

Real Analysis

Sequences

Sequence is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers.

$$\text{i.e., } \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

$$\text{or } a_n = a(n), \\ n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\text{e.g., (a) } \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots \right\}$$

$$\text{(b) Let } P_n \text{ be the } n\text{th Prime number} \\ \{P_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{2, 3, 5, \dots\}$$

Convergence of Sequence—A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to a real number A iff for each $\epsilon > 0$, there is a positive integer N , such that for all $n \geq N$, we have $|a_n - A| < \epsilon$.

Neighbourhood—A set N_x of real numbers is a neighbourhood of real number x iff, N_x contains an interval of positive length centered at x , i.e., iff there is $\epsilon > 0 : (x - \epsilon, x + \epsilon) \subset N_x$.

Convergent and divergent sequence—A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is convergent iff there is a real number A such that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to A . If $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is not convergent it is Divergent sequence.

Cauchy Sequence—A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy iff for each $\epsilon > 0$, there is a positive integer N : if $m, n \geq N$, then $|a_n - a_m| < \epsilon$.

Limit of a Sequence—If a sequence is convergent the unique number to which it converges is the limit of the sequence.

Accumulation Point—For a set S of real numbers, a real number A is an accumulation point of S iff every neighbourhood of A contains infinitely many points of S .

Subsequence—Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence and $\{n_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be any sequence of positive integer such that $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots$ the sequence $\{a_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is called a subsequence of $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$.

Increasing sequence—Sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is increasing, iff $b_n \geq b_{n+1}$ for all n .

Monotone Sequence—Sequence that is either increasing or decreasing.

Bounded above sequence—Sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded above, iff there exist a real number $N : a_n \leq N$ for all n .

Bounded below sequence—Sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded below iff there exist a real number $M : a_n \geq M$ for all n .

Bounded Sequence—Sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded, if it is bounded both from above and below \Leftrightarrow there exist a real number $S : |a_n| \leq S$ for all n .

Series

Infinite series—An infinite series is a pair $\{\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}\}$, where $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence of real numbers and $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ for all n , a_n is the n th term of the series and S_n is the n th partial sum of the series.

Convergence of Series—If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, then $\{S_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges.

Converges absolutely—An infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges absolutely iff $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges.

Converges Conditionally—If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, but $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ diverges.

Cauchy's Product—Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ are two infinite series and for each n define $c_n =$

$\sum_{k=0}^n a_n b_{n-k}$. The infinite series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n$ is called the Cauchy's product of two series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$.

Rearrangement of Series—Let $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ be an infinite series. If T is one-one function from $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ onto $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, then the infinite series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{T(n)}$ is called a rearrangement of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$.

Interval of Convergence—If $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ is a power series, then the set of points at which series converges is either.

- (1) \mathbb{R} , a set of all real numbers $(-\infty, \infty)$, (Interval of infinite radius)
- (2) $\{0\}$, (Interval of zero radius)
- (3) An interval of positive finite length centered at zero which may contain all, none or one of its end points.

These intervals are called interval of convergence.

Radius of Convergence—If $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ has an interval of convergence c which is different from \mathbb{R} and $\{0\}$, then there is a unique real number r such that, $(-r, r) \subset C \subset [-r, r]$. This number r is called the radius of convergence of the power series.

Uniform Convergence—A sequence $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of functions is said to converge uniformly on E if there is a function $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for each $\epsilon > 0$, there is N such that for each positive integer n , $n \geq N$ implies that $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ for all $x \in E$.

Power Series—Let $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a sequence of real number. For each real number, x , a series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ is power series.

Maxima and Minima

(1) **Maximum value**—A continuous function $f(x)$ is said to have a maximum value for $x = a$, if $f(a)$ is greater than any other value of $f(x)$ lying in small neighbourhood of $x = a$.

In other words, $f(a)$ is a maximum value of $f(x)$, if $f(x)$ is increasing in $(a-h, a)$ and decreasing in $(a, a+h)$ where h is a small quantity.

(2) **Minimum value**—A continuous function $f(x)$ is said to have a minimum value at $x = a$, if $f(a)$ is smallest of all $f(x)$ lying in small neighbourhood of $x = a$.

In other words, $f(a)$ is minimum value of $f(x)$, if $f(x)$ is decreasing in $(a-h, a)$ and increasing in $(a, a+h)$, where h is a small quantity.

(3) **Conditions for Maxima**—The function $f(x)$ has a maximum value $f(a)$ if $f'(a) = 0$ and $f'(x)$ changes sign from positive to negative as x passes through a from left to right.

In general, for any even number n .

$f'(a) = f''(a) = f'''(a) = \dots = f^{n-1}(a) = 0$ and $f^n(a) < 0$, then $f(a)$ is a maximum value of $f(x)$.

In particular, if $n = 2$ then $f'(a) = 0$, $f''(a) < 0$, then the function is maximum at $x = a$.

(4) **Conditions for Minima**—The function $f(x)$ has a minimum value $f(a)$. If $f'(a) = 0$ and $f'(x)$ change sign from negative to positive as x passes through a from left to right.

In general, for any even number n .

$f'(a) = f''(a) = f'''(a) = \dots = f^{n-1}(a) = 0$ and $f^n(a) \leq 0$, then $f(a)$ is a minimum value of the function $f(x)$.

In particular, If $n = 2$ and $f'(a) = 0$, $f''(a) > 0$ so the function is minimum at $x = a$.

Extreme value—Either a maximum value or minimum value $f(a)$ of the function $f(x)$ is said to be extreme value.

Note : The tangent at maximum or minimum point of the curve is parallel to x -axis.

Stationary value—If $f'(a) = 0$, then $f(a)$ is said to be stationary value of the function $f(x)$ at $x = a$.

Note : Every extreme value is stationary but every stationary value need not be an extreme value.

Greatest Value—The greatest value of a function in an interval (a, b) is either a maximum value of $f(x)$ at a point inside the interval or end value (i.e., at $x = a$, or $x = b$) of $f(x)$ which ever is greater.

Least Value—The least value of $f(x)$ in an interval (a, b) is either a minimum value of $f(x)$ at a point inside the interval or an end value (i.e. at $x = a$ or $x = b$) of $f(x)$ which ever is less.

Maxima and Minima for the function of two independent variable—

(i) **Maximum value**—Let $f(x, y)$ be continuous function. The value $f(a, b)$ is said to be maximum value of $f(x, y)$ if there exist some neighbourhood of the points (a, b) such that $(a + h, b + k)$ of this neighbourhood, other than (a, b) .

$$f(a, b) > f(a + h, b + k)$$

(ii) **Minimum value**—Let $f(x, y)$ be a continuous function the value $f(a, b)$ is said to be minimum value of $f(x, y)$ if there exist some neighbourhood of the point (a, b) such that $(a + h, b + k)$ of this neighbourhood, other than (a, b)

$$f(a, b) < f(a + h, b + k)$$

Sufficient Condition for Maximum value—

If $f_x(a, b) = 0$, $f_y(a, b) = 0$ and $f_{xx}^2(a, b) = A$, $f_{xy}(a, b) = B$, $f_{yy}^2(a, b) = C$, then $f(a, b)$ is maximum value if $AC - B^2 > 0$ and $A < 0$.

Sufficient Condition for Minimum value—

If $f_x(a, b) = 0$, $f_y(a, b) = 0$ and $f_{xx}^2(a, b) = A$, $f_{xy}(a, b) = B$, $f_{yy}^2(a, b) = C$, then $f(a, b)$ is minimum value if $AC - B^2 > 0$ and $A > 0$.

Note : The value $f(a, b)$ is neither maximum nor minimum, if $AC - B^2 < 0$.

Extreme value—Either a maximum value or a minimum value $f(a, b)$ of the function $f(x, y)$ is said to be extreme value.

Sufficient Condition for Extreme value—If $f_x(a, b) = 0$, $f_y(a, b) = 0$ and $f_{xx}^2(a, b) = A$, $f_{xy}(a, b) = B$, $f_{yy}^2(a, b) = C$, then $f(a, b)$ is an extreme value if $AC - B^2 > 0$.

Fourier Series

L(I)—Set of Lebesgue-integrable function on interval I .

$L^2(I)$ —Set of square integrable on I .

Orthogonal system and orthonormal on interval I —Let $\delta = \{\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots\}$ be a collection of function in $L^2(I)$.

If $(\phi_n, \phi_m) = 0$ whenever $m \neq n$, the collection S is orthogonal system on I .

If each ϕ_n has $\|\phi_n\| = 1$, then S is orthonormal on I .

Fourier Series and Coefficients—Let $S = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots\}$ be orthonormal on interval I and $f \in L^2(I)$ then $f(x) \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x)$ is called Fourier

series of f relative to S and $c_n = (f, \phi_n) = \int f(x) \phi_n(x) dx$ ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) is called Fourier Coefficient of f relative to S .

Functions of Several Variables—If $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ the function

$f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, where $(x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called function of several variables.

Limit—A function $f(x)$, $x \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ has a limit l , i.e., $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = l$, if for given $\epsilon > 0$, there exist $\delta = 0$ such that $|f(x) - l| < \epsilon$ for every $a \in D$, $\|x - a\| < \delta$.

Continuity—A function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is continuous at $x = a$, if for each $\epsilon > 0$ there exist $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$ whenever $\|x - a\| < \delta$ and $x \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ or $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is continuous at a iff $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

Uniform Continuity—A function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is uniformly continuous on D if it is continuous at every $x \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

Some Important Results

1. $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $g: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ then, $\lim (f \pm g)(x) = \lim f(x) \pm \lim g(x)$ $\lim (f \cdot g)(x) = \lim f(x) \cdot \lim g(x)$, $\lim (f/g)(x) = \lim f(x)/\lim g(x)$. If $\lim g(x) \neq 0$.
2. The range of a function continuous on a compact set is compact.
3. A real valued function continuous on a compact set is bounded and attains its bound.
4. A real valued function continuous on a closed rectangle $[a, b]$ is bounded and attains its bound.
5. A function continuous on a compact domain is uniformly continuous.
6. Let f be a real valued function with domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Let D be such that $X, Y \in D \Rightarrow \epsilon x + (1 - \epsilon) Y \in D \forall \epsilon \in [0, 1]$, then f assumes every value between $f(x)$ and $f(y)$.
7. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$
and $b = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$
 $f = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m)$
then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f_i(x) = b_i$ ($1 \leq i \leq m$) and conversely

Riemann (Stieltjes) Integration

Partition—A partition P of $[a, b]$ is a finite set $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ such that $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$.

Refinement—If P and Q are partition of $[a, b]$ with $P \subset Q$, then Q is refinement of P .

Riemann Integration—Suppose $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded function and $P = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition of $[a, b]$. For each i , ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) define

$$\begin{aligned} M_i(f) &= \sup \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\} \\ m_i(f) &= \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\} \\ U(P, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(f) (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &\quad \text{(Upper darbox sum of } f) \\ L(P, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(f) (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &\quad \text{(lower darbox sum of } f) \end{aligned}$$

Then upper integration of f .

$$\int_a^b f dx = \inf \{U(P, f) : P \text{ is a partition}\}$$

Lower integration of f .

$$\int_a^b f dx = \sup \{L(P, f) : P \text{ is a Partition}\}$$

Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ — f is Riemann integrable if $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exist.

$$\text{i.e. } \int_a^b f dx = \int_a^b f dx = \int_a^b f dx$$

Riemann—Stieltjes integration—Suppose $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and $d : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an increasing function. For each partition

$P = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ define

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(f) [x_i(\alpha) - x_{i-1}(\alpha)] \\ L(P, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(f) [x_i(\alpha) - x_{i-1}(\alpha)] \\ \int_a^b f d\alpha &= \inf \{U(P, f, \alpha) : P \text{ is a partition}\} \\ \int_a^b f d\alpha &= \sup \{L(P, f, \alpha) : P \text{ is a partition}\} \end{aligned}$$

f is Riemann-Stieltjes integrable with respect to α on $[a, b]$ if

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^b f d\alpha$$

when $\alpha(x) = x$, the Riemann—Stieltjes integral with respect to α reduces to Riemann integration.

Some Important Theorems

- Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ increasing function.
Then if P and Q are any partions of $[a, b]$, we have
 - If $P \subset Q$, then $L(P, f, \alpha) \leq L(Q, f, \alpha)$ and $U(Q, f, \alpha) \leq U(P, f, \alpha)$
 - $L(P, f, \alpha) \leq U(Q, f, \alpha)$
 - $\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq \int_a^b f d\alpha$
- Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be increasing. Then f is Riemann integration on $[a, b]$ iff for each $\epsilon > 0$, there is a partition P such that $U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) \leq \epsilon$.
- If $f' : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotone and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing and continuous, then f is Riemann—Stieltjes integration on $[a, b]$.
- If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ increasing, then f is Riemann—Stieltjes integration on $[a, b]$.
- If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable on $[a, b]$ and f' is Riemann integration on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f' dx = f(b) - f(a)$.
- If $f_1, f_2 : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are bounded, $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing and f_1, f_2 are Riemann integration with respect to α on $[a, b]$, then—
 - For any real numbers c_1, c_2 , $c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2$ is also Riemann integration on $[a, b]$ and $\int_a^b (c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2) d\alpha = c_1 \int_a^b f_1 d\alpha + c_2 \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha$
 - If $f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f_1(x) d\alpha \leq \int_a^b f_2(x) d\alpha$
 - If $m \leq f_1(x) \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $m \{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)\} \leq \int_a^b f_1 d\alpha \leq M \{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)\}$.
 - If $\beta : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing and f is Riemann integration with respect to β on $[a, b]$ and c_1 and c_2 are any non-negative real numbers, then f is Riemann integration with respect to $(c_1 \alpha + c_2 \beta)$ on $[a, b]$ and $\int_a^b f d(c_1 \alpha + c_2 \beta) = c_1 \int_a^b f d\alpha + c_2 \int_a^b f d\beta$.

