

Welcome to
MATH 400 Real Analysis.

PART #1

We are concerned about

→ What is a real number?

→ How do we find the limit of a sequence of numbers?

→ Can we add infinitely many real numbers together and still get a finite number?

→ Can we rearrange the elements of an infinite sum, and still have the same sum?

→ What is a function?

What does it mean for a function to be continuous?
differentiable? integrable? bounded?

Limitations of Calculus

① Division by zero

Cancellation law $ac = bc \Rightarrow a = b$ does not work
when $c = 0$

But often times such division by zero can be hidden.

In calculus, we have to be careful about defining functions and limits when a denominator could become zero (or "close" to zero).

② Divergent Series

Recall $S = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$

then using the trick $2S = 2 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$

$$= 2 + S$$

& hence $S = 2$

Apply the same trick to the series

$$S = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{2S} = 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + \dots = \underline{S - 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{S = -1}$$

Another example: $S = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots$

$$\underline{S} = (1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + \dots = 0 + 0 + 0 + \dots = 0$$

$$\underline{S} = 1 - (1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots) = \underline{1 - S}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{S = \frac{1}{2}} \quad \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} = 0 \text{??}$$

③ Divergent sequences

Let r be a fixed real number.

$$\text{Let } L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n$$

Changing variables $n = m+1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{L} &= \lim_{m+1 \rightarrow \infty} r^{m+1} = \lim_{m+1 \rightarrow \infty} r \cdot r^m = r \lim_{m+1 \rightarrow \infty} r^m \\ &= r \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} r^m = r \underline{L} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow rL = L$$

\Rightarrow either $r=1$ or $L=0$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$ if $r \neq 1$??

What if $r=20$?

④ Limiting values of functions

Recall $\sin(y+\pi) = -\sin(y)$

So, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x) = \lim_{y+\pi \rightarrow \infty} \sin(y+\pi) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} (-\sin(y)) = -\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \sin(y)$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x) = -\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x)$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x) = 0$

Recall $\sin(z + \frac{\pi}{2}) = \cos(z)$

So, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \cos(z)$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \cos(x) = 0$

$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sin^2(x) + \cos^2(x)) = 0^2 + 0^2 = 0$

$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1 \quad \forall x \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$

BUT !!

$0 = 1 \quad ???$

⑤ Interchanging Sums

Take a matrix of numbers, e.g.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

& compute the sums of all rows and all columns & then total those.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 6 \\ 15 \\ 24 \\ 12 & 15 & 18 & 45 \end{matrix}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}$$

But what about $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} \quad ?$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \dots \end{matrix}$$

$$1 = 0 \quad ? \quad ?$$

⑥ Interchanging integrals

Recall computing volume under a surface $z = f(x, y)$

By slicing parallel to x -axis for each fixed value of y , we compute the area $\int f(x, y) dx$ & then integrate that area in y to get: Volume = $\int \int f(x, y) dx dy$))

By slicing parallel to y -axis: Volume = $\int \int f(x, y) dy dx$

Can we always interchange integrals?

$$\rightarrow \int_0^1 (e^{-xy} - xy e^{-xy}) dy = y e^{-xy} \Big|_{y=0}^{y=1} = e^{-x}$$

gives us

$$\rightarrow \text{and } \int_0^{\infty} (e^{-xy} - xy e^{-xy}) dx = x e^{-xy} \Big|_{x=0}^{x=\infty} = 0$$

$$\textcircled{1} \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^1 (e^{-xy} - xy e^{-xy}) dy dx = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = -e^{-x} \Big|_0^{\infty} = 1$$
$$\textcircled{2} \int_0^1 \int_0^{\infty} (e^{-xy} - xy e^{-xy}) dx dy = \int_0^1 0 dx = 0$$

) $1 = 0 ??$

⑦ Interchanging Limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Note \rightarrow $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 0^2} = 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \underline{1}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{0^2}{0^2 + y^2} = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} = 0$$

$$0 = 1 \quad ? \quad ?$$

⑧ Interchanging limits and integrals

For any $y \in \mathbb{R}$,
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+(x-y)^2} dx = \arctan(x-y) \Big|_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \pi$$

Taking limits as $y \rightarrow \infty$, we get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+(x-y)^2} dx = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+(x-y)^2} dx = \pi$$

