Intro Real Analysis

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1 Notions from Set Theory

- 1.1 Sets and Elements. Subsets
- 1.2 Operations on Sets
- 1.3 Functions
- 1.4 Finite and Infinite Sets

2 The Real Number System

2.1 The Field Properties

Definition 2.1 (Group). A Group is a an ordered pair (G, *) where G is some non-empty set along with a closed binary operator $*: G \times G \to G$ s.t.:

- 1. **Associative:** $\forall x, y, z \in G : (x * y) * z = x * (y * z).$
- 2. Identity Element: $\forall x \in G, \exists ! i_G \in G : x * i_G = i_G * x = x.$
- 3. *Inverse Element:* $\forall x \in G, \exists ! x^{-1} \in G : x * x^{-1} = x^{-1} * x = i_G.$

Definition 2.2 (Abelian Group). An Abelian Group is a Commutative Group:

$$\forall x, y \in G : x * y = y * x$$

Definition 2.3 (Field). A Field is an ordered triple $(\mathbb{F}, *, \circ)$ s.t.:

- 1. $(\mathbb{F},*)$ and (\mathbb{F},\circ) form Abelian Groups with $0_{\mathbb{F}}=i_{(\mathbb{F},*)}$ and $1_{\mathbb{F}}=i_{(\mathbb{F},\circ)}$.
- 2. Distributive Property: $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{F}, x * (y \circ z) = (x * y) \circ (x * z).$

Definition 2.4 (Real Numbers). $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ forms a Field where:

- 1. Addition: $+: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, i_{\mathbb{R}} = 0.$
- 2. **Multiplication:** $: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, i_{\mathbb{R}} = 1, where 0 has no inverse element.$

Some other common Fields are $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$. So far, these have all been infinite Fields, but one can have finite Fields as well. The smallest possible finite Field is $(\{0_{\mathbb{F}}, 1_{\mathbb{F}}\}, *, \circ)$. Below are some immediate consequences of our algebraic structures:

- 1. For any Associative Closed Binary Operation, parantheses can be omitted: $:: S \times S \to S$ associative $\Rightarrow x \cdot y \cdot z = (x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z), \forall x, y, z \in S$.
- 2. For any Abelian Group, the order of elements is immaterial: (G,\cdot) Abelian Group $\Rightarrow x \cdot y \cdot z = y \cdot x \cdot z = y \cdot z \cdot x = z \cdot y \cdot x, \forall x,y,z \in G.$
- 3. For any Group, the equation $x \cdot y = z$ has a unique solution in x: (G, \cdot) Group $\Rightarrow \forall y, z \in G, \exists ! x \in G : x \cdot y = z.$

```
\begin{array}{l} Proof. \ \  \, \text{Let} \ y,z\in (G,\cdot). \\ \Rightarrow y^{-1}\in G. \\ \Rightarrow z\cdot y^{-1}\in G. \\ \Rightarrow (z\cdot y^{-1})\cdot y=z\cdot (y^{-1}\cdot y). \\ \Rightarrow (z\cdot y^{-1})\cdot y=z\cdot i_G. \\ \Rightarrow (z\cdot y^{-1})\cdot y=z. \\ \Rightarrow x=z\cdot y^{-1} \ \text{is a solution to} \ x\cdot y=z. \\ \text{Let} \ w \ \text{be some other solution to} \ x\cdot y=z. \\ \Rightarrow w\cdot y=z. \\ \Rightarrow (w\cdot y)\cdot y^{-1}=z\cdot y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow w\cdot (y\cdot y^{-1})=z\cdot y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow w\cdot i_G=z\cdot y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow w=x. \end{array}
```

4. For any Group, the identity element is unique:

$$\forall x \in G, \exists! i_G \in G : i_G \cdot x = x \cdot i_G = x$$

Proof. Let (G, \cdot) be a Group with identity element i_G . Let $y, z \in G$ s.t. y = z. $\Rightarrow i_G = y \cdot y^{-1} = z \cdot y^{-1}$. $\Rightarrow x = i_G$ is a unique solution to $x \cdot y = z$.