7. Suppose $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing. If $a < c < b$, then f is Riemann–Stieltjes integration on $[a, b]$ iff f is Riemann–Stieltjes integration on $[a, c]$ and $[c, b]$ and $\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^c f d\alpha + \int_c^b f d\alpha$.
8. Suppose $f : [a, b] \rightarrow [c, d]$, $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing. f is Riemann Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ and $\phi : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Then $\phi \circ f$ is Riemann–Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$.
9. If $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing, f, g is Riemann–Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ then
- fg is Riemann Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$
 - $|f|$ is Riemann Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$
 - $\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \leq \int_a^b |f| d\alpha$
10. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is increasing, then there is $c \in [a, b]$ such that $\int_a^b f d\alpha = f(c) [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)]$

Line and Surface Integrals

Line Integral

Curve—A curve Γ , in the xy plane is the set of points (x, y) such that $\Gamma = \{(x, y) : x = \phi(\tau), y = \psi(\tau); a \leq \tau \leq b\}$.

Closed Curve—If $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$ and $\psi(a) = \psi(b)$ the curve Γ is closed.

Double Points—For $a < \tau_1, \tau_2 < b$ and $\tau_1 \neq \tau_2 \Rightarrow \phi(\tau_1) = \phi(\tau_2)$ and $\psi(\tau_1) = \psi(\tau_2)$.

Jordan Curve—If curve closed and have no double points.

Regular Curve—If curve Γ is regular if it has no double points and if the interval (a, b) can be divided into a finite subintervals in each of which $[\psi'(\tau)]^2 + [\phi'(\tau)]^2 > 0$ where $\phi(\tau), \psi(\tau) \in C'$.

Regular region—A region is regular if it is bounded and closed and if its boundary consists of a finite number of regular Jordan curves which have no points in common with each other.

Plane region— $R_x = R[a, b, \phi(x), \psi(x)]$

$R_y = R[a, b, \phi(y), \psi(y)]$

Line Integral—Let $f(x, y)$ is a function defined at every point $(x, y) \in \Gamma$ and Δ is a sub

division of interval $[a, b]$ by $a = \tau_0, \tau_1, \dots, \tau_n = b$. The line integral of $f(x, y)$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Gamma} f(x, y) dx &= \int_{x_0, y_0}^{x_1, y_1} f(x, y) dx \\ &= \lim_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\phi(\tau_i'), \psi(\tau_i')) [\phi(\tau_i) - \phi(\tau_{i-1})] \\ \int_{\Gamma} f(x, y) dy &= \int_{x_0, y_0}^{x_1, y_1} f(x, y) dy \\ &= \lim_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\phi(\tau_i'), \psi(\tau_i')) [\psi(\tau_i) - \psi(\tau_{i-1})] \end{aligned}$$

where $x_0 = \phi(a),$
 $y_0 = \psi(a)$
 and $x_1 = \phi(b),$
 $y_1 = \psi(b)$
 and $\tau_{i-1} \leq \tau_i' \leq \tau_i$

Simply Connected domain—A domain D is simply connected if no Jordan curve in D contains in its interior a boundary point of D .

Some Important Theorems

- If Γ is a regular curve and $f(x, y)$ on Γ exists, then $\int_{\Gamma} f(x, y) dx$ and $\int_{\Gamma} f(x, y) dy$ exists.
- Green theorem (Gauss's theorem) (First form)**—If R is region R_x and also R_y and Γ is bounded of R , where $P(x, y), Q(x, y) \in R$ then $\int_{\Gamma} P dx + Q dy = \iint_R [Q_x(x, y) - P_y(x, y)] dx dy$ the line integral taken in positive sense.
- Green's theorem (Second form)**—If R is a region R_x and regular region S , Γ is bounded of R and $P(x, y), Q(x, y) \in R$, then $\int_{\Gamma} P dx + Q dy = \iint_R [Q_x(x, y) - P_y(x, y)] dx dy$ the line integral taken in positive sense.
- Area of the region R — $A = - \int_{\Gamma} y dx = \int_{\Gamma} x dy = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Gamma} (-y) dx + x dy$ the integral being in the positive sense.
- If D is simply connected and $P(x, y), Q(x, y) \in D$ and $Q_1(x, y) = P_2(x, y) \in D$ iff there exists $F(x, y) \in D$ such that $F_1 = P, F_2 = Q$.
- If D is simply connected and $P(x, y), Q(x, y) \in D, Q_1(x, y) = P_2(x, y) \in D$ and Γ is a regular curve in D joining (a, b) with $x_0 = \phi(a)$ and $y_0 = \psi(a)$

Then line integral extended over Γ is independent of Γ .

7. If $P(x, y), Q(x, y) \in D$, a simply connected domain, then $Q_x = P_y \in D$ iff $\int_{\Gamma} Pdx + Qdy = 0$ for every regular closed curve Γ in D .

8. If $R(x, y, z)$ a point in $V_{xy} = V(R, \phi(x, y), \psi(x, y))$ and function ϕ, ψ exists in R and y is the angle between the positive z -axis and the exterior normal to ϵ , the boundary of V_{xy} then

$$\iiint_{V_{xy}} R_3 dy = \iint_{\epsilon} R \cos y d\epsilon$$

Line Integrals in Space—If $\Gamma = (x, y, z) : x = \phi(\tau), y = \psi(\tau), z = w(\tau), a \leq \tau \leq 1$. The line integral is defined as

$$\int_{\Gamma} f(x, y, z) dx = \sum_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\psi(\tau_i'), \psi(\tau_i')) [\phi(\tau_i) - \phi(\tau_{i-1})] \tau_{i-1} \leq \tau_i' \leq \tau_i$$

Stokes' theorem—If ϵ is the surface $z = f(x, y)$ bounded by the regular closed curve Γ and P, Q, R belongs to ϵ and α, β, γ are direction angles to a directed normal to ϵ . Then

$$\int_{\Gamma} Pdx + Qdy + Rdz = \iint_{\epsilon} [(R_2 - Q_3) \cos \alpha + (P_3 - R_1) \cos \beta + (Q_1 - P_2) \cos \gamma] d\epsilon$$

where the direction of integration is clockwise to an observer facing in the direction of the directed normal.

Surface Integral

Subdivision Δ of surface ϵ —It is a set of closed curves $\{e_k\}_1^n$ lying on surface ϵ .

Diameter of a region on ϵ —The diameter of a region on ϵ is the length of the largest straight line segment whose ends lie in the region.

Norm of $\|\Delta\|$ —It is the largest of the n -diameters of the subregions produced by the subdivision.

Surface integral over ϵ —Let $P(x, y, z)$ be a function defined at every point of ϵ and let (ξ_K, η_K, ζ_K) be a point on ϵ inside or on the boundary of the sub-region bounded by e_k . Then the surface integral of $P(x, y, z)$ over ϵ is

$$\iint_{\epsilon} P(x, y, z) d\epsilon = \lim_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n P(\xi_K, \eta_K, \zeta_K) \Delta\epsilon_K$$

where $(\Delta\epsilon_K)$ is the area of sub-region ϵ_K and the limit exists.

Some Important Theorems

1. If ϵ is the surface $z = f(x, y)$ over the region R and ϵ lines in V , then

$$(a) \iint_{\epsilon} P(x, y, z) d\epsilon \text{ exists}$$

$$(b) \iint_{\epsilon} P(x, y, z) d\epsilon = \iint_R P(x, y, f(x, y)) \sqrt{1 + f_1^2(x, y) + f_2^2(x, y)} ds$$

This reduces a surface integral to an ordinary double integral.

2. **Green's (Causs's) theorem**—If $P(x, y, z), Q(x, y, z)$ and $R(x, y, z)$ are the points on V and V is bounded by bounded region ϵ^* and α, β, γ are the direction angle of the exterior normal to ϵ^*

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_V [P_1(x, y, z) + Q_2(x, y, z) + R_3(x, y, z)] dv \\ = \iint_{\epsilon} [P(x, y, z) \cos \alpha + Q(x, y, z) \cos \beta \\ + R(x, y, z) \cos \gamma] d\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Metric Space

Metric Space—A metric space $\langle X, P \rangle$ is a non-empty set X of elements (points) and $P : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for $x, y, z \in X$.

1. $P(x, y) \geq 0$
2. $P(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$
3. $P(x, y) = P(y, x)$
4. $P(x, y) \leq P(x, z) + P(z, y)$

The function P is called metric.

Cartesian Product—If $\langle X, P_1 \rangle$ and $\langle Y, P_2 \rangle$ are two metric spaces, then $\langle X \times Y, \tau \rangle$ is the cartesian product of $\langle X, P_1 \rangle$ and $\langle Y, P_2 \rangle$ defined as $X \times Y = \{(x, y) : x \in X, y \in Y\}$ and $\tau(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = \sqrt{P_1(x_1, x_2)^2 + P_2(y_1, y_2)^2}$

Diameter—If (X, P) is a metric space, $E \neq \phi \subset X$, then diameter $E = \sup \{P(x, y); x, y \in E\}$.

Pseudometric—If $P(x, y) = 0$ for some $x \neq y$ then (X, P) is called Pseudometric space and P is a Pseudometric.

Extended Pseudometric—If $P(x, y) = \infty$ for some $x, y \in X$, then P is extended Pseudometric and (X, P) is extended Pseudometric space.

Ball—A set $\delta_{x, \delta} \{Y : P(x, y) < \delta\}$ is called ball centered at $x \in \langle X, P \rangle$.

Convergence and Completeness

Convergence—A sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ from metric space $\langle X, P \rangle$, converges to the point $x \in X$ (x is a limit), if given $\epsilon > 0$, there is N such that $P(x, x_n) < \epsilon$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Cluster Point— x is a cluster point of $\langle x_n \rangle$ if given $\epsilon > 0$ and given N there is $n \geq N : P(x, x_n) < \epsilon$.

Cauchy's Sequence—A sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ from a metric space $\langle X, P \rangle$ is called Cauchy sequence, if given $\epsilon > 0$. There is $N : n, m > N$, we have $P(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$.

Complete metric space—A metric space $\langle X, P \rangle$ is complete if every Cauchy sequence converges (to some point of X).

Some Important Theorems

1. If x is limit of $\langle x_n \rangle$, then x is cluster point of $\langle x_n \rangle$ (convergence is not true).
2. If $\langle x_n \rangle$ a Cauchy sequence converges to some $x \in \langle X, P \rangle$, then sequence converges to $x \in \langle X, P \rangle$ (convergence is not true).
3. If $\langle X, P \rangle$ is an incomplete metric space, it is possible to find a complete metric space X^* in which X is isometrically embedded as a dense subset. If X is contained in an arbitrary complete space Y , then X^* is isometric with the closure of X in Y .

Lebesgue Measure

Length of an interval—The length of an interval I is the difference of end points of the interval.

Measure of a set—Let M be a collection of sets of real numbers and $E \in M$. Then non-negative extended real number mE is called the measure of E . If m satisfies.

- (a) mE is defined for each set E of real numbers i.e. $M = P(R)$, the power set of sets of real number.
- (b) For an interval I , $mI = I(I)$
- (c) If $\langle E_n \rangle$ is a sequence of disjoint sets (for which m is defined) in M . $m(UE_n) = \sum mE_n$.
- (d) m is translation invariant, i.e. if E is the set on which m is defined, and $E + Y = \{x + y : x \in E\}$, then $m(E + Y) = mE$.

Countable Additive Measure—Let M be a σ -algebra of sets of real numbers and $E \in M$.

Then non-negative extended real number mE is countable additive measure, if $m(UE_n) = \sum mE_n$ for each sequence $\langle E_n \rangle$ of disjoint sets in M .

Countable sub additive measure—Let M be a σ -algebra of sets of real numbers and $E \in M$. Then non-negative extended real number mE is countable subadditive measure, if $m(UE_n) \leq \sum mE_n$, for each sequence $\langle E_n \rangle$ of sets in M .

Counting measure—If

$$nE = \begin{cases} \infty, & \text{for infinite set } E \\ \text{The number of elements in } E, & \text{for finite set } E \end{cases}$$

Some Important Results

Let m be a countable additive measure defined for all sets in a σ -algebra. M then

- (a) Monotonicity : $A, B \in M, A \subset B \rightarrow mA \leq mB$
- (b) If for some set $A \in M, mA < \infty$, then $m\phi = 0$

Lebesgue outer Measure

Lebesgue outer Measure—Let A be a set of real number $\{I_n\}$ be the countable collection of open intervals that covers A , i.e. $A \subset \bigcup I_n$. Then Lebesgue outer measure m^*A of A is

$$m^*A = \inf_{A \subset \bigcup I_n} l(I_n)$$

Some Important Results

1. $m^*\phi = 0$
2. $A \subset B \Rightarrow m^*A \leq m^*B$
3. For singleton set $\{x\}$, $m^*\{x\} = 0$
4. The Lebesgue outer measure of an interval is its length.
5. If $\{A_n\}$ is a countable collection of sets of real number. Then $m^*(UA_n) \leq \sum m^*A_n$.
6. If A is countable, $m^*A = 0$
7. The set $[0, 1]$ is not countable.
8. Given any set A and any $\epsilon > 0$, there is an open set $O : A \subset O$ and $m^*0 \leq m^*A + \epsilon$. There is a $G_\delta : A \subset G$ and $m^*A = m^*G$.

