

## Chapter 3 – Limit and Continuity

**Subject:** Real Analysis (Mathematics) **Level:** M.Sc.

**Source:** Syyed Gul Shah (Chairman, Department of Mathematics, US Sargodha)

**Collected & Composed by:** Atiq ur Rehman ([mathcity@gmail.com](mailto:mathcity@gmail.com)), <http://www.mathcity.org>

### ❖ Limit of the function

Suppose

(i)  $(X, d_x)$  and  $(Y, d_y)$  be two metric spaces

(ii)  $E \subset X$

(iii)  $f : E \rightarrow Y$  i.e.  $f$  maps  $E$  into  $Y$ .

(iv)  $p$  is the limit point of  $E$ .

We write  $f(x) \rightarrow q$  as  $x \rightarrow p$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ , if there is a point  $q$  with the following property;

For every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_y(f(x), q) < \epsilon$  for all points  $x \in E$  for which  $d_x(x, p) < \delta$ .

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are replaced by a real line, complex plane or by Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , then the distances  $d_x$  and  $d_y$  are replaced by absolute values or by appropriate norms. □

**Note:** i) It is to be noted that  $p \in X$  but that  $p$  need not a point of  $E$  in the above definition ( $p$  is a limit point of  $E$  which may or may not belong to  $E$ .)

ii) Even if  $p \in E$ , we may have  $f(p) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ . □

### ❖ Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{1+x} = 2$$

$$\text{We have } \left| \frac{2x}{x-1} - 2 \right| = \left| \frac{2x-2-2x}{1+x} \right| = \left| \frac{-2}{1+x} \right| < \frac{2}{x}$$

Now if  $\epsilon > 0$  is given we can find  $d = \frac{2}{\epsilon}$  so that

$$\left| \frac{2x}{1+x} - 2 \right| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } x > d. \quad \square$$

### ❖ Example

$$\text{Consider the function } f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}.$$

It is to be noted that  $f$  is not defined at  $x=1$  but if  $x \neq 1$  and is very close to 1 or less then  $f(x)$  equals to 2. □

### ❖ Definitions

i) Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ , a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is said to tend to limit  $l$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , if for a real number  $\epsilon > 0$  however small,  $\exists$  a positive number  $d$  which depends upon  $\epsilon$  such that distance

$$|f(x) - l| < \epsilon \quad \text{when } x > d \quad \text{and we write } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = l.$$

ii)  $f$  is said to tend to a right limit  $l$  as  $x \rightarrow c$  if for  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists d > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - l| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x \in G$  and  $0 < x - c < d$ .

$$\text{And we write } f(c+) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c+} f(x) = l$$

iii)  $f$  is said to tend to a left limit  $l$  as  $x \rightarrow c$  if for  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a  $d > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - l| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x \in G$  and  $0 < c - d < x < c$ .

$$\text{And we write } f(c-) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c-} f(x) = l. \quad \square$$

❖ **Theorem**

Suppose

- (i)  $(X, d_x)$  and  $(Y, d_y)$  be two metric spaces
- (ii)  $E \subset X$
- (iii)  $f : E \rightarrow Y$  i.e.  $f$  maps  $E$  into  $Y$ .
- (iv)  $p$  is the limit point of  $E$ .

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

**Proof**

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$  holds.

Choose  $\{p_n\}$  in  $E$  such that  $p_n \neq p$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$ , we are to show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$$

Then there exists a  $d > 0$  such that

$$d_y(f(x), q) < e \quad \text{if } x \in E \text{ and } 0 < d_x(x, p) < d \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

Also  $\exists$  a positive integer  $n_0$  such that  $n > n_0$

$$\Rightarrow d_x(p_n, p) < d \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

from (i) and (ii), we have for  $n > n_0$

$$d_y(f(p_n), q) < e$$

Which shows that limit of the sequence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$$

Conversely, suppose that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$  is false.

Then  $\exists$  some  $e > 0$  such that for every  $d > 0$ , there is a point  $x \in E$  for which  $d_y(f(x), q) \geq e$  but  $0 < d_x(x, p) < d$ .

In particular, taking  $d_n = \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

We find a sequence in  $E$  satisfied  $p_n \neq p$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n = p$  for which  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(p_n) = q$  is false. □

❖ **Example**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin \frac{1}{x} \text{ does not exist.}$$

Suppose that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin \frac{1}{x}$  exists and take it to be  $l$ , then there exist a positive real number  $d$  such that

$$\left| \sin \frac{1}{x} - l \right| < 1 \quad \text{when } 0 < |x - 0| < d \quad (\text{we take } e = 1 > 0 \text{ here})$$

We can find a positive integer  $n$  such that

$$\frac{2}{np} < d \quad \text{then} \quad \frac{2}{(4n+1)p} < d \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{2}{(4n+3)p} < d$$

