
Real Analysis:
Basic Concepts

1. Norm and Distance

- Recall that \mathfrak{R}^n is the set of all n -vectors $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, where each x_i is a real number for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
 - The (Euclidean) **norm** of a vector $x \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ is denoted by $\|x\|$ and defined by

$$\|x\| = (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

- **Properties of Norm:**

- (1) $\|x\| \geq 0$, and $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$;
- (2) $\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \cdot \|x\|$;
- (3) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$ (Triangle Inequality);
- (4) $|xy| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$ (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality).

- **Distance (or Metric):** For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the distance between x and y , denoted by $d(x, y)$, is

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|.$$

- Note that $d(x, 0) = \|x\|$. So norm of x can be interpreted as the distance of x from the 0 vector.

- **Properties of Distance:**

- (1) $d(x, y) \geq 0$, and $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$;
- (2) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$;
- (3) $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$.

2. Sequences and Limits

• **Sequence:** A *sequence of real numbers* is an assignment of a real number to each natural number.

– The notation $\{x_n\}$ means the sequence whose n -th term is x_n .

• **Examples:**

(a) $\{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$,

(b) $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$,

(c) $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, 4, \frac{1}{8}, 16, \dots\}$,

(d) $\{0, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \dots\}$,

(e) $\{-1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$,

(f) $\{\frac{2}{1}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{5}{4}, \dots\}$.

- **Limit of a Sequence:**

Let $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ be a sequence of real numbers. A real number x is called the limit of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ if given any real number $\epsilon > 0$, there is a positive integer N such that $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$.

- If the sequence $\{x_n\}$ has a limit, we call the sequence *convergent*.
- If x is a limit of the sequence $\{x_n\}$, we say that *the sequence converges to x* and write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x, \text{ or simply } x_n \rightarrow x.$$

- **Examples:** Here are three sequences which converge to 0:

(1) $\{1, 0, \frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{3}, 0, \frac{1}{4}, 0, \dots\}$,

(2) $\{1, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$,

(3) $\{1, \frac{3}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots\}$.

- **Limit Point (or Accumulation Point or Cluster Point):**

If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of real numbers and x is a real number, we say x is a *limit point* (or *accumulation point* or *cluster point*) of the sequence if given any real number $\epsilon > 0$, there are infinitely many elements x_n of the sequence such that $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$.

- A limit is a special case of a limit point.
- A sequence can have a number of different limit points, but only one limit.

- **Theorem 1:**

A sequence can have at most one limit.

- Proof: To be discussed in class.

- Proofs of most theorems on sequences and their limits require the triangle inequality:

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|, \text{ for any } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

or the subtraction variant of the triangle inequality:

$$\|x - y\| \geq \left| \|x\| - \|y\| \right|, \text{ for any } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- For proofs refer to Theorems 10.5 and 10.6 (page 219) of the textbook.

- **Theorem 2:**

Let $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ be sequences with limits x and y , respectively. Then the sequence $\{x_n + y_n\}$ converges to the limit $x + y$.

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

- **Theorem 3:**

Let $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ be sequences with limits x and y , respectively. Then the sequence $\{x_n y_n\}$ converges to the limit xy .

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

- **Theorem 4:**

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a convergent sequence with limit x and b be a real number.

(a) If $x_n \leq b$ for all n , then $x \leq b$.

(b) If $x_n \geq b$ for all n , then $x \geq b$.

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

3. Sequences and Limits in \mathfrak{R}^n

- A sequence in \mathfrak{R}^n is an assignment of a vector in \mathfrak{R}^n to each natural number.

- **Open Ball:**

Let $\bar{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ and ϵ be a positive number. An open ball (with centre \bar{x} and radius ϵ) in \mathfrak{R}^n is

$$B_\epsilon(\bar{x}) = \{x \in \mathfrak{R}^n : \|x - \bar{x}\| < \epsilon\}.$$

- Intuitively, a vector y in \mathfrak{R}^n is close to \bar{x} if y is in some $B_\epsilon(\bar{x})$ for a small but positive ϵ . The smaller ϵ is, the closer y is to \bar{x} .
- A sequence of vectors in \mathfrak{R}^n , $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$, is said to **converge** to the vector x if given any real number $\epsilon > 0$, there is a positive integer N such that $\|x_n - x\| < \epsilon$ whenever $n \geq N$.
 - That is, $x_n \in B_\epsilon(x)$ for all $n \geq N$.
 - The vector x is called the **limit** of the sequence.

