

## Sequences and Series

14-09-18

$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$

$f(1), f(2), \dots, f(n)$

$f(n) = x_n$

So  $x_1, x_2, \dots$

$\{x_n\}$  sequence

$f(n) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X$ .

$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

→ The set of values in  $\{x_n\}$  is called the range of the sequence.

e.g.  $S_n = \frac{1}{n}$  infinite sequence.  $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\}$  bounded.

e.g.  $\{i^n\}$ ,  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ . bounded.

$\{i, -1, -i, 1\}$ . range is finite bounded.

⇒  $\{p_n\}$  converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

Convergence of  $\{p_n\}$  means  $p_n \rightarrow p$ .

A sequence  $\{p_n\}$  converges in  $X$  (metric space) if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  there exists integer  $N$  such that  $n > N$   $d(p_n, p) < \epsilon$ .

$p_n \rightarrow p$  or  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

e.g.  $p_n = \{\frac{1}{n}\}$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$  i.e.  $\{\frac{1}{n}\}$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

e.g. Let  $X$  be set of positive real numbers.

$\{f_n\}$  is a sequence in  $X$ .

$\{f_n\}$  does not converge in  $X$ .

So, convergence of a sequence depends on both the sequence as well as the metric space where it is defined.

So we write  $\{p_n\}$  converges in  $X$ .

e.g.:  $\{n\}$  doesn't converge.

e.g.:  $a_n = n^2$  - unbounded, diverges, infinite

e.g.:  $s_n = 1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$   $s_n \rightarrow 1$  bounded and have infinite range.

e.g.:  $s_n = 1$  ( $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ).

Converge to 1, it bounded and have finite range.

Theorem: Let  $\{p_n\}$  be a sequence in  $X$  (metric space).

(a)  $\{p_n\}$  converges to  $p \in X$  iff every nbhd of  $p$  contains all but finitely many of the terms  $\{p_n\}$ .

(b) If  $p \in X$ ,  $p' \in X$  and  $\{p_n\}$  converges to  $p$  and  $p'$  then  ~~$p=p'$~~   $p=p'$ .

(c) If  $\{p_n\}$  converges then  $\{p_n\}$  is bounded.

(d) If  $E \subset X$  and  $p$  is a limit pt. of  $E$  then

$\exists$  a sequence  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$  s.t.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

Proof: (a) Suppose  $p_n \rightarrow p$

for fix  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

Let  $V$  be a nbhd of  $p$ .

for some  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $d(p, q) < \epsilon$ ,  $q \in V$   $\Rightarrow$   $q \in V$ .

Corresponding to this  $\epsilon$ ,  $\exists$  integer  $N$

$n > N \Rightarrow d(p_n, p) < \epsilon \Rightarrow p_n \in V$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Suppose every nbhd of  $p$  containing all but finitely many of terms  $\{p_n\}$ .

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $V$  be a nbhd of  $p$  s.t.  $\{p_n\}$  is contained in  $V$ .

i.e.  $V$  is a nbhd of  $p$  s.t.  $\{p_n\}$  is contained in  $V$ .

$\Rightarrow$   $\{p_n\}$  is contained in  $V$  for all  $n > N$  (by assumption of  $N$  (correction to this  $V$ )).

$p_n \in E$  if and only if  $n \geq N$ .

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$$d(p_n, p) < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p.$$

(b)  $p_n \rightarrow p$   
 $p_n \rightarrow p' \Rightarrow p = p'$

$p_n \rightarrow p$  means  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  (integer) s.t.  $d(p_n, p) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ ,  
 $n \geq N_1$ .

$p_n \rightarrow p'$  means  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  (integer) s.t.  $d(p_n, p') < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ ,  
 $n \geq N_2$ .

$$d(p, p') \leq d(p, p_n) + d(p_n, p')$$

Let  $N$  be the max  $(N_1, N_2)$

for  $n \geq N \quad N = \max(N_1, N_2)$

$$d(p, p') \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq \epsilon.$$

$$\Rightarrow d(p, p') = 0 \Rightarrow p = p'$$

(c) Given  $p_n \rightarrow p$ , to show that  $p_n$  is bounded.  
to show that  $p_n$  is bounded.

Choose  $\epsilon = 1$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  (integer) s.t.  $n \geq N$

$$d(p_n, p) < 1$$

$$\sigma = \max \{ d(p_1, p), d(p_2, p), \dots, d(p_{N-1}, p), 1 \}.$$

Then  $d(p_n, p) \leq \sigma$

for  $n = 1, 2, \dots, N-1$

(d) As  $p \in X$  is a limit point of  $E$ , for each integer  $n$ , there is a point  $p_n \in E$  s.t.  $d(p_n, p) < \frac{1}{n}$ .

By Archimedean principle

$\forall \epsilon > 0$ , choose  $N$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$

$$\text{If } n > N, \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow d(p_n, p) < \epsilon.$$

Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence in a metric space  $X$ .

$$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$$

$$f(n) = p_n$$

$$p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots$$

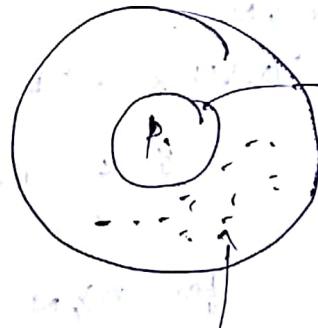
$(p_n) \rightarrow$  bounded

$(p_n) \rightarrow$  unbounded.

$\{p_n\}$  (a sequence) is said to be convergent to an element  $p$  in  $X$  if  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a number  $N$  s.t.  $n > N$

$$d(p, p_n) < \epsilon.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p.$$



finite no. of  
points lie outside

Thm: Suppose  $\{s_n\}, \{t_n\}$  are complex sequences, and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = t. \text{ Then}$$

$$(a) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_n + t_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = s + t$$

$$(b) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c s_n = c s$$

$$(c) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (c + s_n) = c + s.$$

$$(d) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s_n} = \frac{1}{s}$$

provided  $s_n \neq 0$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ )  
and  $s \neq 0$ .