But for every x ,
$$\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+(x-y)^2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+(x-y)^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0 dx = 0$$

$$\pi = 0??$$

⑨ L' Hopital's Rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

if $f(x) \& g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow x_0$

e.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 \sin(x^{-4})}{x}$

==

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin(x^{-4})$$

$$= 0$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x \sin(x^{-4}) - 4x^{-3} \cos(x^{-4})}{1}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2x \sin(x^{-4}) - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{4 \cos(x^{-4})}{x^3}$$

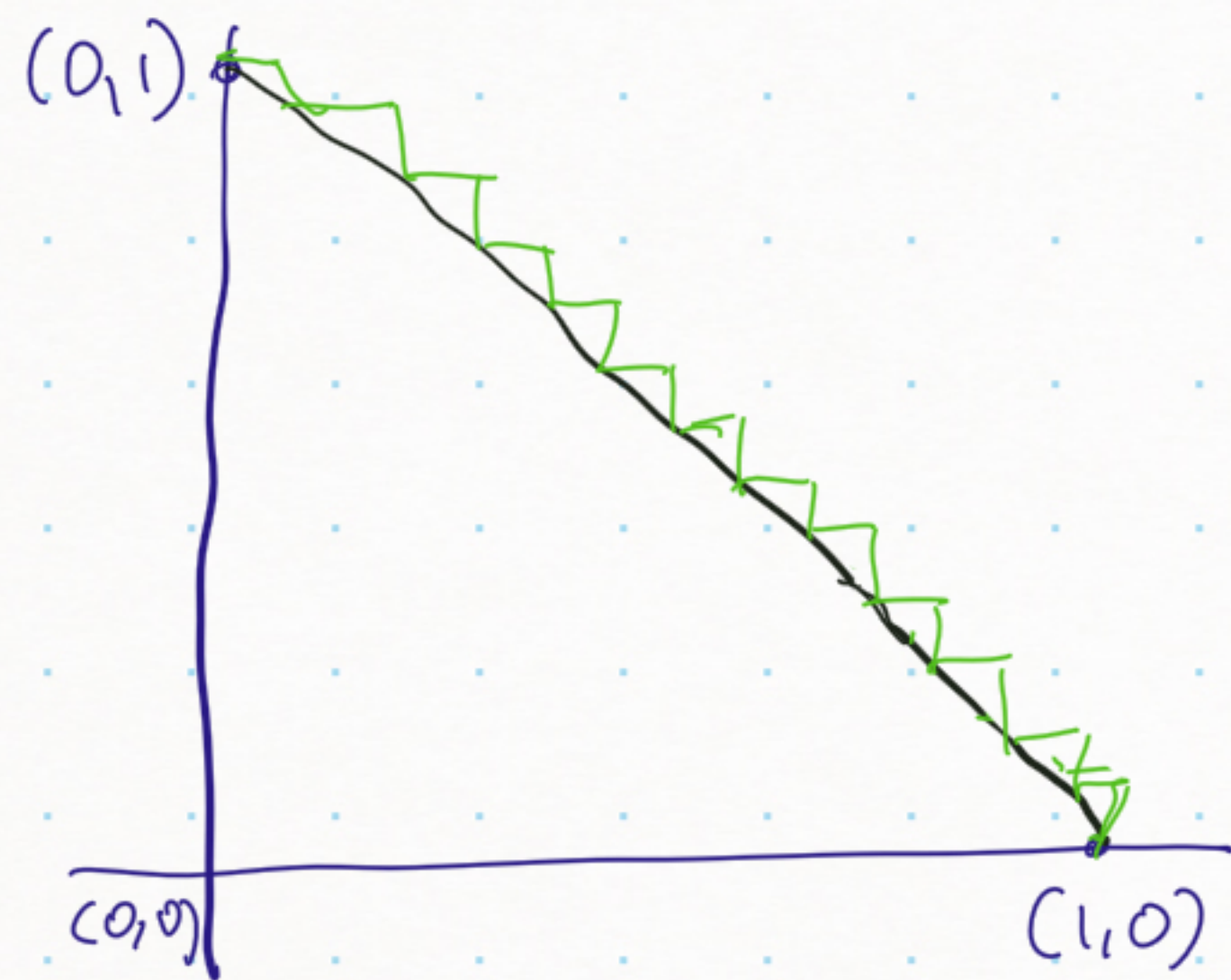
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by squeeze test
(try it!)

