MATH410: Advanced Calculus I

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These are my notes for UMD's MATH410: Advanced Calculus I. These notes are taken live in class ("live-TEX"-ed). This course is taught by Lecturer Anna Szczekutowicz.

Contents

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This section covers the foundation of analysis, which is just the set of real numbers. It covers basic definitions such as $\in, \notin, \emptyset, \subseteq, =, \cap, \cup, \setminus$, so for example

Definition 0.1. **Intersection** of A and B is $C = A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$

Some quantifiers include $\forall, \exists, \exists!$ and some number sets include $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}^C$.

Definition 0.2. The real numbers $\mathbb{R}$ satisfies 3 groups of axioms: Refer to the notes on Canvas for the Consequences of all of the following axioms.

1. Field $(+, *)$
   - Commutativity of Addition
   - Associativity
   - Additive Identity
   - Additive Inverse
   - Commutativty of Multiplcation
   - Associativity of Multiplication
   - Multiplicative Identity
   - Multiplicative Inverse
   - Distributive Property

   The set of integers $\mathbb{Z}$ is not a field because it fails under the multiplicative inverse.

2. Positivity

   There is a subset of $\mathbb{R}$ denoted by $\mathcal{P}$, called the set of positive numbers for which:
   - If x and y are positive, then $x + y$ and xy are both positive.
   - For each $x \in \mathbb{R}$, eaxctly one of the following 3 alternatives is true: $x \in \mathcal{P}$, $-x \in \mathcal{P}$, or $x = 0$

3. Completeness

Definition 0.3. **Absolute value** is defined as

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

Definition 0.4. **Triangle Inequality** is $\forall\ a, b \in \mathbb{R}, |a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$

Proof. Assume without loss of generality, $a \geq b$. We will proceed with proof by cases.
Case 1: Assume $a \geq b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b$ by the definition of absolute value since $a \geq 0, b \geq 0 \implies |a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$.
Case 2: Now assume $a \geq 0 \geq b$ and $a + b \geq 0$. Note since $b \leq 0$ then $b \leq |b|$. Then

$$|a + b| = a + b \leq |a| + |b|$$

by the definition of absolute value and our above note.
Case 3: Now consider $a \geq 0 \geq b$ and $a + b < 0$. So

$$|a + b| = -(a + b) = -a - b \leq |a| + |b|$$

Case 4: Now consider $0 \geq a \geq b$ so $a + b < 0$. Therefore,

$$|a + b| = -(a + b) = -a + -b = |a| + |b|$$

□

§1 The Completeness Axiom

Definition 1.1. A subset S of $\mathbb{R}$ is said to be **bounded above** if $\exists\ r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $s \leq r\ \forall\ s \in S$
The definition of **bounded below** is similar.

Definition 1.2. The least upper bound, if it exists, is called the **supremum** of S. We denote it as the "sup" of S. Similarly, the largest lower bound is called the **infemum** and is denoted as the "inf" of S.

Definition 1.3. Let $S \subseteq R$ where $S \neq \emptyset$. If S has a largest (smallest), the element is a max (min).

Example 1.4

Find the sup of $(0, 1)$ and prove it.

Proof. Let us prove that the $sup(0, 1) = 1$. First, let us show that we have an upperbound. If $x \in (0, 1)$, then $x \leq 1$. By definition of upperbound, 1 is an upper bound. Note that we can find many other upper bounds.
On the contrary, assume $x < 1$ is an upper bound. Now consider the average $\frac{1+x}{2}$.

$$\frac{x+1}{2} < \frac{1+1}{2} = 1$$

Therefore, we have showed that $0 < \frac{x+1}{2} < 1 \implies \frac{x+1}{2}(0, 1)$. But, $\frac{1+x}{2} > \frac{x+x}{2} \implies \frac{1+x}{2} > x$. This is a contradiction. Since x is an upper bound, and we found $\frac{1+x}{2} \in (0, 1)$ where $\frac{1+x}{2} > x$, so x is not a supremum.

□

Theorem 1.5

Suppose $S \in \mathbb{R}, S \neq \emptyset$ that is bounded above. Then a supremum exists. Every nonsempty subset S of $\mathbb{R}$ that is bounded below has a lower bound.

Note 1.6. Let c be a positive number then $\exists!$ a positive number whose square is c. $x^2 = c, x > 0$ has a unique solution and this gives us the notion of square root.

§1.1 Archimedian Property

Definition 1.7. The **Archimedian Property** is a result of the completeness axiom. Suppose there is a small $\epsilon > 0$ and c is an arbitrary large number.

1. $\exists\ n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $c < n$, which just means that you can always find a natural number than any large number
2. $\exists\ m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{m} < \epsilon$, which just means you can always find smaller rational numbers.

Proof. We will proceed by contradiction. Assume that $\exists$ an upper bound c for the $\mathbb{N}$. So there is no $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $c < n$. Since $\mathbb{N}$ is bounded above, and the $\mathbb{N}$ is nonempty, the supremum exists (Completeness Axiom). Let $s = \sup \mathbb{N}$. Consider $s - 1$ and $s - 1 < s = \sup \mathbb{N}$, which is the least upper bound, so $s - 1$ is not an upper bound. So $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $s - 1 < n \implies s < n + 1$. But $s = \sup \mathbb{N}$, the least upper bound, this is a contradiction since it is less than $(n + 1) \in \mathbb{N}$.
For part b, use $c = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ and use part a. $\square$

Note 1.8. Some of the following are results from the Archimedian Property.

Theorem 1.9
For all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there is no integer in $(n, n + 1)$ (an open interval).

Theorem 1.10
If S is a nonempty subset of $\mathbb{Z}$ that is bounded above, then it has a max.

Theorem 1.11
$*$ For every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $\exists!\ n \in \mathbb{Z}$ in $[c, c + 1)$

Definition 1.12. A subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **dense in $\mathbb{R}$** if for every $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$, then there is a $s \in S$ s.t. $s \in (a, b)$.

Theorem 1.13

$\mathbb{Q}$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}$. Reminder that $\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0\}$

Proof. Suppose we have arbitrary $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a < b$. We want to find $\frac{m}{n} \in (a, b)$. By multiplcation, we can say we want $na < m < nb$. We want an integer m between na and nb. We can write this as

$$nb - na > 1 \implies n(b-a) > 1 \implies n > \frac{1}{b-a}$$

By part a of the Archimedian Property, let $c = \frac{1}{b-a}$, and we know that there exists some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > c$. Since $a < b$, and $b - a > 0$, multiply

$$n > \frac{1}{b-a}$$

$$n(b-a) > 1$$

$$nb - na > 1$$

$$nb - 1 > na \implies na < nb - 1$$

By previous $(*)$, $\exists\, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $m \in [nb-1, nb)$. Therefore, $nb - 1 \leq m < nb$. Therefore,

$$na < nb - 1 \leq m < nb \implies na < m < nb \implies a < \frac{m}{n} < b$$

and so we have found that there exists $m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{m}{n} \in (a, b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a < b$. Therefore, the rational numbers are dense in the real numbers. $\square$

§2 Sequences

Definition 2.1. A **sequence** of $\mathbb{R}$ is a real-valued function whose domain is $\mathbb{N}$. $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ (a list of numbers indiced by $\mathbb{N}$)

Example 2.2

A sequence of odd integers could be $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 3, a_3 = 5, \ldots, a_n = 2n - 1$ which can be

$$\{1, 3, 5, \cdots\} = \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{2n-1\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

Example 2.3

$$\{\frac{1}{n}\} = \{\frac{1}{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \implies \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots\}$$

§2.1 Convergence

Definition 2.4. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to **converge** to a number L if $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists$ an index N s.t. $\forall$ indices $n \geq N$ we have

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon \implies \text{Notation: } \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$$

Example 2.5

Suppose we have the sequence $\{\frac{(-1)^n}{n}\}$ and we WTS

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 0$$

Think of the problem as someone gives you a small $\epsilon \implies$ you have to find N, which we call the **threshold**, such that for every sequence value after the threshold is in the $\epsilon-$tube.
For example, $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2} \implies N = 3, \epsilon = \frac{1}{4} \implies N = 5$.