- **Theorem 5:**

A sequence of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n converges if and only if all n sequences of its components converge in \mathbb{R}^1 .

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

– Theorem 5 enables us to apply the results on sequences in \mathbb{R}^1 to sequences in \mathbb{R}^n .

- **Theorem 6:**

Let $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ be convergent sequences of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n with limits x and y , respectively; and let $\{c_n\}$ be a convergent sequence of real numbers with limit c . Then the sequence $\{c_n x_n + y_n\}$ converges to the limit $cx + y$.

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

- **Limit Point (or Accumulation Point or Cluster Point):**

The vector x in \mathbb{R}^n is a *limit point* (or *accumulation point* or *cluster point*) of the sequence of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , $\{x_n\}$, if given any real number $\epsilon > 0$, there are infinitely many elements x_n of the sequence such that $\|x_n - x\| < \epsilon$.

– The uniqueness of limits in \mathbb{R}^n follows directly from Theorems 1 and 5.

- **Subsequence:**

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and $\{n_r\}$ be a *strictly increasing* sequence of natural numbers. Then the sequence $\{x_{n_r}\}$ is called a *subsequence* of the sequence $\{x_n\}$.

- **Examples:** Consider the sequence $\left\{ \frac{1}{1}, \frac{3}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots \right\}$.

#1. Explain whether each of the following sets is a subsequence of this sequence:

(a) $\left\{ \frac{1}{1}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots \right\}$,

(b) $\left\{ \frac{3}{1}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{3} \right\}$,

(c) $\left\{ \frac{1}{1}, \frac{2}{1}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots \right\}$.

- If a sequence has a limit point, it may nonetheless have no limit.

- However, if a sequence has a limit point, then there exists a subsequence that converges to this limit point.

4. Open Sets

- A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is *open* (in \mathbb{R}^n) if for every $x \in S$, there exists an open ball (with centre x and radius $\epsilon > 0$) in \mathbb{R}^n which is completely contained in S .
 - That is, $x \in S \Rightarrow$ there is an $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_\epsilon(x) \subset S$.
 - If $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, an open set S containing x is called an **open neighbourhood** of x .
 - Thus, an open ball (with centre x and radius $\epsilon > 0$) in \mathbb{R}^n is an open neighbourhood of x .
 - The word “open” has a connotation of “no boundary”: from any point in the set one can always move a little distance in *any* direction and still be in the set.
 - Consequently, open sets cannot contain their “boundary points”.
- #2. Example: Use the definition to show that the open interval $(1, 2) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 1 < x < 2\}$ is an open set.

- In discussing the concept of an open set, it is important to specify the *space* in which we are considering the set.
 - For example, the set $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 < x < 1\}$ is open in \mathbb{R} . But the set $\{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 < x_1 < 1, x_2 = 0\}$ is *not open* in \mathbb{R}^2 , although, graphically, the two sets “look the same”.
- **Theorem 7:**
 - Open balls are open sets.*
 - Proof: To be discussed in class.
- **Theorem 8:**
 - (a) *Any union of open sets is open.*
 - (b) *The finite intersection of open sets is open.*
 - Proof: To be discussed in class.

- Note that the intersection of an *infinite* number of open sets need not be open.
 - For example, consider the open intervals $S_n = \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right)$ in \mathbb{R} .

Note that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n = \{0\}$, *not* an open set.

- **Interior of a Set:**

Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R}^n . The *interior* of S , denoted by $\text{int } S$, is the union of all open sets contained in S .

- By definition, the interior of a set can be considered as the largest open set which is contained in the given set.
- The interior of an open set S is the set S itself.

#3. Prove that the interior of an open set S is the set S itself.

5. Closed Sets

- A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is *closed* (in \mathbb{R}^n) if whenever $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence of points of S that is convergent in \mathbb{R}^n , we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \in S$.
 - Thus, if x is a given point and if there are points in a closed set S which are arbitrarily close to x , then x must be in S too.
 - Consequently, a closed set must contain all its “boundary points”, just the opposite of the situation with open sets.