↓
Divergent

is divergent

(10) Limits and Lengths



What is the length of the hypotenuse?

Pick a large N and approximate the hypotenuse by a "staircase" of N horizontal edges & N vertical edges of the same length ($= \frac{1}{N}$)

\therefore Total length of the staircase $= 2 \left(\frac{1}{N} \right) (N)$

As $N \rightarrow \infty$, "staircase" becomes closer & closer to the hypotenuse, so length of the hypotenuse

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(2 \frac{1}{N} N \right) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} 2 = 2$$

By Pythagoras, $\sqrt{2}$

$2 = \sqrt{2} ??$

MATH 400 Real Analysis

PART #2

"Natural numbers are the work
of God. All the rest is the work
of mankind" — Kronecker (1823-1891)

$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ sometimes $\cup 0$

\mathbb{Z} as solutions to $x+k=0, k \in \mathbb{N}$

\mathbb{Q} as solutions to $k_1x+k_2=0, k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

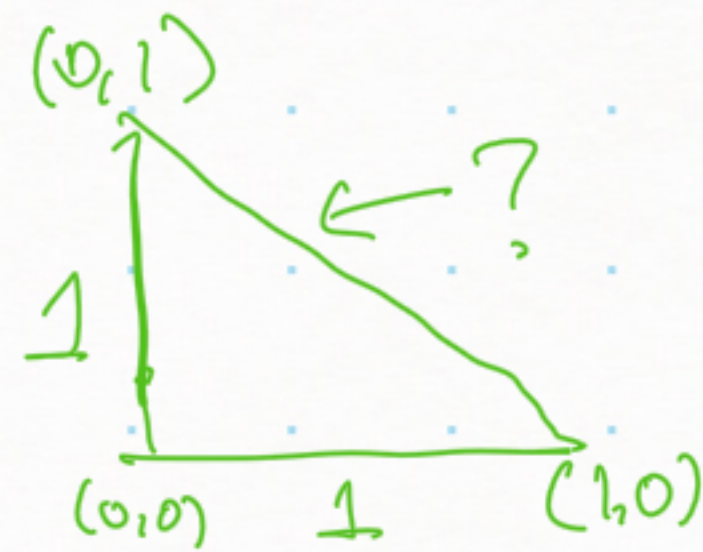
\mathbb{R} as ??

$\mathbb{C} = \{x_1 + ix_2 \mid x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}\}$

arose out of attempts to derive solutions
to equations such as $x^2+1=0$, etc.

[But there is more than that in \mathbb{C}]

Is \mathbb{R} the same as \mathbb{Q} ?



Thm There is no solution in \mathbb{Q} for the equation $x^2=2$

There is no rational number whose square is 2.

Proof For contradiction, assume $\exists p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $(\frac{p}{q})^2 = 2$

we may assume that p & q have no common factor. & write the fraction in lowest terms.

$$p^2 = 2q^2 \Rightarrow p^2 \text{ is even} \Rightarrow p \text{ is even}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 \mid p$$

$$\Rightarrow p = 2k$$

$$\begin{cases} p = 2k+1 \\ p^2 = (2k+1)^2 \\ = 4k^2 + 1 + 4k \\ = 2(2k^2 + 2k + 1) \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow (2k)^2 = 2q^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 4k^2 = 2q^2$$

$$\Rightarrow q^2 = 2k^2 \Rightarrow q^2 \text{ is even}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 \mid q$$

q is even

p & q

have a common factor

~~⊗~~

\mathbb{N} allows addition but no subtraction

\mathbb{Z} allows addition & subtraction and multiplication but no division

\mathbb{Q} allows addition & subtr. and mult. & division.

- ?
- ✓ closed under the op.
 - ✓ additive id. & additive inverses
 - ✓ multiplicative id. & mult. inverses
 - ✓ commutative $xy = yx$ $x+y = y+x$
 - ✓ associative $(xy)z = x(yz)$
 - ✓ distributive $a(b+c) = ab+ac$

Field

\mathbb{Q} also has a natural order on it : $x, s \in \mathbb{Q} \Rightarrow$ exactly one of following is true.

$$x < s,$$

$$x = s$$

$$x > s.$$

Plus $x < s, s < t \Rightarrow x < t$
Transitive property.