Above $L = 0$, sketch: we want

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon \implies |\frac{(-1)^n}{n} - 0| < \epsilon \implies |\frac{1}{n}| < \epsilon \implies \frac{1}{\epsilon} < n$$

so choose $N = \frac{1}{\epsilon} < n$

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. By Archimedian Property, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$. Then if $n \geq N$

$$|\frac{(-1)^n}{n} - 0| = |\frac{(-1)^n}{n}| = |\frac{1}{n}| = \frac{1}{n}$$

From here, we need to relate n to N and then we can relate N to ϵ. Note that $n \geq N \implies \frac{1}{N} \geq \frac{1}{n}$ by algebra. Therefore,

$$\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$$

by our choice of N. Therefore,

$$\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$$

and so we are done since we have shown that

$$|\frac{(-1)^n}{n} < 0| < \epsilon$$

$\square$

Example 2.6

Given $\{\frac{n^2-2n}{n^2+1}\}$, prove that this sequence $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n^2-2n}{n^2+1} = 1$.

Some sketch work: we want to show that $|\frac{n^2-2n}{n^2+1} - 1| < \epsilon$

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

Note that both the numerator and denominator are both always positive, so we can consider. Now let us use the $\leq$ operator to simplify and have one singular 'n'.

$$\frac{2n+1}{n^2+1} \leq \frac{2n+1}{n^2} \leq \frac{2n+n}{n^2} = \frac{3n}{n^2} = \frac{3}{n}$$

Recall that $n \geq N \implies \frac{1}{N} \geq \frac{1}{n} \implies \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N}$ So we'd choose N to get rid of 3 and introduce ϵ.

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$. By A.P., $\exists\ N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\frac{1}{N} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. For $n \geq N$, then

$$|\frac{n^2-2n}{n^2+1} - 1| = \cdots = \frac{2n+1}{n^2+1} < \cdots \leq \frac{3}{n} \leq \frac{3}{N} = 3 * \frac{1}{N} < 3 * \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$$

Therefore, we have shown that

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon \implies \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n^2-2n}{n^2+1} = 1$$

□

Theorem 2.7

The Sum Property states that if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \text{ and } \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = b$$

then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n + \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = a + b$$

Some sketch work before the proof:
We want to show that $|a_n + b_n - (a+b)| < \epsilon$. Note that we can group terms together $|(a_n - a) + (b_n - b)| \le |a_n - a| + |b_n - b|$ by the Triangle Inequality. It is known that these two terms converge. Therefore, we can choose ϵs such that

$$|a_n - a| + |b_n - b| \le \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

Proof.
Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since the sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ converge to a and b, respectively, by the Archimedian Principle, $\exists N_1, N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{N_1} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{N_2} < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Choose $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$, which represents the numerically larger threshold. For all $n \ge N$, we show

$$|a_n + b_n - (a+b)| = |(a_n - a) + (b_n - b)| \le |a_n - a| + |b_n - b|$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

Therefore, we have shown that $\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n + b_n) = a + b$ □

Lemma 2.8

The Comparison Lemma (C.L.)

Let $\{a_n\}$ converge to a. Then $\{b_n\}$ converges to b if $\exists\, c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\forall\, n \ge N,\ |b_n - b| \le c|a_n - a|$$

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since a_n converges to a, $\exists\, N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|a_n - a| < \frac{\epsilon}{c}$, $\forall\, n \ge N_1$. By the Archimedian Principle, $\exists\, N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\frac{1}{N_2} < \epsilon$. Choose $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$ and if $n \ge N$, then

$$|b_n - b| \le c|a_n - a| < c * \frac{\epsilon}{c} = \epsilon$$

$$\implies |b_n - b| < \epsilon$$

□

Lemma 2.9

Suppose the $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$, then for $c \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} ca_n = c \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = ca$$

Proof. Use the Comparison Lemma (above). Note that $|ca_n - ca| = |c(a_n - a)| = |c||a_n - a|$ which satisfies $|b_n - b| \leq c|a_n - a| \implies \{b_n\} = \{ca_n\} \implies b = ca$. $\square$

Lemma 2.10

The following is a useful property (*)

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \underset{\leftrightarrow}{\text{iff}} \lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n - a) = 0$$

Lemma 2.11

Suppose $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$ then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n b_n = 0$.

Proof. Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ and $\sqrt{\epsilon} > 0$,

$$\exists\ N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } |a_n| < \sqrt{\epsilon}\ \forall\ n \geq N_1$$

Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$ and $\sqrt{\epsilon} > 0$,

$$\exists\ N_1 \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } |b_n| < \sqrt{\epsilon}\ \forall\ n \geq N_2$$

Let $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$. Then if $n \geq N$,

$$|a_n b_n - 0| = |a_n b_n| = |a_n| * |b_n| < \sqrt{\epsilon} * \sqrt{\epsilon} = \epsilon$$

$\square$

Theorem 2.12

The Product Property states that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = b$ then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n b_n = ab$

Proof. Define $\alpha_n = a_n - a$ and $\beta_n = b_n - b$. Using the * property above, since $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \implies \lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n - a) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \alpha_n = 0$ and then the same for b such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \beta_n = 0$.
Note that

$$a_n b_n - ab = (\alpha_n + a)(\beta_n + b) - ab$$

and then by Distributive property we get

$$= \alpha_n\beta_n + \alpha_n b + a\beta_n + ab - ab = \alpha_n\beta_n + \alpha_n b + a\beta_n$$

So using the previous lemma,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n b_n - ab) = \lim_{n\to\infty}(\alpha_n\beta_n + b\alpha_n + a\beta_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty}(\alpha_n\beta_n) + b\lim_{n\to\infty}\alpha_n + a\lim_{n\to\infty}\beta_n$$

From above, the last two terms are 0 and by the previous lemma, the first term is 0. Therefore,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n b_n - ab) \underset{\leftrightarrow}{\text{iff}} \lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n b_n) = ab$$

□

Definition 2.13. A sequence **diverges** to $\infty, (-\infty)$ if

$$\forall\ M > (<)0, \exists\ N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq N \text{ then } a_n > (<)M$$

Example 2.14

Prove that $\lim_{n\to\infty}(n^2 - 4n) = \infty$
Sketch: we want $a_n > M \implies n^2 - 4n > M \implies n(n-4) > M$

Proof. Let $M > 0$ be given. By A.P., $\exists\ N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $N > \max(M, 4)$. If $n \geq N$, then $n^2 - 4n = n(n-4) \geq N(N-4) > M$
Thus,

$$n^2 - 4n \to \infty \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

□

Example 2.15

Prove that $(-1)^n$ does not converge.

