# FPM Analysis

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# The Real Numbers The Triangle Inequality

•  $|a+b| \le |a| + |b|$ 

• 
$$||a| - |b| \le |a - b|$$

**Approximation Property** If the set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  has a supremum then for any positive number  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $a \in E$  such that sup  $E - \varepsilon < a < \sup E$ .

*Remark:* If  $E \subset \mathbb{N}$  has a supremum then sup  $E \in E$ .

**Archimedean Principle** Given positive real numbers  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  there is an integer  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that b < na.

The Completeness Axiom If  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  is non empty and bounded above then E has a supremum.

- Set E has a supremum iff the set -E has an infinum and  $\inf(-E) = -\sup E$ .
- Set E has an infinum iff the set -E has a supremum and  $\sup(-E) = -\inf E$ .

**Monotone Property** If  $A \subset B$  are two nonempty subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  and B is bounded above then  $\sup A \leq \sup B$ . If B is bounded below then  $\inf A \geq \inf B$ .

Bernouilli's Inequality Let  $n > 0, x \ge -1$ , then

- $(1+x)^n \le 1 + nx$  if  $n \in (0,1]$
- $(1+x)^n \ge 1 + nx$  if  $n \in [1, \infty]$ .

# Sequences

A sequence of real numbers  $(x_n)$  is said to converge to a real number a if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $|x_n - a| < \varepsilon$ .

• Every convergent sequence is bounded.

The Squeeze Theorem Suppose  $(x_n), (y_n), (w_n)$  are real sequences.

• If both  $x_n \to a$  and  $y_n \to a$  (same a!) as  $n \to \infty$  and if

$$x_n \le w_n \le y_n$$
 for all  $n \ge N_0$ 

then  $w_n \to a$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

• If  $x_n \to 0$  and  $(y_n)$  is bounded then the product  $x_n y_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Theorem 2.2.3** Let  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ . If E has a finite supremum, i.e. E is bounded above, then there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  with  $x_n \in E$  such that  $x_n \to \sup E$  as  $n \to \infty$ . An analogous statement holds if E has finite infinum (i.e. bounded below).

Comparision Theorem for Sequences Suppose  $(x_n), (y_n)$  are real sequences. If both  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} y_n$  exist in  $\mathbb{R}^*$  and if  $x_n \leq y_n$  for all  $n \geq N$  for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n \leq \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n$ .

Monotone Convergence If  $(x_n)$  is increasing and bounded above or if it is decreasing and bounded below, then  $(x_n)$  is convergent (and converges to the supremum/infimum of the set  $\{x_n | n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  respectively.

- $\limsup x_n = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sup \{x_n | n > N\}$
- $\liminf x_n = \lim_{N \to \infty} \inf \{x_n | n > N \}$

**Theorem 2.3.7** Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence of real numbers then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$  exists as  $\mathbb{R}^*$  iff  $\limsup x_n = \liminf x_n$  in which case  $\limsup x_n = \liminf x_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$ .

## Cauchy Sequences

A sequence  $(x_n)$  of numbers  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}$  is said to be *Cauchy* if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$  there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \ge N.$$

A sequence of real numbers  $x_n$  is a Cauchy sequence  $\iff (x_n)$  converges.

## Subsequences

**Theorem 2.4.3** Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence of real numbers.

- There exists  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$  there exist infinitely many  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  for which  $|x_n t| < \varepsilon \iff$  there exists a subsequence of  $(x_n)$  converging to t.
- The sequence is not bounded above (below)  $\iff$  there exists a subsequence converging to  $\infty$  (converging to  $-\infty$ ).

**Theorem 2.4.4** Every sequence of real numbers has a monotone subsequence.

Theorem 2.4.5 Every bounded monotone sequence converges. Bolzano-Weierstrass Every bounded sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

## Useful Limits of Sequences

- $a^{\frac{a}{n}} \to 1$  as  $n \to \infty$ , provided a > 0
- $(1+\frac{1}{n})^n \to e \text{ as } n \to \infty$
- $(1-\frac{1}{n})^n \to \frac{1}{e}$  as  $n \to \infty$

# **Infinite Series**

Let  $S = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  be an infinite series with terms  $a_k$ . For each n

define the partial sum by  $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ . S is said to converge

 $\iff$  the sequence of partial sums  $(s_n)$  converges to some  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ . That is  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that if  $n \geq N$  we have

$$|s_n - s| = \left| \sum_{k=1}^n a_k - s \right| < \varepsilon.$$

If the sequence of partial sums diverges then S diverges.