Lebesgue Measurable sets and Lebesgue Measure

Lebesgue Measurable sets—A set E is Lebesgue measurable its for each set A we have $m^*A = m^*(A \cap E) + m^*(A \cap E^C)$

Lebesgue Measure—If E is a Lebesgue measurable set, the Lebesgue measure mE is the Lebesgue outer measure of E .

Some Important Results

1. If $m^*E = 0$, then E is Lebesgue measurable.
2. If E_1 and E_2 are Lebesgue measurable, so $E_1 \cup E_2$.
3. The family M of Lebesgue measurable sets is in algebra of sets.
4. If A is any set and E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n a finite set sequence of disjoint Lebesgue measurable sets. Then

$$m^* \left(A \cap \left[\bigcup_{j=1}^n E_j \right] \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n m^*(A \cap E_i)$$

5. The collection M of Lebesgue measurable sets is a σ -algebra.
6. Every set with Lebesgue outer measure zero is Lebesgue measurable.
7. The interval (a, ∞) is Lebesgue measurable.
8. Every Borel set is Lebesgue measurable.
9. Each open set and closed set is Lebesgue measurable.
10. If $\langle E_i \rangle$ is a sequence of Lebesgue measurable set. Then for Lebesgue measure $m(UE_i) \leq mE_i$.

If the set E_i are pairwise disjoint then for Lebesgue measure $m(UE_i) = mE_i$.

11. Let $\langle E_i \rangle$ be an infinite decreasing sequence of Lebesgue measurable sets, i.e., $E_{n+1} \subset E_n$ for each n . Let Lebesgue measure mE , is finite then $m \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_i \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} mE_n$.
12. For a given set following are equivalent :—
 - (a) E is measurable
 - (b) Given $\epsilon > 0$, there is an open set $O \supset E$ with $m^*(O \setminus E) < \epsilon$.
 - (c) Given $\epsilon > 0$, there is a closed set $F \subset E$ with $m^*(E \setminus F) < \epsilon$.
 - (d) $G \in G_\delta$ with $E \subset G$, $m^*(G \setminus E) = 0$
 - (e) $F \in F_\delta$ with $F \subset E$, $m^*(E \setminus F) = 0$ If $m^*E < \infty$, then these statements are equivalent to.
 - (f) Given $\epsilon > 0$, there is a finite union \cup of open interval : $m^*(\cup \Delta E) < \epsilon$.

Lebesgue Measurable Functions

Lebesgue Measurable Function—An extended real valued function f is Lebesgue measurable if its domain is measurable and if it

satisfies one of the following five; for each real number α .

- (a) $\{x : f(x) < \alpha\}$ is measurable
- (b) $\{x : f(x) > \alpha\}$ is measurable
- (c) $\{x : f(x) \leq \alpha\}$ is measurable
- (d) $\{x : f(x) \geq \alpha\}$ is measurable
- (e) $\{x : f(x) = \alpha\}$ is measurable

Almost everywhere Property—If a set of points where it fails to hold is a set of measure zero.

If $f = g$, almost everywhere if f and g have the same domain and $m\{x : f(x) \neq g(x)\} = 0$.

Characteristic function— χ_A : If A is any set, the characteristic function of set A is defined as

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0, & \text{if } x \notin A \end{cases}$$

Simple Function—A real valued function ϕ is simple function, if it is Lebesgue measurable and assume only a finite number of values.

Borel measurability—A function f is Borel measurable if for each α , the set $\{x : f(x) > \alpha\}$ is a Borel set.

Some Important Results

1. If f is an extended real valued function whose domain is measurable then the following statements are equivalent : For each real number α .
 - (a) The set $\{x : f(x) > \alpha\}$ is Lebesgue measurable
 - (b) The set $\{x : f(x) < \alpha\}$ is Lebesgue measurable
 - (c) The set $\{x : f(x) \leq \alpha\}$ is Lebesgue measurable
 - (d) The set $\{x : f(x) \geq \alpha\}$ is Lebesgue measurable
2. If c is a constant and f and g two Lebesgue measurable real valued functions defined on the same domain. Then the functions $f + c$, cf , $f + g$, $g - f$ and fg are also Lebesgue measurable.
3. If $\langle f_n \rangle$ is a sequence of Lebesgue measurable functions (with the same domain of definition). Then the function $\sup \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$, $\inf \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$, $\sup_n f_n$, $\inf_n f_n$, $\limsup f_n$ and $\liminf f_n$ are all Lebesgue measurable.
4. If f is a measurable function and $f = g$ almost everywhere, then g is measurable.

5. If f is Lebesgue measurable function defined on an interval $[a, b]$ and assume that f takes the values $\neq \infty$ only on a set of measure zero. Then given $\epsilon > 0$, we can find a step function g and a continuous function h such that $|f - g| < \epsilon$ and $|f - h| < \epsilon$.

The Lebesgue Integration

The Riemann Integral—If f is a bounded real valued function defined on the interval $[a, b]$ and $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$ is a subdivision of $[a, b]$.

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - x_{i-1}) M_i$$

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - x_{i-1}) m_i$$

where $M_i = \sup_{x_{i-1} < x < x_i} f(x)$

and $m_i = \inf_{x_{i-1} < x < x_i} f(x)$

The upper Riemann integral of f is

$$R \int_a^b f(x) dx = \inf S$$

and the lower Riemann integral

$$R \int_a^b f = R \int_{-a}^b f = R \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Step Function—For the given subdivision $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$ of the interval $[a, b]$, a function ϕ is a step function if,

$$\phi(x) = c_i \\ x_{i-1} < x < x_i$$

Some Important Results

- $\int_a^b \phi(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i (x_i - x_{i-1})$
- $R \int_a^b f(x) dx = \inf \int_a^b \phi(x) dx$ for all step function $\phi(x) \geq f(x)$
- $R \int_a^b f(x) dx = \sup \int_a^b \phi(x) dx$ for all step function $\phi(x) \leq f(x)$

The Lebesgue Integral of a Bounded Function over a set of Finite Measure

Characteristic Function—A real valued function of set E .

$$\chi_E = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in E \\ 0, & x \notin E \end{cases}$$

Simple Function—A linear combination

$$\phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \chi_{E_i}(x)$$

where sets E_i are measurable.

Canonical representation of simple function—If ϕ is a simple function and $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ is the set of non-zero values of ϕ , then $\phi = \sum a_i \chi_{A_i}$, where $A_i = \{x : \phi(x) = a_i\}$ is called canonical representation of simple function. Here A_i are disjoint and a_i are distinct and non-zero.

Integral of Simple function—If simple function ϕ vanishes outside a set of finite measure,

the integral of ϕ is $\int \phi(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i (m A_i)$ when ϕ

has a canonical representation $\phi = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \chi_{A_i}$ and $m A_i$ is the Lebesgue measure of A_i . If E is any measurable set, we have $\int_E \phi = \int \phi \chi_E$.

The Lebesgue Integral—If f is bounded measurable function defined on a measurable set E with mE finite, the Lebesgue integral of f over E

is $\int_E f(x) dx = \inf \int_E \psi(x) dx$ for all simple function $\psi \geq f$.

Some Important Theorems

- Let $\phi = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \chi_{E_i}$ with $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$ suppose each set E_i is a measurable set of finite measure. Then $\int \phi = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i m_{E_i}$.
- If ϕ and ψ is simple function which vanish outside a set of finite measure then $\int (a\phi + b\psi) = a \int \phi + b \int \psi$ and if $\phi \geq \psi$ almost everywhere then $\int \phi \geq \int \psi$.
- If f is defined and bounded on a measurable set E with mE and $\inf_{f \leq \psi} \int_E \psi(x) dx = \sup_{f \geq \phi} \int_E \phi(x) dx$ for all simple functions ϕ and ψ . Then f is measurable function.
- Let f be bounded function defined on $[a, b]$. If f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$, then it is measurable and

$$\mathbb{R} \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

5. If f and g are bounded measurable functions defined on set E of finite measure, then

(a) $\int_E (af + bg) = a \int_E f + b \int_E g$

(b) If $f = g$ almost everywhere, then $\int_E f = \int_E g$.

(c) If $f \leq g$ almost everywhere, then $\int_E f \leq \int_E g$.

(d) $|\int_E f| = \int_E |f|$

(e) If $A \leq f(x) \leq B$, then $A(mE) \leq \int_E f \leq B(mE)$.

- (f) If A and B are disjoint measurable sets of finite measure, then

$$\int_{A \cup B} f = \int_A f + \int_B f$$

6. Let $\langle f_n \rangle$ is a sequence of measurable functions defined on a set E of finite measure and suppose that there is a real number M such that $|f_n(x)| \leq M$ for all n and all x . If $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$ for each $x \in E$, then $\int_E f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_E f_n$.

7. A bounded function f on $[a, b]$ is Riemann integrable iff the set of points at which f is discontinuous has measure zero.

Fatou's Lemma—If $\{f_n\}$ is a sequence of non-negative measurable function and $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$, almost everywhere on a set E , then

$$\int_E f \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_E f_n$$

Dominated Convergence

Convergence in measure—A sequence $\langle f_n \rangle$ of measurable functions is said to converge to f in measure if, given $\epsilon > 0$, there is an N such that for all $n \geq N$, we have

$$m \{x : |f(x) - f_n(x)| \geq \epsilon\} < \epsilon$$

Cauchy sequence in measure—A sequence $\langle f_n \rangle$ of measurable functions is Cauchy sequence in measure if given $\epsilon > 0$ there is an N such that for all $m, n \geq N$, we have

$$m \{x : |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \geq \epsilon\} < \epsilon$$

Some Important Theorem

1. If $\langle f_n \rangle$ is a sequence of measurable functions that converges in measure to f . Then there is a

subsequence $\langle f_{n_k} \rangle$ that converges to f almost everywhere.

2. If $\langle f_n \rangle$ is a sequence of measurable functions defined on a measurable set E of finite measure. Then $\langle f_n \rangle$ converges to f in measure iff every subsequence of $\langle f_n \rangle$ has in turn a subsequence that converges almost everywhere to f .

3. Fatou's lemma and the monotone and Lebesgue convergence theorem remain valid if 'convergence almost everywhere' is replaced by 'convergence in measure'.

Weierstrass approximation theorem—A space X has Weierstrass property if every infinite sequence in X has at least one limit point. Nowhere dense— $A \subset X$ is nowhere dense, if the closure of A has no interior point.

First category (Merger)—A set $A \subset X$ is of first category in X , if it is the union of countably many nowhere dense sets in X .

Second Category (Non-merger)—A set $A \subset X$ is of second category in X if it is not of first category.

Compactness

Compact metric space—(1) A metric space (X, P) is compact if every infinite subset of X has at least one limit point.

(2) A metric space X is compact if every open covering μ of X has a finite subcovering.

Set $K \subset X$ is compact if (K, P) is compact.

Relatively Compact—If X is a metric space, $K \subset X$ and closure of K , \bar{K} is compact, then K is relatively compact to X .

Total Boundedness—A metric space X is totally bounded if for every $\epsilon > 0$, X contains a finite set, called an ϵ -net, such that the finite set of open spheres of radius ϵ and centres in the ϵ -net covers X .

Some Solved Examples

Example 1. Test the convergence of the integral $\int_a^\infty \frac{dx}{x^n}$, where $a > 0$.

Solution :

Here $\int_a^\infty \frac{dx}{x^n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^x \frac{dx}{x^n}$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-n} [x^{1-n} - a^{1-n}]$$

where $n \neq 1$

Case I. When $1-n < 0$
i.e., $n > 1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^x \frac{dx}{x^n} = \frac{a^{1-n}}{n-1}$$

which is finite. The given integral is convergent when $n > 1$.

Case II. When $1-n < 0$
i.e., $n < 1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^x \frac{dx}{x^n} = \infty,$$

Therefore, the integral is divergent.

Case III. When $1-n = 0$

i.e., $n = 1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^x \frac{dx}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [\log x - \log a] = \infty$$

Therefore, divergent.

Hence, the given integral is divergent except when $n > 1$.

Example 2. If $f(x, y) = 2x^2 - xy + 2y^2$ find $\frac{\delta f}{\delta x}$, $\frac{\delta f}{\delta y}$ at $(1, 2)$

Solution :

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\delta f}{\delta x} \right)_{(1,2)} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h, 2) - f(1, 2)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\{2(1+h)^2 - (1+h) \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 2^2\} - \{2 \cdot 1^2 - 1 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 2^2\}}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2h^2 + 2h}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (2h + 2) \\ &= 2 \\ \left(\frac{\delta f}{\delta y} \right)_{(1,2)} &= \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1, 2+k) - f(1, 2)}{k} \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{\{2 - (2+k) + 2(2+k)^2\} - \{2 - 2 + 8\}}{k} \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{2k^2 + 7k}{k} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} (2k + 7) \\ &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

Example 3. Show that $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ does not exist.

Solution : Let $f(x, y) = \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2}$

$$(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$$

Taking

$$y = \phi(x) = mx$$

where m is a real number

$$\text{We have } f(x, y) = \frac{2mx^2}{x^2 + m^2x^2}$$

$$= \frac{2m}{1+m^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, \phi(x)) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2m}{1+m^2} \\ &= \frac{2m}{1+m^2} \end{aligned}$$

For

$$\phi_1(x) = m_1x,$$

$$\phi_2(x) = m_2x$$

and

$$m_1 \neq m_2$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, \phi_1(x)) = \frac{2m_1}{1+m_1^2} \quad \dots(i)$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, \phi_2(x)) = \frac{2m_2}{1+m_2^2} \quad \dots(ii)$$

By (i) and (ii) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, \phi_1(x)) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, \phi_2(x))$$

$\therefore \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$ does not exist.

$$\text{Also, } \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2} \right) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} 0 = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 0 = 0$$

\therefore The two repeated limits exist and are equal.

