# Calculus

# THEOREMS & PROOFS

# Fall 2009, Math 147

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### 1. The Peano axioms

## 1.1. WOP $\Rightarrow$ POMI.

- · Let  $S \subset \mathbb{N}$  such that
  - **1:**  $1 \in S$
  - **2:** If  $k \in S$ , then  $k + 1 \in S$
- · Let  $T = \mathbb{N} \setminus S$
- · Assume  $T \neq \emptyset$
- · By the Well Ordering Principle, T has a least element  $K_0$ .
- · Now  $K_0 \neq 1$ , as  $1 \in S$ . Then we have that  $K_0 1 \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $K_0 1 < K_0$ .
- · Since  $K_0$  is the least element in  $T, K_0 1 \notin T$ , which implies that  $K_0 1 \in S$ .
- Hence  $K_0 = (K_0 1) + 1 \in S$  by **2**.
- · Since this is not possible, we must have that  $T = \emptyset$  and  $S = \mathbb{N}$ .

## 1.2. **POMI** $\Rightarrow$ **POSI**.

- Assume that  $S \subset \mathbb{N}$  satisfies:
  - **1:**  $1 \in S$
  - **2:** If  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\} \in S$ , then  $k + 1 \in S$
- · Let P(n) be the statement that  $\{1, 2, \ldots k\} \in S$ .
- If P(n) holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $S = \mathbb{N}$ .
- · Let n = 1. Clearly  $1 \in S$ , by the assumption **1**, so P(1) holds.
- Assume that P(k) holds. That is,  $\{1, 2, \dots k\} \in S$ .
  - By the assumption **2**,  $P(k+1) \in S$ .
  - From this,  $\{1, 2, \dots, k, k+1\} \in S$ , and hence P(k+1) holds.
- Therefore the Principle of Mathematical Induction shows that P(n) holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

#### 1.3. **POSI** $\Rightarrow$ **WOP**.

- · Let  $S \in \mathbb{N}$  be a set that does not have a least element. Also let
  - $T = \mathbb{N} \setminus S = \{ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \notin S \}$
- · First,  $1 \in T$ , because if  $1 \in S$ , then it would be the least element of S.
- Assume that  $\{1, 2, \ldots k\} \in T$ .
- · Since S does not have a least element, S cannot contain k + 1.
- Therefore if  $\{1, 2, \ldots k\} \in T$ , then  $k + 1 \in T$ .
- The Principle of Strong Induction shows that  $T = \mathbb{N}$  and hence that  $S = \emptyset$ .
- · If  $S \in \mathbb{N}$  and S does not have a least element, then  $S = \emptyset$ .

 $\cdot$  Therefore it follows that every nonempty subset of  $\mathbb N$  has a least element.

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# 2. FIVE-STAR THEOREMS

## 2.1. The Archimedean Property. $\mathbb{N}$ is not bounded above.

- $\cdot$  Assume that  $\mathbb N$  is bounded above.
- · Let  $\alpha = lub(\mathbb{N})$
- Then  $\alpha 1$  is not an upper bound of  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- Then there exists an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\alpha 1 < n \leq \alpha$ .
- But then  $\alpha = (\alpha 1) + 1 < n + 1$
- This is impossible, as  $\alpha = lub(\mathbb{N})$ .
- · Therefore  $\mathbb{N}$  is not bounded above.

2.2. The Monotone Convergence Theorem. If  $\{a_n\}$  is non-decreasing and bounded above, then  $\{a_n\}$  converges.

· If  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded above, then by the LUBP it has a least upper bound L.

- · Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .
- Then  $L \epsilon < \epsilon$ , so  $L \epsilon$  is not an upper bound for  $\{a_n\}$ .
- Hence there exists some  $N_o \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $L \epsilon < a_{n_o}$
- · If  $n \ge N_o$ , then  $L \epsilon < a_{n_o} \le a_n \le L \Rightarrow |a_n L| < \epsilon$
- Hence  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [a_n] = L.$

2.3. The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem. Every bounded sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has a convergent subsequence.

- By the Peak Point Lemma,  $\{a_n\}$  has a monotonic subsequence  $\{a_{n_k}\}$ .
- · Since  $\{a_{n_k}\}$  is also bounded, it converges by the Monotone Convergence Theorem.

2.4. The Completeness Theorem. Every Cauchy sequence  $\{a_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$  converges.

- · If  $\{a_n\}$  is Cauchy, then  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded.
- · By the BWT,  $\{a_n\}$  has a subsequence  $\{a_{n_k}\}$  that converges to some L.
- · Since  $\{a_n\}$  is Cauchy,  $\{a_n\}$  converges to L.

2.5. The Squeeze Theorem for Sequences. Assume that  $\{a_n\} \leq \{b_n\} \leq \{c_n\}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [a_n] = L = \lim_{n \to \infty} [c_n]$ , then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [b_n]$  exists and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [b_n] = L$ 

- · Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then we can find  $N_o$  so that if  $n \ge N_o$ , then  $L \epsilon < a_n \le c_n < L + \epsilon$
- If  $n \ge N_o$ , then  $L - \epsilon < a_n \le b_n \le c_n < L + \epsilon$ 
  - $\Rightarrow |b_n L| < \epsilon$
- $\cdot$  Hence the above statement holds.