Proof:  $\forall \epsilon_0, \exists$  integers  $N_1, N_2$  s.t.

$$(a) \quad \begin{aligned} n > N_1 &\Rightarrow |t_{n-s}| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ n > N_2 &\Rightarrow |t_{n-t}| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$|(s_n + t_n) - (s + t)| = |(s_{n-s}) + (t_{n-t})|$$

$$\text{Let } N = \max(N_1, N_2) \quad \therefore |s_{n-s}| + |t_{n-t}|$$

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

$$(b) |cs_n - cs|$$

$$= |c(s_n - s)|$$

$$= |c| |s_n - s|$$

$$\forall \epsilon_0 \exists N \text{ s.t. } n > N$$

$$|s_{n-s}| = \frac{1}{n},$$

$$(c) |s_n t_n - st| = (n-1)(t_{n-t}) + s(t_{n-t}) + t(s_{n-s}),$$

$$|s_n t_n - st| \leq |(s_{n-1})(t_{n-t})| + t \cdot |s(s_{n-s}) + s(t_{n-t})|$$

$$\leq |s_{n-1}| |t_{n-t}| + s |t_{n-t}| + |t(s_{n-1})|.$$

Given  $\epsilon_0, \exists$  integers  $N_1, N_2$  s.t.  $n > N, \Rightarrow |s_{n-1}| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}$

$$n > N_2 \Rightarrow |t_{n-t}| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$$

Take  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$  s.t.  $|(s_{n-1})(t_{n-t})| < \epsilon$

$$\text{i.e. } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |t(s_{n-1})| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{i.e. } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (s_{n-s}) |t_{n-t}| = 0$$

~~$$\underline{|s_{n-s}| < \epsilon} \rightarrow 0, \text{ i.e. } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |s_{n-s}| = 0, \text{ i.e. } n > N$$~~

~~$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|s_{n-s}|}{s_n} = 0$$~~

$$|t(s_{n-s})| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\therefore |t(t_{n-t})| + |t(s_{n-s})|$$

$$|t_n - t| < \frac{t}{|s|} \Rightarrow |s_{n+1} - s| < \frac{|t|}{|t|}$$

$$\frac{t}{|s|} \text{ i.e. } |s(t_n - t)| \rightarrow 0$$

Q (a)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s_n} = \frac{1}{s} \quad s \neq 0 \quad \text{if } s_n \neq 0 \quad (n=1,2,\dots)$

$$\left| \frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} \right| = \left| \frac{s_n - s}{s_n s} \right| \leq \frac{|s_n - s|}{|s_n s|} \quad \frac{0}{s^2} \rightarrow 0.$$

As  $s_n \rightarrow s$ ,  $\epsilon = \frac{|s|}{2} \ni k_1$   
s.t

$$|s_n - s| < \frac{|s|}{2} \quad \text{for } n \geq k_2$$

$$\Rightarrow |s_n - s| < \frac{|s|}{2} \quad |s_n - s| < \frac{|s|}{2}$$

$$|s| - |s_n| < \frac{|s|}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow |s_n| < \frac{|s|}{2} + |s|$$

$$\Rightarrow -|s_n| < -\frac{|s|}{2}$$

Now  $\epsilon > 0 \quad \exists k_2 \text{ integer s.t. for } n \geq k_2$

$$|s_n - s| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} |s|^2$$

Let  $K_2 = \max(k_1, k_2)$

$$\left| \frac{1}{s_n} - \frac{1}{s} \right| = \frac{|s_n - s|}{|s_n s|} \leq \frac{\frac{\epsilon}{2} |s|^2}{\frac{|s|}{2}} = \epsilon.$$

Thm: Suppose  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^K$  ( $n=1,2,3,\dots$ ) and  $d_n = (x_{1n}, x_{2n}, \dots, x_{Kn})$

(a) then  $\{d_n\}$  converges to  $d = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K)$  iff  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{jn} = x_j \quad (1 \leq j \leq K)$

(b) Suppose  $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}$  are sequences in  $\mathbb{R}^K$ ,  $\{\beta_n\}$  is a sequence of real numbers, and  $x_n \rightarrow x, y_n \rightarrow y$

$\beta_n \rightarrow \beta$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\alpha_n + \gamma_n) = \alpha + \gamma$ ,

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$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_n \cdot \gamma_n = \alpha \cdot \gamma$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_n \alpha_n = \beta \alpha$ .

$\rightarrow \alpha_n = (\alpha_{1,n}, \alpha_{2,n}, \dots, \alpha_k)$

$\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_k)$

$$|\alpha - \gamma| = \sqrt{(\alpha_1 - \gamma_1)^2 + (\alpha_2 - \gamma_2)^2 + \dots + (\alpha_k - \gamma_k)^2}$$

$$|\alpha| = \left( \sum_{j=1}^k |\alpha_j|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Proof :- (a) If  $\alpha_n \rightarrow \alpha$  given  $\epsilon > 0$  is an integer  $N$   
s.t  $n \geq N \Rightarrow |\alpha_n - \alpha| < \epsilon$ .

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha_n - \alpha| &= (\alpha_{1,n} - \alpha_1, \alpha_{2,n} - \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k,n} - \alpha_k) \\ &= \left( \sum_{j=1}^k |\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$|\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j| \leq |\alpha_n - \alpha| < \epsilon \text{ for } n \geq N$$

i.e.  $|\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j| < \epsilon$  for  $n \geq N$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_{j,n} = \alpha_j \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

Converse part

Suppose  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_{j,n} = \alpha_j \quad (1 \leq j \leq k)$

$\epsilon > 0$  is a N s.t  $n \geq N$  implies

$$|\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}} \quad (1 \leq j \leq k)$$

hence  $n \geq N$

$$|\alpha_n - \alpha| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^k |\alpha_{j,n} - \alpha_j|^2} \leq \sqrt{k} \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{k}} = \epsilon$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon^2 \cdot k}{k} = \epsilon^2 = \epsilon.$$

### Subsequence

Let  $\{p_n\}$  be a sequence. A sequence of the integers  $\{n_k\}$  with the properties  $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < \dots < n_K$ .

$\{p_{n_k}\}$  is called a subsequence of  $\{p_n\}$ .

The limit of the subsequence is said to be subsequential limit.

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

$$(p_{n_k}) = (p_2, p_4, p_6, \dots) = (1, 1, 1, \dots)$$

$$(p_{n_{k+1}}) = (-1, -1, -1, \dots).$$

\* A sequence  $\{p_n\}$  converges to a point  $p$  to some limit.

Thm(a) : If  $\{p_n\}$  is a sequence in a compact metric space  $X$ , then some subsequence of  $\{p_n\}$  converges to a pt. of  $X$ . Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains a convergent subsequence (Bolzano-Weierstrass thm).

Proof:-

(a) Let  $E$  be the range of the sequence  $\{p_n\}$ . If  $E$  is finite then there is a pt.  $p \in E$  and a sequence  $\{n_i\}$  with  $n_1 < n_2 < \dots$  such that

$$p_{n_1} = p_{n_2} = p_{n_3} = \dots = p \quad p_{n_i} \rightarrow p.$$

If  $E$  is infinite,  $E$  has a limit pt. in  $X$ .

