iff there exists a bijection between A and \mathbb{N} . A set is **countable** provided that it is finite or countably infinite. An infinite set that is not countably infinite is called an **uncountable set**. So a set A is uncountable $\iff A$ is infinite and there is no bijection between A and \mathbb{N} .*

Since $\mathbb{N} \approx \mathbb{Z}$, the set \mathbb{Z} of integers is countably infinite.

Remark. *So if A is countably infinite ($A \approx \mathbb{N}$) then A is an infinite set since \mathbb{N} is infinite (Theorem 2.18). So a finite set can not be countably infinite.*

If A is countably infinite ($A \approx \mathbb{N}$) then the elements of A can be enumerated in an interminable list as $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}$ where $a_i = f(i), \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$ where f is a bijection from \mathbb{N} and A . Since f is onto and one-to-one, each element of A appears in this list one and only one times.

Theorem 2.20. *Show that:*

(a) *The set of positive rational numbers is countably infinite.*

(b) *The set of negative rational numbers is countably infinite.*

Theorem 2.21. *If A is a countably infinite set, then $A \cup \{x\}$ is a countably infinite set.*

Theorem 2.22. *If A is a countably infinite set and B is a finite set, then $A \cup B$ is a countably infinite set.*

Theorem 2.23. *If A and B are disjoint countably infinite set, then $A \cup B$ is a countably infinite set.*

Theorem 2.24. *The set \mathbb{Q} of all rational numbers is countably infinite.*

Theorem 2.25. *If A and B are both countably infinite, then so is $A \times B$.*

Theorem 2.26. *The set $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ is countably infinite.*

Theorem 2.27. *Any set equivalent to a countable set is countable.*

Corollary 2.27.1. *If A is a countable set and B is an uncountable set, then A and B are not equivalent.*

Theorem 2.28. *Every subset of the natural numbers is countable.*

Corollary 2.28.1. *Every subset of a countable set is countable.*

Corollary 2.28.2. *If A and B are both countably infinite, then so is $A \cup B$.*

Theorem 2.29. *Let A be a nonempty set. The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) *A is countable.*
- (b) *There is a function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ that is onto.*
- (c) *There is a function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that is one-to-one.*

Theorem 2.30. *Suppose A and B are countable sets. Then:*

- (a) *$A \times B$ is countable.*
- (b) *$A \cup B$ is countable.*

Theorem 2.31. *The union of countably many countable sets is countable.*

2.3 Uncountable Sets

Theorem 2.32. *The open interval $(0, 1)$ of real numbers is uncountable.*

Theorem 2.33. *Let A and B be sets.*

- (a) *If A is uncountable and $A \approx B$ then B is uncountable.*
- (b) *If A is uncountable and $A \subseteq B$ then B is uncountable*

Corollary 2.33.1. *The sets of real numbers \mathbb{R} is uncountable.*

Corollary 2.33.2. *If A is a countable set and B is an uncountable set then A and B are not equivalent.*

Theorem 2.34. *For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, with $a < b$, $(a, b) \approx (0, 1)$.*

Theorem 2.35. *For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, with $a < b$, $(a, b) \approx \mathbb{R}$.*

Theorem 2.36. *The set of irrational numbers is uncountable.*

Definition 2.37. *If A and B are sets, then we will say that B dominates A , and write $A \preceq B$, if there is a function $f : A \rightarrow B$ that is one-to-one. We write $A \prec B$ if and only if $A \preceq B$ and $A \not\approx B$.*

Theorem 2.38. *For every nonempty set A , the sets $\mathcal{P}(A)$ and 2^A are equivalent.*

Theorem 2.39 (Cantor's Theorem). *For every set A , $A \prec \mathcal{P}(A)$.*

Corollary 2.39.1. *$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ is an uncountable set.*

Theorem 2.40 (The Schröder-Bernstein Theorem). *If A and B are sets such that $A \preceq B$ and $B \preceq A$, then $A \approx B$.*

Theorem 2.41. *The sets $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$ and \mathbb{R} are equivalent.*

Corollary 2.41.1. *The sets $2^{\mathbb{N}}$ and \mathbb{R} are equivalent.*

Remark (The Continuum Hypothesis). *There exists no set S such that*

$$\mathbb{N} \prec S \prec \mathbb{R}.$$

Chapter 3

The Completeness Property and its Applications

3.1 Bounded Sets

Definition 3.1. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}$. We say that:

- (a) u is an **upper bound** for A if $\forall x \in A, x \leq u$.
- (b) u is a **lower bound** for A if $\forall x \in A, u \leq x$.
- (c) u is a **maximum element** of A if $u \in A$ and $\forall x \in A, x \leq u$.
- (d) u is a **minimum element** of A if $u \in A$ and $\forall x \in A, u \leq x$.

If A has an upper bound we say that A is **bounded above**; if A has a lower bound we say that A is **bounded below**. If A is bounded above and below, we say that A is **bounded**.

Theorem 3.2. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then A is bounded $\iff \exists M > 0$ such that $|x| \leq M$ for all $x \in A$.

Theorem 3.3. (a) A set cannot have more than one maximum or more than one minimum element.

- (b) Every nonempty finite set has both a maximum element and a minimum element.

3.2 Suprema and Infima

Definition 3.4. Suppose that F is an ordered field and $A \subseteq F$. We say that an element $u \in F$ is

- (a) a **least upper bound (supremum)** of A if u is an upper bound for A and for all upper bounds v for A , $u \leq v$. The notation we use is $u = \sup(A)$.
- (b) a **greatest lower bound (infimum)** of A if u is a lower bound for A and for all lower bounds v for A , $u \geq v$. The notation we use is $u = \inf(A)$.

Theorem 3.5. (a) A set cannot have more than one greatest lower bound.