$\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$ all have a natural order

\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z} are not fields but \mathbb{Q} is a field

\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z} have intervals of gaps, but \mathbb{Q} is dense

Given any two $r < s \in \mathbb{Q}$,
there is a $t \in \mathbb{Q}$ s.t. $r < t < s$
 \parallel
 $\frac{r+s}{2}$

So what does \mathbb{Q} lack?

It has lots of holes like $\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \dots$

Although note that we can approximate these irrational numbers quite well using rationals

$$\text{e.g. } (1.41)^2 = 1.9881$$

$$(1.414)^2 = 1.999396$$

• • • • •

closer & closer to " $\sqrt{2}$ "

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Real Analysis

PART #3

Review notation & Terminology from Section 1.2

→ Induction example 1.2.7

→ Sets examples 1.2.1 & 1.2.2

$$A \cup B, A \cap B, A^c$$

$$A \subseteq B$$

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$

De Morgan's Laws

$$\textcircled{1} (A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$$

$$\textcircled{2} (A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$$

Functions

(Dirichlet 1830s)

Domain

co Domain

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x & \mapsto & f(x) \\ \in A & & \in B \end{array}$$

$$\text{Range}(f) = \left\{ y \in B \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in A \right\}$$

Beyond the notion of "f is a formula / expression"

example (Dirichlet 1829)

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

$$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Range}(g) = \{0, 1\}$$

A special function

Absolute value function

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

Properties

① $|ab| = |a||b|$

② Triangle Inequality

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

Corollary Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

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

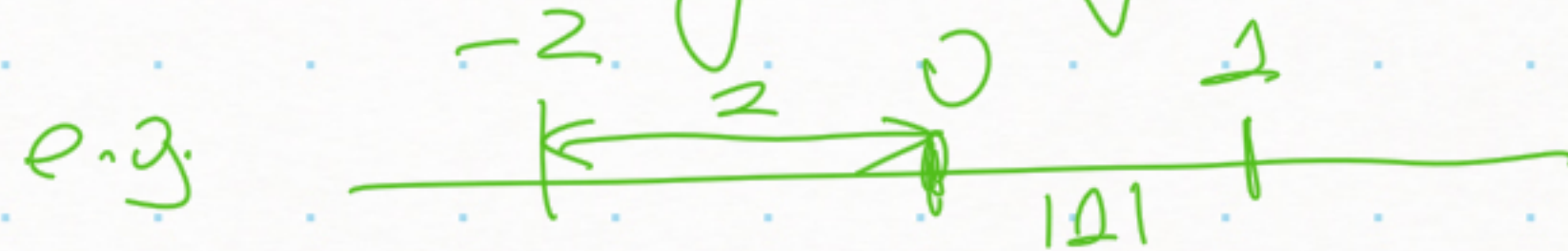
Pr. $|a-b| = |(a-c) + (c-b)|$
 $\leq |a-c| + |c-b|$



$$|\cdot| : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{non-negative} \\ \text{reals} \end{array} \right\}$$