Example 4. If ϕ, ψ of $[1, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $c = \{(x, y) : x = at^2, y = 2at\}$, then find the value of $\int_c \frac{dx}{x+y}$.

Solution : Here $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x+y}$,

$$\phi(t) = at^2,$$

$$\psi(t) = 2at,$$

$$\psi'(t) = 2a$$

∴ The conditions are satisfied

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \int_c \frac{1}{x+y} dx &= \int_1^2 \frac{1}{at^2 + 2at} \cdot 2at dt \\ &= \int_1^2 \frac{2}{t+2} dt \\ &= [2 \log(t+2)]^2 \\ &= 2 \log(4/3)\end{aligned}$$

Example 5. The integral $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{m-1} x \cos^{n-1} x dx$ converges if and only if, $m > 0, n > 0$.

Solution : The points $x = 0$ and $x = \frac{1}{2}\pi$ are the points of infinite discontinuity, when $0 < m < 1$.

$$\begin{aligned}\sin^{m-1} x \cos^{n-1} x &= \left(\frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^{m-1} \cos^{n-1} x x^{m-1} \\ \therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^\mu \left(\frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^{m-1} \cos^{n-1} x x^{m-1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^\mu x^{m-1} \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

If $\mu = 1 - m$

∴ The integral will be convergent if

$$\mu = 1 - m < 1,$$

i.e., $m > 0$

and $1 - m > 0$

or, $m < 1$

Hence, the integral is convergent, if $0 < m < 1$ when $0 < n < 1$.

$$\begin{aligned}\sin^{m-1} \cos^{n-1} x &= x \\ &= \sin^{m-1} x \cdot \frac{\cos^{n-1} x}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi - x\right)^{n-1}} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)^{n-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{x \rightarrow \pi/2} \left(\frac{\cos x}{\frac{1}{2}\pi - x}\right)^{n-1} = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow \pi/2} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)^\mu \sin^{m-1} x \left(\frac{\cos x}{\frac{1}{2}\pi - x}\right)^{n-1} \\ \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)^{n-1} \\ = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pi/2} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)^\mu \cdot \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)^{n-1} \\ = 1\end{aligned}$$

If $\mu = 1 - n$

∴ The integral will be convergent if $0 < n < 1$ when $m > 1$ and $n > 1$.

When $m > 1$ and $n > 1$, the integral becomes a proper integral and hence converges.

∴ The given integral is convergent if and only if $m > 0, n > 0$.

Example 6. Show that (i) the area bounded by a simple closed curve c is given by $\frac{1}{2} \int_c x dy - y dx$.

(ii) Find the area of the ellipse $x = a \cos \theta, y = b \sin \theta, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$.

Solution : (i) By Green's theorem

$$\int_c P dx + Q dy = \iint_S \left(\frac{\delta Q}{\delta x} - \frac{\delta P}{\delta y}\right) dx dy$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Put } P &= -y \\ \text{and } Q &= -x \\ \therefore \frac{\delta P}{\delta y} &= -1, \\ \frac{\delta Q}{\delta x} &= +1\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \oint_c x dy - y dx &= 2 \iint_S dx dy \\ &= 2A\end{aligned}$$

where A is the area of the surface S.

(ii) The area of surface S.

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \int_c x dy - y dx$$

Now for the ellipse

$$x = a \cos \theta,$$

$$y = b \sin \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Area} &= \frac{1}{2} \oint x dy - y dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} (a \cos \theta)(b \cos \theta) - (b \sin \theta) \\ &\quad (-a \sin \theta) d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} ab \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \\ &= \pi ab\end{aligned}$$

Example 7. Evaluate by Green's theorem, $\oint_c (y - \sin x) dx + \cos x dy$ where c is the triangle enclosed by the lines $x = 0, x = \pi/2, xy = 2x, P = y - \sin x, Q = \cos x$.

Solution : Here $\frac{\delta P}{\delta y} = 1,$
 $\frac{\delta Q}{\delta x} = -\sin x$

Hence by Green's theorem.

$$\begin{aligned}\oint_C (y - \sin x) dx + \cos x dy \\&= \iint_S (-1 - \sin x) dx dy \\&= \int_{x=0}^{\pi/2} \int_{y=0}^{2x/\pi} (1 + \sin x) dx dy \\&= \int_0^{2/\pi} (1 + \sin x) \frac{2x}{\pi} dx \\&= -\frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{2/\pi} (x + x \sin x) dx \\&= (\pi/4 + 2/\pi)\end{aligned}$$

Example 8. If $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, prove that S is compact iff set S is closed and bounded.

Solution : Suppose S is closed and bounded by Heine Borel theorem there is an open covering F of S such that a finite subcollection of F also covers S , so S is compact by definition of compactness. Suppose S is compact to prove S is bounded, choose $\bar{x} \in S$, then $\{B(\bar{x}, K), K = 1, 2, \dots\}$ a collection of open covering of S . Since S is compact, a finite subcollection also cover S and hence S is bounded.

To prove S is closed. Suppose S is not closed, there is an accumulation point y of S such that $y \notin S$. If $x \in S$ and let $r_x = \|x - y\|/2$. Then the collection $\{B(x, r_x) : x \in S\}$ is an open covering of S . Since S is compact there is a finite subcollection which covers.

i.e. $S \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^P B(x_k, r_k)$
 Choose $r = \min \{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_P\}$
 Then for open ball $B(y, r)$.
 If $x \in B(y, r)$
 $\Rightarrow \|x - y\| < r \leq r_k$ (for some r_k)
 Also we have
 $\|y - x_k\| \leq \|y - x\| + \|x - x_k\|$
 $\Rightarrow \|x - x_k\| \geq \|y - x_k\| - \|x - y\|$
 $= 2r_k - \|x - y\|$

Example 9. Verify Stokes' theorem for $F = -y^3 i + x^3 j$, where j is the circular disc
 $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1,$
 $z = 0$

Solution : Given $F = y^3 i + x^3 j$,
 The boundary C of S is a circle in xy -Plane,
 $x^2 + y^2 = 1,$
 $z = 0$

In parametric form

$$\begin{aligned}x &= \cos \theta, \\y &= \sin \theta, \\z &= 0\end{aligned} \quad \text{where } 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \int_C F \cdot dr &= \int_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz \\&= \int_C (-y^3 dx + x^3 dy) \\&= \int_C [-\sin^3 \theta (-\sin \theta) \\&\quad + \cos^3 \theta \cos \theta] d\theta \\&= \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - 2\sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta) d\theta, \\&= \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta - 2 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta d\theta \\&= 2\pi - 2(u) \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 \theta \cdot \cos^2 \theta d\theta \\&= 2\pi - 8 \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \\&= \frac{3\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \times F &= \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta x} & \frac{\delta}{\delta y} & \frac{\delta}{\delta z} \\ -y^3 & x^3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\&= K(3x^2 + 3y^2)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \int (\nabla \times F) \cdot N ds &= 3 \int_S (x^2 + y^2) K \cdot N ds \\&= 3 \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dx dy \dots (i)\end{aligned}$$

Since $(K \cdot N) ds = dx \cdot dy$
 and R is the region of xy -Plane.

Put $x = r \cos \phi,$
 $y = r \sin \phi$
 $\therefore dx \cdot dy = r dr d\phi$
 and r varies from 0 to 1
 and $0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \int (\nabla \times F) \cdot N \cdot ds &= 3 \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^1 r^2 \\&= r dr d\phi \\&= \frac{3\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Hence, the verification of the theorem.

Example 10. Find the n th term of the sequence $\{0, 1, 0, 1, \dots\}$.

Solution : The first term of the sequence.

$$a_1 = \frac{1-1}{2} = 0$$

and second term of the sequence.

$$a_2 = \frac{1+(-1)^2}{2} = 1$$

Third term of the sequence

$$a_3 = \frac{1+(-1)^3}{2} = 0$$

Fourth term of the sequence

$$a_4 = \frac{1+(-1)^4}{2} = 1$$

\therefore n th term of the sequence

$$a_n = \frac{1+(-1)^n}{2}$$

Example 11. The sequence $\left\{\frac{\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}}{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence.

Solution :

The sequence $\left\{\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded sequence

$$\therefore \left|\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}\right| \leq 1$$

The sequence $\frac{1}{n}$ is a convergent sequence and it converges to 0.

By the theorem : If $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to 0 and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded then $\{a_n b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to 0, we have $\left\{\sin \frac{n\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n}\right\}$ converges to 0.

Example 12. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{-n}$ is convergent.

Solution : We have $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{-n}$

$$\therefore \sqrt[n]{a_n} = \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{\sqrt{n}}}$$

By Root test

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{\sqrt{n}}} \\ &= \frac{1}{e} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the series is convergent.

Example 13. Every Cauchy sequence is bounded.

Solution : Let sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ is a Cauchy sequence.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } \epsilon &> 0, \\ \exists N : n &\geq N, \\ m &\geq N \\ \Rightarrow |x_n - x_m| &< \epsilon \\ \therefore |x_n - x_m| &\leq |x_n| + |x_m| \\ \Rightarrow |x_n| &> |x_m| < \epsilon \\ \Rightarrow |x_n| &< |x_m| + \epsilon \quad \dots(i) \end{aligned}$$

Choose $M = \min(|x_m|) + \epsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{By (i), we have, } \epsilon &> 0, \\ \exists N : n &\geq N, \\ |x_n| &< M \end{aligned}$$

The sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ is bounded.

Example 14. The open interval is an open set.

Solution : Let (a, b) be an open interval,

If $x \in (a, b)$, then $a < x < b$

Choose $\delta = \min\{x-a, b-x\}$

Thus $\forall x \in (a, b)$, $\delta > 0$, whenever

$$\begin{aligned} |x - y| &< \delta, \\ y &\in (a, b) \end{aligned}$$

i.e. (a, b) is open set.

Example 15. The closed interval is a closed set.

Solution : Let x be a point of closure of $[a, b]$, then for every $\delta > 0$ there is

$$\begin{aligned} y &\in [a, b], \\ \text{such that } |x - y| &< \delta \end{aligned}$$

A closed interval $[a, b]$ is closed set if it contains all its points of closure

$$\text{i.e. } x \in [a, b]$$

On the contrary,

$$\text{Let } x \notin [a, b]$$

$$\text{Choose } \delta = \min\{b-y, y-a\}$$

$$\text{For every } y \in [a, b]$$

Such that $|x - y| < \delta$,

$$x \in [a, b],$$

which is the contradiction

Thus $x \in [a, b]$

$\Rightarrow [a, b]$ contains all its closure points

$\Rightarrow [a, b]$ is closed set.

Example 16. Prove that the continuous image of a compact set is compact.

Solution : Let f be a continuous function mapping the compact set K onto a space Y . If μ is an open covering for Y , then the collection of sets $f^{-1}[0]$ for all $0 \in \mu$ is an open covering of K . By the compactness of K , there are a finite number $0_1, \dots, 0_n$ of sets of μ such that the sets $f^{-1}[0_i]$ cover K . Since f is onto, the sets $0_1 \dots 0_n$ cover Y . Thus the continuous image of a compact set is compact.

Example 17. Prove that a metric space X has the Bolzano-Weierstrass property iff X is sequentially compact.

Solution : Since every limit of a subsequence of $\langle x_n \rangle$, sequential compactness implies the Bolzano-Weierstrass property. Conversely, if $\langle x_n \rangle$ has x for a cluster point, then for each K we can find an $n_k > n_{k-1}$ such that the ball of radius $1/K$

about x contains x_{n_k} . Then $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$. Thus a metric space with the Bolzano-Weierstrass property is sequentially compact.

Example 18. Prove that if E is a Lebesgue measurable set, then each translate $E + y$ is also measurable.