Let  $p$  be a limit point in  $X$ . choose  $n_1$  s.t

$d(p_{n_1}, p) < 1$ . Having chosen  $n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots, n_{k-1}$

(This is possible as  $p$  is a limit pt.)

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An array of points  $\{p\}$  contains infinitely many points of  $E$ .  $\exists n_j > n_i$  s.t.  $d(p, p_{n_j}) < \frac{1}{j}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{n_j} = p$$

b) Since every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is contained in a  $N$ -cell, which is compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , by a) every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is convergent contains a convergent subsequence.

Thm.: The subsequential limits of a sequence  $\{p_n\}$  in a metric space  $X$  forms a closed subset of  $X$ .

Proof: Let  $E^*$  denote the set of all subsequential limits of the sequence  $\{p_n\}$ . Let  $q$  be a limit point of  $E^*$ .  
To show that  $q \in E^*$ . Choose  $n$ , s.t.  $p_n \neq q$ ! if no such  $n$ , exist then  $E^*$  contains single point only i.e closed).

Choose  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_i$  s.t.  $d(p_{n_i}, q) \neq 0$ .

Since  $q$  is a limit point of  $E^*$ ,  $\exists \alpha \in E^*$  s.t.  $d(\alpha, q) < \frac{d}{2^i}$ . Since  $\alpha \in E^*$   $\exists$

$\exists n_{i+1}$  s.t.  $d(\alpha, p_{n_i}) < \frac{d}{2^i}$ .

$$d(q, p_{n_i}) \leq d(q, \alpha) + d(\alpha, p_{n_i})$$

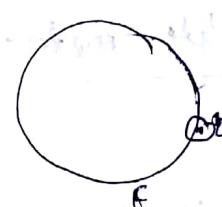
$$\leq 2 \cdot \frac{d}{2^i}$$

$$= 2^{1-i} d$$

$$\Rightarrow p_{n_i} \rightarrow q.$$

$$\text{e.g.: } s_n = 1 + (-1)^n$$

$$E^* = \{0, 1\}$$



$p_{n_i} \rightarrow q$   
 $n_i \rightarrow \infty$

$\exists n_i \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $d(p_{n_i}, q) < \frac{d}{2^i}$

Cauchy Sequence.

- ① Let  $X$  be a metric space. A sequence  $\{p_n\}$  in  $X$  is said to be Cauchy sequence if  $\exists$  an integer  $N$  s.t. for  $n, m \geq N$ ,  $d(p_n, p_m) < \epsilon$ .

e.g.  $p_n = \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow$  Cauchy sequence

- ② Let  $E \subset X$ ,  $S = \{d(p, q) : p, q \in E\}$ .  
Steps always exists.

diameter of  $E = \sup S$ .

i.e.  $\overline{\dim E = \sup S}$ .

$d(p, q) \leq \dim E \quad \forall p, q \in E$ .

$$E_N = \{p_N, p_{N+1}, p_{N+2}, \dots\}$$

$d(p_{N+i}, p_{N+j}) < \epsilon \quad \forall i, j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

- A sequence  $\{p_n\}$  is Cauchy  $\Leftrightarrow \lim \dim E_n = 0$ .

i.e. given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N_0$ ,  $\dim E_n < \epsilon$ ,  $n \geq N_0$ .

Complete metric Space : A metric space is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence converges in it.

$$X = (0, 1) \quad p_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

Limit  $\frac{1}{n}$  (not in  $X$ ). So not complete.

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is a complete metric space.

- Thm: (a) If  $\bar{E}$  is the closure of a set  $E$  in a metric space  $X$ , then  $\dim E = \dim \bar{E}$ .
- (b) If  $K_n$  is a sequence of compact set in  $X$  s.t.

$K_n \supset K_{n+1}$  ( $n=1, 2, \dots$ ) and if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \dim K_n = 0$  then

$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  consists of exactly one point.

(a) To show that  $\dim \bar{E} = \dim E$ .

$$E \subset \bar{E}$$

$$\dim E \leq \dim \bar{E}$$

for  $\epsilon > 0$ , choose  $\rho \in \bar{E}$ ,

There are points  $p', q' \in E$  such that

$$d(p, p') < \epsilon, \quad d(q, q') < \epsilon$$

$$d(p, q) \leq d(p, p') + d(p', q') + d(q', q)$$

$$< 3\epsilon + d(p', q') + \epsilon$$

$$< 2\epsilon + \dim E.$$

$$\Rightarrow \dim \bar{E} \leq \dim E + 2\epsilon.$$

(ii)

by (i) and (ii)

$$\boxed{\dim E = \dim \bar{E}}$$

(iii)

$\{K_n\}$  is a sequence of compact sets. Then

$$K_n \supset K_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, 3, \dots)$$

we know  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n \neq \emptyset = K$

To show that  $K$  contains exactly one point.

Suppose  $K$  contains more than one point then diameter of  $K$   $\dim K > 0$ . But for each  $n$ ,  $K_n \supset K$ .

$$\Rightarrow \dim K_n \geq \dim K$$

which contradict to  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \dim K_n = 0$

$$\dim K_n \leq \epsilon, \quad n \geq m, m \geq N. \quad \text{Also } \cancel{2\epsilon} \leq \epsilon \leq \dim K > 0.$$

Thm: If  $X$  is a compact metric space and if  $\{A_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $X$ , then  $\{A_n\}$  converges to some point of  $X$ .

(a) Every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence.

(c) in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  (any metric space)

Proof (a): Every Cauchy sequence converges.

Suppose  $A_n \rightarrow p$  in  $X$ . i.e given  $\epsilon > 0 \exists N$  s.t

$$n > N \quad d(A_n, p) < \epsilon$$

$$m > N \quad d(A_m, p) < \epsilon$$

$$d(A_n, A_m) \leq d(A_n, p) + d(p, A_m) < 2\epsilon$$

as seen as  $n > N, m > N$  i.e  $\{A_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof (b): Let  $\{A_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in the compact set  $X$ .

For  $N = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  let  $E_N$  be the set consisting of

$A_N, A_{N+1}, A_{N+2}, \dots$  i.e  $E_N = \{A_N, A_{N+1}, A_{N+2}, \dots\}$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \dim E_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \dim \overline{E_n} = 0$$

Being  $\overline{E_n}$  a closed subset of the compact set  $X$ , it is compact.

$$E_N \supset E_{N+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{E_N} \supset \overline{E_{N+1}}$$

$\bigcap_{N=1}^{\infty} \overline{E_N}$  consisting of one point.

i.e  $\exists$  a unique  $p \in X$  s.t  $p \in \overline{E_N} \forall N$ .