5. For any Group, inverse elements are unique:

$$\forall x \in G, \exists ! x^{-1} \in G : x \cdot x^{-1} = x^{-1} \cdot x = i_G$$

Proof. Let (G, \cdot) be a Group with identity element i_G . Let $y, z \in (G, \cdot)$ s.t. $z = i_G$. $\Rightarrow y^{-1} = i_G \cdot y^{-1} = z \cdot y^{-1}$. $\Rightarrow x = y^{-1}$ is a unique solution to $x \cdot y = z$.

6. For any Field, any element multiplied by the Zero element $0_{\mathbb{F}}$ is $0_{\mathbb{F}}$.

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{Proof.} \ \, \text{Let} \ \, x \in (\mathbb{F},+,\cdot). \\ \Rightarrow x \cdot 0_{\mathbb{F}} = x \cdot i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} = x \cdot \left(i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} + i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}\right) = \left(x \cdot i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}\right) + \left(x \cdot i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}\right). \\ \text{Let} \ \, y = x \cdot i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}. \\ \Rightarrow y = y + y. \\ \Rightarrow y + y^{-1} = (y + y) + y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow y + y^{-1} = y + (y + y^{-1}). \\ \Rightarrow i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} = y + i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}. \\ \Rightarrow i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} = y. \end{array}$$

$$\begin{split} &\Rightarrow 0_{\mathbb{F}} = y. \\ &\Rightarrow 0_{\mathbb{F}} = x \cdot 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ \\ &\Rightarrow 0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x = i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} \cdot x = (i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} + i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}) \cdot x = (i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} \cdot x) + (i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} \cdot x). \\ \\ &\text{Let } z = i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} \cdot x. \\ &\Rightarrow z = z + z. \\ &\Rightarrow z + z^{-1} = (z + z) + z^{-1}. \\ &\Rightarrow z + z^{-1} = z + (z + z^{-1}). \\ &\Rightarrow i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} = z + i_{(\mathbb{F},+)}. \\ &\Rightarrow i_{(\mathbb{F},+)} = z. \\ &\Rightarrow 0_{\mathbb{F}} = z. \\ &\Rightarrow 0_{\mathbb{F}} = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x. \\ \\ &\Rightarrow x \cdot 0_{\mathbb{F}} = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x = 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \end{split}$$

7. For any Field, if the product of 2 elements is the Zero element, then atleast 1 factor must be the Zero element:

Proof. Let
$$x, y \in (\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$$
 s.t. $x, y \neq 0_{\mathbb{F}}$.
Case 1: $x = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \Rightarrow x \cdot y = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot y = 0_{\mathbb{F}}$.
Case 2: $y = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \Rightarrow x \cdot y = x \cdot 0_{\mathbb{F}} = 0_{\mathbb{F}}$.

8. For any Group, the inverse of the inverse element is the element itself.

Proof. Let
$$x \in (G, \cdot)$$
.
 $\Rightarrow \exists! x^{-1} \in G : x \cdot x^{-1} = i_G$
 $\Rightarrow \exists! (x^{-1})^{-1} \in G : (x^{-1})^{-1} \cdot x^{-1} = i_G$.
 $\Rightarrow (x^{-1})^{-1} = x$, since they are both the solution to same equation:

$$x \cdot y = z : y = x^{-1}, z = i_G$$

9. For any Field, we can define negative numbers as $-x = -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x = x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}}$, where $-1_{\mathbb{F}}$ is the inverse of $1_{\mathbb{F}}$ under +.

$$\begin{aligned} & Proof. \ \, \text{Let} \, \, x \in (\mathbb{F},+,\cdot). \\ & \Rightarrow \exists ! x^{-1} \in (\mathbb{F},+) : x^{-1} + x = 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ & \text{Define} \, \, x^{-1} = -x. \\ & \Rightarrow -x + x = 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ & \Rightarrow -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x + x = -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x + 1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x. \\ & \Rightarrow -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x + x = (-1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot +1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot x. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{split} &\Rightarrow -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x + x = 0_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x . \\ &\Rightarrow -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x + x = 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ \\ &\Rightarrow x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}} + x = x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}} + x \cdot 1_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ &\Rightarrow x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}} + x = x \cdot (-1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot +1_{\mathbb{F}}). \\ &\Rightarrow x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}} + x = x \cdot 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ &\Rightarrow x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}} + x = 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \end{split}$$