Solution : Let $E + y$ is Lebesgue measurable, then for some set A .

$$m^* A = m^* [A \cap (E + y)] + m^* [A \cap (E + y)^c] \dots (1)$$

Since E is measurable, we have

$$\begin{aligned} m^* [A \cap (E + y)] &= m^* (A \cap (E + y)^c \cap E) \\ &\quad + m^* [A \cap (E + y) \cap E^c] \\ m^* [A \cap (E + y)^c] &= m^* [A \cap (E + y)^c \cap E] \\ &\quad + m^* [A \cap (E + y)^c \cap E^c] \end{aligned}$$

Adding These, we have

$$\begin{aligned} m^* (A \cap (E + y)) + m^* [A \cap (E + y)^c] \\ = m^* [A \cap E \cap (E + y)E] \\ \quad + m^* [A \cap E \cap (E + y)^c] \\ \quad + m^* [A \cap E^c \cap (E + y)] \\ \quad + m^* [A \cap E^c \cap (E + y)^c] \\ = m^* (A \cap E) + m^* (A \cap E^c) = m^* A. \end{aligned}$$

This proves $(E + y)$ is Lebesgue measurable

OBJECTIVE TYPE QUESTIONS

- The n th term of the sequence $\left\{ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \dots, 0 \right\}$ is—
 (A) $\frac{1}{n-1}$ (B) $\frac{1}{2n}$
 (C) $\frac{1}{2(n+1)}$ (D) None of these
- The following sequence $\{2, 3, 5, 7, \dots\}$ is a sequence of—
 (A) Real number
 (B) Prime number
 (C) Even number
 (D) Odd number
- The n th term of the sequence $\{1, 1/2, 1, 1/3, 1, 1/4, \dots\}$ is—
 (A) For n even $\frac{1}{n-\frac{n}{2}}$ for n odd 1
 (B) For n even $\frac{1}{n+\frac{n}{2}+1}$ for n odd 1
 (C) For n even $\frac{1}{n-\frac{n}{2}+1}$ for n odd 1
 (D) For n even $\frac{1}{n+\frac{n}{2}}$ for n odd 1
- The n th term of the sequence $\left\{ 2, \frac{-3}{2}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{-5}{4}, \dots \right\}$ is—
 (A) $1 + 1/n$
 (B) $(-1)^{n-1} (1 - 1/n)$
 (C) $(-1)^{n-1} (1 + 1/n)$
 (D) None of these
- The n th term of the sequence $\left\{ 1, \frac{5}{2}, \frac{5}{3}, \frac{9}{4}, \frac{9}{5}, \dots \right\}$ is—

- (A) $\frac{2n + (-1)^n}{2n}$ (B) $\frac{2n + (-1)^n}{n}$
 (C) $\frac{2n + (1)^n}{n}$ (D) None of these
6. The sequence $\{0, 1, 0, 1/2, 0, 1/3, \dots\}$ has the n th term—
 (A) $\frac{1 + (-1)^n}{n}$ (B) $\frac{n - (1)^n}{n}$
 (C) $\frac{n + (1)^n}{n}$ (D) None of these
7. A monotone sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is convergent—
 (A) It is bounded
 (B) It is unbounded
 (C) It is decreasing
 (D) None of these
8. If sequences $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are divergent sequence, then—
 (A) $\{a_n + b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is always divergent
 (B) $\{a_n + b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is always convergent
 (C) $\{a_n + b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ sometimes convergent
 (D) None of these
9. If sequences $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are convergent then—
 (A) $\{a_n + b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is always convergent
 (B) $\{a_n + b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is always divergent
 (C) $\{a_n + b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is sometimes divergent
 (D) None of these
10. The sequence $\left\{\frac{\cos \frac{n\pi}{2}}{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is—
 (A) Convergent to 0 (B) Divergent
 (C) Convergent to 1 (D) None of these
11. (a) Every bounded sequence is convergent.
 (b) Every convergent sequence is bounded
 (A) (a) and (b) are true
 (B) (a) is true, (b) is false
 (C) (b) is true, (a) is false
 (D) (a) and (b) are false
12. The sequence $\{1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \dots\}$ is—
 (A) Increasing sequence
 (B) Decreasing sequence
 (C) Monotone sequence
 (D) None of these
13. Let $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be two sequence such that $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\{a_n b_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges respectively to A and AB, then $\{b_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges iff—
 (A) $A \neq 0$ (B) $A = 0$
 (C) $B = 0$ (D) None of these
14. If $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is an increasing bounded sequence, then for the sequence $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is following statement is false.
 (A) $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence
 (B) $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a divergent sequence
 (C) $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a monotone sequence
 (D) $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence
15. If $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to a , for all $n, a \geq 0$, then $\{\sqrt{a_n}\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is—
 (A) Converges to \sqrt{a}
 (B) Diverges to \sqrt{a}
 (C) Converges to a
 (D) Diverges to a
16. If $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to A, then—
 (A) $\{|a_n|\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to A
 (B) $\{|a_n|\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ converges to $|A|$
 (C) $\{|a_n|\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ divergent sequence
 (D) None of these
17. A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded iff there is a real number S such that—
 (A) $|a_n| \leq S$ for all n (B) $|a_n| \geq S$ for all n
 (C) $|a_n| = S$ for all n (D) None of these
18. A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded from below if for real number R—
 (A) $a_n \leq R$ for all n (B) $a_n \geq R$ for all n
 (C) $a_n = R$ for all n (D) None of these
19. If $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to A and B both, then—
 (A) $A > B$ (B) $A = B$
 (C) $A \leq B$ (D) None of these

20. If a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to a real number A, then $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is—
 (A) Unbounded sequence
 (B) Bounded sequence
 (C) Divergent sequence
 (D) None of these
21. A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded from above if for real number R—
 (A) $a_n \geq R$ for all n
 (B) $a_n \leq R$ for all n
 (C) $a_n = R$ for all n
 (D) None of these
22. If a sequence is not a Cauchy sequence, then it is a—
 (A) Divergent sequence
 (B) Convergent sequence
 (C) Bounded sequence
 (D) None of these
23. (a) Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence
 (b) Every Cauchy sequence is a convergent sequence
 (A) (a) and (b) both are false
 (B) (a) is true
 (C) (b) is true
 (D) (a) and (b) both are true
24. Every Cauchy sequence is—
 (A) Unbounded sequence
 (B) Bounded sequence
 (C) Divergent sequence
 (D) None of these
25. Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence converges to 0 and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence that is bounded, then $\{a_n b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence that—
 (A) Converges to one
 (B) Converges to zero
 (C) Is divergent sequence
 (D) None of these
26. Let sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges A and sequence $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to B, with $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n , then—
 (A) $A \leq B$ (B) $A = B$
 (C) $A \geq B$ (D) None of these
27. Let sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to A and B respectively, then $\{a_n/b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to A/B if—
 (A) $b_n \neq 0$ for all n and $B = 0$
 (B) $b_n \neq 0$ for some n
 (C) $b_n \neq 0$ for all n and $B \neq 0$
 (D) None of these
28. If $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is decreasing and bounded, then $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is—
 (A) Convergent sequence
 (B) Divergent sequence
 (C) Non-Cauchy sequence
 (D) None of these
29. Every Cauchy sequence is—
 (A) Monotone sequence
 (B) Divergent sequence
 (C) Unbounded sequence
 (D) None of these
30. A series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, absolutely iff—
 (A) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ converges
 (B) $\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \right|$ converges
 (C) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ diverges
 (D) None of these
31. A series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, then sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is—
 (A) Diverges
 (B) Converges to zero
 (C) Converges to any number
 (D) None of these
32. For infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$, $b_n \geq 0$ for n , and there is a real number N, such that for $n \geq N \Rightarrow |a_n| \leq b_n$. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges, then—

- (A) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ is absolutely convergent
 (B) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely convergent
 (C) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely divergent
 (D) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ is absolutely divergent
33. For real number α , if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges to A and B respectively, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + \alpha b_n)$ —
 (A) Converges to $A + \alpha B$
 (B) Diverges
 (C) Converges to $\alpha A + B$
 (D) None of these
34. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [(-1)^n / (2n-1)]$ is—
 (A) Convergent
 (B) Divergent
 (C) Unbounded
 (D) None of these
35. The series $2 + 4 + 6 + 8 + \dots$ is—
 (A) Divergent (B) Convergent
 (C) Unbounded (D) None of these
36. The series $1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^3} + \dots$ is—
 (A) Divergent (B) Convergent
 (C) Bounded (D) None of these
37. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$ is—
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Unbounded (D) None of these
38. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{3^n}$ is—
 (A) Divergent (B) Convergent
 (C) Unbounded (D) None of these
39. The series $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots$ is—
 (A) Divergent (B) Convergent
 (C) Unbounded (D) None of these
40. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n$ is—
 (A) Divergent (B) Convergent
 (C) Unbounded (D) None of these
41. The series $1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots$ is—
 (A) Divergent (B) Convergent
 (C) Bounded (D) None of these
42. The series $\frac{1}{1 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 4} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5} + \dots$ is—
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Decreasing (D) None of these
43. The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is—
 (A) Bounded and convergent
 (B) Convergent and unbounded
 (C) Bounded and divergent
 (D) Divergent and unbounded
44. The sequence $\{1/n\}$ is—
 (A) Unbounded and convergent
 (B) Bounded and convergent
 (C) Bounded and divergent
 (D) Divergent and unbounded
45. The sequence $\{(-1)^n/n\}$ converges to—
 (A) Zero (B) 1
 (C) 2 (D) None of these
46. A monotone increasing is bounded, then—
 (A) It is divergent (B) It is convergent
 (C) It is constant (D) None of these
47. Every Cauchy sequence is—
 (A) Bounded (B) Unbounded
 (C) Divergent (D) None of these
48. Every Cauchy sequence is—
 (A) Unbounded (B) Convergent
 (C) Divergent (D) None of these
49. If sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to A and $\{b_n\}$ converges to B, then for all $a_n \geq b_n$ we have—
 (A) $A \geq B$ (B) $A \leq B$
 (C) $A = B$ (D) None of these

50. The sequence $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is—
 (A) Bounded below
 (B) Bounded above
 (C) Bounded
 (D) None of these
51. The sequence $\{-1, -2, -3, \dots\}$ is—
 (A) Bounded below (B) Bounded above
 (C) Bounded (D) None of these
52. The sequence $\left\{\frac{n+1}{n}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Bounded (B) Bounded above
 (C) Unbounded (D) None of these
53. The sequence $\left\{\frac{n}{n+1}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Decreasing sequence
 (B) Bounded
 (C) Unbounded
 (D) None of these
54. The sequence $\left\{\frac{1}{3^n}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Divergent sequence
 (B) Bounded
 (C) Unbounded
 (D) None of these
55. The sequence $\left\{\frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Divergent sequence
 (B) Bounded
 (C) Unbounded
 (D) None of these
56. The sequence $\left\{\frac{n+1}{n}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Increasing sequence
 (B) Decreasing sequence
 (C) Unbounded
 (D) None of these
57. The sequence $\left\{\frac{n}{n+1}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Increasing sequence
 (B) Decreasing sequence
 (C) Unbounded
 (D) None of these
58. The sequence $\left\{\frac{(-1)^n}{n}\right\}$ is—
 (A) Unbounded (B) Decreasing
 (C) Increasing (D) None of these
59. The sequence $\{1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \dots\}$ is—
 (A) Increasing (B) Decreasing
 (C) Bounded (D) None of these
60. The sequence $\left\{a + \frac{(-1)^n b}{n}\right\}$ —
 (A) Bounded (B) Unbounded
 (C) Divergent (D) None of these
61. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$ is—
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Oscillatory (D) None of these
62. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1 + 1/n)^{n^2}}$ is—
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Oscillatory (D) None of these
63. The series $\frac{\sin x}{1^3} - \frac{\sin 2x}{2^3} + \frac{\sin 3x}{3^3} - \dots$ —
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Oscillatory (D) None of these
64. The series $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$ —
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Oscillatory (D) None of these
65. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{n}$, for $|x| > 1$ is—
 (A) Convergent (B) Divergent
 (C) Oscillatory (D) None of these
66. A polynomial for real values of x is—
 (A) Continuous (B) Discontinuous
 (C) Convergent (D) None of these
67. A function $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$ is—
 (A) Discontinuous at $x = 1$
 (B) Discontinuous at $x = 2$
 (C) Continuous at $x = 1$
 (D) Continuous at $x = 2$

68. A function $f(x) = |x|$ is—
 (A) Discontinuous
 (B) Discontinuous at $x = 0$
 (C) Continuous everywhere
 (D) None of these
69. A function $f(x) = |x|$ is—
 (A) Continuous and differentiable at $x = 0$
 (B) Continuous but not differentiable at $x = 0$
 (C) Discontinuous and differentiable at $x = 0$
 (D) None of these
70. Let $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $x_0 \in E$ and x_0 an accumulation point of E if every sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to x_0 with $x_n \in E$ for all n $\{f(x_n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to $f(x_0)$, then—
 (A) f is discontinuous at x_0
 (B) f is discontinuous at x_0
 (C) f is differentiable at x_0
 (D) None of these
71. $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ and $g: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and both are continuous at x_0 , then—
 (A) f/g is continuous at x_0
 (B) f/g is discontinuous at x_0
 (C) f/g is continuous at x_0 if $g(x_0) \neq 0$
 (D) None of these
72. Statement A : f is continuous
 Statement B : f is differentiable
 (A) If A is true, then B is true
 (B) If A is false, then B is false
 (C) If B is true, then A is true
 (D) If B is true, then A is false
73. A set $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact—
 (A) It is closed and bounded
 (B) It is open and bounded
 (C) It is open and unbounded
 (D) It is closed and unbounded
74. The function $f(x)$ is continuous on closed interval $[a, b]$, then—
 (A) f is bounded on $[a, b]$
 (B) f is unbounded on $[a, b]$
 (C) f is constant on $[a, b]$
 (D) None of these
75. The function $f(x)$ is continuous on closed interval $[a, b]$, and $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$ if at some point $c, f(c) = 0$, then—
 (A) $c \notin [a, b]$ (B) $c \in [a, b]$
 (C) $c \in [a, b]$ (D) None of these
76. The function $f(x)$ is continuous on closed interval $[a, b]$ and $m = \min f(x)$ and $M = \max f(x)$. If for any $A, m \leq A \leq M$ there is $x_0 \in [a, b]$ for which—
 (A) $f(x_0) = A$ (B) $f(x_0) = 0$
 (C) $f(x_0) \neq A$ (D) None of these
77. A real number set E is compact, if—
 (A) E is bounded and open
 (B) E is unbounded and closed
 (C) E is bounded and closed
 (D) E is unbounded and open
78. If f_1 and f_2 are two real valued bounded functions defined on $[a, b]$, then for every partition P on $[a, b]$ —
 (A) $U(P, f_1 + f_2) = U(P, f_1) + U(P, f_2)$
 (B) $U(P, f_1 + f_2) \leq U(P, f_1) + U(P, f_2)$
 (C) $U(P, f_1 + f_2) \geq U(P, f_1) + U(P, f_2)$
 (D) None of these
79. Let Lower Riemann Integral be $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$ and $L(P, f)$ is the Lower Riemann sum over all partitions on $[a, b]$ then—
 (A) $\int_a^b f(x) dx = i.u.b \{L(P, f)\}$
 (B) $\int_a^b f(x) dx = g.l.b \{L(P, f)\}$
 (C) $\int_a^b f(x) dx = L(P, f)$
 (D) None of these
80. If f is a Riemann integrable function on $[a, b]$ and λ is any real number then following holds—
 (A) $\lambda \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b \lambda f(x) dx$
 (B) $\lambda \int_a^b f(x) dx \neq \int_a^b \lambda f(x) dx$
 (C) $\lambda \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b \lambda f(x) dx$
 (D) None of these