(b) A set cannot have more than one least upper bound.

(c) If a set has the minimum (or maximum) element, then that element is the greatest lower bound (or least upper bound) of A .

(d) If a set contains the greatest lower bound (or least upper bound) then that element is the minimum (or maximum) element of A .

3.3 The Completeness Axiom

Completeness Axiom: Every nonempty set of real numbers that is bounded above has the least upper bound.

Theorem 3.6. Every nonempty $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ that is bounded below has the greatest lower bound.

Theorem 3.7. Let $a < b$ in an ordered field F . Then $a = \inf(a, b)$ and $b = \sup(a, b)$.

Theorem 3.8. Suppose $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is nonempty and bounded. Let $A \subseteq S$ be nonempty. Prove that A is bounded. Then prove that $\sup(A) \leq \sup(S)$ and $\inf(S) \leq \inf(A)$.

Theorem 3.9. Suppose $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is nonempty and bounded above. Let $\beta = \sup(S)$. Prove that $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists x \in S$ such that $\beta - \epsilon < x$.

Theorem 3.10. Suppose $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is nonempty and bounded below. Let $\alpha = \inf(S)$. Prove that $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists x \in S$ such that $x < \alpha + \epsilon$.

Theorem 3.11. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty and bounded and let $k \in \mathbb{R}$. Define the set $k + S = \{k + x : x \in S\}$. Prove that:

- (a) $\sup(k + S) = k + \sup(S)$.
- (b) $\inf(k + S) = k + \inf(S)$.

Theorem 3.12. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty and bounded and let $k \in \mathbb{R}$. Define the set $kS = \{kx : x \in S\}$. Then the set kS is bounded and

- (a) if $k \geq 0$, then $\sup(kS) = k \sup(S)$ and $\inf(kS) = k \inf(S)$.
- (b) if $k < 0$, then $\sup(kS) = k \inf(S)$ and $\inf(kS) = k \sup(S)$.

Theorem 3.13. Given nonempty subsets A and B of \mathbb{R} , let C denote the set $C = \{x + y : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$. If A and B have suprema then C has a supremum and $\sup(C) = \sup(A) + \sup(B)$.

Definition 3.14. A function $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded if the set $f(D) = \{f(x) : x \in D\}$ is bounded.

Remark. $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. f is bounded.

$\iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a \leq f(x) \leq b, \forall x \in D$.

$\iff \exists M > 0$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M, \forall x \in D$.

Theorem 3.15. Let D be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} and $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded. Define $f + g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x), \forall x \in D$. Then $f + g$ is bounded i.e., $(f + g)(D)$ is bounded and

- (a) $\sup((f + g)(D)) \leq \sup(f(D)) + \sup(g(D))$.
- (b) $\inf(f(D)) + \inf(g(D)) \leq \inf((f + g)(D))$.

Theorem 3.16. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty. Suppose $\forall x \in A, \forall y \in B, x \leq y$. Then A is bounded above and B is bounded below and $\sup(A) \leq \inf(B)$.

Corollary 3.16.1. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Suppose $\forall x, y \in A, x - y < c$. Then A is bounded and $\sup(A) - \inf(A) \leq c$.

Theorem 3.17. Suppose that D is a nonempty set and $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) \leq g(y)$ then $f(D)$ is bounded above and $g(D)$ is bounded below and $\sup(f(D)) \leq \inf(g(D))$.

Theorem 3.18 (Archimedean Property of \mathbb{R}). The set of natural numbers is not bounded above in \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 3.19. *The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > x$.
- (b) *(Teaspoon and The Sea) (Every journey begins with a single step)*
 $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ with $x > 0, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $nx > y$.
- (c) $\forall x > 0, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $0 < \frac{1}{n} < x$.

Theorem 3.20. *If $x < y + \frac{1}{n}$ for every natural number n then $x \leq y$.*

Theorem 3.21. *Let A be a nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} , and let a be a real number such that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a + \frac{1}{n}$ is an upper bound for A and $a - \frac{1}{n}$ is not an upper bound for this set. Then prove that a is the supremum of A .*

Theorem 3.22. *Let p be a prime. Then there is no element in \mathbb{Q} whose square is p .*

Theorem 3.23. *Let p be a prime number. Then there exists a unique positive real number x such that $x^2 = p$.*

Theorem 3.24 (The Existence of n th root; extending previous theorem). *For every positive real number a and every natural number n there exists a unique positive number b such that $b^n = a$.*

Theorem 3.25. *The ordered field \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is not complete.*

Theorem 3.26. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $m - 1 \leq x < m$.

Corollary 3.26.1. *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. If $y - x > 1$ then $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x < m < y$.*

Definition 3.27. *Let $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. We say D is dense in \mathbb{R} if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, if $x < y$, then $\exists d \in D$ such that $x < d < y$.*

Theorem 3.28. *The set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers is dense in \mathbb{R} .*

Lemma 3.29. *Let $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ be nonzero and $y \in \mathbb{R}$ be irrational. Then xy is irrational.*

Theorem 3.30. *The set of irrational numbers is dense in \mathbb{R} .*

Theorem 3.31 (Nested Interval Theorem). *Let $\{I_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a set of nonempty closed intervals $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$ such that $I_{n+1} \subseteq I_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then*

(a) $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ is nonempty closed interval.

(b) if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0$ then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ consists of only one point.

Theorem 3.32 (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem for Sets). *Every infinite bounded set of real numbers has an accumulation point.*

Chapter 4

Topology

4.1 Neighborhoods

Definition 4.1. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $N_\epsilon(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - a| < \epsilon\} = (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon)$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} x \in N_\epsilon(a) &\iff |x - a| < \epsilon \\ &\iff -\epsilon < x - a < \epsilon \\ &\iff a - \epsilon < x < a + \epsilon \\ &\iff x \in (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.2. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Then $N_\epsilon^* = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \neq a \wedge |x - a| < \epsilon\} = N_\epsilon(x) - \{a\} = (a - \epsilon, a) \cup (a, a + \epsilon)$.