Proof. On the contrary, suppose $(-1)^n$ converges to a. Let $\epsilon = 1$. In the definition of convergence, then $\exists\ N \in \mathbb{N}$ if $n \geq N$ then

$$|(-1)^n - a| < 1$$

For $n = 2N$, meaning some even number, we get $|(-1)^n - a| = |1 - a| < 1$
Now for $n = 2N + 1$, we get $|(-1)^{2N+1} - a| = |1 + a| < 1$
Note that $|1 - a| < 1$ and $|1 + a| < 1$ so therefore

$$|1 - a| + |1 + a| < 2$$

But note, using the Triangle Inequality in the reverse direction, note that $2 = |1 - a + 1 + a| \leq |1 - a| + |1 + a| < 1 + 1 = 2$. Therefore, we've shown that $2 < 2$ which is a contradiction and therefore, $(-1)^n$ does not converge. □

Lemma 2.16

Suppose the sequence $\{b_n\}$ of nonzero numbers converges to $b \neq 0$. Then $\{\frac{1}{b_n}\}$ converges to $\frac{1}{b}$.
Sketch: Use the Comparison Lemma to find $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|\frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b}| < c|b_n - b|$$

We just have to find c and N_1.

Proof. Note that

$$|\frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b}| = |\frac{b - b_n}{bb_n}| = \frac{1}{|b||b_n|}|b_n - b|$$

We want $\frac{1}{|b||b_n|}$ to be c, but this must be a single constant and not dependent on n. We want to find index N_1 such that

$$|b_n| > \frac{|b|}{2} \ \forall \ n \geq N_1$$

$$\frac{1}{|b_n|} < \frac{2}{|b|}$$

If we can find N_1 then $|\frac{1}{b_n} - \frac{1}{b}| \leq \frac{2}{|b|^2}|b_n - b|$ and the term $\frac{2}{|b|^2}$ becomes our c and we can apply the Comparison Lemma, so we need N_1 to make the above true.
Let $\epsilon = \frac{b}{2}$. By definition of $\{b_n\}$ converging to b, we can choose N_1 such that $|b_n - b| < \epsilon \ \forall \ n \geq N_1$.

$$|b_n - b| < \frac{|b|}{2}$$

$$-\epsilon < b_n - b < \epsilon$$

$$b - \epsilon < b_n < b + \epsilon$$

Check $b > 0, b < 0$ since $\epsilon = \frac{|b|}{2}$. When $b > 0, \epsilon = \frac{b}{2}$ so

$$b_n \in (b - \frac{b}{2}, b + \frac{b}{2}) = (\frac{b}{2}, \frac{3b}{2})$$

so $b_n > \frac{b}{2}$. When $b < 0$ ... So $|b_n| > \frac{|b|}{2}$ and this N_1 works and apply the Comparison Lemma. □

Theorem 2.17

Let $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$, $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = b$, and $b_n \neq 0 \forall\ n$ and $b \neq 0$ then

$$\frac{a_n}{b_n}_{n\to\infty} = \frac{a}{b}$$

Proof.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n * \frac{1}{b_n} = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n * \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{b_n} = \frac{a}{b}$$

□

§2.2 Boundedness

Definition 2.18. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded** if $\exists\ M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|a_n| \leq M\ \forall\ n$.

Theorem 2.19

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

- If convergent $\implies$ bounded.
- If it is unbounded, then it diverges.

Proof. Let $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$ and take $\epsilon = 1$. Using the definition of convergence, $\exists\ N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$|a_n - a| > 1\ \forall\ n \geq N$$

then $|a_n| = |a_n - a + a| \leq |a_n - a| + |a| \leq 1 + |a|\ \forall\ n \geq N$ by the Triangle Inequality and then the definition of the converging sequence. However, we need to show that this is true (bounded by a constant) for all n, not just for all $n \geq N$.

Define $M = \max(1 + |a|, |a_1|, \ldots, |a_{N-1}|)$. Note that there the $N - 1$ terms are finite and so a max exists. Then

$$|a_n| \leq M\ \forall\ n$$

and so $\{a_n\}$ is bounded. □

Remark 2.20. Recall that a set $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ is dense in $\mathbb{R}$ if every open set $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}$ contains a point $s \in S$.

Definition 2.21. A set of numbers $\{x_n\}$ is in a set S provided that $x_n \in S\ \forall\ n$.

Lemma 2.22

A set S is **dense** in $\mathbb{R}$ if and only if every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a limit of a sequence of a sequence in S.

Proof.

$\implies$ Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ be dense in $\mathbb{R}$. Fix $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and let n be an index. Since S is dense, there is an element in S in $(x, x + \frac{1}{n})$. For each n, this defines $\{s_n\}$ with

$$s \in (x, x + \frac{1}{n})$$

$$x < s < x + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$|s_n - x| < \frac{1}{n} \; \forall \; n$$

$$|s_n - x| < 1|\frac{1}{n} - 0|$$

Use the Comparison Lemma since $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$ converges to 0. So, $\{s_n\}$ converges to x.

$\impliedby$ Let S have the property that every number in $\mathbb{R}$ is the limit of a sequence in S. We want to show that any open interval in $\mathbb{R}$ contains a point $s \in S$. Consider an open interval $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}$. Consider $\frac{a+b}{2} = s \in \mathbb{R}$. By assumption, $\exists \{s_n\}$ of points in S s.t. $\lim\limits_{n \to \infty} s_n = s$. Define $\epsilon = \frac{b-a}{2} > 0$. By definition of convergence, $\exists \; N$ s.t. $|s_n - s| < \epsilon \; \forall \; n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$-\epsilon < s_n - s < \epsilon$$

$$s - \epsilon < s_n < s + \epsilon$$

$$\frac{a+b}{2} - \frac{b-a}{2} < s_n < \frac{a+b}{2} + \frac{b-a}{2}$$

$$a < s_n < b$$

The point $s_N \in S$ and $s_n \in (a, b)$ so S is dense in $\mathbb{R}$. $\square$

Definition 2.23. The **sequential density of $\mathbb{Q}$** states that every $\mathbb{R}$ is the likmit of a sequence in $\mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem 2.24

Let $\{c_n\} \in [a, b]$ and $\lim\limits_{n \to \infty} c_n = c$ then $c \in [a, b]$ also.

Definition 2.25. $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **closed** (set) if $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence in S that converges to a, then $a \in S$ also.

Example 2.26

$(0, 1]$ not closed since $\{\frac{1}{n} \in (0, 1]\}$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ but $0 \notin (0, 1]$.

Example 2.27

$\mathbb{Q}$ is not closed since we can find $\{r_n\} \in \mathbb{Q}$ that converge to π but $\pi \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Definition 2.28. A $\{a_n\}$ is said to be **monotonically increasing (decreasing)** if $a_{n+1} \geq (\leq) a_n \ \forall \ n$

Note 2.29. If a sequence is monotone, then it is either monotonically increasing or decreasing.