81. A real valued bounded function $f(x)$ is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$, then—
 (A) $\int_{-a}^b (x) dx$ and $\int_a^{-b} (x) dx$ exist
 (B) $\int_{-a}^b (x) dx = \int_a^{-b} f(x) dx$
 (C) $\int_a^{-b} f(x) dx \neq \int_{-a}^b f(x) dx$
 (D) None of these
82. If $\int_{-a}^b f dx$ and $\int_a^{-b} dx$ are lower and upper Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ then—
 (A) $\int_{-a}^b f dx \geq \int_a^{-b} f dx$
 (B) $\int_{-a}^b f dx = \int_a^{-b} f dx$
 (C) $\int_{-a}^b f dx \leq \int_a^{-b} f dx$
 (D) None of these
83. If f is real valued bounded function on $[a, b]$ and m, M are greatest lower bound and least upper bound respectively, then—
 (A) $m(b-a) = M(b-a)$
 (B) $m(b-a) \geq M(b-a)$
 (C) $m(b-a) \leq M(b-a)$
 (D) None of these
84. The radius of convergence of the series $1 - \frac{x}{1} + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!}$ is—
 (A) ∞ (B) Zero
 (C) 1 (D) None of these
85. The radius of convergence of the series $\frac{x+0.2}{1} + \frac{(x+0.2)^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{(x+0.2)^n}{n} + \dots$
 (A) 1 (B) ∞
 (C) Zero (D) None of these
86. The series $1 \cdot x + 1 \cdot 2x^2 + 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3x^3 + \dots + \lfloor n \rfloor x^n + \dots$ is—
 (A) Divergent everywhere except $x = 0$
 (B) Convergent everywhere except $x = 0$
 (C) Divergent for $x = 0$
 (D) None of these
87. The radius of convergence of the series $1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots$ is—
 (A) 1 (B) Zero
 (C) 2 (D) None of these
88. The series $1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n + \dots$
 (A) Converges for $|x| < 1$
 (B) Diverges for $|x| > 1$
 (C) Converges for $(x) = 1$
 (D) None of these
89. The series $1 + \frac{x}{1^2} + \frac{x^2}{2^2} + \frac{x^3}{3^2} + \dots$
 (A) Diverges for $|x| > 1$
 (B) Converges for $|x| < 1$
 (C) Diverges for $|x| = 1$
 (D) None of these
90. The domain of convergence for $1 + x + x^2 + \dots$ is—
 (A) $[-1, +1]$ (B) $[-1, +1]$
 (C) $[-2, 2]$ (D) None of these
91. The domain of convergence for $1 + \frac{x}{1^2} + \frac{x^2}{2^2} + \dots$ is—
 (A) $[-1, +1]$ (B) $[-1, +1]$
 (C) $[0, 1]$ (D) None of these
92. The domain of convergence for $x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$ is—
 (A) $(-1, 1)$ (B) $(-1, 1)$
 (C) $(-1, 2)$ (D) $(-1, 1)$
93. If $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and monotone function, then—
 (A) f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$
 (B) f is not Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$
 (C) f is Riemann integrable on \mathbb{R}
 (D) None of these
94. If f_1 and f_2 are Riemann integral functions, then $\int_a^b f_1 dx + \int_a^b f_2 dx$ is equal to—
 (A) $\int_b^a (f_1 + f_2) dx$
 (B) Zero
 (C) $\int_b^a (f_1 + f_2) dx$
 (D) None of these

95. If f_1 is Riemann integrable, then

$$\int_b^a f_1 dx + \int_b^c f_1 dx$$

is—

- (A) $\int_a^b f_1 dx + c$ (B) $\int_b^c f_1 dx + c$
 (C) $\int_a^c f_1 dx$ (D) None of these

96. $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, f is Riemann integrable then—

(A) $\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$

(B) $\int_a^b |f(x)| dx \leq \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right|$

(C) $\int_a^b |f(x)| dx = \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right|$

(D) None of these

97. $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, P and Q are partitions of $[a, b]$ such $P \subset Q$, then—

- (A) $L(P, f) \leq L(Q, f)$
 (B) $L(P, f) \geq L(Q, f)$
 (C) (A) is true (B) is false
 (D) (B) is true (A) is false

98. A function f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ if—

(A) Only $\int_a^b f dx$ exist

(B) Only $\int_{-a}^b f dx$ exist

(C) $\int_a^b f dx \neq \int_{-a}^b f dx$

(D) $\int_a^b f dx = \int_{-a}^b f dx$

99. If f is Riemann integrable with respect to α on $[a, b]$, then—

- (A) f is increasing and α is bounded function
 (B) f is bounded and α is increasing function
 (C) f and α are both bounded
 (D) f and α are both increasing

100. $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \text{ is rational} \\ 1 & x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$ then—

- (A) The upper and lower integral of f does not exist

- (B) f is Riemann integrable
 (C) f is not Riemann integrable
 (D) None of these

101. $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ —

- (A) The statement is true
 (B) The statement is false
 (C) Neither true nor false
 (D) Partially true

102. Given a function $f(x) = |x|$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. The function f is—

- (A) Differentiable at zero
 (B) Continuous at zero
 (C) (A) is true (B) is false
 (D) (A) and (B) are both true

103. A rational function (The quotient of two polynomial functions) is—

- (A) Differentiable everywhere
 (B) Not differentiable any where
 (C) Differentiable at each point, where denominator is non zero
 (D) None of these

104. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. A point $x_0 \in D$ is a relative minimum of f , iff there is a neighbourhood Q of x_0 such that $x \in Q \cap D$, then—

- (A) $f(x) \leq f(x_0)$ (B) $f(x) \geq f(x_0)$
 (C) $f(x) \leq f(x_0)$ (D) $f(x) \geq f(x_0)$

105. Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and f is differentiable on (a, b) , if $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ there exist c such that $f'(c) = 0$, then—

- (A) $c \in [a, b]$ (B) $c \in (a, b)$
 (C) $c \in [a, b]$ (D) $c \in (a, b)$

106. The set of positive integers is—

- (A) Bounded above
 (B) Unbounded above
 (C) Unbounded below
 (D) None of these

107. If $x \in \mathbb{R}$, set of real numbers then—

- (A) $-\infty < x < \infty$ (B) $-\infty \leq x \leq \infty$
 (C) $-\infty < x < \infty$ (D) $-\infty \geq x \geq \infty$

108. The value of $(\infty - \infty)$ is—

- (A) 0 (B) ∞
 (C) $-\infty$ (D) Undefined

109. The set of real number is—
 (A) Bounded above (B) Unbounded above
 (C) Finite set (D) Countable set
110. If R^* is an extended real number system, then the least upper bound of R^* is—
 (A) $+\infty$
 (B) $-\infty$
 (C) 0
 (D) No least upper bound
111. If S is non-empty set of real numbers and S is unbounded below then—
 (A) $\inf S = -\infty$ (B) $\inf S = +\infty$
 (C) $\sup S = \infty$ (D) $\sup S = -\infty$
112. If R is a set of real numbers, $x, y \in R$, then—
 (A) $x + y \neq y + x$ (B) $x + y = y + x$
 (C) $xy \neq xy$ (D) $x + y \geq y + x$
113. If R is a set of real numbers, $x \in R$, there exist $-x \in R$ —
 (A) $x + (-x) = 0$ (B) $x + (-x) = 1$
 (C) $x(-x) = 0$ (D) $x(-x) = 1$
114. If R is a set of real number $x \in R$, then—
 (A) $x + x^{-1} = 0$ (B) $x + x^{-1} = 1$
 (C) $xx^{-1} = 1$ (D) $xx^{-1} = 0$
115. If R is a set of real numbers $x, y \in R$, then—
 (A) $x > 0$ and $y > 0 \Rightarrow xy > 0$
 (B) $x > 0$ and $y > 0 \Rightarrow xy < 0$
 (C) $x > 0$ and $y > 0 \Rightarrow xy = 0$
 (D) $x > 0$ and $y > 0 \Rightarrow xy = 1$
116. If A and B are two non empty set of R if $C = \{x + y : x \in A, y \in B\}$, then—
 (A) $\inf C = \inf A + \inf B$
 (B) $\inf C \neq \inf A + \inf B$
 (C) $\inf C < \inf A + \inf B$
 (D) $\inf C > \inf A + \inf B$
117. If $x, y, z \in R$ the set of real number, then following relation not holds—
 (A) $x > 0$ and $y > 0$
 (B) $x, y > 0 \Rightarrow x + y > 0$
 (C) $x, y, z > 0 \Rightarrow x + y + z > 0$
 (D) $xy > 0 \Rightarrow x - y > 0$
118. Given a real number a and b such that—
 $a \leq b + \epsilon, \forall \epsilon > 0$
 (A) $a = b$ (B) $a \leq b$
 (C) $a \geq b$ (D) $ab = \epsilon$
119. If $x, y, z \in R$ and $x < y$, then—
 (A) $xz < yz, z > 0$
 (B) $xz < yz, z < 0$
 (C) $xz < yz, z = 0$
 (D) $xz < yz, z$ is positive, negative or zero
120. If $x, y, z \in R$ and $x < y$, then—
 (A) $xz > yz, z < 0$
 (B) $xz > yz, z > 0$
 (C) $xz > yz, z = 0$
 (D) $xz > yz, z$ is positive, negative or zero
121. If $w, x, y, z \in R$, the set of real numbers and $x > y, z > w$, then—
 (A) $xz > yw$ if $y, w > 0$
 (B) $xz > yw$ if $y > 0, w < 0$
 (C) $xz > yw$ if $y < 0, w > 0$
 (D) $xz > yw$ if $y, w < 0$
122. The set of integers is—
 (A) Ordered set
 (B) Non-ordered set
 (C) Set of irrational numbers
 (D) Does not satisfies principle of induction
123. Composite number n is—
 (A) A prime number and $n > 1$
 (B) Non prime number and $n < 1$
 (C) Non prime number and $n > 1$
 (D) A prime number and $n < 1$
124. An integer n is a prime number if—
 (A) $n > 1$ and n is divisible by itself only
 (B) $n < 1$ and n is divisible by itself only
 (C) $n = 1$
 (D) $n = 1$ and n/n
125. Every integer $n > 1$ is—
 (A) Prime number
 (B) Prime number or product of prime numbers
 (C) Product of prime numbers
 (D) Sum of prime numbers
126. For open interval (a, b) , where $a < b, x \in (a, b)$ we have—
 (A) $a \leq x \leq b$ (B) $a < x < b$
 (C) $a \leq x < b$ (D) $a < x \leq b$
127. For closed interval $[a, b]$, where $a < b, x \in [a, b]$ we have—
 (A) $a \leq x \leq b$ (B) $a < x \leq b$
 (C) $a \leq x < b$ (D) $a < x < b$

128. If P is a prime number and $P \mid ab$, then—
 (A) $P \mid a$ or $P \mid b$ (B) $P + ab = 0$
 (C) $P - ab = 0$ (D) $ab \mid P$
129. If S is a set of real numbers, and c_1 and c_2 are two least upper bounds of S , then—
 (A) $c_1 = c_2$ (B) $c_1 > c_2$
 (C) $c_1 < c_2$ (D) $c_1 \neq c_2$
130. If S is a set of real numbers, c is a least upper bound and b is any upper bound of S , then—
 (A) $c \leq b$ (B) $c \geq b$
 (C) $c \neq b$ (D) $c > b$
131. The set $\mathbb{R}^+ = (0, +\infty)$ has—
 (A) No upper bound
 (B) Upper bound
 (C) Least upper bound
 (D) None of these
132. The Set $\mathbb{R}^+ = [0, 1]$ has—
 (A) Upper bound only
 (B) Lower bound only
 (C) Upper and lower bound both
 (D) No upper and lower bound
133. An element a is an minimal element of set S , then—
 (A) $a \in S$
 (B) $a \notin S$
 (C) a is not lower bound of S
 (D) a is not upper bound of S
134. The set of negative integers have the least upper bound—
 (A) 1 (B) 2
 (C) 0 (D) -1
135. The non-empty set of real numbers which is bounded below has—
 (A) Supremum (B) Infimum
 (C) Upper bound (D) No lower bound
136. For every real number x , there is a positive integer n —
 (A) $n > x$ (B) $n < x$
 (C) $n = x$ (D) None of these
137. If S is a set of real numbers, c_1 and c_2 are two greatest lower bound of S , then—
 (A) $c_1 > c_2$ (B) $c_1 < c_2$
 (C) $c_1 = c_2$ (D) $c_1 \neq c_2$
138. If S is a set of real number, c is the greatest lower bound and b is any lower bound, then—
 (A) $c < b$ (B) $c > b$
 (C) $c \geq b$ (D) $c \leq b$
139. The set of positive integer have the greatest lower bound—
 (A) 1 (B) 0
 (C) ∞ (D) None of these
140. The set of positive real numbers is—
 (A) Bounded above
 (B) Bounded below
 (C) Unbounded from below
 (D) None of these
141. The non empty set S of real numbers which is bounded above has—
 (A) Supremum (B) Infimum
 (C) Lower bound (D) No upper bound
142. The set $\mathbb{R}^+ = (0, +\infty)$ is—
 (A) Bounded above
 (B) Unbounded above
 (C) Unbounded below
 (D) None of these
143. The closed interval $(0, 1)$ have—
 (A) Maximal element only
 (B) Minimal element only
 (C) Both maximal and minimal element
 (D) None of these
144. If an element is maximal element of Set S , then—
 (A) $a \in S$
 (B) $a \notin S$
 (C) a is not upper bound of S
 (D) a is lower bound of S
145. The set of natural numbers has—
 (A) Upper bound
 (B) Lower bound
 (C) Maximal element
 (D) None of these
146. The set $\mathbb{R}^+ = (0, \infty)$ is—
 (A) Bounded above
 (B) Bounded below
 (C) Unbounded below
 (D) None of these