 $\Rightarrow -x = -1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot x = x \cdot -1_{\mathbb{F}}$, since all three are solutions to same equation:

$$x + y = z : y = x, z = 0_{\mathbb{F}}$$

10. For any Field, multiplying 2 negative numbers yields a positive number.

Proof. Let $x, y \in (\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$.

$$-x \cdot -y = (-1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot x \cdot (-1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot y$$
$$= (-1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot (-x \cdot y)$$
$$= -(-x \cdot y)$$
$$= x \cdot y$$

11. For any Field, the additive inverse of a sum is the sum of the additive inverses.

Proof. Let
$$x, y \in (\mathbb{F}, +, \cdot)$$
.

$$-(x+y) = (-1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot (x+y)$$
$$= (-1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot x + (-1_{\mathbb{F}}) \cdot y$$
$$= (-x) + (-y)$$

12. For any Field, the multiplicative inverse of a product of non-zero elements is the product of the multiplicative inverses reversed.

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{Proof. Let } x,y \in (\mathbb{F},+,\cdot) \text{ s.t. } x,y \neq 0_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ \Rightarrow x \cdot y \neq 0_{\mathbb{F}} \\ \Rightarrow \exists ! x^{-1}, y^{-1}, (x \cdot y)^{-1} \in (\mathbb{F},\cdot). \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot (x \cdot y) = 1_{\mathbb{F}}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot (x \cdot y) \cdot y^{-1} = 1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot x \cdot (y \cdot y^{-1}) = 1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot x \cdot 1_{\mathbb{F}} = 1_{\mathbb{F}} \cdot y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot x \cdot y = y^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot x \cdot x^{-1} = y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} \cdot 1_{\mathbb{F}} = y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}. \\ \Rightarrow (x \cdot y)^{-1} = y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}. \end{array}$$

2.2 Order

- 2.3 The Least Upper Bound Property
- 2.4 The Existence of Square Roots

3 Metric Spaces

3.1 Definition of Metric Spaces. Examples

Definition 3.1 (Metric Space). A Metric Space is an ordered pair (M, d) where M is some set along with a metric function $d: M^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall x, y, z \in M$:

- 1. **Symmetry:** d(x, y) = d(y, x).
- 2. Identity of Indiscernibles: $d(x,y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$.
- 3. Triangle Inequality: $d(x,y) \le d(x,z) + d(z,y)$.

Theorem 3.1. Metric functions are non-negative.

Proof. Let $x, y \in (M, d)$:

$$\begin{split} d(x,y) &= \frac{2 \cdot d(x,y)}{2} \\ &= \frac{d(x,y) + d(x,y)}{2} \\ &= \frac{d(x,y) + d(y,x)}{2} \\ &\geq \frac{d(x,x)}{2} \\ &= 0 \end{split} \qquad \text{(Symmetry)} \end{split}$$

Theorem 3.2 (General Triangle Inequality). For any sequence of points in a metric space:

$$d(x_1, x_n) \le \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} d(x_k, x_{k+1})$$

Proof. Let $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in (M, d)$.

(Induction)

Base Case: n=2 is trivial and n=3 is satisfied by triangle inequality.

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume our statement holds for all $n \geq 2$

Inductive Step: $(n \longrightarrow n+1)$

$$d(x_1, x_{n+1}) \le d(x_1, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})$$

$$\le \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} d(x_k, x_{k+1}) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} d(x_k, x_{k+1})$$

Theorem 3.3 (Reverse Triangle Inequality). For any $x, y, z \in M$:

$$|d(x,z) - d(z,y)| \le d(x,y)$$

Proof. Let $x, y, z \in (M, d)$:

$$\begin{aligned} d(y,z) &\leq d(y,x) + d(x,z) \\ d(z,y) &\leq d(x,y) + d(x,z) \\ -d(x,y) &\leq d(x,z) - d(z,y) \end{aligned} \tag{Subadditivity}$$