Theorem 4.3. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $0 < \epsilon_1 < \epsilon_2$. Then

1. $N_{\epsilon_1}(a) \subseteq N_{\epsilon_2}(a)$.
2. $N_{\epsilon_1}^*(a) \subseteq N_{\epsilon_2}^*(a)$.

Corollary 4.3.1. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $0 < \epsilon_1 \leq \epsilon_2$. Then $N_{\epsilon_1}(a) \subseteq N_{\epsilon_2}(a)$ and $N_{\epsilon_1}^*(a) \subseteq N_{\epsilon_2}^*(a)$.

Corollary 4.3.2. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

If $\epsilon_1 > 0$ and $\epsilon_2 > 0$ then $N_{\epsilon_1}(a) \cap N_{\epsilon_2}(a) = N_\epsilon(a)$ where $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2\}$.

Theorem 4.4. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\epsilon > 0$.

Then if $a < b$ then $(a, b) = N_{\frac{b-a}{2}}\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)$.

4.2 Interior, Exterior, And Boundary

Definition 4.5. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The interior of A is given by $\text{int}(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \exists \epsilon > 0, \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \subseteq A\}$.

Theorem 4.6. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then $\text{int}(A) \subseteq A$.

Theorem 4.7. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\epsilon > 0$, then $N_\epsilon(x) \subseteq A \iff N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c = \emptyset$.

Remark.

- $x \in \text{int}(A) \iff \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \subseteq A \iff \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c = \emptyset$.
- $x \notin \text{int}(A) \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \not\subseteq A \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset$.

Definition 4.8. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The exterior of A is given by

$$\text{ext}(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \subseteq A^c\}.$$

Remark.

- $x \in \text{ext}(A) \iff \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \subseteq A^c \iff \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \cap A = \emptyset$.
- $x \notin \text{ext}(A) \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \not\subseteq A^c \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$.

Definition 4.9. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The **boundary** of A is given by $\partial(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset \text{ and } N_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset\}$

Remark.

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \partial(A) &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset \wedge N_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset \\ &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset \wedge \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset \\ &\iff x \notin \text{int}(A) \wedge x \notin \text{ext}(A) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x \notin \partial(A) &\iff \exists \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c = \emptyset \vee \exists \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A = \emptyset \\ &\iff x \in \text{int}(A) \vee x \in \text{ext}(A) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 4.10 (The first partition theorem). For any $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ we have

- (a) $\text{int}(A) \cup \partial(A) \cup \text{ext}(A) = \mathbb{R}$.
- (b) (i) $\text{int}(A) \cap \partial(A) = \emptyset$.
- (ii) $\text{ext}(A) \cap \partial(A) = \emptyset$.
- (iii) $\text{int}(A) \cap \text{ext}(A) = \emptyset$.

4.3 Isolated, Accumulation, And Closure

Definition 4.11. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The set of **isolated** (discrete) points of A is given by $A^\circ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \exists \epsilon > 0, \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \cap A = \{x\}\}$

Theorem 4.12. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then $x \in A^\circ \iff x \in A \wedge \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon^*(x) \cap A = \emptyset$.

Remark.

$$\begin{aligned} x \in A^\circ &\iff \exists \epsilon > 0, \text{ such that } N_\epsilon(x) \cap A = \{x\} \\ &\iff x \in A \wedge \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } N_\epsilon^*(x) \cap A = \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.13. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The set of **accumulation** point of A is given by $\text{acc}(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon^*(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset\}$.

Remark. • $x \in \text{acc}(A) \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon^*(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$

$$\bullet x \notin \text{acc}(A) \iff \exists \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon^*(x) \cap A = \emptyset$$

Remark.

Theorem 4.14 (The second partition theorem). For any $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ we have

- (a) $A^\circ \cup \text{acc}(A) \cup \text{ext}(A) = \mathbb{R}$.
- (b) (i) $A^\circ \cap \text{acc}(A) = \emptyset$.
- (ii) $A^\circ \cap \text{ext}(A) = \emptyset$.
- (iii) $\text{acc}(A) \cap \text{ext}(A) = \emptyset$.

Definition 4.15. Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}$. The **closure** of A is given by, $\text{cl}(A) = \text{int}(A) \cup \partial(A)$.

Theorem 4.16. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cl}(A) &= \text{int}(A) \cup \partial(A) = (\text{ext}(A))^c \\ &= A \cup \partial(A) \\ &= A^\circ \cup \text{acc}(A) \\ &= A \cup \text{acc}(A) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 4.17. $\text{int}(\text{int}(A)) = \text{int}(A)$.

Theorem 4.18. $\text{int}(\text{ext}(A)) = \text{ext}(A)$.

Theorem 4.19. $\text{int}(A) \subseteq \text{ext}(\text{ext}(A))$.

Theorem 4.20. $\text{ext}(A) \subseteq \text{ext}(\text{int}(A))$.

Theorem 4.21. $\partial(\partial(A)) \subseteq \partial(A)$.

Theorem 4.22. $\partial(\text{int}(A)) \subseteq \partial(A)$.

Theorem 4.23. $\partial(A) = \partial(A^c)$.

Theorem 4.24. $\partial(\text{ext}(A)) \subseteq \partial(A)$.

Theorem 4.25. $\text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B) \subseteq \text{int}(A \cup B)$.

Theorem 4.26. $\text{ext}(A \cup B) \subseteq \text{ext}(A) \cap \text{ext}(B)$.

Theorem 4.27. $\text{int}(A \cap B) = \text{int}(A) \cap \text{int}(B)$.