 $\mathbf{2}$ 

2.6. The Intermediate Value Theorem. If f(x) is continuous on [a,b] and f(a) < 0and f(b) > 0 Then there exists some a < c < b such that f(c) = 0.

- $\cdot \text{ Let } S = \{ x \in [a, b] | f(x) \leq 0 \}$
- · Since  $a \in S$ ,  $S \neq \emptyset$ . And since S is bounded, it has a least upper bound.
- · Let c = lub(S).
- · Then by the Sequential Characterization of Limits, there exists a sequence  $\{x_n\} \subset S$ with  $\{x_n\} \to c \in [a, b]$ .
- Then  $f(x_n) \to f(c)$  by continuity.
- Then since  $f(x_n) \leq 0$ , we have that  $f(c) \leq 0$ .
- · Now let  $\{y_n\} = c + \frac{b-c}{n}$

- Then  $c < y_n \leq b$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [y_n] = c$  By continuity,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [f(y_n)] = f(c)$  Then since  $f(y_n) < 0$ , we have that  $f(c) \ge 0$ .
- Hence f(c) = 0.

2.7. The Extreme Value Theorem. If f(x) is continuous on a finite closed interval [a, b], then there exist  $c, d \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) \leq f(x) \leq f(d)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

- First we claim that f(x) is bounded on [a, b].
  - Suppose that f(x) is not bounded.
  - Then for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we can find  $\{x_n\} \subset [a, b]$  with  $|f(x_n)| \ge n$ .
  - By the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem,  $\{x_n\}$  has a subsequence  $x_{n_k}$  with  $x_n \to x_o \in [a, b]$ .
  - By continuity,  $f(x_{n_k}) \to f(x_o)$ .
  - But from above we have that  $|f(x_{n_k})| \ge n_k$ , which implies that  $\{f(x_{n_k})\}$  is not bounded.
  - However, this contradicts the previous statement, so f(x) is bounded.
- $\cdot \text{ Let } T = \{f(x) | x \in [a, b]\}$
- $\cdot$  Then T is bounded.
- $\cdot$  Since T is nonempty, it has a least upper and greatest lower bound.
- · Let L = lub(T) and M = glb(T)
- There exist sequences  $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\} \subset [a, b]$  with

i. 
$$L - \frac{1}{n} \leq f(x_n) \leq L$$

ii. 
$$M \leq f(y_n) \leq M + \frac{1}{n}$$

- · By the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem, there exists a subsequence  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  of  $\{x_n\}$  such that  $x_{n_k} \to x_o \in [a, b]$
- · Choose  $x_o = d$  so that  $x_{n_k} \to d$
- By continuity,  $f(x_{n_k}) \to f(d)$
- · By i.  $f(x_{n_k}) \to L$ , hence f(d) = L
- · Similarly we get a subsequence  $\{y_{n_k}\}$  of  $\{y_n\}$  with  $y_{n_k} \to c \in [a, b]$ . Moreover, f(c) = M.

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2.8. Rolle's Theorem. If f(x) is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b) with f(a) = f(b), then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  with f'(c) = 0.

- · By the Extreme Value Theorem, f(x) attains its maximum (minimum) on [a, b]
- · Since f(a) = f(b), either i. f(x) is constant on [a, b], or

**ii.** f(x) attains its maximum (minimum) at some point  $c \in (a, b)$  $\cdot$  In case **i.** f'(c) = 0 for all  $c \in [a, b]$ 

- · In case ii. the point c is a local maximum (minimum) for f(x)
- Then since f'(x) exists, f'(c) = 0

2.9. The Mean Value Theorem. If f(x) is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b), then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  with  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(c)$ .

• Define g(x) to be the linear curve such that  $g(x) = f(a) + \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$ 

- Hence g(x) is the secant line from f(a) to f(b).
- · Define F(x) = f(x) g(x)
- Then F(x) is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b)

· Since F(a) = F(b) = 0, by Rolle's Theorem there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  with F'(c) = 0

• Then we have that 
$$F'(x) = f'(x) - \left\lfloor \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \right\rfloor$$
  

$$0 = F'(c) = f'(c) - \left\lfloor \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \right\rfloor$$

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

2.10. The Increasing Function Theorem. If f(x) is continuous on [a,b] and differentiable on (a,b) with f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (a,b)$ , then f(x) is strictly increasing on [a,b].

• Let  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  with  $x_1 < x_2$ .

· Then the Mean Value Theorem can be applied to  $[x_1, x_2]$ .

• Then there exists 
$$c \in (x_1, x_2)$$
 with  $0 < f(c) = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$ 

- This implies that  $f(x_2) f(x_1) = f(c)(x_2 x_1) > 0$
- Finally we have that  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$  for all  $x_2 > x_1 \in [a, b]$ .

### 3.1. Fundamental Trigonometric Limit.

 $\lim_{\theta \to 0} \left[ \frac{\sin(\theta)}{\theta} \right] \text{ exists and equals 1.}$ 

#### 3.2. Fundamental Logarithmic Limit.

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \left[ \frac{\ln(x)}{x} \right]$$
 exists and equals 0.