It thus follows

$$\left| \sin \frac{(4n+1)p}{2} - l \right| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |1-l| < 1$$

and  $\left| \sin \frac{(4n+3)p}{2} - l \right| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |-1-l| < 1 \quad \text{or} \quad |1+l| < 1$

So that

$$2 = |1+l+1-l| \leq |1+l| + |1-l| < 1+1 \Rightarrow 2 < 2$$

This is impossible; hence limit of the function does not exist.  $\square$

**Alternative:**

Consider  $x_n = \frac{2}{(2n-1)\pi}$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$

But  $\{f(x_n)\}$  i.e.  $\left\{\sin \frac{1}{x_n}\right\}$  is an oscillatory sequence

i.e.  $\{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$  therefore  $\left\{\sin \frac{1}{x_n}\right\}$  diverges.

Hence we conclude that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin \frac{1}{x}$  does not exist.  $\square$

### ❖ Example

Consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & ; \quad x < 1 \\ 2 + (x-1)^2 & ; \quad x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

We show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  does not exist.

To prove this take  $x_n = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 1$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = 1$

But if we take  $x_n = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$  then  $x_n \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} - 1\right)^2 = 2$

This shows that  $\{f(x_n)\}$  does not tend to a same limit as for all sequences  $\{S_n\}$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow 1$ .

Hence this limit does not exist.  $\square$

### ❖ Example

Consider the function  $f : [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

Show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$  where  $p \in [0,1]$  does not exist.

### Solution

Let  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$ , if given  $e > 0$  we can find  $d > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - q| < e \quad \text{whenever} \quad |x - p| < d.$$

Consider the interval  $(r-s, r+s) \subset [0,1]$  such that  $r$  is rational and  $s$  is irrational.

Then  $f(r) = 0$  &  $f(s) = 1$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$  then

$$\begin{aligned} |f(s)| &= 1 \\ \Rightarrow 1 &= |f(s) - q + q| \\ &= |(f(s) - q + q - 0)| \\ &= |f(s) - q + q - f(r)| \quad \because 0 = f(r) \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq |f(s) - q| + |f(r) - q| < e + e$$

i.e.  $1 < e + e$

$$\Rightarrow 1 < \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \quad \text{if } e = \frac{1}{4}$$

Which is absurd.

Hence the limit of the function does not exist.  $\square$

### ❖ Exercise

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| x \sin \frac{1}{x} - 0 \right| < e \quad \text{where } e > 0 \text{ is a pre-assigned positive number.} \\ \Rightarrow & \left| x \sin \frac{1}{x} \right| < e \\ \Rightarrow & |x| \left| \sin \frac{1}{x} \right| < e \\ \Rightarrow & |x| < e \quad \because \left| \sin \frac{1}{x} \right| \leq 1 \\ \Rightarrow & |x - 0| < e = d \end{aligned}$$

It shows that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$ .

Same the case for function for  $f(x) = x \cos \frac{1}{x}$

Also we can derived the result that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$ .  $\square$

### ❖ Theorem

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  exists then it is unique.

#### Proof

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  is not unique.

Take  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = l_1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = l_2$  where  $l_1 \neq l_2$ .

$\Rightarrow \exists$  real numbers  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} & |f(x) - l_1| < e \quad \text{whenever } |x - c| < d_1 \\ & \& \quad |f(x) - l_2| < e \quad \text{whenever } |x - c| < d_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } |l_1 - l_2| &= |(f(x) - l_1) - (f(x) - l_2)| \\ &\leq |f(x) - l_1| + |f(x) - l_2| \\ &< e + e \quad \text{whenever } |x - c| < \min(d_1, d_2) \\ \Rightarrow l_1 &= l_2 \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

.....

❖ **Theorem**

Suppose that a real valued function  $f$  is defined on an open interval  $G$  except possibly at  $c \in G$ . Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = l$  if and only if for every positive real number  $e$ , there is  $d > 0$  such that  $|f(t) - f(s)| < e$  whenever  $s$  &  $t$  are in  $\{x : |x - c| < d\}$ .

**Proof**

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = l$

$\therefore$  for every  $e > 0$ ,  $\exists d > 0$  such that

$$|f(s) - l| < \frac{1}{2}e \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |s - c| < d$$

$$\& \quad |f(t) - l| < \frac{1}{2}e \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |t - c| < d$$

$$\Rightarrow |f(s) - f(t)| \leq |f(s) - l| + |f(t) - l|$$

$$< \frac{e}{2} + \frac{e}{2} \quad \text{whenever} \quad |s - c| < d \quad \& \quad |t - c| < d$$

$$|f(t) - f(s)| < e \quad \text{whenever} \quad s \quad \& \quad t \quad \text{are in} \quad \{x : |x - c| < d\}.$$

Conversely, suppose that the given condition holds.