We also have:

$$d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$$
 (Subadditivity)
$$d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(z,y)$$
 (Symmetry)
$$d(x,z) - d(z,y) \leq d(x,y)$$

Which gives us:

$$-d(x,y) \le d(x,z) - d(z,y) \le d(x,y)$$
$$|d(x,z) - d(z,y)| \le d(x,y)$$

Definition 3.2 (Dot Product). The Dot Product of vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$\boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i$$

Definition 3.3 (Euclidean Norm). The Euclidean norm of $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$||\boldsymbol{x}|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{x}}$$

Theorem 3.4 (Cauchy Schwarz Inequality).

$$|oldsymbol{x}\cdotoldsymbol{y}| \leq ||oldsymbol{x}||\cdot||oldsymbol{y}||, \ \ orall oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then,

$$||t \cdot \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}||^{2} \ge 0, \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (t \cdot y_{i} + x_{i})^{2} \ge 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (t^{2} \cdot y_{i}^{2} + 2x_{i}y_{i}t + x_{i}^{2}) \ge 0$$

$$t^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2} + 2t \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}y_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} \ge 0$$

$$t^{2} ||\mathbf{y}||^{2} + 2t(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) + ||\mathbf{x}||^{2} \ge 0$$

$$at^{2} + bt + c \ge 0$$

$$b^{2} - 4ac \le 0$$

$$(2(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}))^{2} - 4||\mathbf{y}||^{2}||\mathbf{x}||^{2} \le 0$$

$$(2(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}))^{2} - 4||\mathbf{y}||^{2}||\mathbf{x}||^{2} \le 0$$

$$(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})^{2} - ||\mathbf{y}||^{2}||\mathbf{x}||^{2} \le 0$$

$$(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})^{2} - (||\mathbf{x}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{y}||)^{2} \le 0$$

$$(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})^{2} \le (||\mathbf{x}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{y}||)^{2}$$

$$||\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \le ||\mathbf{x}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{y}||)^{2}$$

Corollary 3.4.1. The Euclidean Norm is Subadditive.

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then,

$$||x + y||^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} + y_{i})^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i}^{2} + 2x_{i}y_{i} + y_{i}^{2})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2} + 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}y_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2}$$

$$= ||x||^{2} + 2(x \cdot y) + ||y||^{2}$$

$$\leq ||x||^{2} + 2||x|| \cdot ||y| + ||y||^{2} \qquad \text{(Cauchy Schwarz Inequality)}$$

$$= (||x|| + ||y||)^{2}$$

$$||x + y|| \leq ||x|| + ||y|| \qquad \Box$$

Theorem 3.5 (Euclidean Metric Space). (\mathbb{R}^n, d) forms a Metric Space where $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}||$.

Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Symmetry: d(x, y) = ||x - y|| = ||y - x|| = d(y, x)

Identity of Indiscernibles: $d(x, x) = ||x - x|| = ||\mathbf{0}|| = 0$

Subadditivity:

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = ||\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}||$$

$$= ||(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{z}) + (\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{y})||$$

$$\leq ||\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{z}|| + ||\boldsymbol{z} - \boldsymbol{y}||$$

$$= d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

$$(Subadditivity of || \cdot ||)$$

Corollary 3.5.1. (\mathbb{R}, d) forms a Metric Space where d(x, y) = |x - y|.

Proof. Let n = 1. Then by Theorem 3.5 we obtain a metric space

Theorem 3.6 (Taxicab Metric Space). Any nonempty set M with the following metric function forms a Metric Space:

$$d(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \neq y \\ 0 & x = y \end{cases}$$

Proof. Let $x, y, z \in E$.

Identity of Indiscernibles: d(x, x) = 0.

Symmetry:

Let
$$x \neq y \Rightarrow d(x,y) = 1 = d(y,x)$$
.
Let $x = y \Rightarrow d(x,y) = 0 = d(y,x)$.

Subadditivity:

$$d(x,z) + d(z,y) = \begin{cases} 2 & x \neq z \neq y \\ 0 & x = y = z \\ 1 & else \end{cases}$$

Therefore we have $d(x,y) \leq d(x,z) + d(z,y)$

3.2 Open and Closed Sets

Let M be some Metric Space, $c \in M$, and $r \in \mathbf{R}^+$.