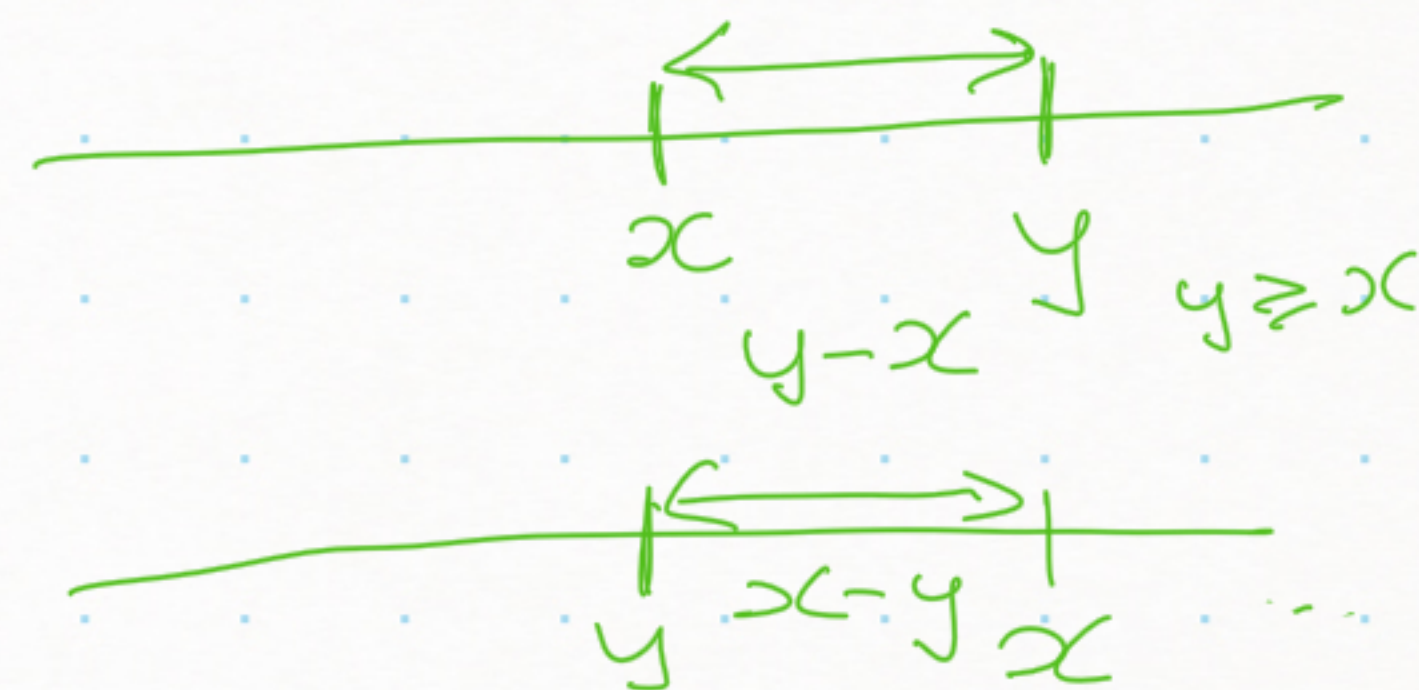
positive reals
 $= \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \geq 0\}$

distance of x from 0



distance between x & y

$$|d(x, y)| = |x - y| \quad \star$$



An example of a "Real Analysis - type" proof

Thm Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

$a = b$ if and only if $|a - b| < \epsilon \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$

Two real numbers a & b are equal if for every real number $\epsilon > 0$ we have $|a - b| < \epsilon$

Proof \Rightarrow Assume $a = b$
 $|a - b| = 0 < \epsilon$ for every $\epsilon > 0$.

\Leftarrow $|a - b| < \epsilon \quad \forall \epsilon > 0 \Rightarrow a = b$

Contrapositive $a \neq b \Rightarrow \exists \epsilon_0 > 0$ s.t. $|a - b| \geq \epsilon_0$

Let $\epsilon_0 = |a - b| > 0$ (which is positive since $a \neq b$)

$\Rightarrow |a - b| \geq \epsilon_0$ ✓

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 1 &= 0.999\dots \\ \epsilon &= 0.00001 \\ |1 - 0.999\dots| &= 0.00000\dots \\ &< 0.0001 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Sketch
define $\epsilon_0 > 0$
using a, b
& compare it
to $|a - b|$
 $|a - b| \neq 0$
 $|a - b| > 0$

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Real Analysis

PART #4

Recall, we think of \mathbb{R} as an extension of \mathbb{Q} in which there are no "holes" (like $\sqrt{2}$); every length along the number line corresponds to a real number.

More formally

\mathbb{R} is a complete ordered field which contains \mathbb{Q}

Field

addition, multiplication, inverses under both, 0 & 1,
commutative, associative, distributive.

Ordered

For $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\rightarrow x < y \text{ or } x = y \text{ or } x > y$$

$$\rightarrow x \leq y \text{ \& } y \leq x \Rightarrow x = y$$

$$\rightarrow x \leq y \text{ \& } y \leq z \Rightarrow x \leq z$$

$$\rightarrow x \leq y \Rightarrow x + z \leq y + z$$

$$\rightarrow x \geq 0 \text{ \& } y \geq 0 \Rightarrow xy \geq 0$$

↑
There is a
notion of positive
numbers

Complete

Satisfies

"Axiom" of completeness

Every non empty set of real numbers
that is bounded above has a
least upper bound.