Let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence of distinct elements of  $G$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow c$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Then for  $d > 0$   $\exists$  a natural number  $n_0$  such that

$$|x_n - l| < d \quad \text{and} \quad |x_m - l| < d \quad \forall m, n > n_0.$$

And for  $e > 0$

$$|f(x_n) - f(x_m)| < e \quad \text{whenever} \quad m, n > n_0$$

$\Rightarrow \{f(x_n)\}$  is a Cauchy sequence and therefore it is convergent.  $\square$

❖ **Theorem (Sandwiching Theorem)**

Suppose that  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $h$  are functions defined on an open interval  $G$  except possibly at  $c \in G$ . Let  $f \leq h \leq g$  on  $G$ .

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = l$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = l$ .

**Proof**

For  $e > 0$   $\exists d_1, d_2 > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - l| < e \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - c| < d_1$$

$$\& \quad |g(x) - l| < e \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - c| < d_2$$

$$\Rightarrow l - e < f(x) < l + e \quad \text{for} \quad 0 < |x - c| < d_1$$

$$\& \quad l - e < g(x) < l + e \quad \text{for} \quad 0 < |x - c| < d_2$$

$$\Rightarrow l - e < f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x) < l + e$$

$$\Rightarrow l - e < h(x) < l + e \quad \text{for} \quad 0 < |x - c| < \min(d_1, d_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = l \quad \square$$

.....

### ❖ Theorem

Let (i)  $(X, d_x)$ ,  $(Y, d_y)$  be two metric spaces.

(ii)  $E \subset X$

(iii)  $p$  is a limit point of  $E$ .

(iv)  $f : E \rightarrow Y$ .

(v)  $g : E \rightarrow Y$

and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = A$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = B$  then

i-  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = A \pm B$

ii-  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (fg)(x) = AB$

iii-  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \left( \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) = \frac{A}{B}$  provided  $B \neq 0$ .

### Proof

Do yourself

□

### ❖ Continuity

Suppose

i)  $(X, d_x)$ ,  $(Y, d_y)$  are two metric spaces

ii)  $E \subset X$

iii)  $p \in E$

iv)  $f : E \rightarrow Y$

Then  $f$  is said to be continuous at  $p$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0 \exists$  a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$  for all points  $x \in E$  for which  $d_x(x, p) < \delta$ .

### Note:

(i) If  $f$  is continuous at every point of  $E$ . Then  $f$  is said to be continuous on  $E$ .

(ii) It is to be noted that  $f$  has to be defined at  $p$  iff  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p)$ . □

### ❖ Examples

$$f(x) = x^2 \text{ is continuous } \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Here  $f(x) = x^2$ , Take  $p \in \mathbb{R}$

Then  $|f(x) - f(p)| < \epsilon$

$$\Rightarrow |x^2 - p^2| < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow |(x - p)(x + p)| < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow |x - p| < \epsilon = \delta$$

$\therefore p$  is arbitrary real number

$\therefore$  the function  $f(x)$  is continuous  $\forall$  real numbers. □

.....

### ❖ Theorem

Let

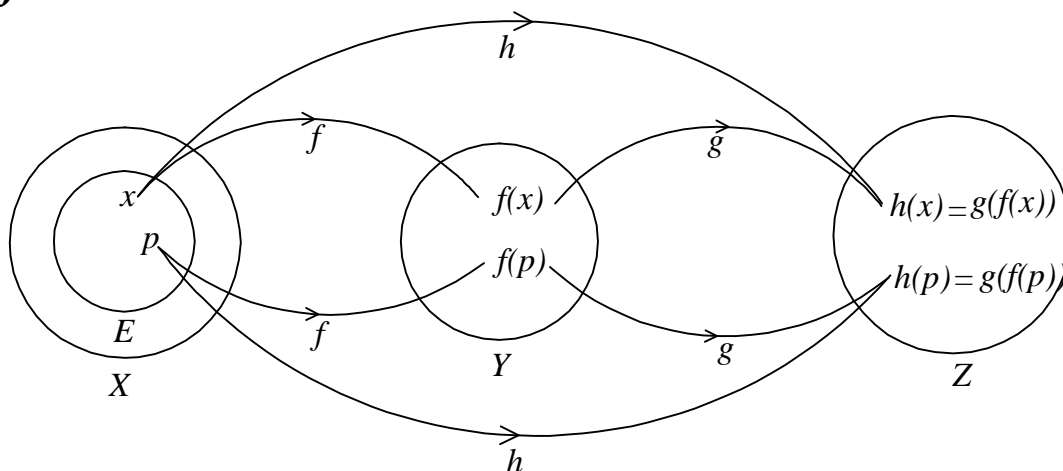
i)  $X, Y, Z$  be metric spaces

ii)  $E \subset X$

iii)  $f: E \rightarrow Y$ ,  $g: f(E) \rightarrow Z$  and  $h: E \rightarrow Z$  defined by  $h(x) = g(f(x))$

If  $f$  is continuous at  $p \in E$  and if  $g$  is continuous at the point  $f(p)$ , then  $h$  is continuous at  $p$ .