147. The set $\mathbb{R}^+ = (0, \infty)$ has—
 (A) Minimal element
 (B) No minimal element
 (C) Least upper bound
 (D) Maximal element
148. The closed interval $S = [0, 1]$ is—
 (A) Bounded above
 (B) Unbounded below
 (C) Unbounded above
 (D) No maximal element
149. The half interval $[0, 1]$ is—
 (A) Bounded above only
 (B) Bounded below only
 (C) Bonded above and below both
 (D) None of these
150. The half interval $[0, 1]$ have—
 (A) Maximal element only
 (B) Minimal element only
 (C) Maximal and minimal both elements
 (D) No maximal and no minimal element
151. Let $S = [0, 1]$, the maximal element S is—
 (A) 0 (B) 1
 (C) ϕ (D) 2
152. Let $S = [0, 1]$, the least upper bound for S is—
 (A) 0 (B) 1
 (C) ϕ (D) 2
153. Let $S = [0, 1]$, the maximal element of S is—
 (A) 0
 (B) 1
 (C) No maximal element
 (D) ϕ
154. If $S, T \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\forall s \in S$ and $t \in T, s \leq t$, it S and T have supremum, then—
 (A) $\sup S \leq \sup T$
 (B) $\sup S \geq \sup T$
 (C) $\sup S = \sup T$
 (D) None of these
155. If $S, T \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\forall s \in S, t \in T, s \leq t$ if S and T have infimum, then—
 (A) $\inf S \geq \inf T$ (B) $\inf S \leq \inf T$
 (C) $\inf S = \inf T$ (D) None of these
156. If S is a non empty set and S has no upper bound, then—
 (A) $\sup S = \infty$ (B) $\inf S = \infty$
 (C) $\sup S = -\infty$ (D) $\inf S = -\infty$
157. The set of real numbers is—
 (A) Unbounded
 (B) Bounded from below
 (C) Bounded from above
 (D) Bounded
158. The completeness aniam states—
 (A) Every non-empty set S of real number which is bounded above has supremum
 (B) Every non empty set S of real number which is bounded above has infimum
 (C) Every non empty set S of real number which is bounded have no supremum
 (D) Every non empty set S of real number which is bounded have no infimum
159. If $0 < x < y$ and $0 < z < w$, then—
 (A) $xz < yw$ (B) $xz > yw$
 (C) $xz < y$ (D) $xz < w$
160. If $x < y < 0$ and $0 < z < w$, then—
 (A) $xz < yw$ (B) $xz > yw$
 (C) $xz < y$ (D) $xz < w$
161. The value of $(0, \infty)$ is—
 (A) ∞ (B) 0
 (C) Undefined (D) None of these
162. If \mathbb{Q}^* is an extended real number system then the $\inf \mathbb{Q}^*$ is—
 (A) 0 (B) $+\infty$
 (C) $-\infty$ (D) No infimum
163. If $S, T \subset \mathbb{Q}$ and $S \leq t \forall s \in S$ and $t \in T$, then—
 (A) $\inf T \leq \inf S$ (B) $\inf T \geq \inf S$
 (C) $\inf T = \inf S$ (D) None of these
164. If $S, T \subset \mathbb{Q}$ and $A = \{x + y : x \in S \text{ and } y \in T\}$, then—
 (A) $\sup A = \sup S + \sup T$
 (B) $\sup A > \sup S + \sup T$
 (C) $\sup A < \sup S + \sup T$
 (D) $\sup A \neq \sup S + \sup T$
165. "Every nonempty set S of real number which is bounded below, has infimum" is stated in—
 (A) Field aniom

- (B) Ordered axiom
(C) Completeness axiom
(D) None of these
166. If $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$, then—
(A) $x(y+z) = xy + yz$
(B) $x(y+z) = xy + yz$
(C) $x(y+z) = xyz$
(D) $xy = xz, y \neq z$
167. If the sequence, $\{x_n\}$ of real numbers have limits l_1 and l_2 , then—
(A) $l_1 > l_2$ (B) $l_1 < l_2$
(C) $l_1 = l_2$ (D) $l_1 \neq l_2$
168. Every Cauchy sequence of real numbers is—
(A) Convergent
(B) Divergent
(C) Limit does not exist
(D) None of these
169. If a sequence of real number has a cluster points, then—
(A) It is convergent
(B) It is divergent
(C) Limit exist
(D) Existence of limit not definite
170. If a sequence of real numbers has a limit, then—
(A) Cluster point exist
(B) Cluster point does not exist
(C) Sequence is divergent
(D) None of these
171. (a) Sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ is convergent
(b) Sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ is bounded
(A) $A \Rightarrow B$ (B) $B \Rightarrow A$
(C) $A \Leftrightarrow B$ (D) None is true
172. (a) Cauchy sequence is convergent
(b) Cauchy sequence is bounded.
(A) (a) and (b) both true
(B) (a) is false
(C) (b) is false
(D) (a) and (b) both false
173. For the sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$, $\overline{\lim} x_n$ is equal to—
(A) -1 (B) $+1$
(C) $-\infty$ (D) $+\infty$
174. For the sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$, $\overline{\lim} x_n$ is equal to—
(A) -1 (B) $+1$
(C) $-\infty$ (D) $+\infty$
175. For the sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ where $x_n = (-1)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$, $\overline{\lim} x_n$ is equal to—
(A) -1 (B) $+1$
(C) $-\infty$ (D) $+\infty$
176. The set of real numbers \mathbb{R} is—
(A) Countable (B) Uncountable
(C) Infinite (D) Bounded
177. Following inequality is false—
(A) $\underline{\lim} x_n + \overline{\lim} y_n \leq \overline{\lim} x_n + \underline{\lim} y_n$
(B) $\underline{\lim} x_n + \overline{\lim} y_n \leq \overline{\lim} (x_n + y_n)$
(C) $\underline{\lim} x_n + \overline{\lim} y_n \leq \underline{\lim} x_n + \underline{\lim} y_n$
(D) $\underline{\lim} x_n + \overline{\lim} y_n \geq \underline{\lim} x_n + \underline{\lim} y_n$
178. Following statement is true—
(A) $\underline{\lim} x_n \leq \overline{\lim} x_n$ (B) $\overline{\lim} x_n \leq \underline{\lim} x_n$
(C) $\underline{\lim} x_n \geq \overline{\lim} x_n$ (D) $\overline{\lim} x_n \geq \underline{\lim} x_n$
179. If limit $x_n = l$ exist, then—
(A) $\underline{\lim} x_n = \overline{\lim} x_n = l$
(B) $\underline{\lim} x_n \neq \overline{\lim} x_n = l$
(C) $l = \underline{\lim} x_n \neq \overline{\lim} x_n$
(D) $\underline{\lim} x_n \leq \overline{\lim} x_n \leq l$
180. For the sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$, where $x_n = (-1)^n n$, limit x_n is—
(A) $-\infty$ (B) $+\infty$
(C) 0 (D) 1
181. For the sequence $\langle (-1)^n \rangle$, $\lim x_n$ is equal to—
(A) $-\infty$ (B) $+\infty$
(C) $+1$ (D) -1
182. For the sequence $\langle x_n \rangle$ where $x_n = (-1)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$, $\lim x_n$ is equal to—
(A) $-\infty$ (B) -1
(C) $+\infty$ (D) $+1$

183. The sequence diverges to $+\infty$ if—
 (A) $\lim x_n = \overline{\lim} x_n = +\infty$
 (B) $\lim x_n \leq +\infty$
 (C) $\overline{\lim} x_n \leq +\infty$
 (D) $\lim x_n = \overline{\lim} x_n < +\infty$
184. If $\forall x_n, y_n \in \mathbb{Q}, x_n < y_n$, then—
 (A) $\lim x_n \geq \lim y_n$
 (B) $\lim x_n \leq \lim y_n$
 (C) $\overline{\lim} x_n \leq \overline{\lim} y_n$
 (D) $\overline{\lim} x_n \leq \lim y_n$
185. If every $x_n < y_n$, then—
 (A) $\overline{\lim} x_n \leq \lim y_n$ (B) $\overline{\lim} x_n \leq \overline{\lim} y_n$
 (C) $\lim x_n \leq \overline{\lim} y_n$ (D) $\lim x_n \leq \lim y_n$
186. The open interval is—
 (A) Open set (B) Closed set
 (C) Empty set (D) Closure
187. The closed interval is—
 (A) Open set (B) Closed set
 (C) Empty set (D) Unbounded set
188. The half closed interval is $[a, \infty]$ is—
 (A) Open set (B) Closed set
 (C) Empty set (D) Unbounded set
189. The intersection of finite collection of open sets is—
 (A) Open set (B) Closed set
 (C) Empty set (D) None of these
190. The intersection of any collection of open sets is—
 (A) Open set
 (B) Closed set
 (C) Can not defined
 (D) Semi open
191. If S is a set of real numbers which is bounded above then $\sup S$ is—
 (A) A point of closure to S
 (B) Not a point of closure to S
 (C) Prime number
 (D) None of these
192. If S is a set of real numbers which is bounded below the $\inf S$ is—
 (A) A point of closure to S
 (B) Not a point of closure to S
 (C) Prime number
 (D) None of these
193. If F is an open covering of a closed and bounded set A , then—
 (A) There exist a infinite sub collection of F which covers A
 (B) There exist a uncountable sub collection of F which covers A
 (C) Both (A) and (B)
 (D) None of these
194. Let F be an open covering of A , then—
 (A) There exist countable sub collection of F which covers A
 (B) There exist uncountable collection of F which covers A
 (C) (A) and (B) both true
 (D) (A) and (B) both false
195. The complement of open set is—
 (A) Closed set (B) Open set
 (C) Countable set (D) None of these
196. A finite set is—
 (A) Open set (B) Closed set
 (C) Uncountable set (D) None of these
197. Singleton set $\{x_0\}$ is—
 (A) Open (B) Closed
 (C) Uncountable (D) None of these
198. If f' exist and is monotonic on (a, b) , then—
 (A) f' is continuous on (a, b)
 (B) f' is discontinuous on (a, b)
 (C) f' is constant
 (D) None of these
199. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and f' exist at each $x \in (a, b)$, then if $f' > 0$ in (a, b) , then—
 (A) f is strictly increasing
 (B) f is strictly decreasing
 (C) f is constant
 (D) None of these
200. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and f' exist at each $x \in (a, b)$, then if $f' = 0$ —
 (A) f is increasing

- (B) f is decreasing
 (C) f is constant
 (D) None of these
201. A function f is increasing function on $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ if $x, y \in E$ —
 (A) $x < y \Rightarrow f(x) \leq f(y)$
 (B) $x < y \Rightarrow f(y) \leq f(x)$
 (C) $x < y \Rightarrow f(x) = f(y)$
 (D) None of these
202. A function f is strictly decreasing on $E \subset \mathbb{R}$, if $x, y \in E$ —
 (A) $x < y \Rightarrow f(x) < f(y)$
 (B) $x < y \Rightarrow f(y) < f(x)$
 (C) $x < y \Rightarrow f(y) \leq f(x)$
 (D) $x < y \Rightarrow f(y) \geq f(x)$
203. A function is a monotonic function f if—
 (A) f is only a decreasing function
 (B) f is only an increasing function
 (C) f is either increasing or decreasing function
 (D) None of these
204. Singular monotonic function on $[a, b]$ have—
 (A) $f(x) = 0, \forall x \in [a, b]$
 (B) $f(x) = 0, \forall x \in [a, b]$
 (C) $f(x) \neq 0, \forall x \in [a, b]$
 (D) None of these
205. If f is an increasing function, then—
 (A) $-f$ is decreasing function
 (B) $-f$ is increasing function
 (C) $-f$ is constant
 (D) None of these
206. If f is an increasing function on closed interval $[a, b]$, then $c \in [a, b]$ we have—
 (A) $f(c^-) \geq f(c) \geq f(c^+)$
 (B) $f(c^-) \leq f(c) \leq f(c^+)$
 (C) $f(c^-) = f(c) = f(c^+)$
 (D) None of these
207. If f and g are of bounded variation, then following is false—
 (A) $f + g$ is of bounded variation
 (B) $f - g$ is of bounded variation
 (C) fg is of bounded variation
 (D) f/g is of bounded variation
208. If f is bounded variation, then f/g is of bounded variation if—
 (A) f is of bounded above from zero
 (B) g is of bounded above from zero
 (C) g is of bounded variation
 (D) None of these
209. If f is of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ and $c \in (a, b)$, then—
 (A) $V_f(a, b) \leq V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$
 (B) $V_f(a, b) \geq V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$
 (C) $V_f(a, b) = V_f(a, c) + V_f(c, b)$
 (D) None of these
210. If f is of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ and $c \in (a, b)$, then—
 (A) f is of bounded variation on $[a, c]$ and on $[c, b]$
 (B) f is not of bounded variation on $[a, c]$ and on $[c, b]$
 (C) f is constant on $[a, c]$ and $[c, b]$
 (D) None of these
211. If f is of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ if—
 (A) f is of difference of two monotonic real valued function on $[a, b]$
 (B) f is the product of two monotonic real valued function on $[a, b]$
 (C) f is the quotient of two monotone real valued function on $[a, b]$
 (D) None of these
212. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ then f is of bounded variation on $[a, b]$ if—
 (A) f is the difference of two monotone continuous function on $[a, b]$
 (B) f is the product of two monotone continuous function on $[a, b]$
 (C) f is the quotient of two monotone continuous functions on $[a, b]$
 (D) None of these
213. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotonic, then—
 (A) f is of bounded variation
 (B) f is unbounded
 (C) The set of discontinuous of f are uncountable
 (D) None of these