Defn $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is bounded above if $\exists b \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $a \leq b \forall a \in A$

$A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is bounded below if $\exists l \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $l \leq a \forall a \in A$

There exists

Defn $s \in \mathbb{R}$ is the least upper bound (also called supremum) for a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ if

- (i) s is an upper bound for A
- (ii) If b is any upper bound for A then $s \leq b$

We write $s = \sup A$

Similarly, greatest lower bound
infimum. $t = \inf A$

Observation A set can only have one supremum
 If $s_1 = \sup A$ & $s_2 = \sup A$ then $\underline{s_1 \leq s_2}$ (by prop (i) of s_2)
 $\underline{s_2 \leq s_1}$ (by prop (ii) of s_1)
 so, $s_1 = s_2$

Example $A = \{ \frac{1}{n} ; n \in \mathbb{N} \} = \{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots \}$

$\sup A = 1$

(i) $\frac{1}{n} \leq 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
 (ii) consider $b < 1$, then b is not an upper bound because $\frac{1}{\epsilon A} > b$.
 $\therefore 1$ least upper bd.

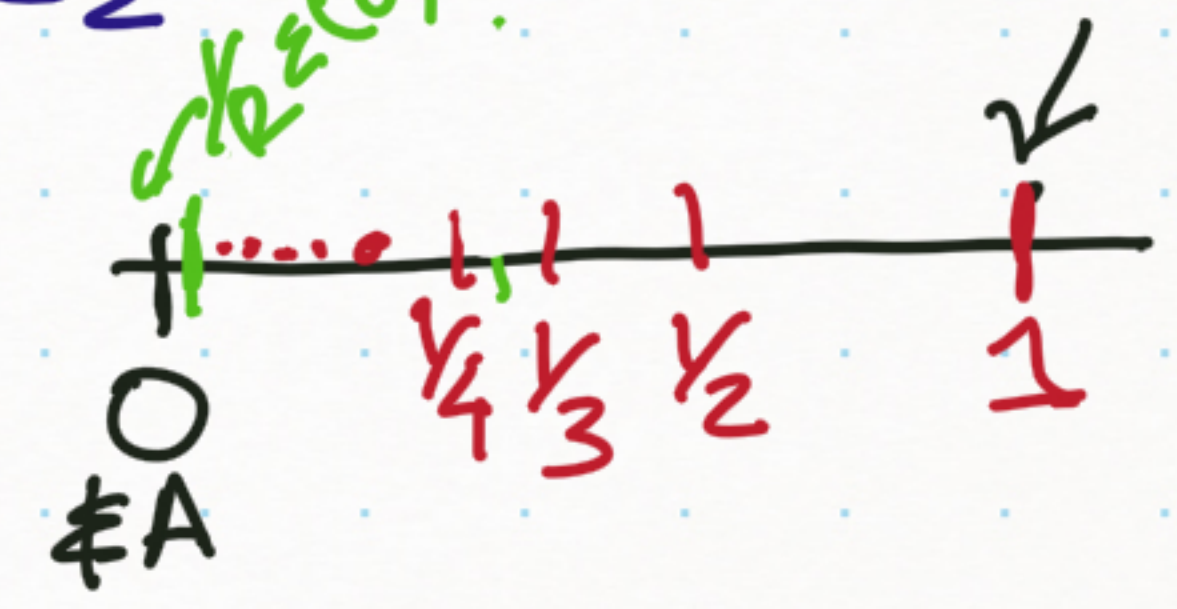
$\inf A = ?$

Observation A set can only have one supremum

If $s_1 = \sup A$ & $s_2 = \sup A$ then $s_1 \leq s_2$ (by prop (ii) of s_1)
 $s_2 \leq s_1$ (by prop (ii) of s_2)

so, $s_1 = s_2$

Example $A = \{ \frac{1}{n} ; n \in \mathbb{N} \} = \{ 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots \}$



$\sup A = 1$

$\inf A = 0$

(i) $0 \leq a$ for every $a \in A$ (lower bound)
 (ii) It is not possible for $\alpha > 0$ to be a lower bd. of A .
 α is not a lower bd of A