### Proof



$\because$   $g$  is continuous at  $f(p)$

$\therefore$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d_Z(g(y), g(f(p))) < \epsilon \text{ whenever } d_Y(y, f(p)) < \delta_1 \dots \dots \dots (i)$$

$\because$   $f$  is continuous at  $p \in E$

$\therefore$   $\exists$  a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \delta_1 \text{ whenever } d_X(x, p) < \delta \dots \dots \dots (ii)$$

Combining (i) and (ii), we have

$$d_Z(g(y), g(f(p))) < \epsilon \text{ whenever } d_X(x, p) < \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow d_Z(h(x), h(p)) < \epsilon \text{ whenever } d_X(x, p) < \delta$$

which shows that the function  $h$  is continuous at  $p$ . □

### ❖ Example

(i)  $f(x) = (1 - x^2)$  is continuous  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous  $\forall x \in [0, \infty]$ , then  $g(f(x)) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  is continuous  $x \in (-1, 1)$ .

(ii) Let  $g(x) = \sin x$  and  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x - p & , x \leq 0 \\ x + p & , x > 0 \end{cases}$

Then  $g(f(x)) = -\sin x \quad \forall x$

Then the function  $g(f(x))$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ , although  $f$  is discontinuous at  $x = 0$ . □

### ❖ Theorem

Let  $f$  be defined on  $X$ . If  $f$  is continuous at  $c \in X$  then  $\exists$  a number  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f$  is bounded on the open interval  $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$ .

### Proof

Since  $f$  is continuous at  $c \in X$ .

Therefore for a real number  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a real number  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - f(c)| < \epsilon \text{ whenever } x \in X \text{ and } |x - c| < \delta.$$

$$\Rightarrow |f(x)| = |f(x) - f(c) + f(c)|$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq |f(x) - f(c)| - |f(c)| \\ &< e + |f(c)| \quad \text{whenever } |x - c| < d. \end{aligned}$$

It shows that  $f$  is bounded on the open interval  $]c - d, c + d[$ .  $\square$

### ❖ Theorem

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . If  $f(c) > 0$  for some  $c \in [a, b]$  then there exist an open interval  $G \subset [a, b]$  such that  $f(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \in G$ .

### Proof

$$\text{Take } e = \frac{1}{2}f(c)$$

$\because f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$

$$\therefore |f(x) - f(c)| < e \quad \text{whenever } |x - c| < d, \quad x \in [a, b]$$

$$\text{Take } G = \{x \in [a, b] : |x - c| < d\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |f(x)| &= |f(x) - f(c) + f(c)| \\ &\leq |f(x) - f(c)| + |f(c)| \\ &< e + |f(c)| \quad \text{whenever } |x - c| < d \end{aligned}$$

For  $x \in G$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(c) - (f(c) - f(x)) \geq f(c) - |f(c) - f(x)| \\ &\geq f(c) - |f(x) - f(c)| > f(c) - \frac{1}{2}f(c) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) > \frac{1}{2}f(c) > 0 \quad \square$$

### ❖ Example

Define a function  $f$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \cos x & ; x \neq 0 \\ 0 & ; x = 0 \end{cases}$$

This function is continuous at  $x = 0$  because

$$|f(x) - f(0)| = |x \cos x| \leq |x| \quad (\because |\cos x| \leq 1)$$

Which shows that for  $e > 0$ , we can find  $d > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - f(0)| < e \quad \text{whenever } 0 < |x - c| < d = e \quad \square$$

### ❖ Example

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x} \text{ is continuous on } [0, \infty[.$$

Let  $c$  be an arbitrary point such that  $0 < c < \infty$

For  $e > 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(c)| &= |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{c}| = \frac{|x - c|}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{c}} < \frac{|x - c|}{\sqrt{c}} \\ \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| &< e \quad \text{whenever } \frac{|x - c|}{\sqrt{c}} < e \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } |x - c| < \sqrt{c} e = d$$

$\Rightarrow f$  is continuous for  $x = c$ .

$\because c$  is an arbitrary point lying in  $[0, \infty[$

$\therefore f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous on  $[0, \infty[$   $\square$

.....



### ❖ Example

Consider the function  $f$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & , x \text{ is rational} \\ -1 & , x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

This function is discontinuous every where but  $|f(x)|$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$

### ❖ Theorem

A mapping of a metric space  $X$  into a metric space  $Y$  is continuous on  $X$  iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  for every open set  $V$  in  $Y$ .

#### Proof

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $X$  and  $V$  is open in  $Y$ .

We are to show that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  i.e. every point of  $f^{-1}(V)$  is an interior point of  $f^{-1}(V)$ .