Theorem 4.28. $\text{ext}(A \cup B) = \text{ext}(A) \cap \text{ext}(B)$.

Theorem 4.29. $\partial(A \cup B) \subseteq \partial(A) \cup \partial(B)$.

Theorem 4.30. If $A \subseteq B$ then $\text{int}(A) \subseteq \text{int}(B)$.

Theorem 4.31. If $A \subseteq B$ then $\text{ext}(B) \subseteq \text{ext}(A)$.

Theorem 4.32. $\text{int}(A) \subseteq \text{acc}(A)$.

Theorem 4.33. $A^\circ \subseteq \partial(A)$.

Theorem 4.34. (a) $x \in \partial(A) \wedge x \notin A \implies x \in \text{acc}(A)$.

(b) $x \in \text{acc}(A) \wedge x \notin A \implies x \in \partial(A)$.

4.4 Open and Closed Sets

Definition 4.35. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. We say A is **open** $\iff \forall x \in A, \exists \epsilon > 0$ such that $N_\epsilon(x) \subseteq A \iff \forall x \in A, x \in \text{int}(A) \iff A \subseteq \text{int}(A)$.

We say A is **closed** when $\partial(A) \subseteq A$.

Theorem 4.36. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(a) A is an open set.

(b) $A = \text{int}(A)$.

(c) $A \cap \partial(A) = \emptyset$.

(d) A^c is a closed set.

Theorem 4.37. *Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) *A is a closed set.*
- (b) *$A = \text{int}(A) \cup \partial(A)$.*
- (c) *$\text{acc}(A) \subseteq A$.*
- (d) *A^c is an open set.*

Theorem 4.38 (Finite Sets). (a) *Every point of a finite set A is an isolated point of A i.e., $A \subseteq A^\circ$.*

- (b) *Every point of a finite set A is a boundary point of A i.e., $A \subseteq \partial(A)$.*
- (c) *Finite sets have no interior points i.e., A is finite $\implies \text{int}(A) = \emptyset$.*
- (d) *Finite sets have no accumulation points i.e., A is finite $\implies \text{acc}(A) = \emptyset$.*
- (e) *A finite set is a closed set.*

Theorem 4.39. *A nonempty open set must be an infinite set.*

Theorem 4.40. *The union of any collection of open sets is open.*

Theorem 4.41. *The intersection of any finite number of open sets is open.*

Theorem 4.42. *The intersection of any collection of closed sets is closed.*

Theorem 4.43. *The union of any finite number of closed sets is closed.*

Theorem 4.44. *Let $(a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then (a, b) is an open set.*

Corollary 4.44.1. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\forall \epsilon > 0$

- (a) *$N_\epsilon(x)$ is an open set.*
- (b) *$N_\epsilon^*(x)$ is an open set.*

Theorem 4.45. (a) *$A = (-\infty, a)$ is an open set.*

- (b) *$B = (a, \infty)$ is an open set.*

Theorem 4.46. *$[a, b]$ is a closed set.*

Theorem 4.47. *$(a, b]$ is neither open nor closed.*

Theorem 4.48. *Let A be a set of real numbers. Then,*

- (a) $\text{int}(A) = \bigcup \{\text{all open subsets of } A\}$
- (b) $\text{int}(A)$ is the largest open subset of A , in the sense that if B is an open subset of A then $B \subseteq \text{int}(A)$.

Theorem 4.49. *Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. I*

Theorem 4.50. *$\text{int}(A)$ is open.*

Theorem 4.51. *$\text{ext}(A)$ is open.*

Theorem 4.52. *$\text{cl}(A)$ is closed.*

Theorem 4.53. *$\partial(A)$ is closed.*

Theorem 4.54. *$\text{acc}(A)$ is closed.*

Theorem 4.55. (a) \emptyset and \mathbb{R} are open.

- (b) \emptyset and \mathbb{R} are closed.

Theorem 4.56. *Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.*

- (a) *If A has an infimum then $\inf(A) \in \partial(A)$.*
- (b) *If A has a supremum then $\sup(A) \in \partial(A)$.*

Theorem 4.57. *Suppose $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then x is an accumulation point of the set $A \iff$ every neighborhood of x contains infinitely many points of A i.e., $\forall \epsilon > 0, N_\epsilon(x) \cap A$ is infinite.*

Theorem 4.58 (Sequential Criterion for Accumulation Points).

- (a) $x \in \text{acc}(A) \implies \exists$ sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ of points of A other than x , such that $a_n \rightarrow x$.
- (b) Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence of points of A other than x such that $a_n \rightarrow x$. Then $x \in \text{acc}(A)$.

Theorem 4.59 (Sequential Criterion for Closed Sets). *A set A is closed $\iff \forall$ convergent sequences $\langle a_n \rangle$ of points of A , $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \in A$.*

4.5 Compact Sets

Definition 4.60. A set A is said to be compact if whenever it is contained in the union of a family $\mathcal{F} = \{O_i : i \in I\}$ of open sets (O_i is an open set for all $i \in I$) then it is contained in the union of some finite number of the sets in \mathcal{F} .

So A is compact if whenever $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} O_i$ where O_i is an open set for all $i \in I$ then $\exists J \subseteq I$ such that J is finite and $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in J} O_i$.

If $\mathcal{F} = \{O_i : i \in I\}$ is a family of open sets such that $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} O_i$ then \mathcal{F} is called an open cover to A . Given an open cover $\mathcal{F} = \{O_i : i \in I\}$ of A , $\mathcal{G} = \{O_i : i \in J\}$ is called an open subcover of A if $J \subseteq I$ and $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in J} O_i$. Thus A is compact if and only if every open cover contains a finite subcover.

Theorem 4.61. Show that $A = (0, 2)$ is not compact.