What about $\frac{1}{\alpha}$?
 $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $k > \frac{1}{\alpha}$

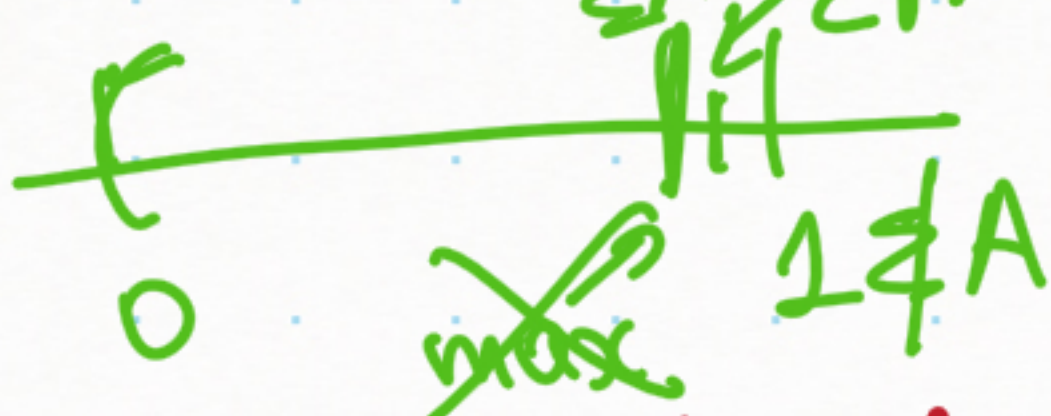
$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{k} < \alpha$
 $\in A$
 so

Defn $a_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is a maximum of $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ if $a_0 \in A$
and $a_0 \geq a \forall a \in A$

$a_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ is a minimum of $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ if $a_1 \in A$
and $a_1 \leq a \forall a \in A$

e.g. $[0, 1] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$ $\max = 1 = \sup$
 $\min = 0 = \inf$

$(0, 1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < x < 1\}$ \max does not exist $\sup = 1$
 \min does not exist $\inf = 0$



Although not every nonempty bounded set contains \max ,
Axiom of completeness tells us that it will always have a sup.
in \mathbb{R}

But what about \mathbb{Q} ?

$$\sqrt{2} = 1.4142\dots$$

example in \mathbb{Q} $S = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} : q^2 < 2\}$

Is S bounded above? **Yes** $10, 5, 2, 3/2 \dots$

Does S have a supremum in \mathbb{Q} ? **No. Why?**

Does S have a supremum in \mathbb{R} ? **Yes** $\sqrt{2}$

Thm There exists a unique complete ordered field.

We call this field \mathbb{R} .

Try to prove: Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be nonempty & bounded above.

(Example 1.3.7)

Let $s = \sup A$.

Define $c+A = \{c+a \mid a \in A\}$

Prove that $\sup(c+A) = c+s$.

upper bound
of $c+A$?



least upper bound
of $c+A$?



Alternate way of thinking about "sup A is the least upper bound"

Lemma Let $s \in \mathbb{R}$ be an upper bound for $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Then, $s = \sup A \iff$ For each $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists a \in A$ s.t. $s - \epsilon < a$

any number smaller than s
is not an upper bd. of A

$\boxed{\Rightarrow}$ $s = \sup A$

$$s - \epsilon < s$$

$\Rightarrow s - \epsilon$ is not an upper bound of A

since s is the least u. b. of A (prop. (ii) of $s = \sup A$)

$\Rightarrow \exists a \in A$ s.t. $s - \epsilon < a$
not an u. b.

Alternate way of thinking about "sup A is the least upper bound"

Lemma Let $s \in \mathbb{R}$ be an upper bound for $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Then, $s = \sup A \iff$ For each $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists a \in A$ s.t. $s - \epsilon < a$

 verify property (ii) of defn. of $s = \sup A$

if b is any number less than s
then claim b is not an upper bound

$$\iff \exists a \in A \text{ s.t. } b < a$$

$$\implies \text{Take } \underline{\epsilon = s - b} > 0$$

apply $\textcircled{*}$, $\exists a \in A$ s.t. $s - (s - b) < a$

$\iff b < a$.
 b is not an u.b.