#4. Example: Prove that the set

$$S = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 \geq 0, x_2 \geq 0, \text{ and } x_1^2 + x_2^2 \leq 1\}$$

is a closed set in \mathbb{R}^2 .

- **Complement of a Set:** If $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, the complement of S (in \mathbb{R}^n) is denoted S^c , and defined by $S^c = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \text{ is not in } S\}$.

- **Theorem 9:**

A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed (in \mathbb{R}^n) if and only if its complement, S^c , is open in \mathbb{R}^n .

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

- Using Theorem 9 together with Theorem 8, we obtain the next theorem simply by using set-theoretic complementation:
$$\left(\bigcup_i S_i \right)^c = \bigcap_i S_i^c.$$

- **Theorem 10:**

(a) *Any intersection of closed sets is closed.*

(b) *The finite union of closed sets is closed.*

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

– Just as arbitrary intersections of open sets need not be open, so too arbitrary unions of closed sets need not be closed.

- For example, consider the closed intervals

$$S_n = \left[-\frac{n}{n+1}, \frac{n}{n+1} \right] \text{ for } n \geq 1.$$

Note that $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} S_n = (-1, 1)$, an open interval.

• There are many sets which are *neither open nor closed* in \mathfrak{R}^n .

#5. Show that the half-open interval $(a, b]$ in \mathfrak{R} is neither open nor closed in \mathfrak{R} .

#6. Show that a line minus a point in a plane is neither open nor closed in the plane.

• There are only two sets which are *both open and closed* in \mathfrak{R}^n : \mathfrak{R}^n itself and the empty set.

- Consider an arbitrary set $A \subset \mathfrak{R}^n$ and an arbitrary point $x \in \mathfrak{R}^n$. Then one of the following three possibilities must hold:
 - (1) There is an open ball $B_\epsilon(x)$ such that $B_\epsilon(x) \subset A$.
 - These points $x \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ constitute the **interior** of A .
 - (2) There is an open ball $B_\epsilon(x)$ such that $B_\epsilon(x) \subset A^c$.
 - These points $x \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ constitute the **exterior** of A .
 - (3) For every $\epsilon > 0$, $B_\epsilon(x)$ contains points of both A and A^c .
 - These points $x \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ constitute the **boundary** of A .

6. Compact Sets

• **Bounded Set:** A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is *bounded* if it is contained in some open ball in \mathbb{R}^n .

#7. Show that the closed interval $[1, 3]$ is bounded in \mathbb{R} .

#8. Show that \mathbb{R}_+ , the set of non-negative real numbers, is not bounded in \mathbb{R} .

• **Alternative Characterizations of Bounded Sets:**

(A) Set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is *bounded* if there exists a real number B such that $\|x\| \leq B, \forall x \in S$.

#9. Prove that characterization (A) is equivalent to the definition of a bounded set.

(B) A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is *bounded* if there exists a positive real number b such that whenever $x \in S, |x_i| \leq b$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

#10. Prove that characterization (A) is equivalent to characterization (B).

\Rightarrow All these three characterizations are alternative ways to look at boundedness.

#11. Show that $S = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 \geq 0, x_2 \geq 0, \text{ and } px_1 + qx_2 \leq I, (p, q, I > 0)\}$ is bounded using all the three alternative characterizations.

- **Compact Set:** A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is *compact* if and only if it is both closed and bounded.
- **Examples:**
 - (1) $S_1 = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq x_1 \leq 1, 0 \leq x_2 \leq 1\}$ is a compact set.
 - (2) $S_2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq x_1 < 1, 0 \leq x_2 < 1\}$ is *not* a compact set as it is not closed.
 - (3) $S_3 = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq x_1 < 1, 0 \leq x_2\}$ is *not* a compact set as it is not bounded.
- An important feature of compact sets is that any sequence defined on a compact set must contain a subsequence that converges to a point in the set.
 - This important result is known as the **Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem**.
- **Theorem 11 (Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem):**

Let C be a compact subset in \mathbb{R}^n and let $\{x_n\}$ be any sequence in C . Then $\{x_n\}$ has a convergent subsequence whose limit lies in C .