Theorem 4.62. Any finite set is compact.

Theorem 4.63. If A is a nonempty closed bounded subset of \mathbb{R} then A has a maximum and a minimum.

Theorem 4.64. Every compact set is closed and bounded.

Theorem 4.65. Every closed, bounded interval of real numbers is compact.

Theorem 4.66. A closed subset of a compact set is compact.

Theorem 4.67 (Heine-Borel). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then A is compact $\iff A$ is closed and bounded.

Theorem 4.68 (Sequential Criterion for Compactness). Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then A is compact \iff every sequence of points of A has a subsequence that converges to a point of A .

4.6 The Cantor Set

Chapter 5

Sequences

Definition 5.1. Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Define $D_k = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} : m \geq k\}$. So $D_{-2} = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.

A **sequence** is a function $a : D_k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We normally denote the value $a(n)$ by a_n where a_n is called the n th term of the sequence.

A sequence a is denoted as $\langle a_n \rangle_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Definition 5.2. A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is said to **converge** to the real number L provided that

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n > N \implies |a_n - L| < \epsilon.$$

If $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to L then L is called the **limit** of the sequence and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L, \lim a_n = L \text{ or } a_n \mapsto L.$$

If a sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ does not converge, then we say $\langle a_n \rangle$ **diverges**. So a sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ diverges provided

$$\exists \epsilon > 0, \forall N \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n > N \wedge |a_n - L| \geq \epsilon.$$

5.1 Algebra of Limits

Theorem 5.3. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence and $L \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- (a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0.$
- (b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n - L = 0.$
- (c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n - L| = 0.$

$$(d) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = |L|.$$

Theorem 5.4. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$

Theorem 5.5. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 0.$

Theorem 5.6. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a constant sequence i.e., $a_n = c$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $c \in \mathbb{R}$, is a constant. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c = c.$

Theorem 5.7. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L, L > 0$ and $a_n \geq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{a_n} = \sqrt{L}.$

Theorem 5.8. Let $\langle s_n \rangle, \langle a_n \rangle$ be sequences and let $L \in \mathbb{R}$. If

$$(i) |s_n - L| \leq k |a_n| \text{ for all } n \geq m, \text{ where } k > 0 \text{ and } m \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$(ii) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$$

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

Corollary 5.8.1. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ be such that $|x| < 1$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0.$

Corollary 5.8.2. Suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$. let $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\langle u_n \rangle$ be such that $|u_n - r| \leq k |a_n - L|$ for all $n \geq m$ for some $k > 0$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = r.$

Corollary 5.8.3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$

Theorem 5.9. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L, L \geq 0$ and $a_n \geq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{a_n} = \sqrt{L}.$

Theorem 5.10 (Uniqueness of limit). A sequence cannot converge to more than one real number.

Theorem 5.11 (Alternate definition of limit). $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0$, all but finitely many terms of the sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ are in the interval $(L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon).$

Theorem 5.12. Let $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be dense in \mathbb{R} . Let x be any real number. Then there is a sequence $\langle d_n \rangle$ that converges to x where $d_n \in D$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 5.13 (Bounded Sequence). A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is **bounded** if the set $S = \{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is bounded. So $\langle a_n \rangle$ is bounded

$$\iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } a \leq a_n \leq b \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\iff \exists M > 0 \text{ such that } |a_n| \leq M \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Theorem 5.14. *Every convergent sequence is bounded*

Theorem 5.15 (Limit Algebra). *Suppose that the sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ and $\langle b_n \rangle$ converge to limits L and M respectively and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is a constant. Then*

- (a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L \pm M.$
- (b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ca_n = c \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = cL.$
- (c) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = LM.$
- (d) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{b_n} = \frac{1}{M}$ provided $b_n \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $M \neq 0.$
- (e) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{L}{M}$ provided $b_n \neq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $M \neq 0.$

Theorem 5.16 (Only the ‘Tail’ matters). *Given a sequence $\langle s_n \rangle$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\langle t_n \rangle$ be the sequence defined by $t_n = s_{n+k}$ (first k terms skipped). Show that $\langle t_n \rangle$ converges if and only if $\langle s_n \rangle$ converges and if they converge then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n.$*

Theorem 5.17 (The Squeeze Theorem). *Let $\langle s_n \rangle$ and $\langle t_n \rangle$ be convergent sequences such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n.$ If $\langle y_n \rangle$ is a sequence satisfying $s_n \leq y_n \leq t_n$ for all $n \geq m$ where $m \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = L.$*

Theorem 5.18. *For any fixed $c > 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$*

Theorem 5.19. (a) *If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and $L > 0$, then $a_n > 0$ for all sufficiently large n ;*

(b) *If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and $L < 0$, then $a_n < 0$ for all sufficiently large n .*

Theorem 5.20. *If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ where $a_n \geq 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $L \geq 0.$*

Theorem 5.21. *If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = M$ where $a_n \leq b_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $L \leq M.$*

Theorem 5.22. *Suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L.$ Let a and b be real numbers.*

- (a) *If $a_n \leq b$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $L \leq b.$*
- (b) *If $a \leq a_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $a \leq L.$*

Corollary 5.22.1. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence whose terms are all in $[a, b]$. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$, then $L \in [a, b]$.

Corollary 5.22.2. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and let $M \geq 0$. If $|a_n| \leq M$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $|L| \leq M$.