$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \overline{E_N} = 0$ , means  $\exists N_0 \exists N$  s.t

$\dim E_N \leq E$  for  $N \geq N_0$

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Since  $p \in E_N$ ,  $\Rightarrow d(p, q) < \epsilon \forall q \in E$ .  
Hence  $\exists p_n \rightarrow p$ .

i.e.  $d(p, p_n) < \epsilon, n \geq N_0$ .  
i.e.  $p_n \rightarrow p$ .

Proof: Let  $\{p_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  for  $N=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Let  $E_N = \{p_{N+1}, p_{N+2}, \dots\}$

As  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \dim E_N = 0$ , for  $\epsilon = 1$ ,  $\exists$  some  $N$  s.t.  $\dim E_N < 1$ .

range of  $\{p_n\}$  is the union of  $E_N$  and the finite set  $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{N-1}\}$ .

Hence  $\{p_n\}$  is bounded.

Since every bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , its closure is compact in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $\{p_n\}$  converges in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

$\rightarrow \lim p_n = i^n \quad i \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} i^n$  does not exist.

A real sequence  $s_n$  is said to be monotonically increasing if  $s_n \leq s_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, 3, \dots)$

monotonically decreasing if  $s_n \geq s_{n+1} \quad (n=1, 2, 3, \dots)$

A sequence is said to be monotonic if either it is monotonically increasing or monotonically decreasing.

Thm: Suppose  $\{s_n\}$  is monotonic then  $\{s_n\}$  converges iff it is bounded.

Proof: Suppose  $\{s_n\}$  is monotonically increasing, i.e.  $s_n \leq s_{n+1}$ .

Let  $E$  be  $= \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$ ,  $E$  is the range of  $\{s_n\}$ .

If  $s_n$  is bounded, then  $E$  has a lub or supremum.

Let us denote it  $s$ , i.e.  $s_n \leq s \quad (n=1, 2, 3, \dots)$

For  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N$  s.t.  $s - \epsilon < S_N \leq s$ . — (i)

Since  $\{S_n\}$  is increasing  $n \geq N \Rightarrow S_n \geq S_N$ .

From (i)  $s - \epsilon < S_N \leq s \quad n \geq N$

i.e.  $S_n \rightarrow s$ .

### Application

Q1. Let  $\{y_n\}$  be a sequence defined by

$$y_1 := 1, \quad y_{n+1} := \frac{1}{4}(2y_n + 3) \quad n \geq 1.$$

Show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = \frac{3}{2}$

$$y_1 = 1.$$

$$y_2 = \frac{1}{4}(2y_1 + 3) = \frac{5}{4}.$$

$$y_1 < y_2 < 2.$$

To show that  $y_n < 2 \quad \forall n$

$$y_1 < 2, \quad y_2 < 2.$$

Suppose  $y_k < 2$  for some  $k$  then

$$y_{k+1} = \frac{1}{4}(2y_k + 3) < \frac{1}{4}(2 \cdot 2 + 3) = \frac{7}{4} < 2.$$

By method of induction  $y_n < 2 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Show that

$$y_n < y_{n+1} \quad \forall n.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{4}(2y_n + 3).$$

$$\text{So bounded. } \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n \text{ exists}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{4}(2y + 3).$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y}{2} = \frac{3}{4} \Rightarrow y = \frac{3}{2}.$$

Q2. If  $s_1 = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $s_{n+1} = \sqrt{2+s_n}$ . (n=1,2,3,...)

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Show that  $\{s_n\}$  converges and then  $s_n < 2$  for  $n=1,2,3,\dots$

$$s_2 = \sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}} \quad s_3 = \sqrt{2+\sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}}}$$

$\{s_n\}$  converges to  $s$ .

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s.$$

$\{s_n\}$  be a bounded sequence.

$$M_n = \sup \{s_n, s_{n+1}, s_{n+2}, \dots\}$$

Since

$$\{s_{n+1}, s_{n+2}, \dots\} \subset \{s_n, s_{n+1}, s_{n+2}, \dots\}$$

$$\sup \{s_{n+1}, \dots\} \leq \sup \{s_n, s_{n+1}, \dots\}$$

$$M_{n+1} \leq M_n$$

$\{M_n\}$  is a decreasing sequence.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n$$

$$M_n = \inf \{s_n, s_{n+1}, \dots\}$$

$$M_n \leq M_{n+1}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$$

e.g.  $s_n = (-1)^n$

$$M_n = \sup \{(-1)^n, (-1)^{n+1}, (-1)^{n+2}, \dots\}$$

$$\leq \sup \{-1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\}$$

$$\leq 1.$$

$$M_n = \inf \{(-1)^n, (-1)^{n+1}, \dots\}$$

$$\geq \inf \{-1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\}$$

$$\geq -1.$$

Defn

$\{a_n\}$  infinite sequence.

Suppose there is a real number  $s$  satisfying ①

for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $N$  for  $n > N$ ,  $|a_n - s| < \epsilon$

② for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $M > 0$  there is  $n > M$  s.t.

$a_n > s - \epsilon$ . Then  $s = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$ .

Some special sequence.

1. If  $0 < x_n < s_n$  for  $n > N$ , where  $N$  is some fixed number  
and if  $s_n \rightarrow 0$ , then  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ .

2. If  $p > 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 0$

3. If  $p > 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (p)^{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$

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

5. If  $p > 0$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^\alpha}{(1+p)^n} = 0$

6. If  $|x| < 1$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x|^n = 0$

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is called an infinite series.

$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$ . ( $n^{th}$  partial sum)

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < \infty \Leftrightarrow \{S_n\}$  converges.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  then show for  $S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$

$\Rightarrow \sum a_n$  converges iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an integer  $N$  s.t.  $\sum_{n=N}^m |a_n| < \epsilon$  if  $m > n > N$ .

This is Cauchy criterion of convergence.

10-10-18

Thm: If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < \infty$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

Proof:

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

$$S_{n+1} = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{n+1}$$

$$S_n - S_{n+1} = a_n$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n - S_{n+1}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S - S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \Rightarrow \boxed{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0}$$

Converse of this theorem is not true.

Eg.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

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

divergent.

### 1. Comparison Test

If  $|a_n| \leq c_n$  for  $n \geq N_0$ , where  $N_0$  is fixed positive integer and if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n < \infty \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < \infty$

$|a_n| \geq b_n > 0$  for  $n \geq N_0$  :  $\sum b_n \rightarrow \text{divergent} \Rightarrow \sum a_n \text{ divergent}$

### 2. Ratio test

The series  $\sum a_n$

(A) Converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$

for  $n \geq n_0$

(B) Diverges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$

### 3. Root test.

Given  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , put  $\alpha = \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$  then

- if  $\alpha < 1 \rightarrow$  converges
- $\alpha > 1 \rightarrow$  diverges
- $\alpha = 1 \rightarrow$  test fails.