Let  $p \in X$  and  $f(p) \in V$

$\therefore V$  is open

$\therefore \exists e > 0$  such that  $y \in V$  if  $d_Y(y, f(p)) < e$  ..... (i)

$\therefore f$  is continuous at  $p$

$\therefore \exists d > 0$  such that  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < e$  when  $d_X(x, p) < d$  ..... (ii)

From (i) and (ii), we conclude that

$$x \in f^{-1}(V) \text{ as soon as } d_X(x, p) < d$$

Which shows that  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$ .

Conversely, suppose  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open in  $X$  for every open set  $V$  in  $Y$ .

We are to prove that  $f$  is continuous for this.

Fix  $p \in X$  and  $e > 0$ .

Let  $V$  be the set of all  $y \in Y$  such that  $d_Y(y, f(p)) < e$

$V$  is open,  $f^{-1}(V)$  is open

$\Rightarrow \exists d > 0$  such that  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$  as soon as  $d_X(x, p) < d$ .

But if  $x \in f^{-1}(V)$  then  $f(x) \in V$  so that  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < e$

Which proves that  $f$  is continuous.  $\square$

#### Note

The above theorem can also be stated as a mapping  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is continuous iff  $f^{-1}(C)$  is closed in  $X$  for every closed set  $C$  in  $Y$ .  $\square$

### ❖ Theorem

Let  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_k$  be real valued functions on a metric space  $X$  and  $\underline{f}$  be a mapping from  $X$  on to  $\mathbb{R}^k$  defined by

$$\underline{f}(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), f_3(x), \dots, f_k(x)) \quad , \quad x \in X$$

then  $\underline{f}$  is continuous on  $X$  if and only if  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_k$  are continuous on  $X$ .

#### Proof

Let us suppose that the function  $\underline{f}$  is continuous on  $X$ , we are to show that  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_k$  are continuous on  $X$ .

If  $p \in X$ , then  $d_{\mathbb{R}^k}(\underline{f}(x), \underline{f}(p)) < e$  whenever  $d_X(x, p) < d$

$\Rightarrow \|\underline{f}(x) - \underline{f}(p)\| < e$  whenever  $\|x - p\| < d$

$$\Rightarrow \|f_1(x) - f_1(p), f_1(x) - f_1(p), \dots, f_k(x) - f_k(p)\| < e \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[ (f_1(x) - f_1(p))^2, (f_2(x) - f_2(p))^2, \dots, (f_k(x) - f_k(p))^2 \right]^{1/2} < e$$

whenever  $\|x - p\| < d$

i.e.  $\Rightarrow \left[ \sum_{i=1}^k (f_i(x) - f_i(p))^2 \right]^{1/2} < e \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d$

$$\Rightarrow \|f_1(x) - f_1(p)\| < e \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d$$

$$\|f_2(x) - f_2(p)\| < e \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d$$

.....

.....

.....

$$\|f_k(x) - f_k(x)\| < e \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d$$

$\Rightarrow$  all the functions  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_k$  are continuous at  $p$ .

$\therefore p$  is arbitrary point of  $x$ , therefore  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_k$  are continuous on  $X$ .

Conversely, suppose that the function  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_k$  are continuous on  $X$ , we are to show that  $\underline{f}$  is continuous on  $X$ .

For  $p \in X$  and given  $e_i > 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, k \exists d_i > 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, k$

Such that

$$\|f_1(x) - f_1(p)\| < e_1 \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d_1$$

$$\|f_2(x) - f_2(p)\| < e_2 \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d_2$$

.....

.....

.....

$$\|f_k(x) - f_k(x)\| < e_k \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d_k$$

Take  $d = \min(d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots, d_k)$  then

$$\|f_i(x) - f_i(p)\| < e_i \quad \text{whenever } \|x - p\| < d$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[ (f_1(x) - f_1(p))^2 + (f_2(x) - f_2(p))^2 + \dots + (f_k(x) - f_k(p))^2 \right]^{1/2} < (e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_k^2)^{1/2}$$

i.e.  $\Rightarrow \left[ (f_1(x) - f_1(p))^2 + (f_2(x) - f_2(p))^2 + \dots + (f_k(x) - f_k(p))^2 \right]^{1/2} < e$

whenever  $\|x - p\| < d$

where  $(e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \dots + e_k^2)^{1/2} = e$

Then  $d_{\mathbb{R}^k}(\underline{f}(x), \underline{f}(p)) < e$  whenever  $d_X(x, p) < d$

$\Rightarrow \underline{f}(x)$  is continuous at  $p$ .

$\therefore p$  is an arbitrary point therefore we conclude that  $\underline{f}$  is continuous on  $X$ .  $\square$

.....



❖ **Theorem**

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$

i) If  $f(a) < 0$  and  $f(b) > 0$  then there is a point  $c$ ,  $a < c < b$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ .

ii) If  $f(a) > 0$  and  $f(b) < 0$ , then there is a point  $c$ ,  $a < c < b$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ .

**Proof**

i) Bisect  $[a, b]$  then  $f$  must satisfy the given condition on at least one of the sub-interval so obtained. Denote this interval by  $[a_2, b_2]$

If  $f$  satisfies the condition on both sub-interval then choose the right hand one  $[a_2, b_2]$ .

It is obvious that  $a \leq a_2 \leq b_2 \leq b$ . By repeated bisection we can find nested intervals  $\{I_n\}$ ,  $I_{n+1} \subseteq I_n$ ,  $I_n = [a_n, b_n]$  so that  $f$  satisfies the given condition on  $[a_n, b_n]$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

And  $a = a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots \leq a_n \leq b_n \leq \dots \leq b_2 \leq b_1 = b$

Where  $b_n - a_n = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n (b - a)$

Then  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n I_n$  contain one and only one point. Let that point be  $c$  such that  $f(c) = 0$

If  $f(c) \neq 0$ , let  $f(c) > 0$  then there is a subinterval  $[a_m, b_m]$  such that  $a_m < b_m < c$  Which can not happen. Hence  $f(c) = 0$

ii) Do yourself as above

□

❖ **Example**

Show that  $x^3 - 2x^2 - 3x + 1 = 0$  has a solution  $c \in [-1, 1]$

**Solution**

Let  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - 3x + 1$

$\therefore f(x)$  is polynomial

$\therefore$  it is continuous everywhere. (for being a polynomial continuous everywhere)

Now  $f(-1) = (-1)^3 - 2(-1)^2 - 3(-1) + 1$

$$= -1 - 2 + 3 + 1 = 1 > 0$$

$$f(1) = (1)^3 - 2(1)^2 - 3(1) + 1$$

$$= 1 - 2 - 3 + 1 = -3 < 0$$

Therefore there is a point  $c \in [-1, 1]$  such that  $f(c) = 0$

i.e.  $c$  is the root of the equation.

□

❖ **Theorem (The intermediate value theorem)**

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ , then given a number  $l$  that lies between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ ,  $\exists$  a point  $c$ ,  $a < c < b$  with  $f(c) = l$ .

**Proof**

Let  $f(a) < f(b)$  and  $f(a) < l < f(b)$ .

Suppose  $g(x) = f(x) - l$

Then  $g(a) = f(a) - l < 0$  and  $g(b) = f(b) - l > 0$

$\Rightarrow \exists$  a point  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $g(c) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow f(c) - l = 0 \Rightarrow f(c) = l$$

If  $f(a) > f(b)$  then take  $g(x) = l - f(x)$  to obtain the required result.

□

❖ **Theorem**

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$   
(Continuity implies boundedness)

**Proof**

Suppose that  $f$  is not bounded on  $[a, b]$ ,

We can, therefore, find a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  in the interval  $[a, b]$  such that

$$f(x_n) > n \text{ for all } n \geq 1.$$

$\Rightarrow \{f(x_n)\}$  diverges.

But  $a \leq x_n \leq b$  ;  $n \geq 1$

$\Rightarrow \exists$  a subsequence  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  such that  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  converges to  $l$ .

$\Rightarrow \{f(x_{n_k})\}$  also converges to  $l$ .

$\Rightarrow \{f(x_n)\}$  converges to  $l$ .

Which is contradiction

Hence our supposition is wrong. □

❖ **Uniform continuity**

Let  $f$  be a mapping of a metric space  $X$  into a metric space  $Y$ . We say that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $X$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$d_Y(f(p), f(q)) < \epsilon \quad \forall p, q \in X \text{ for which } d_X(p, q) < \delta$$

The uniform continuity is a property of a function on a set i.e. it is a global property but continuity can be defined at a single point i.e. it is a local property. Uniform continuity of a function at a point has no meaning.

If  $f$  is continuous on  $X$  then it is possible to find for each  $\epsilon > 0$  and for each point  $p$  of  $X$ , a number  $\delta > 0$  such that  $d_Y(f(x), f(p)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $d_X(x, p) < \delta$ . Then number  $\delta$  depends upon  $\epsilon$  and on  $p$  in this case but if  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $X$  then it is possible for each  $\epsilon > 0$  to find one number  $\delta > 0$  which will do for all point  $p$  of  $X$ .

It is evident that every uniformly continuous function is continuous.