5.2 Monotone Sequences

Definition 5.23. A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is said to be

- (a) **monotone increasing** if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n \leq a_{n+1}$; that is

$$a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \cdots \leq a_n \leq a_{n+1} \cdots$$

- (b) **monotone decreasing** if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n \geq a_{n+1}$; that is

$$a_1 \geq a_2 \geq \cdots \geq a_n \geq a_{n+1} \cdots$$

- (c) **strictly increasing** if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n < a_{n+1}$; that is

$$a_1 < a_2 < \cdots < a_n < a_{n+1} \cdots$$

- (d) **strictly decreasing** if $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n > a_{n+1}$; that is

$$a_1 > a_2 > \cdots > a_n > a_{n+1} \cdots$$

- (e) **monotone** if it is monotone increasing or monotone decreasing.

Theorem 5.24 (Monotone Convergence Theorem). Every bounded monotone sequence converges. More precisely,

- (a) if $\langle a_n \rangle$ is a monotone increasing sequence that is bounded above, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sup\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$;
- (b) if $\langle a_n \rangle$ is a monotone decreasing sequence that is bounded below, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \inf\{a_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$;

5.3 Subsequences

Definition 5.25. Suppose $\langle a_n \rangle$ is a sequence. if $\langle n_k \rangle$ is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers (i.e., $n_1 < n_2 < \cdots < n_k < \cdots$) then the sequence $\langle a_{n_k} \rangle$ is said to be the **subsequence** of $\langle a_n \rangle$.

Lemma 5.26. If $\langle n_k \rangle$ is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers, then $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, n_k \geq k$.

Theorem 5.27. A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to a real number $L \iff$ every subsequence of $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to L .

Theorem 5.28. Every sequence has a monotone subsequence.

Theorem 5.29 (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem for Sequences). Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

Definition 5.30. A real number L is a **cluster point** of a sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ if every neighborhood of L contains infinitely many term of the sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ i.e., $\forall \epsilon > 0, a_n \in (L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon)$ for infinitely many values of $n \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \{n \in \mathbb{N} : |a_n - L| < \epsilon\}$ is infinite.

Theorem 5.31. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence. If $a_n \rightarrow L$ then L is a cluster point of $\langle a_n \rangle$.

Theorem 5.32. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence and let $L \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the following statements are equivalent;

- (a) L is a cluster point of $\langle a_n \rangle$;
- (b) $\forall \epsilon > 0, \forall m \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n > m$ such that $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$;
- (c) $\exists \langle a_{n_k} \rangle$ a subsequence of $\langle a_n \rangle$ converging to L .

Theorem 5.33. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a sequence such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$. Then L is the only cluster point of $\langle a_n \rangle$.

Theorem 5.34. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a bounded sequence. Then $\langle a_n \rangle$ has atleast one cluster point.

Theorem 5.35. Let $\langle a_n \rangle$ be a bounded sequence such that it has one and only one cluster point L . Then $\langle a_n \rangle$ converges to L .

5.4 Cauchy Sequences

Definition 5.36. A sequence $\langle a_n \rangle$ is a **Cauchy sequence** if it satisfies the following criteria;

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, m, n > N \implies |a_m - a_n| < \epsilon.$$

Theorem 5.37. Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence.

Theorem 5.38. Every Cauchy sequence is bounded.

Theorem 5.39 (Cauchy Convergence Criterion). A sequence of real numbers is convergent if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

Theorem 5.40. If some subsequence of a Cauchy sequence converges to a real number L , then the sequence itself also converges to L .

Chapter 6

Limits of Functions

Definition 6.1. If $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a is an accumulation point of D_f then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } \forall x \in D_f, 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Negation of $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$: f does not have limit L at $a \iff$

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } \forall \delta > 0, \exists x \in D_f \text{ such that } 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \epsilon.$$

Remark. We require $a \in \text{acc}(D_f)$ since we want to talk about the value of $f(x)$ as the value of x gets closer and closer to a .

Theorem 6.2 (Uniqueness of Limits). A function cannot have more than one limit as $x \rightarrow a$.

Theorem 6.3 (Sequential Criterion for Limits of Functions).

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \forall \text{ sequences } \langle x_n \rangle \text{ in } D_f - \{a\}, \text{ if } x_n \rightarrow a \text{ then } f(x_n) \rightarrow L.$$

Negation : f does not have limit L at a if and only if \exists sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ in $D_f - \{a\}$ such that $x_n \rightarrow a$ but the sequence $\langle f(x_n) \rangle$ does not converge to L .

Theorem 6.4. If \exists sequences $\langle x_n \rangle$ and $\langle y_n \rangle$ in $D_f - \{a\}$ which both converge to a , but the sequence $\langle f(x_n) \rangle$ and $\langle f(y_n) \rangle$ do not both converge to the same number, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ does not exist.

Example 6.5. Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ does not exist.

Theorem 6.6 (Absolute Value and Limits).

- (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = 0.$
- (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x) - L| = 0.$
- (c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = |L|.$

Theorem 6.7. Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a is an accumulation point of D_f . Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff$ for each neighborhood V of L there exists a deleted neighborhood U of a such that $f(U \cap D_f) \subseteq V$ (or $U \cap D_f \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$).

Theorem 6.8. Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{acc}(D_f)$. If f is constant, say $f(x) = c$, on some deleted neighborhood of a , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = c$.

Theorem 6.9. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$, then there is some deleted neighborhood U of a such that f is bounded on $U \cap D_f$.

Theorem 6.10 (Fundamental Limit). For every $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$

Theorem 6.11. Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$, and $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} cf(x) = cL.$
- (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = L \pm M.$
- (c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = LM.$
- (d) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{1}{g(x)} \right) = \frac{1}{M} \quad (\text{if } M \neq 0).$
- (e) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) = \frac{L}{M} \quad (\text{if } M \neq 0).$

In (b), (c), and (e) we assume that a is an accumulation point of $D_f \cap D_g$.

Theorem 6.12. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ and $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of a , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{f(x)} = \sqrt{L}$.

Definition 6.13. A **polynomial** (in one variable) is a function of the form

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are (constant) real numbers.