#### 4. Alternating series test

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$$

Suppose the sequence  $a_n$  of real nos. satisfies the following conditions :-

- (a) alternating +ve and -ve signs
- (b)  $|a_n| \leq |a_{n+1}| \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
- (c)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  absolutely i.e.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$

then  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent.

So  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  is convergent.

- ✓ If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges then  $\sum a_n$  converges absolutely.
- ✓ If  $\sum a_n = \infty$  but  $\sum |a_n| < \infty$  then  $\sum a_n$  is conditionally convergent.

Converges absolutely if it is absolute

otherwise

$f: E \rightarrow Y$ ,  $X, Y$  are metric spaces and  $E \subset X$ .

Let  $p$  be a limit pt. of  $E$ . We write  $f(x) \rightarrow q$  as  
 $x \rightarrow p$ , or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ . If there is  $p \in Y$  in  $Y$  with the

following properties. For every  $\epsilon > 0$   $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_Y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$   
for every  $0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q \iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, d_Y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$  whenever

$$0 < d_X(x, p) < \delta.$$

→  $f$  is continuous at  $x = p$  if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  
 $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$ , whenever  $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ .

→  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = q_1$

then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = q + q_1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x)$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{q}{q_1}; q_1 \neq 0$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \alpha f(x) = \alpha \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x); \alpha$  is scalar.

$E \subset X \quad f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$

$f$  is a vector valued metric.

$$f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), f_3(x), \dots, f_k(x))$$

$\Rightarrow f$  is continuous iff  $f_i(x)$  is continuous.  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$

Thm: Let  $x, y, \epsilon, f$  and  $p$  be as in definition.

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$  iff  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$  for every sequence  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$  s.t.  $p_n \neq p$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

Proof: Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ . Choose a sequence  $\{p_n\}$  satisfying  $p_n \neq p$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given, then  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$  if  $x \in E$  and  $0 < d_x(x, p) < \delta$ . As  $p_n \rightarrow p$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $0 < d_y(p_n, p) < \delta$ . Thus for  $n \geq N$  we have  $d_y(f(p_n), q) < \epsilon$ .

i.e  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$ . for  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$  with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

Converse

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = q$  for  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$  with  $p_n \neq p$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ .

To show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ .

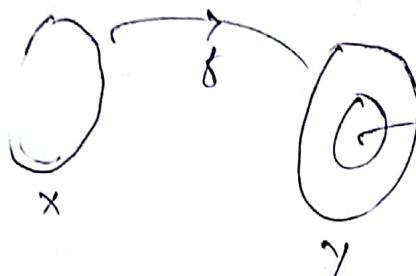
Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) \neq q$ , then  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  s.t. for every  $\delta > 0$  there exists a pt  $x \in E$  (depending on  $\delta$ ), for which  $d_y(f(x), q) > \epsilon$  but  $0 < d_x(x, p) < \delta$ .

Taking  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$  ( $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ),  $0 < d_x(p_n, p) < \frac{1}{n}$  and  $d_y(f(p_n), q) > \epsilon$ . which contradict the assumption.

the first time I had seen a bird of prey in flight. I was so excited that I forgot to take a picture. I have since learned that it was a Red-tailed Hawk.

On my way home from school I saw a Red-tailed Hawk circling over the roof tops. I took a picture of it and sent it to my dad. He said it was a Red-tailed Hawk. I was so happy because I had never seen one before. I have since learned that it was a Red-tailed Hawk.

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$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given  $\epsilon > 0$ f is said to be continuous at  $x=a$  if $\exists \delta(\epsilon) \text{ s.t. } |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon, \quad |x-a| < \delta$  $V$  is open subset of  $y$ . $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X \Leftrightarrow V$  open in  $Y$ .

inverse image of set  
 $f^{-1}(V) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in V\}$

$f(C) = \{f(x) \mid x \in C\}$ .

image of a set.

A mapping  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous in  $X$  iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  for every open set  $V$  in  $Y$ .

Proof:- Suppose  $f$  is continuous in  $X$  and  $V$  is open in  $Y$ . We have to show  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , i.e. every point of  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an interior pt. So,

Suppose  $p \in X$  and  $f(p) \in V$ . Since  $V$  is open,

$\exists \epsilon > 0$  s.t.  $\forall y \in V$  if  $d_Y(f(p), y) < \epsilon$  and

Since  $f$  is continuous at  $p$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t. if  $d_X(x, p) < \delta$

then  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$ .

$\Rightarrow f(x) \in V$  i.e.  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$  as soon as  $d(X, p) < \delta$

Converse: Suppose  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  for all open subsets  $V$  in  $Y$ . To show that  $f$  is continuous in  $X$ .

Fix  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $V$  be set of all  $y \in Y$  s.t.  $d_Y(y, f(x)) < \epsilon$ . i.e.  $V$  is open subset of  $Y$ .

$f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ , and hence  $\exists d > 0$  s.t.  $f^{-1}(V)$  as soon as  $d_X(x, y) < d$ . But  $f(x) \in V$  i.e.  $d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$ .

Corollary:  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous iff  $f^{-1}(E^c)$  is closed in  $X$  &  $E$  is closed in  $Y$ .

$$f^{-1}(E^c) = (f^{-1}(E))^c$$

$$\Rightarrow E^c \text{ is open} \Rightarrow f^{-1}(E^c) \text{ is open}$$

$$(f^{-1}(E^c))^c = f^{-1}(E) \text{ is closed.}$$

A mapping  $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is said to be bounded if  $\exists$  a number  $M$  s.t.  $|f(x)| \leq M$   $\forall x \in E$ .

Theorem: Let  $f$  be a continuous map from a compact metric space  $X$  into a metric space  $Y$  then  $f(X)$  is compact.

Proof: Let  $\{V_k\}$  be an open covering of  $f(X)$ .

To show that it has a finite subcovering.

$\{V_k\}$  is open in  $Y$ . As  $f$  is continuous,  $f^{-1}(V_k)$  is open in  $X$ .

As  $X$  is compact  $X \subset f^{-1}(V_{k_1}) \cup f^{-1}(V_{k_2}) \cup \dots \cup f^{-1}(V_{k_n})$

$$f(x) \in f(f^{-1}(V_{k_1}) \cup f^{-1}(V_{k_2}) \cup \dots \cup f^{-1}(V_{k_n}))$$

$$f(x) \in f(f^{-1}(V_{k_1} \cup V_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{k_n}))$$

$$f(x) \in V_{k_1} \cup V_{k_2} \cup \dots \cup V_{k_n}$$

Hence  $f(X)$  is compact.

$$\begin{cases} f(f^{-1}(A)) \subset \\ f^{-1}(f(A)) \supset A \end{cases}$$

\* If  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  is bounded.  
 + Continuous  $\uparrow$   
 + Compact.