Definition 3.4 (Open Ball). Then the Open Ball in M of center c and radius r is the subset of M given by

$$B_r(c) = \{x \in M : d(x,c) < r\}$$

Definition 3.5 (Closed Ball). Then the Closed Ball in M of center c and radius r is the subset of M given by

$$\bar{B}_r(c) = \{x \in M : d(x,c) \le r\}$$

Theorem 3.7. Open/Closed Balls in \mathbb{R} are Open/Closed Intervals.

Proof. Let $c \in \mathbb{R}, r \in \mathbb{R}^+$.

$$B_r(c) = \{x \in M : d(x, c) < r\}$$

$$= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - c| < r\}$$

$$= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : c - r < x < c + r\}$$

$$= (c - r, c + r)$$

$$\bar{B}_r(c) = \{x \in M : d(x,c) \le r\}$$

$$= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - c| \le r\}$$

$$= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : c - r \le x \le c + r\}$$

$$= [c - r, c + r]$$

Definition 3.6 (Open Set). A subset S of a metric space M is open if every point in S is the center of some open ball contained in S:

$$\forall c \in S, \exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_r(c) \subset S$$

Theorem 3.8. In any metric space, an open ball is an open set.

```
Proof. Define S = B_{\delta}(p) s.t. p \in M, \delta \in \mathbb{R}^{+}.

Let c \in S.

\Rightarrow d(c, p) < \delta.

Choose r = \delta - d(c, p) \Rightarrow r \in \mathbb{R}^{+}.

Suppose x \in B_{r}(c).

\Rightarrow d(x, c) < r.

\Rightarrow d(x, c) < \delta - d(c, p).

\Rightarrow d(x, c) + d(c, p) < \delta.

\Rightarrow d(x, p) < \delta. (Triangle Inequality)

\Rightarrow x \in S.

\Rightarrow B_{r}(c) \subset S.
```

Theorem 3.9. For any metric space (M, d):

- 1. Ø is open
- 2. M is open
- 3. The union of an arbitrary number of open subsets is open: $\{V_k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ open in $M\Rightarrow\bigcup_{k\in\mathbb{N}}V_k$ open in M.
- 4. The intersection of a finite number of open subsets is open: $\{V_k\}_{k=1}^n$ open in $M \Rightarrow \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k$ open in M.

Proof. Let (M, d) be a metric space:

- 1. Let $c \in \emptyset$. But $c \notin \emptyset$. So trivially, $\exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_r(c) \subset \emptyset$.
- 2. Let $c \in M$. Suppose $x \in B_r(c) \Rightarrow d(x,c) < r \Rightarrow x \in M \Rightarrow B_r(c) \subset M$.

- 3. Suppose $\{V_k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ arbitrary collection of open subsets in M. Let $c\in\bigcup_{k\in\mathbb{N}}V_k$. $\Rightarrow c\in V_k$ for some $k=1,\ldots,n$.
 - $\Rightarrow \exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_r(c) \subset V_k.$
 - \Rightarrow $\exists r \in \mathbb{R}$. $D_r(c) \subset v_k$.
 - $\Rightarrow \exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_r(c) \subset \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} V_k$, since any set is contained in its union.
- 4. Suppose $\{V_k\}_{k=1}^n$ finite collection of open subsets in M. Let $c \in \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k$:

$$\Rightarrow c \in V_k, \forall k = 1, \dots, n.$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists r_k \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_{r_k}(c) \subset V_k.$$

Let
$$r = min(r_1, ..., r_n)$$
. Suppose $x \in B_r(c)$:
$$\Rightarrow d(x, c) < r.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x, c) < r_1, ..., d(x, c) < r_n.$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in B_{r_1}(c), ..., x \in B_{r_n}(c).$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in V_1, ..., x \in V_n.$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k.$$

$$\Rightarrow B_r(c) \subset \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k.$$

Definition 3.7 (Closed Set). A subset S of a metric space (M,d) is closed if its complement S^{\complement} is open in M.

Theorem 3.10. In any metric space, a closed ball is a closed set.