 - Proof: The proof for compact subsets in \mathbb{R} will be discussed in class.

7. Continuous Functions

- **Functions:**

Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. A *function*, f , from A to \mathbb{R}^m (written $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$) is a rule which associates with each point in A a *unique* point in \mathbb{R}^m .

- A is called the *domain* of f .

- The set $f(A) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in A\}$ is the *range* or *image* of f .

- In the special case where $m = 1$, f is called a *real-valued* function.

- If $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a function, we can define $f^1(x)$ as the first component of the vector $f(x)$ for each $x \in A$.

- Then f^1 is a function from A to \mathbb{R} .

- Similarly, f^2, f^3, \dots, f^m can be defined.

- These real-valued functions are called the *component functions* of f .

- Conversely, if g^1, g^2, \dots, g^m are m real-valued functions on A , we can define

$$g(x) = (g^1(x), g^2(x), \dots, g^m(x)), \text{ for each } x \in A.$$

– Then g is a function from A to \mathfrak{R}^m .

- **Limit of a Function:**

Let $A \subset \mathfrak{R}^n$, $f: A \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^m$, and $x_0 \in A$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = y$$

means that whenever $\{x_n\}$ is sequence in A which converges to x_0 , the sequence $\{f(x_n)\}$ in \mathfrak{R}^m converges to y .

Alternative Definition:

Let $A \subset \mathfrak{R}^n$, $f: A \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}^m$, and $x_0 \in A$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = y$$

means that given any $\epsilon > 0$, there is a number $\delta > 0$, such that if $x \in A$, and $0 < \|x - x_0\| < \delta$, then $\|f(x) - y\| < \epsilon$.

- Example:

#12. Show by using both the definitions that for the real-valued function $f(x) = 2x$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ exists.

- The concept of limit of a function is silent about the behaviour of the function at the value x_0 .

– For example, consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x, & x \neq 1, \\ 3, & x = 1. \end{cases}$$

Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ exists.

- Continuity is distinct from the concept of limit in that the behaviour of the function at x_0 is also relevant.

- **Continuity of a Function:**

Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, and $x_0 \in A$. The function f is *continuous* at x_0 if whenever $\{x_n\}$ is sequence in A which converges to x_0 , then the sequence $\{f(x_n)\}$ in \mathbb{R}^m converges to $f(x_0)$.

- **Alternative Definition:**

Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, and $x_0 \in A$. The function f is *continuous* at x_0 if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there is a number $\delta > 0$, such that if $x \in A$, and $0 < \|x - x_0\| < \delta$, then $\|f(x) - f(x_0)\| < \epsilon$.

– The function f is said to be *continuous* on A if it is continuous at every point $x \in A$.

#13. Prove that the two alternative definitions of continuity are equivalent.

- **Properties of Continuous Functions:**

The sequential characterization of continuity is very helpful in proving that algebraic combinations of continuous functions are still continuous.

• **Theorem 12:**

- (a) Let f and g be functions from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m . Suppose f and g are continuous at x . Then $f + g$, $f - g$, and $f \cdot g$ are all continuous at x .
- (b) Let f and g be functions from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R} . Suppose f and g are continuous at x , and $g(x) \neq 0$. Then the quotient function $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at x .

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

• **Theorem 13:**

Let $f = (f^1, f^2, \dots, f^m)$ be a function from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m . Then f is continuous at x if and only if each of its component functions $f^i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at x .

– Proof: Homework!!

• **Theorem 14 (Weierstrass Theorem):**

Let C be a compact subset of \mathbb{R}^n and $f : C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous on C . Then there exists x_m and x_M in C such that $f(x_m) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_M)$ for all $x \in C$.

– Proof: To be discussed in class.

References

- Must read the following two chapters from the textbook:
 - Chapter 12 (pages 253 – 272): Limits and Open Sets;
 - Chapter 13 (pages 273 – 299): Functions of Several Variables.
- This material is standard in many texts on Real Analysis. You might consult
 1. Rudin, W., *Principles of Mathematical Analysis*, (chapters 2, 3, 4),
 2. Rosenlicht, M., *Introduction to Analysis*, (chapters 3, 4).
- Some of the material is also covered in
 3. Spivak, M., *Calculus on Manifolds*, (chapter 1).