214. If f is of bounded variation on $[a, b]$, then total variation of f on $[a, b]$ is—

(A) Finite number (B) Infinite
(C) Zero (D) None of these

Answers with Hints

1. (B) The first term $a_1 = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} = \frac{1}{2}$

The second term $a_2 = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 2} = \frac{1}{4}$

The third term $a_3 = \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2} = \frac{1}{6}$

and the n th term $a_n = \frac{1}{n \cdot 2}$

2. (B) Prime number

3. (C) For $n = \text{odd}$ $a_n = 1$

For $n = \text{even}$ $a_n = \frac{1}{n - \frac{n}{2} + 1}$

4. (C) $a_1 = 2 = 1 + \frac{1}{1}$

$a_2 = \frac{-3}{2} = (-1)^{2-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right)$

$a_3 = \frac{4}{3} = (-1)^{3-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3}\right)$

$a_4 = \frac{-5}{4} = (-1)^{4-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{4}\right)$

$a_n = (-1)^{n-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$

5. (B) $a_1 = 1 = 2 - 1,$

$a_2 = \frac{5}{2} = 4 - 1,$

$a_3 = \frac{5}{3} = 6 - 1$

..... $a_n = \frac{2n + (-1)^n}{n}$

6. (A) Given $a_1 = 0 = \frac{1-1}{1}$

$a_2 = 1 = \frac{1+1}{2}$

$a_3 = 0 = \frac{1-1}{3}$

$a_4 = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1+1}{4}$

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

7. (A) 8. (C) 9. (A) 10. (A) 11. (C)

12. (D) 13. (A) 14. (B) 15. (A) 16. (B)

17. (A) 18. (A) 19. (B) 20. (B) 21. (A)

22. (A) 23. (D) 24. (B) 25. (B) 26. (A)

27. (C) 28. (A) 29. (A) 30. (A) 31. (B)

32. (B) 33. (C)

34. (A) The n th term $a_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{2n-1}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{2n-1} \right| = 0$$

$\Rightarrow (|a_n|)$ is a convergent sequence

$\Rightarrow \in |a_n|$ is convergent

$\Rightarrow \in a_n$ is convergent and converges to zero.

35. (A) The n th term $a_n = 2n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2n) = \infty \neq 0$$

$\therefore \{a_n\}$ is not converges to zero

$\therefore \in a_n$ is divergent.

36. (A) The n th term

$a_n = 1/n^n$

$a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{(n+1)^{n+1}}$

(By Ratio test)

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{(n+1)^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{n^n}{1} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^n} \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \right|$$

$$= \left| \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n \left(\frac{1}{n+1} \right) \right|$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{e} \cdot \infty \right|$$

$$= \infty > 1$$

$$\left(\because \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n = 1/e \right)$$

\therefore Series diverges.

37. (A) $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{n+1}{(n+1)^{n+1}} = \frac{n^n}{n}$

$$= \frac{n^n}{(1+n)^n} = \frac{1}{(1+1/n)^n}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \lim \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= 1 \div \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + 1/n)^n \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{e} < 1\end{aligned}$$

\therefore The series is convergent.

$$\begin{aligned}38. (B) \quad \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} &= \frac{1}{3} (1 + 1/n)^2 \\ \Rightarrow \lim \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} &= \frac{1}{3} < 1 \\ \Rightarrow \text{Series is convergent.}\end{aligned}$$

39. (A) The partial sum

$$\begin{aligned}S_n &= \frac{1}{2} n [2(1) + (n-1) \cdot 1] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} n (n+1) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}\end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \leq S_n$ (bounded below)

and there is

$$n \in \mathbb{N} : M \geq S_n$$

$\therefore \{S_n\}$ is unbounded sequence

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Also } S_{n+1} - S_n &= \frac{1}{2} (n+1) (n+2) - \frac{1}{2} n (n+1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (n+1) (n+2-n) \\ &= n+1\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_{n+1} - S_n \geq 0$$

$\Rightarrow \{S_n\}$ is increasing sequence

$\therefore \{S_n\}$ is increasing and unbounded

$\therefore \{S_n\}$ is divergent

$\Rightarrow 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots$ is divergent.

$$40. (A) \quad S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k = 1$$

or 0 as n is odd or even

$$\Rightarrow \{S_n\} = \{1, 0, 1, 0, \dots\}$$

It is divergent sequence

$\Rightarrow \sum (-1)^n$ is divergent

$$41. (A) \text{ The partial sum } S^n = \sum_{K=0}^n (n)^K$$

$\{S_n\}$ is increasing sequence and unbounded from above

\therefore It is divergent sequence

\Rightarrow The series is divergent series.

42. (A) The n th term

$$\begin{aligned}a_n &= \frac{1}{n(n+2)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+2} \right] \\ S_n &= \sum_{K=1}^n a_K \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n+2} \right]\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad S_n \geq \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\text{and } S_n \leq \frac{3}{4}$$

$\therefore \{S_n\}$ is bounded and also S_n is monotone sequence

$\Rightarrow \{S_n\}$ is convergent

\therefore The series is convergent.

$$43. (C) \quad x_n = (-1)^n,$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, -1 \leq x_n$$

$$\text{and } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \geq x_n$$

$\Rightarrow \{(-1)^n\}$ is bounded

$$\text{For even number } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n = -1$$

$$\text{For odd number } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n = -1$$

\therefore Series is divergent.

$$44. (B) \quad x_n = \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N},$$

$$1 \geq x_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N},$$

$$0 \leq 0$$

$\Rightarrow \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\}$ is bounded

$$x_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\text{and } x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n}$$

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

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

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} - x_n \leq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} \leq x_n,$$

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ decreasing sequence

$\therefore \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\}$ is bounded and monotone sequence

$\therefore \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \right\}$ is convergent.

$$45. (A) \quad x_n = a_n b_n \\ = (-1)^n \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N},$$

$$a_n = (-1)^n$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad -1 \leq a_n$$

$$\text{and} \quad 1 \geq a_n$$

$\Rightarrow \{a_n\}$ is a bounded sequence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \{a_n\}$ is bounded sequence and $\{b_n\}$ converges to zero

$\therefore \{a_n b_n\}$ converges to zero.

$$46. (B) \quad 47. (A) \quad 48. (B) \quad 49. (B)$$

$$50. (A) \text{ Let } x_n = n, \\ n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \leq x_n \text{ (bounded below)}$$

But there exist no real number

$$M : x_n \leq M$$

$\therefore \{n\}$ is unbounded.

51. (B) The sequence $\{-n\}$ is bounded above since there exist a real number

$$-1 : -1 \geq -n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$52. (A) \quad x_n = \frac{n+1}{n} = 1 + 1/n$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \leq x_n \text{ (bounded below)}$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 2 \geq x_n \text{ (bounded above)}$$

$\therefore \left\{ \frac{n+1}{n} \right\}$ is bounded sequence.

$$53. (B) \quad x_n = \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{1}{1+1/n}$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \geq x_n \text{ (bounded above)}$$

$$\text{and } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \frac{1}{2} \leq x_n \text{ (bounded below)}$$

$\therefore \{x_n\}$ is bounded

$$54. (B) \quad x_n = 1/3^n,$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq x_n \text{ (bounded below)}$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \geq x_n \text{ (bounded above)}$$

$\therefore \{x_n\}$ is bounded.

$$55. (B) \quad x_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, -1 \leq x_n$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \geq x_n$$

$\therefore \{x_n\}$ is bounded

$$56. (B) \quad x_n = \frac{n+1}{n}$$

$$= 1 + 1/n$$

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{(n+1)+1}{(n+1)}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} - x_n < 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} < x_n$$

$\Rightarrow \{x_n\}$ is decreasing sequence.

$$57. (A) \quad x_n = \frac{n}{n+1},$$

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{n+1}{n+1+1}$$

$$= \frac{n+1}{n+2}$$

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{n+1}{n+2} - \frac{n}{n+1}$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)^2 - n(n+2)}{(n+2)(n+1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n+2)(n+1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} - x_n > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{n+1} > x_n$$

$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{n}{n+1} \right]$ is increasing sequence.

$$58. (A) \quad x_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{n},$$

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

$$x_{n+1} - x_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n+1} - \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$$

$$= \frac{n(-1)^{n+1} - (n+1)(-1)^n}{(n+1)^2}$$

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

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

Increasing n even, Decreasing n odd.

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, -1 \leq x_n \leq 0$, bounded,

59. (C) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq x_n$,

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \geq x_n$

$\therefore \{1, 0, 1, 0, \dots\}$ is bounded.

60. (A) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a \leq x_n$,

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a - b \geq x_n$

$\therefore \{x_n\}$ is bounded.

61. (A) The series $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$ is convergent iff $p > 1$

62. (A) Here $a_n = \frac{1}{(1 + 1/n)^{n^2}}$

By Root test

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(1 + 1/n)^n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{e} < 1$$

\therefore The series is convergent.

63. (A) The absolute series

$$\frac{\sin x}{1^3} + \frac{\sin 2x}{2^3} + \frac{\sin 3x}{3^3} + \dots \text{ is convergent.}$$

\therefore The series is convergent.

64. (A) By Ratio test

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{x^n}{n} \times \frac{n-1}{x^{n-1}} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{x}{n} \right|$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x}{n} \right| = 0 < 1,$$

The series is convergent.

65. (B) By Ratio test

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| (-1)^{n+1} \cdot \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} \times \frac{n}{(-1)^n \times x^n} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{x \cdot n}{n+1} \right|$$

$$= x \cdot \left| \frac{1}{1 + 1/n} \right|$$

$$x \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{1 + 1/n} \right| = x > 1$$

when $|x| > 1$

\therefore The series diverges for $|x| > 1$

66. (A) 67. (A) 68. (C) 69. (B) 70. (B)

71. (C) 72. (C) 73. (A) 74. (A) 75. (B)

76. (A) 77. (C) 78. (C) 79. (A) 80. (A)

81. (B) 82. (C) 83. (C)

84. (A) Here $a_n = \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$

and $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \frac{1}{n+1} \times \frac{n}{1}$

$$= \frac{1}{n}$$

$\therefore L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= 0$$

and the radius of convergence

$$R = \frac{1}{L} = \frac{1}{0}$$

$$= \infty$$

85. (A) Here $x_0 = 0.2$

and $a_n = 1/n$

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n}{1}$$

$$= \frac{n}{n+1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + 1/n}$$

$\Rightarrow L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + 1/n}$

$$= 1$$

and the radius of convergence.

$$R = \frac{1}{L} = 1$$

86. (A) Here $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$

and $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \frac{n+1}{n}$

$$= n + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$$

$$= \infty$$

The radius of convergence

$$R = 0$$

∴ The series converges only at

$$x = 0$$

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 87. (A) | 88. (A) | 89. (A) | 90. (A) | 91. (A) | 132. (C) | 133. (A) | 134. (D) | 135. (B) | 136. (A) |
| 92. (B) | 93. (A) | 94. (C) | 95. (C) | 96. (B) | 137. (C) | 138. (C) | 139. (A) | 140. (B) | 141. (A) |
| 97. (A) | 98. (D) | 99. (B) | 100. (B) | 101. (A) | 142. (B) | 143. (D) | 144. (A) | 145. (B) | 146. (B) |
| 102. (C) | 103. (C) | 104. (B) | 105. (B) | 106. (B) | 147. (A) | 148. (A) | 149. (C) | 150. (B) | 151. (B) |
| 107. (C) | 108. (D) | 109. (B) | 110. (A) | 111. (A) | 152. (B) | 153. (C) | 154. (A) | 155. (A) | 156. (A) |
| 112. (B) | 113. (A) | 114. (C) | 115. (A) | 116. (A) | 157. (A) | 158. (A) | 159. (A) | 160. (A) | 161. (B) |
| 117. (D) | 118. (B) | 119. (A) | 120. (A) | 121. (A) | 162. (C) | 163. (A) | 164. (A) | 165. (C) | 166. (B) |
| 122. (A) | 123. (C) | 124. (A) | 125. (B) | 126. (B) | 167. (C) | 168. (A) | 169. (D) | 170. (A) | 171. (C) |
| 127. (A) | 128. (A) | 129. (A) | 130. (A) | 131. (A) | 172. (A) | 173. (B) | 174. (D) | 175. (B) | 176. (A) |
| | | | | | 177. (C) | 178. (A) | 179. (A) | 180. (A) | 181. (D) |
| | | | | | 182. (B) | 183. (A) | 184. (B) | 185. (B) | 186. (A) |
| | | | | | 187. (B) | 188. (B) | 189. (A) | 190. (C) | 191. (A) |
| | | | | | 192. (A) | 193. (C) | 194. (A) | 195. (A) | 196. (B) |
| | | | | | 197. (B) | 198. (A) | 199. (A) | 200. (C) | 201. (A) |
| | | | | | 202. (B) | 203. (C) | 204. (B) | 205. (A) | 206. (B) |
| | | | | | 207. (D) | 208. (B) | 209. (C) | 210. (A) | 211. (A) |
| | | | | | 212. (A) | 213. (A) | 214. (A) | | |

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