Theorem 2.30

Monotone Convergence Theorem (MCT) states that a monotone sequence converges if and only if it is bounded. Moreover, the bounded monotone $\{a_n\}$ converges to the

1. $\sup\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ if monotone increasing
2. $\inf\{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ if monotone decreasing

Proof.
$\Longrightarrow$ Note that we already showed that convergent sequences are bounded.

$\Longleftarrow$ We want to show that our sequence converges to either the inf, sup depending on if its either increasing or decreasing. Now assume that our sequence is bounded. Define $S = \{a_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and S is bounded by assumption. Since S is nonempty and bounded above, S has $\sup S = l$ by the Completeness Axiom. Claim $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = l$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given, and we want to show the usual definition of convergence.
Note that

$$|a_n - l| < \epsilon$$

$$-\epsilon < a_n - l < \epsilon$$

$$l - \epsilon < a_n < l + \epsilon \ \forall \ n \geq N$$

But l is an upper bound for $S \implies a_n \leq l < l + \epsilon \ \forall \ n$.
On the other hand, since l is the least upper bound for S, $l - \epsilon$ is not an upper bound for S. So, $\exists \ N$ such that $l - \epsilon < a_N$.
Since a_n is monotonically increasing. $l - \epsilon < a_N \leq a_n \ \forall n \geq N$. Thus, we have $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \geq N$ we have $|a_n - l| < \epsilon$, as desired. □

Remark 2.31. The formula for a finite geometric sum is $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} r^k$ where $r \neq 1, r < 1$.

$$S_n = \frac{r - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

Example 2.32

Consider $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} \cdot \frac{1}{2^k}$

$$k = 1 \implies s_1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$k = 2 \implies s_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^2} = \frac{5}{8}$$

$$k = 3 \implies \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2^3}$$

$$\vdots$$

so this sequence is monotonically increasing. Is it bounded

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} \cdot \frac{1}{2^k} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2^k} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}^{n+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 1$$

Theorem 2.33

The Nested Interval Theorem. Suppose that $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$ is a sequence of intervals, for which $I_{n+1} \subset I_n \ \forall \ n$. Then the intersection of those intervals is a nonempty closed interval

$$\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_n = [a, b]$$

where $a = \sup a_n, b = \inf b_n$. Furthermore, if $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - b_n = 0$ then $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_n$ contains a single point.

Proof.
$\impliedby$ Let $X \in \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} I_n$. So for all $n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in I_n$ by definition of intersection. Therefore,

$$a_n \leq x \leq b_n \ \forall \ n$$

Note that xx is an upper bound for a_n. So, by definition of sup, $a = \sup a_n \leq x$.

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

$\implies$ The reverse direction is similar. □

§2.3 Sequential Compactness

Definition 2.34. Consider a sequence $\{a_n\}$ and let $\{n_k\}$ be a sequence of $\mathbb{N}$ that is strictly increasing. Then the sequence $\{b_k\}$ defined by $b_k = a_{n_k} \ \forall \ k$ is a **subsequence**.

Note 2.35. Note that a sequence may not converge, but it may be possible to find a subsequence that does.

Theorem 2.36

Let $\{a_n\}$ converges to a. Then every subsequence of $\{a_n\}$ also converges to the same limit a.

Theorem 2.37

Every sequence (does not need to converge) has a monotone increasing or decreasing subsequence.

Proof. Consider $\{a_n\}$. We all an index a **peak index** for $\{a_n\}$ if

$$a_n \leq a_m \;\forall\; n \geq m$$

You can have two cases: infinitely many peak indices, or a finite number of peak indices.
Suppose there are finite number of peak indices. Then we choose N such that there are no more peak indices. Since N is not a peak index, $\exists\; n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n_1 > N$ with $a_N \leq a_{n_1}$

$$\vdots$$

Continue for $n_k \implies \exists\; n_{k+1} \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n_{k+1} \geq n_k$ with $a_{n_k} \leq a_{n_{k+1}}$

$$a_N \leq a_{n_1} \leq \cdots \leq a_{n_k} \leq a_{n_{k+1}}$$

which is a monotonically increasing subsequence.
In the case of infinitely many peak indices, $m_1 < m_2 < m_3 < \cdots <$ peak indices. Since m_1 is a peak index. Then $m_1 < m_2 \implies a_{m_1} > a_{m_2}$.

$$\vdots$$

We'll get a monotonically decreasing subsequence. $\square$

Theorem 2.38

Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

Proof. Let $\{a_n\}$ be bounded. By the previous theorem, $\{a_n\}$ has a monotone subsequence. Since $\{a_n\}$ is boundeed, $\{a_{n_k}\}$ is bounded also. By MCT, $\{a_{n_k}\}$ converges since it is monotone and bounded. $\square$

Definition 2.39. A $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **compact (or sequentially compact)** if every sequence in S has a convergent subsequence converging to a point in S. For a set to not be compact, we find a sequence in S that has no convergence subsequence that converges to a point in S.

Example 2.40

$[1, \infty)$ is not compact. Consider $a_n = n, a_n \to \infty$ by Archimedian Principle. Then every subsequence of n_k also diverges to ∞. Thus, $\{a_n\}$ has no subsequence that converges.

Example 2.41

$(0, 1]$ is not compact. Let $a_n = \frac{1}{n}, a_n \to 0, n \to \infty$, so every subsequence converges to 0 also. But $0 \notin (0, 1]$ so it is not compact.

Theorem 2.42

The Sequentially Compactness Theorem (SCT) states that every interval $[a, b]$ such that $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ is sequentially compact.

Proof. Let $\{a_n\}$ be in $[a, b]$. So, $a \leq a_n \leq b \; \forall \; n$. By a previous theorem, since $\{a_n\}$ is bounded, there exists a convergent subsequence $\{a_{n_k}\}$. Assume $\{a_{n_k}\} \to l$. Since $a \leq a_n \leq b \; \forall \; n$, then

$$a \leq a_{n_k} \leq b \; \forall \; n$$

so $l \in [a, b]$ as desired. Therefore, $\{a_n\}$ has a convergent subsequence whose limit is in the interval $[a, b]$, so it is sequentially compact. $\square$

Theorem 2.43

Bolzano Weirstrass Theorem: If $S \subset \mathbb{R}$, the following are equivalent

$$S \text{ is closed and bounded } \iff S \text{ is compact}$$

§3 Continuous Functions

§3.1 Continuity Basics

Note 3.1. Before $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ but now $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. $f(x)$ is the value the function assigns to x.

Definition 3.2. A function $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **continuous at a point** x_0 if whenerver $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to $x_0 \in D$, the image sequence $\{f(x_n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to $f(x_0)$.

Definition 3.3. A function $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is **continuous** if f is continuous at every point in D.

Example 3.4

Consider $f(x) = x^2 + 7x - 3$. We want to show f is continuous. Select $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $\{x_n\} \to x_0 \implies \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x_0$. We want to show that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f(x_n) = f(x_0)$$

Note that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n^2 + 7x_n - 3$$

by definition of f.

$$= \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n^2 + 7 \lim_{n\to\infty} x_n + \lim_{n\to\infty} 3$$

by properties of sequences.

$$= x_0^2 + 7x_0 - 3 = f(x_0)$$

by the definition of f

Remark 3.5. Given $f : D \to \mathbb{R}, g : D \to \mathbb{R}$ are continuous, then

$$f \pm g, fg, \frac{f}{g}(g \neq 0)$$

are continuous and this follows directly from convergent sequence properties from the previous chapter. Thus, polynomials are continuous.