Ans): As  $f(x)$  is compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ .

$\Rightarrow f(x)$  is closed and bounded.

Hence  $f(x)$  is bounded.

Thm: Suppose  $f$  is continuous 1-1 mapping of a compact  $X$  onto a metric space  $Y$ . Then the inverse mapping  $f^{-1}$  defined on  $Y$  by  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$  &  $x \in X$  is continuous mapping of  $Y$  onto  $X$ .

$f: X \xrightarrow{\text{bijection}} Y \Rightarrow f^{-1}$  is continuous.

Proof:  $f: X \rightarrow Y$

As  $f$  is bijective  $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ .

Let  $V$  be open in  $X$ .

To show that  $(f^{-1})^{-1}(V)$  is open.

i.e.  $f(V)$  is open.

$\forall v \in V$  is closed.  $\Rightarrow V$  is compact.

$\Rightarrow f(V)$  is compact. ( $\because$  Closed subset of a compact set)

$\Rightarrow f(V)$  is closed.

$\Rightarrow f(V)^c$  is open.

$\Rightarrow f(V)$  is open.

eg:  $f: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow S^1$

$$f(t) = (\cos t, \sin t), \quad S^1 = \{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1\}$$

$f^{-1}$  is not continuous.

→ Any bijective ~~not~~ continuous mapping, its inverse mapping may not be continuous.

⇒ Uniformly continuous function:

$f: X \rightarrow Y$ .  $f$  is said to be uniformly continuous on  $X$  if given  $\epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $d_X(p, q) < \delta \forall p, q \in X$ . Here  $\delta$  is independent of the point  $x \in X$ .

$$\text{eg: } f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \text{ on } (0, 1).$$

$\exists \delta > 0 \exists \delta_0 \exists x, y \in (0, 1)$  with  $|x-y| < \delta$  and  $|f(x)-f(y)| > \epsilon$ .

choose a positive integer  $n$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{n} < \delta$ .

$$\text{let } x_0 = \frac{1}{n}, y_0 = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } x_0, y_0 &\in (0, 1), \quad |x_0 - y_0| = \left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{n(n+1)} < \frac{1}{n} < \delta. \\ |f(x_0) - f(y_0)| &= |n - (n+1)| = 1 > \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thm: Let  $f$  be a continuous map from a compact metric space to a metric space  $Y$ . Then  $f$  is uniformly continuous.

Proof: Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $f$  is continuous we can associate to each point  $p \in X$  a positive number  $\phi(p)$  s.t.  $q \in X, d_X(q, p) < \phi(p) \Rightarrow d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ .  $\text{---} \oplus$

Let  $J(\beta) = \{x \in X \mid d_x(p, q) < \frac{1}{2}\phi(\beta)\}$

$J(\beta) \neq \emptyset$  as  $p \in J(\beta)$   
and the collection of all sets  $d_x(p, q) = 0 < \frac{1}{2}\phi(\beta)$   
 $\downarrow$   
non-empty

$J(\beta)$  is an open covering of  $X$ :  
and since  $X$  is compact, there is a finite set of points  
 $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  in  $X$  s.t.  $X \subset J(p_1) \cup J(p_2) \cup \dots \cup J(p_n)$

Put  $\delta = \frac{1}{2} \min(d(p_1), \phi(p_1), \dots, \phi(p_n))$ ,  $\delta > 0$ .

Now, take  $p, q$  in  $X$  s.t.  $d_X(p, q) < \delta$ .

By (\*) there is an integer  $1 \leq m \leq n$  s.t.  $p \in J(p_m)$

hence  $d_X(p, p_m) < \frac{1}{2}\phi(p_m)$

$$d_X(q, p_m) \leq d_X(q, p) + d_X(p, p_m)$$

$$\leq \delta + \frac{1}{2}\phi(p_m)$$

$$d_Y(f(p), f(q)) \leq d_X(f(p), f(p_m)) + \phi d_X(f(q), f(p_m)) \\ \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

If:  $X \rightarrow Y$

compact

1.  $f$  is continuous  $\Rightarrow$   $f(X)$  is compact subset of  $Y$ .

2.  $f$  is  $f: X \xrightarrow{\text{continuous}} Y$   
compact

$f$  is uniformly continuous function.

3. If  $E$  is a connected subset of  $X$  then  $f(E)$  is connected.

Proof :- Suppose  $f(E)$  is not connected.

$$f(E) = A \cup B, \quad A, B \neq \emptyset, \quad \bar{A} \cap B = \emptyset, \quad A \cap \bar{B} = \emptyset.$$

$$G = f^{-1}(A) \cap E$$

$$G \cup H = (E \cap f^{-1}(A)) \cup (f^{-1}(B) \cap E)$$

$$= E \cap (f^{-1}(A) \cup f^{-1}(B))$$

$$= E \cap f^{-1}(A \cup B)$$

$$= E$$

$$\rightarrow G \subset f^{-1}(A).$$

$$\text{As } A \subset \bar{A} \Rightarrow f^{-1}(A) \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A}) \quad \therefore G \subset E.$$

$$\text{Hence } G \subset f^{-1}(A) \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A})$$

$$\Rightarrow G \subset f^{-1}(A)$$

↑ closed.

$$\Rightarrow \bar{G} \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A})$$

~~Similarly~~  $H \subset f^{-1}(B)$

~~Since~~  $\bar{G} \cap H = \emptyset.$

~~Similarly~~  $G \cap \bar{H} = \emptyset.$

$$f^{-1}(A \cap B) = f^{-1}(A) \cap f^{-1}(B)$$

$$f^{-1}(A \cup B) = f^{-1}(A) \cup f^{-1}(B)$$

$$\bar{G} \cap H \subset f^{-1}(\bar{A} \cap B)$$

$$\bar{G} \cap H = \emptyset.$$

$\therefore f(E)$  is connected

Thm: Let  $f$  be a continuous function in  $[a, b]$ .

If  $f(a) < f(b)$  and  $\lambda$  is a number s.t.  $f(a) < \lambda < f(b)$ ,

then  $\exists x \in (a, b)$  s.t.  $f(x) = \lambda$ .

Proof: As  $[a, b]$  is connected. (as it is an interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ .)

$E = f([a, b])$  is a connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  (as  $f$  is continuous).

Now  $f(a) \in E$ ,  $f(b) \in E$ . Since  $f(a) < \lambda < f(b)$  and

$E$  is connected  $\lambda \in E$ . So  $\exists p \in [a, b] : f(p) = \lambda$ .

