

# Mathematical Analysis I: Lecture 10

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Start recording...

- Today: Apostol Vol 1, Chapter 3.1-4.

# Decimal representation of real numbers

Now that we have defined convergence of sequences, we can make sense of all decimal representations as real numbers.

## Theorem

*Let  $a_n \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and  $0 \leq a_n \leq 9$ . Then  $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k 10^{-k}$  converges to a real number.*

## Proof.

Let  $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k 10^{-k}$ . This is nondecreasing and bounded above by  $a_0 + 1$ . By Lemma of Monday, this converges to a real number.  $\square$

When the sequence converges, it converges to only one number. In this way, we can say that a decimal representation  $a_0.a_1a_2a_3\cdots$  defines a real number.

# Decimal representation of real numbers

Now we can prove that any repeating decimal representation gives a rational number. For example consider  $0.123123123\cdots$ . This can be written as

$$0.1 + 0.02 + 0.003 + 0.0001 + 0.00002 + 0.000003 + \cdots = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k 10^{-k},$$

where  $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 3, a_4 = 1, a_5 = 2, a_6 = 3, \cdots$ . It is easy to see that this is equal to

$0.123 + 0.000123 + \cdots = \sum_{k=1}^n (100a_{3k+1} + 10a_{3k+2} + a_{3k+3})1000^{-k}$ . We know that this sum converges and compute

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n (100a_{3k+1} + 10a_{3k+2} + a_{3k+3})1000^{-k} &= 123 \sum_{k=1}^n 1000^{-k} \\ &\rightarrow 123 \frac{1000^{-1}}{1 - 1000^{-1}} = \frac{123}{999}. \end{aligned}$$

# Decimal representation of real numbers

## Theorem

*Any real number given by a repeating decimal representation is rational.*

## Proof.

Indeed, let us take a repeating sequence  $0 \leq a_n \leq 9$  as above. That is, there is  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{n+m} = a_m$ . Then, for  $j, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=0}^{j\ell} a_k &= a_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} 10^{-jm} \sum_{k=1}^m a_k 10^{m-k} \\ &= a_0 + \left( \sum_{k=1}^m a_k 10^{m-k} \right) \frac{10^{-m}(1 - 10^{-j\ell})}{1 - 10^{-m}} \\ &\rightarrow a_0 + \left( \sum_{k=1}^m a_k 10^{m-k} \right) \frac{10^{-m}}{1 - 10^{-m}} = a_0 + \left( \sum_{k=1}^m a_k 10^{m-k} \right) \frac{1}{10^m - 1}\end{aligned}$$

as  $\ell \rightarrow \infty$ . The last expression is evidently rational. □

# Continuity of functions

Let us go back to studying functions. Among functions, we saw the sign function

$$\text{sign } x := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

and its graph has a “jump” at  $x = 0$ .

Intuitively, the “jump” means that, the value at  $x = 0$  is 0, but if one approaches to 0 from the right, the value of the function remains 1, while it is  $-1$  from the left.

# Continuity of functions

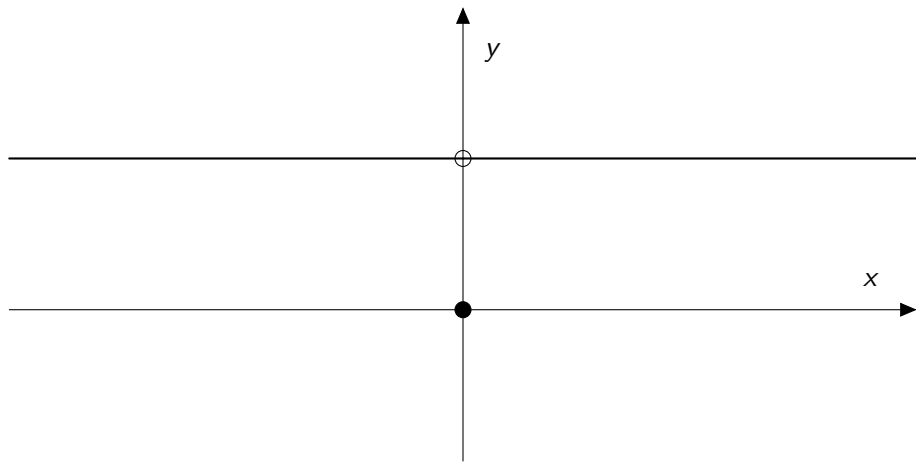


Figure: The graph of  $y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ .

# Continuity of functions

Let us make this precise.

## Definition

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $S$  (the domain), and let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  such that there is a sequence  $x_n \in S, x_n \neq a$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow a$ . We write

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

if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  for any  $x \neq a, |x - a| < \delta$ .



# Continuity of functions

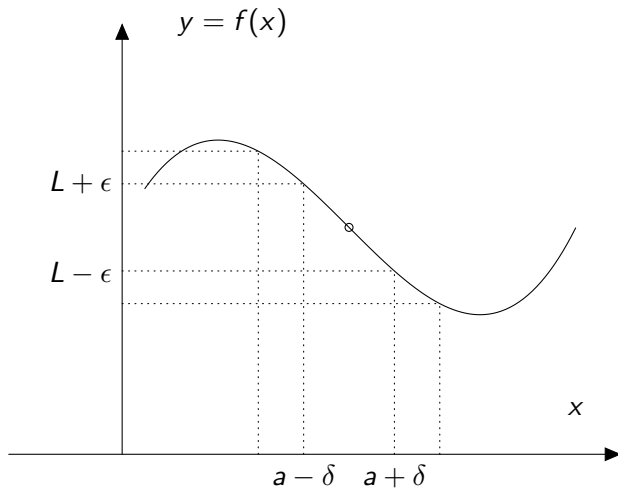


Figure: The limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .

# Continuity of functions

## Example

Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ .

- Consider  $a = 2$ . Then, for any  $\epsilon$ , we can take  $\delta = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $|f(x) - 1| = |1 - 1| = 0$  for any  $x \in (2 - \delta, 2 + \delta) = (\frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2})$ .  
Therefore,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 1$ . A similar situation holds for any  $x \neq 0$ .
- Consider  $a = 0$ . Then, for any  $x \neq 0$ ,  $f(x) = 1$ , hence again we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1$ , although  $f(0) = 0$  by definition.
- For the function  $\text{sign } x$ , there is no limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  at  $x = 0$ .

# Continuity of functions

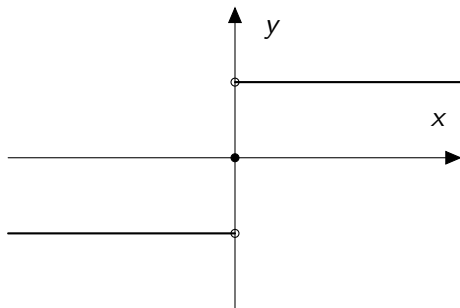


Figure: The graph of  $y = \text{sign } x$ , with a “jump” at  $x = 0$ .

# Continuity of functions

The limit makes precise the concept of “approaching a point”. The absence of “jump” can also be formalized using limit.

## Definition

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $S$  (the domain), and let  $a \in S$  (this time  $a$  is in the domain) such that there is a sequence  $x_n \in S, x_n \neq a$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow a$ . We say that  $f$  is continuous at  $a$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ . We say that  $f$  is continuous on  $S$  if it is continuous at each point in  $S$ .

# Continuity of functions

Now we can understand the “jumps” in terms of limit and continuity.

## Example

- The function  $\text{sign } x$  is not continuous at  $x = 0$ , because it does not have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \text{sign } x$ .
- The function  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$  is not continuous at  $x = 0$ , because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1 \neq 0 = f(0)$ .
- The function  $f(x) = c$  is continuous. Indeed, let us fix  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . For any  $\epsilon$ ,  $|f(x) - c| = |c - c| = 0 < \epsilon$ , hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = c = f(a)$ .
- The function  $f(x) = x$  is continuous. Indeed, let us fix  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then, for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , we take  $\delta = \epsilon$  and for  $|h| < \delta = \epsilon$  it holds that  $|f(a + h) - a| = |a + h - a| = |h| < \delta = \epsilon$ , therefore,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = a = f(a)$ .