Example 3.6

Consider Dirichlet's function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if x is rational} \\ 0 \text{ if x is irrational} \end{cases}$$

Note that f is defined on $\mathbb{R}$ but it is discontinuous at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. By sequential density of the $\mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{Q}^c$, we can find

$$\{u_n\} \to x_0, u_n \in \mathbb{Q}\ \forall n$$

$$\{v_n\} \to x_0, v_n \in \mathbb{Q}^c\ \forall\ n$$

Since $f(u_n) = 1\ \forall\ n$ and $f(v_n) = 0\ \forall\ n$, then

$$\{f(u_n)\} \to 1 \text{ but } \{f(v_n)\} \to 0$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(u_n) = 1 \neq 0 = \lim_{n\to\infty} f(v_n)$ but $\{u_n\} \to x_0$ and $\{v_n\} \to x_0$ but we cannot have 2 function values for x_0. $\square$

Definition 3.7. Suppose $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g : U \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(D) \subset U$ then we define

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) \; \forall \; x$$

Theorem 3.8

Let $f : D \to \mathbb{R}, g : U \to \mathbb{R}$ and $f(D) \subset U$. Let f be continuous at x_0 and g be continuous at $f(x_0)$. Then $(g \circ f) : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at x_0.

Proof. Suppose $\{x_0\} \in D$ converges to x_0. Since f is continuous, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(x_n) = f(x_0)$.

$$\{f(x_n)\} \underset{n\to\infty}{\to} f(x_0)$$

Since g is continuous at $f(x_0)$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} g(f(x_n)) = g(f(x_0))$. Therefore, $(g \circ f)(x)$ is continuous at x_0 since

$$\{g(f(x_n))\} \underset{n\to\infty}{\to} g(f(x_0))$$

$\implies$ we can combine continuous functions and remain continuous $\square$

§3.2 Extreme Value Theorem

Definition 3.9. $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ attains a **maximum (minimum)** value if there is

$$x_0 \in D \text{ s.t. } f(x_0) \geq (\leq) f(x) \; \forall x \in D$$

Remark 3.10. Recall that a nonempty set has a maximum if it is bounded above and contains its supremum ie. the supremum is in the set.

$\implies$ Now $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ has a maximum when the image $f(D)$ is bounded above and the supremum of the image is a functional value.

Example 3.11

$f : (0, 1) \to \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x) = 2x$. Note that the supremum of the image is 2, but 2 is not a functional value. Therefore, this function does not have a max.

Theorem 3.12

The **Extreme Value Theorem** states that a continuous function on a closed and bounded interval $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ attains both a maximum and a minimum. Sketch: Note that we want to show that $f(D)$ is bounded above. See lemma below. After that, we need to show that the supremum is a functional value.

Lemma 3.13

Assume on the contrary that given $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, assume there is no M such that

$$f(x) \leq M \ \forall \ x \in [a, b]$$

There is $x \in [a, b]$ at which $f(x) > n$, $\forall \ n$. For each n this creates a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in $[a, b]$ with $f(x) > n \ \forall \ n$. $\{x_n\}$ may or may not converge. By Sequential Compactness Theorem, choose $\{x_{n_k}\}$ subsequence that converges to $x_0 \in [a, b]$. Since f is continuous at x_0, $\{f(x_{n_k})\} \to f(x_0)$, but every convergent sequence is bounded by a theorem, so $\{f(x_{n_k})\}$ is bounded. Therefore, we have a contradiction since $f(x_{n_k}) > n_k \geq k \ \forall k \ \in \mathbb{N}$. So $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is bounded above.

Proof. Define $S = f([a, b])$, all of the image values. By the lemma above, S is bounded. Note S is nonempty and bounded, thus by the Completeness Axiom, $c := \sup(S)$ exists. Note that we want to find $x_0 \in [a, b]$ such that $f(x_0) = c$, as this would show that the supremum is a functional value. Consider

$$c - \frac{1}{n} < c \ \forall \ n$$

Note that $c - \frac{1}{n}$ is not an upper bound since c is the least upper bound. So, we can find a point $x \in [a, b]$ such that

$$c - \frac{1}{n} < f(x) < c$$

Label point x_n to create a sequence $\{x_n\}$

$$c - \frac{1}{n} < f(x_n) < c \ \forall \ n$$

Since $\{\frac{1}{n}\} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, then $\{f(x_n)\} \to c$ by the Squeeze Theorem, as desired. Note by the Sequential Compactness Theorem, there exists a subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}$ that converges to x_0. Since f is continuous at x_0, then $\{f(x_{n_k})\} \to f(x_0)$. Recall that $\{f(x_{n_k})\}$ is a subsequence of $\{f(x_n)\}$ that converges to c, and any subsequence must also converge to the same value as the full sequence. Therefore, $f(x_0) = c$. Therefore, the supremum exists and is a functional value, so we attain a max at x_0. □

§3.3 Intermediate Value Theorem

Theorem 3.14

The Intermediate Value Theorem state that suppose $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, let $c \in \mathbb{R}$ between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$. Then there exists $x_0 \in (a, b)$ such that $f(x_0) = c$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, suppose $f(a) < c < f(b)$. Recursively define a sequence of nested intervals starting at $[a, b]$ and converging to $x_0 \in (a, b)$ with $f(x) = c$. We WTS $f(x_0) = c$ by letting $a_1 = a, b_1 = b \ \forall\ n$.
$\forall\ n$ define $[a_n, b_n]$ by considering the midpoint $m_n = \frac{a_n+b_n}{2}$. Let us consider some cases.
$\implies$ If $f(m_n) \leq c$, define $a_{n+1} = m_n$ and $b_{n+1} = b_n$.
$\impliedby$ If $f(m_n) > c$, define $a_{n+1} = a_n$ and $b_{n+1} = m_n$.
Note that $a \leq a_n \leq a_{n+1} < b_{n+1} < b_n \leq b$ and $f(a_{n+1}) \leq c$ and $f(b_{n+1}) > c$ by definition. Now, we want to show that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0$$

in order to apply the Nested Interval Theorem.

$$\vdots$$

So $b_n - a_n = \frac{b-a}{2^{n-1}} \ \forall\ n \underset{n\to\infty}{\to} 0$. So $\lim\limits_{n\to\infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0$. Thus by Nested Interval Theorem, $\exists\ x_0 \in (a, b)$ where $\{a_n\} \to x_0$ and $\{b_n\} \to x_0$. Since f is continuous at x_0, then $\{f(a_n)\} \to f(x_0)$ and $\{f(b_n) \to f(x_0)\}$. Since $f(a_n) \leq c \ \forall\ n \implies f(x_0) \leq c$ and $f(b_n) \geq c \ \forall\ n \implies f(x_0) \geq c$. Thus, the only this is true is $f(x_0) = c$, as desired. □

Example 3.15

Suppose we have $h(x) = x^5 + x + 1 = 0$. $h(x)$ is a polynomial so it is continuous. Verify that a solution exists. Let us test some points.

$$h(0) = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$$

$$h(1) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$$

$$h(-1) = -1 - 1 + 1 = -1$$

By the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists $x_0 \in (-1, 0)$ such that $x_0^5 + x_0 + 1 = 0$.