Proof. Define $S = \bar{B}_{\delta}(p)$ as some closed ball in (M, d). Let $c \in S^{\complement}$. Then, $d(c, p) > \delta$. Choosing $r = d(c, p) - \delta$, clearly r > 0. Suppose $x \in B_r(c)$.

$$\Rightarrow d(x,c) < r.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x,c) < d(c,p) - \delta.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(c,p) - d(x,c) > \delta.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(c,x) + d(x,p) - d(x,c) > \delta.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x,p) > \delta.$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in S^{\complement}.$$

$$\Rightarrow B_r(c) \subset S^{\complement}.$$

So S^{\complement} is open, making S closed in M.

Theorem 3.11. For any metric space (M, d):

- 1. Ø is closed
- 2. M is closed
- 3. The intersection of an arbitrary number of closed subsets is closed: $\{V_k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ closed in $M\Rightarrow\bigcap_{k\in\mathbb{N}}V_k$ closed in M.
- 4. The union of a finite number of closed subsets is closed: $\{V_k\}_{k=1}^n$ closed in $M \Rightarrow \bigcup_{k=1}^n V_k$ closed in M.

Proof. Let (M, d) be a metric space:

1. $\emptyset^{\complement} = M \Rightarrow \emptyset^{\complement}$ open $\Rightarrow \emptyset$ closed.

- 2. $M^{\complement} = \varnothing \Rightarrow M^{\complement}$ open $\Rightarrow M$ closed.
- 3. Suppose $\{V_k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ arbitrary collection of closed subsets in M.
 - $\Rightarrow \{V_k^{\complement}\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is an abitrary collection of open subsets in M.
 - $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} V_k^{\mathbf{C}}$ is open in M.
 - $\Rightarrow (\bigcap_{k \in \mathbb{N}} V_k)^{\complement} \text{ is open in M.}$ $\Rightarrow \bigcap_{k \in \mathbb{N}} V_k \text{ is closed in M.}$
- 4. Suppose $\{V_k\}_{k=1}^n$ finite collection of closed subsets in M.
 - $\Rightarrow \{V_k^{\complement}\}_{k=1}^n \text{ is a finite collection of open subsets in M.}$ $\Rightarrow \bigcap_{k=1}^n V_k^{\complement} \text{ is open in M.}$ $\Rightarrow (\bigcup_{k=1}^n V_k)^{\complement} \text{ is open in M.}$ $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{k=1}^n V_k \text{ is closed in M.}$

Theorem 3.12. Any singleton set is closed.

Proof. Define $S=\{p\}$ as the singleton set $\forall p\in (M,d).$ Let $c\in S^{\complement}=M/\{p\}.$

Let
$$c \in S^{\complement} = M/\{p\}$$

Then, $c \neq p$.

Choosing r = d(c, p), clearly r > 0.

Suppose $x \in B_r(c)$.

$$\Rightarrow d(x,c) < r.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x,c) < d(c,p).$$

$$\Rightarrow d(c, p) - d(x, c) > 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(p,c) - d(c,x) > 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow |d(p,c) - d(c,x)| > 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(p,x) > 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow p \neq x$$
.

$$\Rightarrow x \in S^{\complement}$$
.

$$\Rightarrow B_r(c) \subset S^{\complement}$$
.

So S^{\complement} is open, making S closed in M.

Corollary 3.12.1. Any finite subset of a metric space is closed.

Proof. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be a finite set of points in M.

- $\Rightarrow \{x_1\}, \dots, \{x_n\}$ all closed singleton sets in M.
- $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{k=1}^{n} \{x_k\}$ closed in M.
- $\Rightarrow \{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$ closed in M.

Theorem 3.13. Any sphere in a metric space is closed.

Proof. Define sphere of radius $r \in \mathbb{R}^+$ centered as:

$$S = \{x \in M : d(x,c) = r\}$$

$$= \{x \in M : d(x,c) \le r\} \cap \{x \in M : d(x,c) \ge r\}$$

$$= \{x \in M : d(x,c) \le r\} \cap \{x \in M : d(x,c) < r\}^{\complement}$$

$$S = \bar{B}_r(c) \cap B_r(c)^{\complement}$$

Note, the closed ball $\bar{B}_r(c)$ is closed, and $B_r(c)^{\complement}$ is closed since its complement $B_r(c)^{\complement^{\complement}} = B_r(c)$ is the open ball, an open set. The finite intersection of closed sets is closed, so S is closed in M.

