
UM-SJTU JOINT INSTITUTE

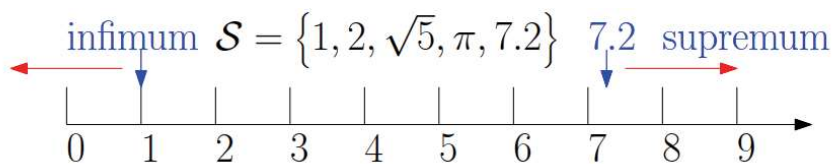
VV156 RC

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Lecture 1

Concepts

1. upper bound \Leftrightarrow bounded from above
 2. lower bound \Leftrightarrow bounded from below
- bounded from above and below \longrightarrow bounded; else unbounded
3. supremum/least upper bound
 4. infimum/greatest lower bound
- * The supremum and infimum do not necessarily belong to the set.



5. δ - neighbourhood of x ($x - \delta, x + \delta$).
6. neighbourhood: a set that contains a δ - neighbourhood of x . * A neighbourhood can be a closed interval while a *delta* - neighbourhood cannot.
7. open set: a set in which every point has a δ - neighbourhood in S . In other words, every point in S is an interior point.
* The union of open sets is open. The intersection of finite open sets is open. The intersection of infinite open sets may be closed.
8. closed sets: complements of open sets
* The intersection of closed sets is closed. The union of finite closed sets is closed. The union of infinite closed sets may be open.
* \emptyset and \mathbb{R} are both open and closed sets.
* Some sets are neither open or closed sets, like $[2, 3)$. Therefore, for a set S where there exists a point $x \in S$ that is not an interior point, S may be a closed set or neither.

Definition of various points

1. interior point: a point $x \in S$ s.t. $(x - \delta, x + \delta) \subset S$
2. boundary point: a point $x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $(x - \delta, x + \delta)$ contains at least one point in S and at least one point out of S .
3. limit point: a point $x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. every neighbourhood $(x - \delta, x + \delta)$ contains a point in S other than x itself. That is, a point in S arbitrarily close to x .
* A limit point is either an interior point or boundary point.
4. isolated point: a point $x \in S$ is an isolated point if there exists δ s.t. x is the only point belonging to S in the neighbourhood $(x - \delta, x + \delta)$. That is, there isn't any point in S arbitrarily close to x , which is contrary to the limit point.
* Interior points and isolated points should belong to S , while boundary points and limit points are only required to belong to \mathbb{R} .
5. compact set: closed and bounded.

Lecture 2

Definition of the limit of a sequence

If for every $\epsilon > 0$, there is a corresponding integer N s.t.

if $n > N$, then $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$

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

* The definition is used to prove that the limit of the sequence equals a given number, not to evaluate the limit.

* Triangle inequality may be helpful in the proof.

$$||a| - |b|| \leq |a \pm b| \leq |a| + |b|$$

* Use sufficient conditions to find N .

* converge: L exists.

* diverge: L does not exist.

Property of limits

Limit laws

provided $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L_a$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L_b$

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a = a$
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L_a \pm L_b$
3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n)(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n) = L_a L_b$
4. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right) = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n} = \frac{L_a}{L_b}, \text{ when } b_n \neq 0, L_b \neq 0$

Monotonicity

1. increasing: $a_{n+1} \geq a_n$ for all n

2. decreasing: $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ for all n

Monotonic Sequence Theorem

A monotonic sequence converges if and only if it is bounded.

* A sequence that converges must be bounded

* An unbounded sequence must be divergent.

* A sequence that is bounded may be divergent.

Suppose $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent, and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$$

If for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n \quad \text{for all } n > N$$

then the sequence $\{c_n\}$ is convergent. Moreover,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$$

Squeeze Theorem

Lecture 3

Definition of limit

Let f be a function defined on some open interval that contains the number a , except possibly at a itself. The value of L is the **limit** of $f(x)$ as x approaches a ,

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

if for every number $\epsilon > 0$ there is a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{if} \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta$$

- * Note that $|x - x_0| > 0$. The limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ has nothing to do with $f(a)$.
- * If L fails to exist, the limit of $f(x)$ when $x \rightarrow x_0$ does not exist.
- * The way to find δ corresponding to ϵ is similar to the method of finding N for the limit of sequence.
- * Sometimes, we first set $\delta=1$ to simplify calculations take the smaller value (1 and another calculated one) of δ . Likewise, in limit of sequence, we take the bigger one as N (often comparison involved).
- * We can assign special values to ϵ when we are asked to prove a statement.

Limit Laws

- * Actually, law 5 can be extended. As long as $f(x)$ is basic elementary function, the limit at every point x_0 in its domain always exists and is equal to $f(x_0)$. *

$$\lim [f(x)]^{g(x)} = K^L$$

Assume that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = K$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$, and that c is constant,

- 1 The limit of a constant is the constant itself.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$$

- 2 The limit of a sum/difference is the sum/difference of the limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = K \pm L$$

- 3 The limit of a product is the product of the limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = \left[\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right] \left[\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \right] = KL$$

- 4 The limit of a quotient is the quotient of the limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} = \frac{K}{L}, \quad \text{provided } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$$

- 5 If f is a polynomial or a rational function and a is in the domain of f , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

- 6 If $f(x) = g(x)$ for all x near a , possibly except at $x = a$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x), \quad \text{provided the limits exist}$$

If $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ when x is near a , except possibly at a , and if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L, \quad \text{then } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$

The Squeeze Theorem

One-sided limit

1. right-hand limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$$

The range of $f(x)$ is $a < x < \delta + a$.

2. left-hand limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$$

The range of $f(x)$ is $a - \delta < x < a$.

* The limit of $f(x)$ when $x \rightarrow a$ exists only when the right-hand limit and the left-hand limit both exist and are equal.

Lecture 4

Definition of limit at infinity and infinite limit

1. The limit of $f(x)$ approaches infinity

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

if for every number $M > 0$ there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that $f(x) > M$ if $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

* If the limit exists, then $f(x)$ has a vertical asymptote $x = a$.

- 2.

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

if for every number $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a number $Min(a, \infty)$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ if $x > M$. * Here M is similar to N in the limit of sequence.

* Difference: M can be real numbers, while N should be a positive integer.

* If the limit exists, then $f(x)$ has a horizontal asymptote $y = L$.

Special cases in limit laws

Suppose f and g are functions such that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$.

1. The limit of the sum/difference is infinity

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \infty$$

2. The limit of the product is infinity if $L > 0$ and negative infinity if $L < 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = \pm\infty$$

3. The limit of the quotient is infinity if $L > 0$ and negative infinity if $L < 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \pm\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = 0$$

* Still hold when a is replaced by ∞ .

Three Theorems

1. If r is a positive rational number, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^r} = 0$$

2. If $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ is a polynomial of degree n , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a_n x^n$$

3. The limit of a rational function as $x \rightarrow \infty$ is the limit of the quotient of the terms of highest degree in the numerator and the denominator as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

* This is the extension of the theorem we learnt in high school to functions (where x are real numbers instead of only positive integers).

* Only when $x \rightarrow \infty$ the theorem holds true.

Some techniques

* Convert $\tan x$ to the quotient of $\sin x$ and $\cos x$.

* Substitute $\sin x$ with 1.

* Double angle formula

* Product to sum formula, sum to product formula

* u-substitution

Two important limits

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

n is an integer.

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

Both can be proved using squeeze theorem.

Continuity

Definition of continuity

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

* The judgement of continuity is actually identifying the value of the limit.