Example 3.16

$x^2 = c, c > 0$. Verify that a solution exists.

Proof. Consider $f : [0, c+1] \to \mathbb{R}$. $f(x) = x^2, 0 \le x \le c+1$. Testing points

$$f(0) = 0^2 = 0 < c$$

$$f(c+1) = c^2 + 2c + 1 > c$$

Since x^2 it is continuous. By IVT, there exists $x_0 \in (0, c+1)$ such that $x_0^2 = c$. □

§3.4 Uniform Continuity

Definition 3.17. A function $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **uniformly continuous** if for $\{u_n\}$ and $\{v_n\}$ in D with $\lim_{n\to\infty} u_n - v_n = 0$ then $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(u_n) - f(v_n) = 0$.

Note 3.18. It doesn't make sense to say f is uniformly continuous at a singular point. Further note that there is no requirement for $\{u_n\}$ and $\{v_n\}$ to converge.

Remark 3.19. Uniform continuity is on an interval.

Example 3.20

$f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, f(x) = 3x$ is uniformly continuous.

Proof. Let $\{u_n\}$ and $\{v_n\}$ be in $\mathbb{R}$ and $\{u_n - v_n\} \to 0$. Then

$$\{f(u_n) - f(v_n)\} = \{3u_n - 3v_n\} = \{3(u_n - v_n)\} \to 3 * 0$$

as needed. □

Example 3.21

$f(x) = x^2$ is not uniformly continuous on $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. To do this, we must find a pair of sequences that doesn't work.

Proof. Let $\{u_n\} = \{n + \frac{1}{n}\}$ and $\{v_n\} = \{n\}$. Note that $\{u_n - v_n\} \to 0$ but

$$\{f(u_n) - f(v_n)\} = \{f(n + \frac{1}{n}) - f(n)\} = \{(n + \frac{1}{n})^2 - n^2\} = \{2 + \frac{1}{n^2}\} \to 2 \neq 0$$

Therefore, f is not uniformly continuous on $\mathbb{R}$. □

Example 3.22

Consider $f : (0, 2) \to \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. This is not uniformly continuous since there is a vertical asymptote at $x = 0$.

Proof. Let $\{u_n\} = \frac{1}{n}$ and $\{v_n\} = \frac{2}{n}$. Note that $\{u_n - v_n\} \to 0$ but

$$\{f(u_n) - f(v_n)\} = \{f(\frac{1}{n}) - f(\frac{2}{n})\} = \{n - \frac{n}{2}\} = \{\frac{n}{2}\} \to \infty$$

□

But now consider $f : (2, 3) \to \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. This is uniformly continuous.

Proof. Suppose $\{u_n - v_n\} \to 0$ for $\{u_n\}$ and $\{v_n\}$ in $(2, 3)$.

$$|f(u_n) - f(v_n)| = |\frac{1}{u_n} - \frac{1}{v_n}| = |\frac{u_n - v_n}{u_n v_n}|$$

We need to bound the product $u_n v_n$. Note htat $u_n > 2, v_n > 2 \implies \frac{1}{u_n} < \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{v_n} < \frac{1}{2}$, so

$$< \frac{|u_n - v_n|}{2 * 2}$$

so $|f(u_n) - f(v_n)| \leq \frac{1}{4}|u_n - v_n|$ and so by Comparison Lemma, $\{f(u_n) - f(v_n)\} \to 0$. Note that this would work for domains $(0.00000001, \infty)$. □

Note 3.23. If $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous then it is continuous, but not all continuous functions are uniformly continuous. The go-to example is $f(x) = x^2$ on $\mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 3.24

Every continuous function on a closed bounded interval $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous.

Proof. Let $\{u_n\}, \{v_n\} \subset [a, b]$ with $\lim_{n\to\infty}(u_n - v_n) = 0$. We WTS that $\lim_{n\to\infty}(f(u_n) - f(v_n)) = 0$. By contradiction, assume that $\{f(u_n) - f(v_n)\} \not\to 0$. Therefore,

$$\exists\ \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \ \forall\ N \in \mathbb{N}, \exists n \geq N$$

with

$$|f(u_n) - f(v_n)| \geq \epsilon$$

Let us create a subsequence

$$n_1 \geq N = 1 \text{ s.t. } |f(u_{n_1}) - f(v_{n_1})| \geq \epsilon$$

$$n_2 \geq n_1 + 1 \cdots |f(u_{n_2}) - f(v_{n_2})| \geq \epsilon$$

$$n_3 \geq n_2 + 1 \cdots |f(u_{n_3}) - f(v_{n_3})| \geq \epsilon$$

So $\{f(u_{n_k}) - f(u_{n_k})\}$ is a subsequence with $\{f(u_{n_k}) - f(v_{n_k})\} \geq \epsilon\ \forall n_k$. Because $\{u_n\}$ is a sequence in $[a, b]$, we can use Sequetial Compactness to find a subsequence $\{u_{m_k}\}$. Since f is continuous, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(u_{m_k}) = f(x_0)$. Since $\lim_{k\to\infty}(u_n - v_n) = 0 \implies \lim_{k\to\infty}(u_{m_k} - v_{m_k}) = 0$ by a theorem. Thus,

$$\lim_{k\to\infty} v_{m_k} = \lim_{k\to\infty} u_{m_k} - \lim_{k\to\infty}(u_{m_k} - v_{m_k}) = x_0 - 0 \implies v_{m_k} \to x_0$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}(f(u_{m_k}) - f(v_{m_k})) = f(x_0) - f(x_0) = 0$$

But this is a contradiction

$$\forall\ n_k,\ |f(u_{n_k}) - f(v_{n_k})|$$

□

§3.5 Epsilon-Delta Criterion

Definition 3.25. A function $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to satisfy the **$\epsilon - \delta$ criterion** at $x_0 \in D$ if $\forall\ \epsilon > 0$, $\exists$ a $\delta > 0$ so that

$$\forall\ x \in D \text{ and } |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$$

Note 3.26. δ depends on ϵ and maybe x_0. For uniform continuity, however, δ cannot depend on location, so δ will not depend on x_0 in the case of uniform continuity.

Example 3.27

$f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, f(x) = 3x$. Prove it satisfies $\epsilon - \delta$ criteria at $x_0 = 2$.

Sketch. Given $|x - 2| < \delta$. How do we show that $|f(x) - f(2)| < \epsilon$.

$$|3x - 6| \implies |3(x - 2)| < 3\delta$$

so we take $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. □

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Let $x_0 = 2$ and let $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. Then if $||x - 2| < \delta$ then

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| = |3x - 6| = 3|x - 2| < 3\delta = 3 * \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$$

□

Example 3.28

$f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, f(x) = x^2$ at any x_0. Show $\epsilon - \delta$ criterion.