Theorem 3.14. Any half-interval is neither open nor closed.

```
Proof. Let a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b.

Define S = [a, b) as a half-interval on \mathbb{R}.

Let r > 0.

\Rightarrow a - r < a.

\Rightarrow a - r < min(S).

\Rightarrow a - r \notin S.

\Rightarrow \nexists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_r(a) = (a - r, a + r) \subset S.

\Rightarrow S is not open in \mathbb{R}.

\Rightarrow [b, \infty) is not open in \mathbb{R} by same logic.

\Rightarrow S^{\complement} = (-\infty, a) \cup [b, \infty) is not open in \mathbb{R} by same logic.

\Rightarrow S is not closed in \mathbb{R}.
```

Theorem 3.15. Any subspace of Euclidean space with a strictly bounded component is open. So, $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, k \in \{1, ..., n\}$: $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k < a\}$ and $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k > a\}$ are open in \mathbb{R}^n .

```
Proof. Let a \in \mathbb{R}, and k \in \{1, \dots, n\}.

Define S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k < a\} and S' = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k > a\}.

Let c \in S and p \in S'.

\Rightarrow c_k < a and p_k > a.

Choose r = a - c_k and \delta = p_k - a \Rightarrow r, \delta > 0.

Suppose x \in B_r(c) and y \in B_\delta(p).

\Rightarrow d(x, c) < r and d(y, p) < \delta.

\Rightarrow d(x, c) < a - c_k and d(y, p) < p_k - a.

\Rightarrow ||x - c|| < a - c_k and ||y - p|| < p_k - a.

\Rightarrow \sqrt{\sum_k (x_k - c_k)^2} < a - c_k and \sqrt{\sum_k (y_k - p_k)^2} < p_k - a.

\Rightarrow \sqrt{(x_k - c_k)^2} < a - c_k and \sqrt{(y_k - p_k)^2} < p_k - a.

\Rightarrow |x_k - c_k| < a - c_k and |y_k - p_k| < p_k - a.

\Rightarrow x_k < a and y_k > a.

\Rightarrow x_k < a and y_k > a.

\Rightarrow x_k < a and y_k > a.
```

Theorem 3.16. Any subspace of Euclidean space with a weakly bounded component is closed. So, $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, k \in \{1, ..., n\}$: $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k \leq a\}$ and $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k \geq a\}$ are closed in \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and $k \in \{1, ..., n\}$. Define $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k \le a\}$ and $S' = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k \ge a\}$. $\Rightarrow S^{\complement} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k > a\}$ and $S'^{\complement} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k < a\}$. $\Rightarrow S^{\complement}, S'^{\complement}$ are open in \mathbb{R}^n .

Definition 3.8 (Open/Closed Intervals in \mathbb{R}^n). Let $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots b_n \in \mathbb{R}$. For $a_1 < b_1, \ldots, a_n < b_n$, the open interval in \mathbb{R}^n is:

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k < x_k < b_k, \forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

For $a_1 \leq b_1, \ldots, a_n \leq b_n$, the closed interval in \mathbb{R}^n is:

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k \le x_k \le b_k, \forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$$

Theorem 3.17. Any open/closed interval in Euclidean space is open/closed set.

Proof. Define $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k < x_k < b_k, \forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}.$ $\Rightarrow S = \bigcap_{k=1}^n \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k < x_k < b_k\}.$ $\Rightarrow S = (\bigcap_{k=1}^n \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k > a_k\}) \cap (\bigcap_{k=1}^n \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k < b_k\}).$ $\Rightarrow S \text{ is open, since it is the finite intersection of } (2n) \text{ open sets.}$

Define
$$S' = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k \le x_k \le b_k, \forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}.$$

$$\Rightarrow S' = \bigcap_{k=1}^n \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k \le x_k \le b_k\}.$$

$$\Rightarrow S' = (\bigcap_{k=1}^n \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k \ge a_k\}) \cap (\bigcap_{k=1}^n \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_k \le b_k\}).$$

$$\Rightarrow S' \text{ is closed, since it is the finite intersection of } (2n) \text{ closed sets.}$$

Definition 3.9 (Bounded). A subset S of a metric space M is bounded if it is contained in some ball.