Now, if  $p=a$ ,  $f(a) = f(p) = \lambda$

fails  $\lambda$ .

If  $p=b$ ,  $f(b) = f(p) = \lambda$

$f(b) \neq \lambda$ .

$\therefore p \in (a, b)$ .

Type of discontinuity.

$f(x^+)$  → right limit       $f(x^-)$  → left limit

(i)  $f(x^+) \neq f(x)$

$f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

(ii)  $f(x^+) = f(x^-) \neq f(x)$

$a < x < b$   
 $a < x \leq b$ .

Type 1 limit: both left and right limit exist.

Type 2 (simple)

Type 2 (general): both don't exist

$f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

any continuity

i)  $f(x) \neq f(y)$

(monotonically increasing)

$f(x) > f(y)$

(monotonically decreasing).

A function is said to be monotonic if either it's monotonically increasing or monotonically decreasing.

Thm: Let  $f$  be monotonically increasing on  $(a, b)$ . Then  $f(x^+)$  and  $f(x^-)$  exist at every pt. of  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . Same for monotonic decreasing function.

Corollary: Monotonic functions have no discontinuities of 2nd type. (as  $f(x+)$ ,  $f(x-)$  exist).

Thm: Let  $f$  be monotonic on  $(a, b)$ . Then the set of points of  $(a, b)$  at which  $f$  is discontinuous is at most countable.

$$f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$f$  is diff. at  $x$

$$\phi(t) = \frac{f(N) - f(t)}{N - t}$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow N} \phi(t) = f'(N)$$

Thm: Suppose  $f$  is diff. in  $(a, b)$ .

(a) If  $f'(x) > 0 \ \forall x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is monotonically increasing.

(b) If  $f'(x) = 0, \forall x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is constant.

(c) If  $f'(x) < 0, \forall x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is monotonically decreasing.

Let  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a given function. We say  $f$  has a local maximum at a point  $p \in X$  if  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t  $f(q) \leq f(p) \ \forall q$  with  $d(p, q) < \delta$ .

if  $f(q) \geq f(p) \rightarrow$  then  $f$  has a local minimum.

Thm: Let  $f$  be defined on  $[a, b]$ . If  $f$  has a local maximum at a pt.  $x \in (a, b)$ , and  $f'(x)$  exists, then  $f'(x) = 0$ .

Thm: Suppose  $f$  is a real differentiable fn. in  $[a, b]$  and suppose  $f'(a) < \lambda < f'(b)$ , then there is a pt.  $x \in (a, b)$  s.t.  $f'(x) = \lambda$ .

Proof:

$$g(t) = f(t) - \lambda t$$

$$g(0) = f(0)$$

$$g'(t) = f'(t) - \lambda$$

$$g'(0) = f'(0) - \lambda$$

As  $g(t) < g(0)$  for  $t \in (0, b]$ , and  $g'(0) <$

As  $\lambda$  so that  $g(t_2) < g(b)$  for some  $t_2 \in (0, b]$ ,  
g has a minimum on  $[0, b]$ . i.e. at some pt. x.

$$\text{at } x \in [0, b] \quad g'(x) = 0.$$

$$g'(x) = f'(x) - \lambda = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(x) = \lambda.$$

Rudin

Ex: Suppose  $f'(x) > 0$  in  $(a, b)$ . Prove that f is strictly increasing in  $(a, b)$  and  $g$  be the inverse of f. Prove that g is differentiable and

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

Let at  $x_1 < x_2 < b$  on  $(a, b)$ . f is differentiable

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = (x_2 - x_1)f'(c), \quad c \in (x_1, x_2)$$

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0 \quad f'(c) > 0$$

As g is the inverse of f,  $g(f(x)) = x$  and  $g(g(y)) = y$  (e.g.,  $y \in y$ ).

$$g'(f(x)) \circ f'(x) = 1$$

Mean value thm. and L'Hospital rule are not defined for complex valued function.

$$f(x) = e^{ix}$$

$$f: (0, 2\pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

$$f(2\pi) = e^{i2\pi} - f(0) = e^{i0} - f(0)$$

$$= 1 - 1 = 0$$

$$f'(x) = i e^{ix}$$

$$|f'(x)| = 1$$

So derivative never vanished.

$$\text{So } f'(x) \neq 0 \quad \forall x.$$

$$f: (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$g: (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

$$f(x) = x \quad g(x) = x + x^2 e^{i/x^2}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x + x^2 e^{i/x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x(1 + x^{-2} e^{i/x^2})} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1 + x^{-2} e^{i/x^2}} = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1 + x^{-2} e^{i/x^2}}$$

$$g'(x) = 1 + \left(2x - \frac{2i}{x}\right) e^{i/x^2}$$

$$|g'(x)|, |2x - \frac{2i}{x}| \rightarrow 1$$

$$= \frac{2}{x} \sqrt{x^4 + 1} \rightarrow 1$$

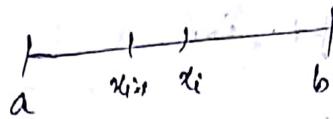
$$\left| \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \right| \geq \frac{1}{|g'(x)|} \geq \frac{x^2 + 1}{2x}$$

## Riemann Integration.

Let  $f$  be a  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded fun.

Let  $P = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  with  $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots$

be a partition in  $[a, b]$ .



$$\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$$

$$M_i = \sup \{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$$

$$m_i = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\}$$

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i$$

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i$$

$$\int_a^b f dx = \inf U(f, P) \quad \text{+ Partition } P.$$

upper  
Riemann  
integral

$$\int_a^b f dx = \sup L(f, P) \quad \text{+ P.} \quad \text{lower Riemann integral.}$$

$f \in \mathcal{R}$  (Riemann integrable) if

$$\int_a^b f dx = \int_a^b f dx$$

$$= \int_a^b f dx \quad (\text{Common})$$

Since  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$ ,  $\exists$  bounds  $M$ , and  
 $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ .

$$\Rightarrow m(b-a) \leq L(P, f) \leq U(P, f) \leq M(b-a)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i = M \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \Delta x_i = M(b-a)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \alpha_{x_i}$$

**Def:** Let  $\alpha$  be a monotonically decreasing increasing function on  $[a, b]$ . Since  $\alpha(a), \alpha(b)$  are finite,  $\alpha$  is bounded. Corresponding to each partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$ , we write  $\Delta x_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})$ ,  $\Delta x_0 > 0$ . As  $\alpha$  is monotonically increasing. Now for any real function  $f$  which is bounded on  $[a, b]$ , we put

$$(3) \quad \int_a^b f d\alpha = \inf_{\# P} U(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i; L(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i$$

$$(4) \quad \int_a^b f d\alpha = \sup_{\# P} L(P, f, \alpha)$$

If L.H.S of (3) and (4) are equal, we denote their common value by  $\int_a^b f d\alpha$  or  $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x)$

$\Rightarrow$  Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

when  $\alpha(x) = x$ , it becomes to Riemann integral,

$f \in R(\alpha)$ .  $f$  is Riemann-Stieltjes integral,

$\Rightarrow P_1$  and  $P_2$  are two partition in  $[a, b]$ .

$$P_1 \supset P_2$$

refinement of  $P_2$

We say  $P_1$  is refinement of  $P_2$ . Given two partition  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , we say  $P^*$  =  $P_1 \cup P_2$  is their common refinement.