To emphasize a difference between continuity and uniform continuity on set  $S$ , we consider the following examples. □

❖ **Example**

Let  $S$  be a half open interval  $0 < x \leq 1$  and let  $f$  be defined for each  $x$  in  $S$  by the formula  $f(x) = x^2$ . It is uniformly continuous on  $S$ . To prove this observe that we have

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(y)| &= |x^2 - y^2| \\ &= |x - y| |x + y| \\ &< 2|x - y| \end{aligned}$$

If  $|x - y| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - f(y)| < 2\delta = \epsilon$

Hence if  $\epsilon$  is given we need only to take  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  to guarantee that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon \text{ for every pair } x, y \text{ with } |x - y| < \delta$$

Thus  $f$  is uniformly continuous on the set  $S$ . □

❖ **Example**

$f(x) = x^n$ ,  $n \geq 0$  is uniformly continuous of  $[0,1]$

**Solution**

For any two values  $x_1, x_2$  in  $[0,1]$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} |x_1^n - x_2^n| &= |(x_1 - x_2)(x_1^{n-1} + x_1^{n-2}x_2 + x_1^{n-3}x_2^2 + \dots + x_2^{n-1})| \\ &\leq n|x_1 - x_2| \end{aligned}$$

Given  $e > 0$ , we can find  $d = \frac{e}{n}$  independent of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  such that

$$|x_1^2 - x_2^2| < n|x_1 - x_2| < e \quad \text{whenever } x_1, x_2 \in [0,1] \quad \text{and } |x_1 - x_2| < d = \frac{e}{n}$$

Hence the function  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[0,1]$ .  $\square$

❖ **Example**

Let  $S$  be the half open interval  $0 < x \leq 1$  and let a function  $f$  be defined for each  $x$  in  $S$  by the formula  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . This function is continuous on the set  $S$ , however we shall prove that this function is not uniformly continuous on  $S$ .

**Solution**

Let suppose  $e = 10$  and suppose we can find a  $d$ ,  $0 < d < 1$ , to satisfy the condition of the definition.

Taking  $x = d$ ,  $y = \frac{d}{11}$ , we obtain

$$|x - y| = \frac{10d}{11} < d$$

and

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = \left| \frac{1}{d} - \frac{11}{d} \right| = \frac{10}{d} > 10$$

Hence for these two points we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| > 10$  (always)

Which contradict the definition of uniform continuity.

Hence the given function being continuous on a set  $S$  is not uniformly continuous on  $S$ .  $\square$

❖ **Example**

$f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$ ;  $x \neq 0$ . is not uniformly continuous on  $0 < x \leq 1$  i.e  $(0,1]$ .

**Proof**

Suppose that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on the given interval then for  $e = 1$ , there is  $d > 0$  such that

$$|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < 1 \quad \text{whenever } |x_1 - x_2| < d$$

Take  $x_1 = \frac{1}{(n - \frac{1}{2})p}$  and  $x_2 = \frac{1}{3(n - \frac{1}{2})p}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ .

So that  $|x_1 - x_2| < d = \frac{2}{3(n - \frac{1}{2})p}$

$$\text{But } |f(x_1) - f(x_2)| = \left| \sin(n - \frac{1}{2})p - \sin 3(n - \frac{1}{2})p \right| = 2 > 1$$

Which contradict the assumption.

Hence  $f$  is not uniformly continuous on the interval.  $\square$

❖ **Example**

Prove that  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is uniformly continuous on  $[0,1]$ .

**Solution**

Suppose  $\epsilon = 1$  and suppose we can find  $d$ ,  $0 < d < 1$  to satisfy the condition of the definition.

$$\text{Taking } x = d^2, \quad y = \frac{d^2}{4}$$

$$\text{Then } |x - y| = d^2 - \frac{d^2}{4} = \frac{3d^2}{4} < d$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{And } |f(x) - f(y)| &= \left| \sqrt{d^2} - \sqrt{\frac{d^2}{4}} \right| \\ &= \left| d - \frac{d}{2} \right| = \left| \frac{d}{2} \right| < 1 = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[0,1]$ . □

❖ **Theorem**

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed and bounded interval  $[a,b]$ , then  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a,b]$ .

**Proof**

Suppose that  $f$  is not uniformly continuous on  $[a,b]$  then  $\exists$  a real number  $\epsilon > 0$  such that for every real number  $d > 0$ .

We can find a pair  $u, v$  satisfying

$$|u - v| < d \quad \text{but} \quad |f(u) - f(v)| \geq \epsilon > 0$$

$$\text{If } d = \frac{1}{n}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

We can determine two sequence  $\{u_n\}$  and  $\{v_n\}$  such that

$$|u_n - v_n| < \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{but} \quad |f(u_n) - f(v_n)| \geq \epsilon$$

$$\therefore a \leq u_n \leq b \quad \forall \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$\therefore$  there is a subsequence  $\{u_{n_k}\}$  which converges to some number  $u_0$  in  $[a,b]$

$\Rightarrow$  for some  $I > 0$ , we can find an integer  $n_0$  such that

$$|u_{n_k} - u_0| < I \quad \forall \quad n \geq n_0$$

$$\Rightarrow |v_{n_k} - u_0| \leq |v_{n_k} - u_{n_k}| + |u_{n_k} - u_0| < \frac{1}{n} + I$$

$\Rightarrow \{v_{n_k}\}$  also converges to  $u_0$ .