**Theorem 3.2.1** Suppose  $a_k \geq 0$  for large k. Then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges  $\iff$   $(s_n)$  is bounded. That is  $\exists M > 0$  such that  $\left|\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k\right| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Harmonic Series** The series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k}$  diverges.

Divergence Test Let  $(a_k)$  be a sequence. If  $a_k$  does not converge to 0 then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges.

Geometric Series Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $N \in \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$ . Then the series  $\sum_{k=N}^{\infty} x^k$  converges  $\iff |x| < 1$ . In this case

$$\sum_{k=N}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{x^N}{1-x}.$$
 In particular

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad |x| < 1.$$

Comparison Test Suppose  $0 \le a_k \le b_k$  for large k.

• If 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k < \infty$$
 then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k < \infty$ .

• If 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = \infty$$
 then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k = \infty$ .

**Limit Comparison Test** Suppose  $0 \le a_k, 0 < b_k$  for large k and  $L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$  exists as an extended real number.

- If  $L \in (0, \infty)$  then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges  $\iff \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  converges.
- If L = 0 and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  converges then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges.
- If  $L = \infty$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  diverges then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges.

Root Test Suppose that  $r = \lim_{k \to \infty} |a_k|^{\frac{1}{k}}$  exists. If

- r < 1 then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges absolutely.
- r > 1 then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges.

#### Absolute Convergence

- A series converges absolutely if  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k| < \infty$ .
- A series S converges conditionally if S converges but  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k| \text{ diverges.}$

- A series converges absolutely  $\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0$  there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall m \geq n \geq N, \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k| < \varepsilon$ .
- If a series converges absolutely then the series converges, but not conversely.

Cauchy's Condensation Test Let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  be a series of non-negative terms and assume  $(a_k)$  is a decreasing sequence. If  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2^n a_{2^n}$  converges then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges.

**Telescopic Series** Let  $(b_k)$  be a convergent sequence.

Then 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (b_k - b_{k+1}) = b_1 - \lim_{k \to \infty} b_k$$
.

Ratio Test Let  $a_k \in \mathbb{R}$  and assume  $r = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|a_{k+1}|}{|a_k|}$  exists in  $\mathbb{R}^*$ :

- $r < 1 \implies \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges absolutely.
- $r > 1 \implies \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges.

**Integral Test**  $f: [1, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  positive and decreasing on  $[1, \infty)$ . Let  $a_k = f(k)$  then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f(k) \text{ converges } \iff \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx < \infty.$$

**p-series Test** The series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^p}$  is convergent if and only if p > 1.

Alternating Sign Series Let  $(a_k)$  be non-negative,

decreasing series such that  $\lim_{k\to\infty}a_k=0$ . Then  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^ka_k$  is convergent.

# Continuity

 $f: \operatorname{dom}(f) \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous if there exists sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $\operatorname{dom}(f)$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = a$ . We have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = f(a)$ .

 $\varepsilon - \delta$  definition:  $f : \text{dom}(f) \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous at  $a \in \text{dom}(f)$  iff

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \, \exists \delta : |x-a| < \delta \implies |f(x)-f(a)| < \varepsilon.$$

- f continuous at  $a \iff \lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$ .
- f continuous at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and g continuous at f(a), then  $g \circ f$  continuous at a.

#### Extreme Value Theorem

 $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  closed and bounded and f continuous on I, then  $\exists x_m, x_M \in I$  such that

- $f(x_m) = \inf\{f(x)|x \in I\}.$
- $f(x_M) = \sup\{f(x)|x \in I\}.$

**Lemma 4.2.4:** Let I open interval and  $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous at  $a \in I$  and f(a) > 0, then for some  $\delta, \varepsilon > 0$  we have  $f(x) > \varepsilon$ .  $\forall x \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ .

#### Intermediate Value Theorem

I non-degenerate interval and  $f:I\to \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Let  $a,b\in I,\, a< b$  then:

 $\forall y_0 \in (f(a), f(b)) \,\exists x_0 \in (a, b) : f(x_0) = y_0.$ 

**Bolzano's Theorem** f continuous on [a,b] s.t. f(a)f(b) < 0, then  $\exists c \in (a,b) : f(c) = 0$ .

- $f[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  strictly increasing such that  $\operatorname{im}(f)$  is an interval, then f continuous on [a,b].
- $f[a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous strictly increasing, then  $f^{-1}[f(a), f(b)] \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous strictly increasing.

#### Limits of Functions

 $f : \operatorname{dom}(f) \to \mathbb{R}, \ a \in \mathbb{R}^*, \ \operatorname{then} \lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L \ \operatorname{for} \ L \in \mathbb{R}^* \ \operatorname{if}$  for  $\operatorname{ever} y$  sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $\operatorname{dom}(f)$  which converges to a we have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = L$ .

Comparison Theorem for Functions  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and I open interval s.t.  $a \in I$ . If f, g are defined everywhere on  $I \setminus \{a\}$  and have limits as  $x \to a$  then

$$f(x) \leqslant g(x), \, \forall x \in I \setminus \{a\} \implies \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \leqslant \lim_{x \to a} g(x).$$

# Differentiability

 $f\colon I\to\mathbb{R}$  is differentiable on  $a\in\mathbb{R}$  if  $a\in I$  and

$$f'(a) = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- f differentiable  $\implies f$  continuous.
- f continuously differentiable on I if f' exists and continuous on I.

**Rolle's Theorem** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , a < b. If f continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b) and f(a) = f(b), then  $\exists c \in (a, b) : f'(c) = 0$ .

#### Mean Value Theorem

Let  $a,b\in\mathbb{R},\ a< b.$  If f continuous on [a,b] and differentiable on (a,b) then  $\exists c\in(a,b)$  s.t.

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a).$$

Generalized Mean Value Theorem If f, g continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b) then  $\exists c \in (a, b)$  s.t.

$$f'(c)(g(b) - g(a)) = g'(c)(f(b) - f(a)).$$

**L'Hôpital's Rule** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}^*$  and I interval that contains a or has endpoint a. Let f, g differentiable on  $I \setminus \{a\}$  and

- $\forall x \in I \setminus \{a\} : g(x) \neq 0, g'(x) \neq 0$
- $A = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a} g(x), A \in \mathbb{R}^*$
- $B = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists with  $B \in \mathbb{R}^*$

then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

#### Monotone functions

**Theorem 5.4.3** Let f be injective and continuous on I, then f is strictly monotone on I and  $f^{-1}$  is continuous and strictly monotone on f(I).

**Inverse Function Theorem** Let f be injective and continuous on *open* interval I. If  $a \in f(I)$  and f' exists at  $f^{-1}(a)$  and is *non-zero*, then  $f^{-1}$  differentiable at a and

$$(f^{-1})'(a) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(a))}.$$

## Taylor's Theorem

**Taylor's Polynomial** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$ , a < b. If  $f: (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$  differentiable *n*-times at  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ , then Taylor's polynomial of degree n is

$$P_n^{f,x_0} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k.$$

**Taylor's Formula** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$ , a < b. If  $f: (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $f^{(n+1)}$  exists on (a, b) then  $\forall x, x_0 \in (a, b) \exists c$ between $x, x_0$  s.t.

$$f(x) = P_n^{f,x_0} + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x_0)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{(n+1)}.$$

N.B.: c depends on n, x and  $x_0$ .

## Useful facts

• The series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{k}, \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{\log k}, \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{k \log k}$$

are all convergent (Corollary 3.4.2).

• The radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$  can be defined as  $R = \frac{1}{\limsup \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}}$ .