Theorem 6.14 (Limits of polynomials). *For any polynomial $p(x)$ and any $a \in \mathbb{R}$*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) = p(a).$$

Definition 6.15. A **rational function** (of one variable) is any function of the form

$$r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)},$$

where $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are polynomials.

Theorem 6.16 (Limits of Rational Functions). *For any rational function $r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ and any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} r(x) = r(a)$ provided that $q(a) \neq 0$.*

Theorem 6.17 (Only What Happens in a Deleted Neighborhood of c Matters). *Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$, and $f(x) = g(x)$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of c . Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$.*

Theorem 6.18 (The Squeeze Principle for Functions).

- (a) **The First Squeeze Principle:** *Suppose $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of c and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = L$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$.*
- (b) **The Second Squeeze Principle:** *Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$. If $|f(x) - L| \leq |g(x)|$, for all x in some deleted neighborhood of c , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$.*

Example 6.19. *Use the squeeze principle to prove that*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = 0.$$

Theorem 6.20 (Limits Preserve Inequalities).

- (a) *If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ and $f(x) \leq K$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of a , then $L \leq K$.*
- (b) *If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ and $f(x) \geq K$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of a , then $L \geq K$.*
- (c) *Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D_g \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{acc}(D_f \cap D_g)$. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ exist, and $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of a , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$.*

Theorem 6.21 (Change of Variables in Limits). *Suppose $\lim_{h \rightarrow c} g(h) = a$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ where c and a are accumulation points of D_g and D_f respectively and $g(h) \in D_f - \{a\}$ for all $h \in D_g$ in some deleted neighborhood of c . Then*

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow c} f(g(h)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$

Theorem 6.22. *Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(a + h) = L$$

6.1 One-Sided Limits

Definition 6.23 (Limit from the Left). *Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{acc}(D_f \cap (-\infty, a))$. Then we say f has limit L as x approaches a from the left, written $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$, if*

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that, } \forall x \in D_f, a - \delta < x < a \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

Example 6.24. *Prove that*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{|x - 2|}{x - 2} = -1$$

Definition 6.25 (Limit from the Right). *Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{acc}(D_f \cap (a, +\infty))$. Then we say f has limit L as x approaches a from the right, written $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$, if*

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that, } \forall x \in D_f, a < x < a + \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

Example 6.26. *Prove that*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \frac{|x - 2|}{x - 2} = 1$$

Theorem 6.27. *Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.*

- (a) *If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ then $\exists \delta > 0$ such that f is bounded on $(a - \delta, a) \cap D_f$.*

- (b) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ then $\exists \delta > 0$ such that f is bounded on $(a, a + \delta) \cap D_f$.

Theorem 6.28 (Limits from the Left Preserve Inequalities). (a) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ and $\exists \delta_1 > 0$ such that $f(x) \leq K$ for all $x \in (a - \delta_1, a) \cap D_f$, then $L \leq K$.

- (b) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ and $\exists \delta_1 > 0$ such that $f(x) \geq K$ for all $x \in (a - \delta_1, a) \cap D_f$, then $L \geq K$.
- (c) Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D_g \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $a \in \text{acc}(D_f \cap D_g \cap (-\infty, a))$. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} g(x)$ exist and $\exists \delta > 0 \ni \forall x \in (a - \delta, a) \cap (D_f \cap D_g), f(x) \leq g(x)$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} g(x)$.

Theorem 6.29. If a is an accumulation point of $D_f \cap (-\infty, a)$ and a is an accumulation point of $D_f \cap (a, +\infty)$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$.

Example 6.30.

Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{|x - 2|}{x - 2}$ does not exist.

6.2 Infinity in Limits

6.2.1 Infinity as a Limit

Definition 6.31. Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{acc}(D_f)$. Then

- (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = +\infty$ if

$$\forall M > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies f(x) > M.$$

- (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$ if

$$\forall M > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies f(x) < -M.$$

Theorem 6.32. Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = +\infty \iff f(x) > 0$

for all x in some deleted neighborhood of a and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0$

Example 6.33. Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{3x - 5}{(x - 2)^2} = +\infty$.

Theorem 6.34. Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = +\infty$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = +\infty$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = -\infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} k(x) = -\infty$. Then

- (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = +\infty$;
- (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)g(x)) = +\infty$;
- (c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (h(x) + k(x)) = -\infty$;
- (d) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (h(x)k(x)) = +\infty$;
- (e) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)h(x)) = -\infty$.

In (a) and (b), $a \in \text{acc}(D_f \cap D_g)$. In (c) and (d), $a \in \text{acc}(D_h \cap D_k)$. In (e) $a \in \text{acc}(D_f \cap D_h)$.

Theorem 6.35 (Comparison Test). Suppose that $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all x in some deleted neighborhood of a .

- (a) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = +\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = +\infty$;
- (b) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = -\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$

6.2.2 Limit at Infinity

Definition 6.36. $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = L \iff D_f$ is unbounded above, and

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, x > N \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Definition 6.37. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L \iff D_f$ is unbounded below, and

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, x < -N \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Definition 6.38. $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = +\infty \iff D_f$ is unbounded above, and

$$\forall M > 0, \exists N > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, x > N \implies f(x) > M.$$

Definition 6.39. $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = -\infty \iff D_f$ is unbounded above, and

$$\forall M > 0, \exists N > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, x > N \implies f(x) < -M.$$

Definition 6.40. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = +\infty \iff D_f$ is unbounded below, and

$$\forall M > 0, \exists N > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, x < -N \implies f(x) > M.$$

Definition 6.41. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty \iff D_f$ is unbounded below, and

$$\forall M > 0, \exists N > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, x < -N \implies f(x) < -M.$$

Example 6.42. Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} (5 - 4x) = -\infty$.