# Continuity of functions

## Theorem

Let  $f, g$  be functions defined on  $S$ , and let  $a$  such that there is  $\{x_n\} \subset S$ ,  $x_n \rightarrow a$ . Assume that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ . Then

- There is  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $|x - a| < \delta$ ,  $x \neq a$  then  $|g(x)| \leq |M| + 1$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)g(x)) = LM$ .
- If  $M \neq 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}$ .

Furthermore, if  $a \in S$  and if  $f, g$  are continuous at  $a$ , then  $f + g, fg$  are continuous at  $a$ . If  $g(a) \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{f}{g}$  is continuous at  $a$ .

# Continuity of functions

## Proof.

The proof is similar to that of Theorem for sequences.

- Let  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|g(x) - M| < 1$  for  $x$  such that  $|x - a| < \delta, x \neq a$ . Then  $|g(x)| < |M| + 1$ .
- For a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, |g(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for  $|x - a| < \delta, x \neq a$ . Then  $|f(x) + g(x) - L - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$ .

For the product, for a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta > 0$  such that

$|f(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(|M|+1)}, |g(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(|L|+1)}$  and  $|g(x)| < |M| + 1$  for  $|x - a| < \delta, x \neq a$ . Then  $|f(x)g(x) - LM| =$

$|f(x) - L||g(x)| + |g(x) - M||L| < \frac{\epsilon(|M|+1)}{2(|M|+1)} + \frac{\epsilon|L|}{2(|L|+1)} < \epsilon$ , which shows the desired limit.

# Continuity of functions

## Proof.

- We show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{g(x)} = \frac{1}{M}$ . Then the general case follows from this and the limit of product. Assume  $M \neq 0$ , and let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|g(x) - M| < \frac{|M|}{2}$  for  $x \neq a, |x - a| < \delta$  and hence  $|g(x)| > \frac{|M|}{2}$ , in particular  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Now, there is  $\tilde{\delta} > 0, \tilde{\delta} < \delta$  such that for  $x \neq a, |x - a| < \tilde{\delta}$  it holds that  $|g(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon M^2}{2}$ . Then

$$\left| \frac{1}{g(x)} - \frac{1}{M} \right| = \frac{|M - g(x)|}{|M||g(x)|} < \frac{\frac{\epsilon M^2}{2}}{\frac{M^2}{2}} = \epsilon,$$

which shows the desired limit.

If  $f, g$  are continuous, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a), \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = g(a)$ , hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = f(a) + g(a), \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = f(a)g(a), \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(a)}{g(a)}$ .





# Continuity of functions

From this, we know that

- If  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x^1 + \cdots a_nx^n$  (a polynomial), then  $f$  is continuous.  
 $f(x) = x^2, f(x) = x^5 + 34x^3 - 454\ldots$
- If  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  and  $P(x), Q(x)$  are polynomial, then  $f$  is continuous at  $x$  if  $Q(x) \neq 0$ .  $f(x) = \frac{x-2}{x^2}$  is continuous on  $x \neq 0$  (actually defined on  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \neq 0\}$ ),  $f(x) = \frac{x^3}{x^2-1} = \frac{x^3}{(x-1)(x+1)}$  is continuous on  $x \neq -1, 1$ .

- Let  $x = 0.12341234 \dots$ . Represent  $x$  as a rational number.
- Compute  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2$ .
- Compute  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x+2}{x-3}$ .
- Compute  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} \frac{x^2+3x+2}{x^2-1}$ .
- Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$ . Is  $f$  continuous or not? If not, where is it not continuous?
- Let  $f(x) = \frac{x^2+3x+2}{x^2-1}$ . Is  $f$  continuous or not? If not, where is it not continuous?