Theorem 3.18. Any open/closed interval in Euclidean space is bounded.

Proof. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $a \neq b$. Define $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k \leq x_k \leq b_k, \forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$. Choose r = d(b, a) > 0. Let $x \in S$. $\Rightarrow 0 \leq x_k - a_k \leq b_k - a_k$. $\Rightarrow (x_k - a_k)^2 \leq (b_k - a_k)^2$. $\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - a_k)^2 \leq \sum_{k=1}^n (b_k - a_k)^2$. $\Rightarrow \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - a_k)^2} \leq \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n (b_k - a_k)^2}$. $\Rightarrow ||x - a|| \leq ||b - a||$.

```
\begin{split} &\Rightarrow d(x,a) \leq d(b,a). \\ &\Rightarrow d(x,a) \leq r. \\ &\Rightarrow x \in \bar{B}_r(a). \\ &\Rightarrow S \subset \bar{B}_r(a). \\ &\Rightarrow S \subset S' = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a_k < x_k < b_k, \forall k \in \{1,\dots,n\}\}. \\ &\Rightarrow S' \subset S. \\ &\Rightarrow S' \subset \bar{B}_r(a). \end{split}
```

Theorem 3.19. The union of a finite collection of bounded subsets of a metric space is bounded.

Proof. Suppose V_1, \ldots, V_n are bounded subsets in M. Let $c_1 \in V_1, \ldots, c_n \in V_n$. $\Rightarrow \exists r_1, \ldots, r_n \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ s.t. } V_k \subset \bar{B}_{r_k}(c_k), \forall k = 1, \ldots, n$. Let $x \in \bigcup_{k=1}^n V_k$. $\Rightarrow x \in V_k \text{ for some } k = 1, \ldots, n$. $\Rightarrow x \in \bar{B}_{r_k}(c_k)$. $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{k=1}^n V_k \subset \bar{B}_{r_k}(c_k)$.

Theorem 3.20. A nonempty closed subset of \mathbb{R} , if it is bounded from above has a greatest element and if it is bounded from below has a least element.

Proof. Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}, S \neq \emptyset$.

Suppose S is closed in \mathbb{R} and bounded above.

Let $c = \sup(S)$.

With an eye to contradict, assume $c \notin S$.

 $\Rightarrow c \in S^{\complement}$

 $\Rightarrow \exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ s.t. } B_r(c) \subset S^{\complement}, \text{ since } S^{\complement} \text{ open in } \mathbb{R}.$

Then no element in S is greater than c-r.

 $\Rightarrow c - r$ is an upper bound for S.

This must be a contradictions, so $c \in S$.

- 3.3 Convergent Sequences
- 3.4 Completeness
- 3.5 Compactness
- 3.6 Connectedness

4 Continuous Functions

- 4.1 Definition of Continuity. Examples
- 4.2 Continuity and Limits
- 4.3 The Continuity of Rational Operations. Functions with values in E^n
- 4.4 Continuous Functions on a Compact Metric Space
- 4.5 Continuous Functions on a Connected Metric Space
- 4.6 Sequences of Functions
- 5 Differentiation
- 5.1 Definition of the Derivative
- 5.2 Rules of Differentiation
- 5.3 The Mean Value Theorem
- 5.4 Taylor's Theorem

6 Riemann Integration

- 6.1 Definition and Examples
- 6.2 Linearity and Order Properties of the Integral
- 6.3 Existence of the Integral
- 6.4 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
- 6.5 The Logarithmic and Exponential Functions
- 6.6 Definition of Continuity. Examples

7 Interchange of Limit Operations

- 7.1 Integration and Differentiation of Sequences of Functions
- 7.2 Infinite Series 18
- 7.3 Power Series
- 7.4 The Trigonometric Functions
- 7.5 Differentiation under the Integral Sign
- 8 The Method of Successive Approximations