Theorem 6.43. (a) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x^n = +\infty$;

(b) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, if n is even, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x^n = +\infty$;

(c) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, if n is odd, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x^n = -\infty$.

Theorem 6.44. (a) Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $(0, +\infty) \subseteq D_f$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = L;$$

(b) Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and suppose $(-\infty, 0) \subseteq D_f$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = L$;

Theorem 6.45. Let $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a be a real number.

(a) Suppose $(a, +\infty) \subseteq D_f$ and $\forall x > a \implies f(x) > 0$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = +\infty \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0.$$

(b) Suppose $(a, +\infty) \subseteq D_f$ and $\forall x > a \implies f(x) < 0$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = -\infty \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0.$$

(c) Suppose $(-\infty, a) \subseteq D_f$ and $\forall x < a \implies f(x) > 0$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = +\infty \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0.$$

(d) Suppose $(-\infty, a) \subseteq D_f$ and $\forall x < a \implies f(x) < 0$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0.$$

Chapter 7

Continuous Functions

7.1 Continuity of a Function at a Point

Definition 7.1. Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in D_f$. Then f is **continuous at a** if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } \forall x \in D_f, |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon.$$

Example 7.2. Prove that the function $f(x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$ is continuous at $a = 2$.

Theorem 7.3. Suppose $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{acc}(D_f)$. Then f is continuous at $a \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

Theorem 7.4 (Sequential Criterion for Continuity of f at a). A function $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at a point $a \in D_f \iff \forall$ sequences $\langle x_n \rangle$ in D_f , if $x_n \rightarrow a$ then $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(a)$.

Negation : A function $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is discontinuous at a point $a \in D_f$ if and only if \exists sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ in D_f such that $x_n \rightarrow a$ but the sequence $\langle f(x_n) \rangle$ does not converge to $f(a)$.

Example 7.5. The **signum function**, $\text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{|x|}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ is discontinuous at $a = 0$.

Theorem 7.6. Polynomial functions are continuous everywhere.

Theorem 7.7. A rational function $r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$, where $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are polynomials, is continuous everywhere on its domain i.e., at every real number x for which $q(x) \neq 0$.

Example 7.8. (a) The absolute value function $f(x) = |x|$ is continuous everywhere.

(b) The square root function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is continuous everywhere on its domain $[0, +\infty)$.

Example 7.9 (A function That is Continuous Nowhere). The **Dirchlet function** $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$ is discontinuous everywhere.

Example 7.10. The **Thomae's function** $T(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } x = \frac{m}{n} \neq 0, \text{ where } m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ and have } \gcd(m, n) = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational.} \end{cases}$

Theorem 7.11 (Algebra of Continuous Function). Suppose f and g are continuous at a point a and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then,

- (a) cf is continuous at a ;
- (b) $f \pm g$ is continuous at a ;
- (c) $f \cdot g$ is continuous at a ;
- (d) $\frac{1}{g}$ is continuous at a , if $g(a) \neq 0$.
- (e) $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at a , if $g(a) \neq 0$.

Theorem 7.12 (Composite Functions). (a) Suppose f is continuous at a and g is continuous at $f(a)$. Then the composite function $g \circ f$ is continuous at a .

(b) Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b \in D_g$ and g is continuous at b . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(f(x)) = g\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)\right) = g(b)$$

7.2 Monotonic Functions

Definition 7.13. A function f is

(a) **monotone increasing** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if $\forall x_1, x_2$ in A ,

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) \leq f(x_2);$$

(b) **monotone decreasing** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if $\forall x_1, x_2$ in A ,

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) \geq f(x_2);$$

(c) **strictly increasing** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if $\forall x_1, x_2$ in A ,

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) < f(x_2);$$

(d) **strictly decreasing** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if $\forall x_1, x_2$ in A ,

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) > f(x_2);$$

(e) **monotone** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if it is monotone increasing or monotone decreasing.

7.3 Continuity on Compact Sets and Intervals

Theorem 7.14 (Continuous functions preserve compactness). *If A is a compact set and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then $f(A)$ is compact.*

Corollary 7.14.1 (Extreme Value Theorem). *If A is a nonempty compact set and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous then f has the extreme value property on A :*

(a) $\exists u = \min f(A) = \min\{f(x) : x \in A\}$, and

(b) $\exists v = \max f(A) = \max\{f(x) : x \in A\}$.

That is, a continuous function assumes a maximum and a minimum value on any nonempty compact set.

Theorem 7.15 (Continuous functions preserve intervals). *Suppose I is an interval and $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Then $f(I)$ is an interval.*

Corollary 7.15.1 (Intermediate Value Theorem). *Suppose $a < b$. Any continuous $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ must satisfy the **intermediate value property** on $[a, b]$:*

$$\forall y \text{ between } f(a) \text{ and } f(b), \exists c \in [a, b] \ni f(c) = y.$$

7.4 Uniform Continuity

Definition 7.16. A function $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **continuous** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if

$$\forall a \in A, \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \forall x \in D_f, |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon.$$

Definition 7.17. A function $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **uniformly continuous** on a set $A \subseteq D_f$ if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \forall x, y \in A, |x - y| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon.$$

Example 7.18. Prove that the function $f(x) = 2x$ is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Example 7.19. Prove that the function $f(x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$ is uniformly continuous on the interval $[-1, 5]$.

Theorem 7.20. If $f : D_f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous on the set $A \subseteq D_f$, then $f|_A$ is continuous on A .

Corollary 7.20.1. If $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous on D , then f is continuous on D .

Example 7.21. The converse of the previous theorem is not true. The function $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is continuous on $(0, 1)$ but is not uniformly continuous there.

Theorem 7.22. If f is uniformly continuous on a bounded set A then f is bounded on A .

Theorem 7.23. If $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on a compact set A , then f is uniformly continuous on A .