Sketch. $|x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$

$$|x^2 - x_0^2| = |x - x_0||x + x_0| \leq \delta|x + x_0|$$

Note the absolute value term is constant, but x could be large, so we need to bound it. Let $\delta \leq 1$. What happens to $|x + x_0|$ in this case, let's try and relate it to $|x - x_0|$.

$$|x + x_0| = |x - x_0 + x_0 + x_0| \leq |x - x_0| + |x_0 + x_0| = |x - x_0| + 2|x_0|$$

$$\leq \delta + 2|x_0| \leq 1 + 2|x_0|$$

which is a constant as desired. □

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\delta = \min(1, \frac{\epsilon}{1+2|x_0|})$. Note that $\epsilon > 0$ and $1 + 2|x_0| > 0$ and so we confirm $\delta > 0$. Thus,

$$\delta \leq 1 \text{ and } \delta \leq \frac{\epsilon}{1 + 2|x_0}$$

Then

$$|x + x_0| = |x - x_0 + x_0 + x_0| \leq |x - x_0| + 2|x_0| \leq \delta + |2x_0| \leq 1 + 2|x_0|$$

since $|x - x_0| < \delta$. Thus,

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| = |x^2 - x_0^2| = |(x - x_0)(x + x_0)| < \delta|x + x_0| \leq \delta(1 + 2|x_0|)$$

Recall that $\delta \leq \frac{\epsilon}{1+2|x_0|}$ and so

$$\delta(1 + 2|x_0|) \leq \frac{\epsilon}{1 + 2|x_0|}(1 + 2|x_0|) = \epsilon \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$$

□

Theorem 3.29

Given $f : D \to \mathbb{R}, x_0 \in D$, f is continuous at x_0 iff f satisfies the $\epsilon - \delta$ criteria at x_0.

Definition 3.30. We say $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ satisifes the $\epsilon - \delta$ criterion **on** D if

$$\forall\ \epsilon > 0\ \exists\ \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \ \forall\ u, v \in D,\ \text{ if } |u - v| < \delta \implies |f(u) - f(v)| < \epsilon$$

Note here that δ can only depend on ϵ.

Theorem 3.31

Given $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$, f is uniformly continuous on D iff f satisfies $\epsilon - \delta$ critera on D.

§3.6 Images, Inverses, Monotone Functions

Definition 3.32. $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is called **monotonically increasing (decreasing)** if

$$\forall\ u, v \in D, u < v \implies f(u) \leq (\geq) f(v)$$

If "strictly", then the operators become $<$ and $>$ respectively.

Definition 3.33. $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is called **one-to-one (1-1)** when $f(u) = f(v) \implies u = v$.

Definition 3.34. When f is $1-1$, its inverse, denoted $f^{-1}(x)$ is a function from $f(D)$ to D satisfying $f(x) = y \leftrightarrow f^{-1}(y) = x$

- $f^{-1}(f(x)) = y\ \forall\ x \in D$
- $f(f^{-1}(x)) - y\ \forall\ y \in f(D)$

Theorem 3.35

Any strictly monotone function $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is $1-1$ and thus has an inverse.

Proof. WLOG, suppose f is strictly increasing and $f(u) = f(v)$. To show $1-1$, we WTS $u = v$ for $u, v \in D$. By contradiction, if $u < v$, since f is strictly monotone increasing, then $f(u) < f(v)$. This contradicts $f(u) = f(v)$. The direction $u > v$ is very similar. $\square$

Example 3.36

Prove that the inverse of $f(x) = x^3$ is continuous.

Proof. Note that f is a polynomial and thus continuous. f is strictly increasing.

$$u < v \implies u^3 < v^3 = u * u * u < v * v * v$$

by properties of inequalities. By a previous theorem, since f is strictly increasing, f has an inverse. Let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, let $\{x_n\} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\{x_n\} \to x_0$. We WTS that $f^{-1}(x_n) \to f^{-1}(x_0)$.

For notation: label $y_n = f^{-1}(x_n), y_0 = f^{-1}(x_0) \implies y_n \to y_0$. Therefore

$$x_n = f(y_n) = y_n^3$$

$$x_0 = f(y_0) = y_0^3$$

Since $x_n \to x_0$, then $y_n^3 \to y_0^3$. We WTS $y_n^3 \to y_0^3$. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Let $\delta = \min((y_0 + \epsilon)^3 - (y_0)^3, y_0^3 - (y_0 - \epsilon)^3)$. Since $\epsilon > 0$, it is easy to show that $\delta > 0$. Since

$$y_n^3 \to y_0^3,\ \exists\ N \text{ s.t. } \ \forall\ n \geq N, |y_n^3 - y_0^3| < \delta$$

We know this is true for all ϵ, so therefore we can let $\epsilon = \delta$.

$$-\delta < y_n^3 - y_0^3 < \delta$$

$$y_0^3 - \delta < y_n^3 < \delta + y_0^3$$

$$y_0^3 - (y_0^3 - (y_0 - \epsilon)^3) < y_n^3 < (y_0 + \epsilon)^3 - y_0^3 + y_0^3$$

$$(y_0 - \epsilon)^3 < y_n^3 < (y_0 + \epsilon)^3$$

$$y_0 - \epsilon < y_n < y_0 + \epsilon$$

$$|y_n - y_0| < \epsilon$$

and so $y_n \to y$ or $f^{-1}(x_n) \to f^{-1}(x_0)$ and so $f^{-1}(x)$ is continuous. $\square$

Theorem 3.37

Let $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ is monotone. If its image is an interval, then f is continuous.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in D$ and $\{x_n\} \in D$ with $x_n \to x_0$. Suppose on the contrary that $f(x_n) \not\to f(x_0)$. Then $\exists \epsilon > 0$ and subsequence of x_n such that

$$|f(x_{n_k}) - f(x_0)| \geq \epsilon$$

Assume WLOG that f is increasing.
Case 1: If the absolute value is positive

$$f(x_{n_k}) - f(x_0) \geq \epsilon$$

$$f(x_{n_k}) \geq \epsilon + f(x_0)$$

$$f(x_{n_k}) \geq \epsilon + f(x_0) > \frac{\epsilon}{2} + f(x_0) > f(x_0)$$

Since the image of f is an interval (all points in between). So $\exists\ c \in D$ such that

$$f(c) = f(x_0) + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$f(x_{n_k}) > f(c) > f(x_0)$$

And since f is strictly monotone increasing, so $x_{n_k} > c > x_0$

$$|x_{n_k} - x_0| > |c - x_0| > 0$$

Note that $c - x_0$ is a constant.
Case 2: If the absolute value is negative

$$f(x_0) - f(x_{n_k}) \geq \epsilon$$

$$f(x_0) - \epsilon \geq f(x_{n_k})$$

$$f(x_0) > f(x_0) - \frac{\epsilon}{2} > f(x_{n_k})$$

$$\vdots$$

□

Theorem 3.38

Suppose I is an interval and $f : I \to \mathbb{R}$ is monotone. Then f is continuous if and only if its image is an interval.

Theorem 3.39

Let $f : I \to \mathbb{R}$, I is an interval, be strictly monotone. Then its inverse $f^{-1} : f(I) \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Similar to the x^3 example above.