$\Rightarrow \{f(u_{n_k})\}$  and  $\{f(v_{n_k})\}$  converge to  $f(u_0)$ .

Consequently,  $|f(u_{n_k}) - f(v_{n_k})| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|u_{n_k} - v_{n_k}| < \epsilon$

Which contradict our supposition.

Hence we conclude that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a,b]$ . □

.....

❖ **Theorem**

Let  $\underline{f}$  and  $\underline{g}$  be two continuous mappings from a metric space  $X$  into  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , then the mappings  $\underline{f} + \underline{g}$  and  $\underline{f} \cdot \underline{g}$  are also continuous on  $X$ .

i.e. the sum and product of two continuous vector valued function are also continuous.

**Proof**

i)  $\because \underline{f}$  &  $\underline{g}$  are continuous on  $X$ .

$\therefore$  by the definition of continuity, we have for a point  $p \in X$ .

$$\| \underline{f}(x) - \underline{f}(p) \| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{whenever} \quad \| x - p \| < d_1$$

$$\text{and} \quad \| \underline{g}(x) - \underline{g}(p) \| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{whenever} \quad \| x - p \| < d_2$$

Now consider

$$\begin{aligned} & \| \underline{f}(x) + \underline{g}(x) - \underline{f}(p) - \underline{g}(p) \| \\ &= \| \underline{f}(x) - \underline{f}(p) + \underline{g}(x) - \underline{g}(p) \| \\ &\leq \| \underline{f}(x) - \underline{f}(p) \| + \| \underline{g}(x) - \underline{g}(p) \| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad \| x - p \| < d \quad \text{where} \quad d = \min(d_1, d_2) \end{aligned}$$

which shows that the vector valued function  $\underline{f} + \underline{g}$  is continuous at  $x = p$  and hence on  $X$ .

$$ii) \quad \underline{f} \cdot \underline{g} = \sum_{i=1}^k f_i \cdot g_i$$

$$= f_1 g_1 + f_2 g_2 + f_3 g_3 + \dots + f_k g_k$$

$\because$  the function  $\underline{f}$  and  $\underline{g}$  are continuous on  $X$

$\therefore$  their components  $f_i$  and  $g_i$  are continuous on  $X$ . □

❖ **Question**

Suppose  $f$  is a real valued function define on  $\mathbb{R}$  which satisfies

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(x+h) - f(x-h)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Does this imply that the function  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution**

$$\because \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(x+h) - f(x-h)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x+h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x-h)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x+0) = f(x-0) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Also it is given that  $f(x) = f(x+0) = f(x-0)$

It means  $f$  is continuous on  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . □

.....

### ❖ **Discontinuities**

If  $x$  is a point in the domain of definition of the function  $f$  at which  $f$  is not continuous, we say that  $f$  is discontinuous at  $x$  or that  $f$  has a discontinuity at  $x$ .

If the function  $f$  is defined on an interval, the discontinuity is divided into two types

1. Let  $f$  be defined on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f$  is discontinuous at a point  $x$  and if  $f(x+)$  and  $f(x-)$  exist then  $f$  is said to have a discontinuity of first kind or a simple discontinuity at  $x$ .

2. Otherwise the discontinuity is said to be second kind.

For simple discontinuity

- i. either  $f(x+) \neq f(x-)$  [ $f(x)$  is immaterial]
- ii. or  $f(x+) = f(x-) \neq f(x)$

□

### ❖ **Example**

i) Define  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & , x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & , x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$

The function  $f$  has discontinuity of second kind on every point  $x$  because neither  $f(x+)$  nor  $f(x-)$  exists.

□

ii) Define  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & , x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & , x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$

Then  $f$  is continuous at  $x=0$  and has a discontinuity of the second kind at every other point.

□

iii) Define  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x+2 & (-3 < x < -2) \\ -x-2 & (-2 < x < 0) \\ x+2 & (0 < x < 1) \end{cases}$

The function has simple discontinuity at  $x=0$  and it is continuous at every other point of the interval  $(-3, 1)$

□

iv) Define  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin \frac{1}{x} & , x \neq 0 \\ 0 & , x = 0 \end{cases}$

$\therefore$  neither  $f(0+)$  nor  $f(0-)$  exists, therefore the function  $f$  has discontinuity of second kind.

$f$  is continuous at every point except  $x=0$ .

□

### References:

(1) *Lectures (2003-04)*

*Prof. Syeed Gull Shah*

*Chairman, Department of Mathematics.*

*University of Sargodha, Sargodha.*

(2) *Book*

*Principles of Mathematical Analysis*

*Walter Rudin (McGraw-Hill, Inc.)*

*Collected and composed by: Atiq ur Rehman (mathcity@gmail.com)*

*Available online at <http://www.mathcity.org> in PDF Format.*

*Page Setup: Legal (8"  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\times$  14")*

*Printed: October 20, 2004. Updated: November 03, 2005*