Thm: If  $P^*$  is a refinement of  $P$ , then

(a)  $L(P, f, \alpha) \leq L(P^*, f, \alpha)$  and

(b)  $U(P^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(P, f, \alpha)$

So,  $S_0 \subset S$ ,  $S_0 \neq \emptyset$ ,  $S$  is bounded.

$\inf S \leq \inf S_0$  if  $\inf S_0 < \inf S$ .

To prove (a) suppose  $P^*$  contains just one pt. more than  $P$ .

Let the extra point be  $x^*$  and suppose  $x_{i-1} < x_i < x^*$  are two consecutive points of  $P$ .

$$\omega_1 = \inf \{f(x)\}$$

$$x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

$$\omega_2 = \inf \{f(x)\}$$

$$x \in [x^*, x_i]$$

$$m_i = \inf \{f(x)\}$$

$$x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

$$\omega_1 \geq m_i$$

$$\omega_2 \geq m_i$$

$$\text{Hence } L(P^*, f, \alpha) = L(P, f, \alpha)$$

$$= \omega_1 [\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] + \omega_2 [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*)]$$

$$= m_i [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})]$$

$$= \omega_1 [\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})] + \omega_2 [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})]$$

$$= m_i [\alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x^*) + \alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{i-1})]$$

$$= (\omega_1 - m_1) [\zeta(x^*) - \zeta(x_{i-1})] + (\omega_2 - m_2) [\zeta(x_i) - \zeta(x^*)]$$

$$\int_a^b f dx \leq \int_a^b f dd$$

Thm:

$f \in R(\alpha)$  on  $[a, b]$  iff  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a partition

such that  $U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) < \epsilon$ .  $\textcircled{1}$

Proof: Suppose  $\textcircled{1}$  holds.

We know,  $L(P, f, \alpha) \leq \int_a^b f dx \leq \int_a^b f dd \leq U(P, f, \alpha)$

$$L(P, f, \alpha) = L(P, f, \alpha) \leq \int_a^b f dd - L \leq \int_a^b f dd - L \{ U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) \}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq \int_a^b f dd - L \leq \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b f dd - L = 0 \quad \text{i.e. } f \in R(\alpha).$$

Converse

$f \in R(\alpha)$

To show that  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists$  a partition  $P$  s.t.  $U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) < \epsilon$ ,  $\exists P$  a partition  $P$  s.t.

$$\frac{\epsilon}{2} + \int_a^b f dd > U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha)$$

$$\Rightarrow U(P, f, \alpha) - \int_a^b f dd < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{--- ①}$$

$$\int_a^b f dd - L(P, f, \alpha) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{--- ②}$$

For any  $P = P_1 \cup P_2$ , we have  $\int_a^b f dd = \int_a^b f dd + \int_a^b f dd$

$$\text{adding ① and ②} \Rightarrow U(P_1, f, \alpha) + U(P_2, f, \alpha) < \int_a^b f dd + \frac{\epsilon}{2} < L(P, f, \alpha) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq L(P, f, \alpha) + \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow U(P, f, \lambda) - L(P, f, \lambda) < \epsilon.$$

e.g.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \text{ is rational in } [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$M_j = \sup_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} f(x) = 1, \quad x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$$

$$0 \leq m_j = \inf_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} f(x)$$

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \cdot \Delta x_i = b-a$$

$$L(P, f) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n 0 \cdot \Delta x_i = 0,$$

$$\int_a^b f dx = b-a \quad \text{and} \quad \int_a^b f dx = 0$$

This does not form a Riemann integral.

Thm: If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then  $f \in R(\lambda)$  on  $[a, b]$

Proof: As  $\lambda$  is monotonically increasing

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $n > 0$  s.t.

$$[\lambda(b) - \lambda(a)] / n < \epsilon \quad \left( n < \frac{\epsilon}{\lambda(b) - \lambda(a)} \right)$$

if  $\lambda(b) - \lambda(a) = 0$

then  $n > \epsilon$

Since  $f$  is uniformly continuous in  $[a, b]$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.

$|f(x) - f(t)| < \delta$  if  $x, t \in [a, b]$  and  $|x - t| < \delta$

$$|x_i - x_j| < \delta$$

If  $P$  is any partition of  $[a, b]$  such that  $|x_i - x_j| < \delta$ ,  
then  $|f(x_i) - f(x_j)| < \epsilon$ .

$\Rightarrow M_i - m_i \leq \epsilon$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ )  
and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f, \delta) - L(P, f, \delta) \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i \leq \epsilon \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i = \epsilon (x(b) - x(a)) < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Thm: Suppose  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$ ,  $f$  has only  
finitely many points of discontinuity on  $[a, b]$  and it is  
continuous at every points at which  $f$  is discontinuous  
then  $f \in R(\alpha)$ .

$f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  iff  $f$  has countable  
number discontinuous points.

## # Properties of Integral

1. If  $f_1 \in R(\alpha)$ ,  $f_2 \in R(\alpha)$  on  $[a, b]$  then

$f_1 + f_2 \in R(\alpha)$ ,  $c f \in R(\alpha)$  for every constant.

$$\int_a^b (f_1 + f_2) d\alpha = \int_a^b f_1 d\alpha + \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha, \quad \int_a^c f d\alpha = c \int_a^b f d\alpha$$

2.  $f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)$  in  $[a, b]$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b f_1 d\alpha \leq \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha$$

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^c f d\alpha + \int_c^b f d\alpha, \quad a \leq c \leq b$$

4.

$$|f(x)| \leq M \text{ then } \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq M |x_1 - x_2|$$

5.

If  $f \in R(\alpha)$  and  $g \in R(\alpha_2)$ , then  $f + g \in R(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$

$$f \in R(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2), \quad \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq M_1 |x_1 - x_2|$$

$$g \in R(\alpha_2), \quad \left| \int_a^b g(x) dx \right| \leq M_2 |x_1 - x_2|$$