Example 3.40

$f : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x) = x^n$ is strictly increasing, so inverse is continuous. Notation: negative integer n: $x^n = \frac{1}{x^{-n}}$

- $x^n * x^m = x^{n+m}$
- $(x^n)^m) = x^{nm}$

$y^{\frac{1}{n}} = f^{-1}(y) \; \forall \; y \geq 0.$

Definition 3.41. For $x > 0$ and $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $r = \frac{m}{n}, m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define

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

Remark 3.42. Let $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ and define $f(x) = x^r \; \forall \; x \geq 0$. Then $f : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.

§3.7 Limits

Note 3.43. Note that before $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$ for sequences but now $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$

Definition 3.44. We say $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is a **limit point** of D if $\exists \; \{x_n\} \in (D - \{x_0\})$

Example 3.45

For $(0, 1)$, the numbers 0 and 1 are limit points.

Definition 3.46. Given $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ and limit point x_0, we write

$$\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = l$$

if whenever $\{x_n\} \in (D - \{x_0\})$ with $x_n \to x_0$ has $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(x_n) = l$

Remark 3.47. A function is continuous at x_0 if and only if $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$

Example 3.48

$\lim_{x \to 2} \sqrt{\frac{3x+3}{x^3-4}}$. Note that there are no denominator issues at $x = 2$.

Solution. Note that numerator and denominator are both continuous, and so the quotient continuous as well because the denominator is also not 0. Further note htat $\sqrt{x}$ is continuous because it is the inverse of a strictly monotone function. Compositions of continuous functions are continuous at $x = 2$. So

$$\lim_{x \to 2} = \sqrt{\frac{3x+3}{x^3-4}} = \sqrt{\frac{3(2)+3}{2^3-4}} = \sqrt{\frac{9}{4}} = \frac{3}{2}$$

□

Example 3.49

$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{x^2-1}{x-1}$.

Note that we cannot use the quotient property like above. Let $\{x_n\} \to 1$ with $x_n \neq 1$.

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

So therefore

$$\lim_{n \to 1} \frac{x^2-1}{x-1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x_n^2-1}{x_n-1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n + 1 = 1 + 1 = 2$$

Theorem 3.50

$f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D \to \mathbb{R}, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is a limit point. Let $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = A$ and $\lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = B$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

i. $\lim_{x \to x_0} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = A \pm B$

ii. $\lim_{x \to x_0} (f(x)g(x)) = A \cdot B$

iii. $\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{A}{B}, g(x) \neq 0, B \neq 0$

iv. $\lim_{x \to x_0} cf(x) = cA$

These follow directly from properties of compositions. Similarly for compositions. $f : D \to \mathbb{R}, g : U \to \mathbb{R}, x_0$ is a limit point with $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = y_0$ and $\underset{x \to x_0}{g(y)} = l$ and $f(D - \{x_0\}) \subset U - \{y_0\}$. Then

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} (g \circ f)(x) = l$$

We will see limits later on in Differentiation.

§4 Differentiation

Remark 4.1. High level: to find the tangent line, take a sequence of secant lines closer and closer towards x

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = m_0 \quad \text{(slope)}$$

Definition 4.2. For $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, the open interval $I = (a, b)$ that contains x_0 is called a **neighborhood** of x_0.

Definition 4.3. $f : I \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **differentiable at x_0** if

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} := f'(x_0)$$

exists and we denote it by $f'(x_0)$, the **derivative** of f at x_0.

Remark 4.4. If f is differentiable at every point in I, f is **differentiable** and $f' : I \to \mathbb{R}$ is called the **derivative**.

Example 4.5

$f(x) = mx + b$. Find f'.

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{mx + b - mx_0 - b}{x - x_0} = m$$

Example 4.6

$f(x) = x^2$. Find f'.

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{x^2 - x_0^2}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{(x-x_0)(x+x_0)}{x - x_0} = 2x_0$$

Note 4.7.

$$(x^2 - x_0^2) = (x - x_0)(x + x_0)$$
$$(x^3 - x_0^3) = (x - x_0)(x^2 + xx_0 + x_0^2)$$
$$(x^4 - x_0^4) = (x - x_0)(x^3 + x^2x_0 + xx_0^2 + x_0^3)$$

Notice the pattern. Binomial Expansion. Note that you can prove this general pattern using induction.

Example 4.8

$f(x) = x^n, n \in \mathbb{N}$. Find f'. **Power Rule**.

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{x^n - x_0^n}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{(x-x_0)(\cdots)}{x - x_0}$$

where $x \neq x_0$.

$$= x_0^{n-1} + x_0^{n-2}x_0 + x_0^{n-3}x_0^2 + \cdots + x_0^{n-1}$$
$$= nx_0^{n-1}$$

Theorem 4.9

If $f : I \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at x_0, f is continuous at x_0.

Proof. Since f is differentiable at x_0:

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

exists and we have $\lim_{x\to\infty}(x - x_0) = 0$. We WTS that $\lim_{x\to\infty}(f(x) - f(x_0)) = 0$. Thus,

$$\lim_{x\to x_0}(f(x) - f(x_0)) = \lim_{x\to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} * (x - x_0) = f'(x_0) * 0 = 0$$

as needed, so f is continuous at x_0. □

Note 4.10. Differentiability implies continuity, but continuity doesn't imply differentiability, and the classical example to show this is $f(x) = |x|$.

Theorem 4.11

If $f : I \to \mathbb{R}, g : I \to \mathbb{R}$, both differentiable at x_0 then

a. $(f \pm g)'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + \pm g'(x_0)$

b. $(fg')(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + f(x_0)g'(x_0)$

c. $(\frac{f}{g})'(x_0) = \frac{f'(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)}{(g(x_0))^2}$

Proof. Proof omitted, but these are relatively straight forward. Start with what you want to show, and it's simple algebra and then substitution by the definition of derivatives. □

Note 4.12. Before quotient rule, we wil prove $(\frac{1}{g})' = -\frac{g'(x_0)}{(g(x_0))^2}$

Proof.

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{(\frac{1}{g})(x) - (\frac{1}{g})(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{\frac{1}{g(x)} - \frac{1}{g(x_0)}}{x - x_0}$$

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} -\frac{1}{g(x_0)g(x)} \frac{g(x) - g(x_0)}{x - x_0} = -\frac{1}{g(x_0)^2} g'(x_0)$$

Now for the quotient rule,

$$(\frac{f(x_0)}{g(x_0)})' = (\frac{1}{g(x_0)} * f(x_0))'$$

Using above and the product rule, we will get the quotient rule. □

Note 4.13. Power rule works for negative powers too. We know thart $f(x) = x^n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$.
Let $g(x) = x^n = \frac{1}{x^{-n}}, n < 0$. So,

$$(\frac{1}{x^{-n}})' \underset{(*)}{=} -\frac{(x^{-n})'}{(x^{-n})^2} = -\frac{(-n^{-n-1})}{x^{-n}x^{-n}} = nx^{n-1}$$

§4.1 Differentiating Inverses and Compositions

Example 4.14

$f : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = x^2$ and therefore $f^{-1}(y) = \sqrt{y}$.
Look at the point $x = 3, y = 9$, $f'(x) = 2x, f'(3) = 6$. Is the derivative of the inverse at $y = 9$ equal to $\frac{1}{6}$.