3.3. Inverse Function Theorem. Assume that f(x) is defined on a continuous and open interval I containing some  $x_0$ . Also assume that f(x) is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing on I with inverse  $g: J = f(I) \to I$ . Then if f(x) is differentiable at  $x_0$  with  $f'(x_0) \neq 0$ , then g(y) is differentiable at  $y_0 = f(x_0)$  with

$$g'(y_0) = \frac{1}{f'(x_0)}$$

3.4. First Derivative Test. Suppose that  $f: S \to R$ , where  $S \subseteq R$ , that there exists an open interval (a, b) containing some  $c \in S$ , and that  $[a, b] \subset S$ . Assume also that f(x) is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b) except possibly at x = c. Finally, assume that x = c is a critical point for f(x).

**1.** If  $f'(x) \leq 0$  on (a, c) and  $f'(x) \geq 0$  on (c, b), then c is a local minimum for f(x). **2.** If  $f'(x) \geq 0$  on (a, c) and  $f'(x) \leq 0$  on (c, b), then c is a local maximum for f(x).

3.5. Second Derivative Test. Suppose that  $f: S \to R$ , where  $S \subseteq R$ , and that I is an open interval such that  $I \subset J \subset S$  where J is an open interval. If f(x) is twice differentiable at every  $x \in I$  then we have the following:

**1.** If  $f''(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in I$ , then f(x) is concave upward on I.

**2.** If  $f''(x) \leq 0$  for all  $x \in I$ , then f(x) is concave downward on I.

3.6. **Taylor's Theorem.** Suppose that  $f: S \to R$ , where  $S \subseteq R$ , and that  $I \subset S$  is an open interval containing some  $a \in S$ . Suppose also that f(x) is n + 1 times differentiable on I. Let  $R_{n,a}(x)$  be the *n*th Taylor remainder of f(x) centered at x = a. For each  $x \in I$ , there exists some  $c := c_x \in I$  with  $x < c_x < a$  such that

$$R_{n,a}(x) := f(x) - P_{n,a}(x)$$
$$= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1}$$

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### 4. Function Characteristics

4.1. Uniform Continuity. If f(x) is continuous in [a, b], then it is uniformly continuous on [a, b].

- Assume that f(x) is not uniformly continuous on [a, b].
- That is, assume  $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\} \in [a, b]$  with  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [x_n y_n] = 0$ , but  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [f(x_n) f(y_n)] \neq 0$  Since  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [f(x_n) f(y_n)] \neq 0$ , replacing  $\{x_n\}, \{y_n\}$  with subsequences if necessary, we can assume that for some  $\epsilon_0 > 0$  we have  $|f(x_{n_k}) - f(y_{n_k})| \ge \epsilon_0$
- · Since  $\{x_n\} \in [a, b]$ , by the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem  $\{x_n\}$  has a convergent subsequence  $\{x_{n_k}\}$  with  $x_{n_k} \to x_0 \in [a, b]$   $\cdot$  Since  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [x_{n_k} - y_{n_k}] = 0$ , we have that  $y_{n_k} \to y_0 \in [a, b]$
- By continuity,  $f(x_{n_k}) \to f(x_0)$  and  $f(y_{n_k}) \to f(y_0)$
- Then  $f(x_{n_k}) f(y_{n_k}) \to 0$ , which is impossible, since  $\lim_{n \to \infty} [f(x_{n_k}) f(y_{n_k})] \neq 0$ .
- Hence we must have that f(x) is uniformly continuous on [a, b].

4.2. Local Extrema. If f(x) has a local maximum or minimum at some x = c and if f'(c) exists, then f'(c) = 0.

- Assume that f(x) has a local maximum at x = c.
- Then there exists an open interval (a, b) containing c with  $f(x) \leq f(c)$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .

$$\text{If } a < x < c \text{ then } \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \ge 0 \\ \text{Hence } f'(c) = \lim_{x \to c^-} \left[ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \right] \ge 0 \\ \text{If } c < x < b \text{ then } \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \le 0 \\ \text{Hence } f'(c) = \lim_{x \to c^+} \left[ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \right] \le 0 \\ \text{Therefore } f'(c) = 0$$

- Therefore f'(c) = 0.
- · A similar procedure can be applied if c is a local minimum.

4.3. Functions and Big-O. If f(x) is n + 1 times differentiable on some open interval  $I \supset [-1, 1]$  and  $f^{(n+1)}(x)$  is continuous on [-1, 1], then  $f(x) = P_{n,0}(x) + O(x^{n+1})$  as  $x \to 0.$ 

- By the Extreme Value Theorem,  $f^{(n+1)}(x)$  is bounded on [-1, 1]. Choose  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x \in [-1, 1]$ . Taylor's Theorem implies that for any  $x \in [-1, 1]$  there exists  $0 < c_x \leq x$  such that

$$|f(x) - P_{n,0}(x)| = \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c_x)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \right| \le \left| \frac{M}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \right|$$
$$= \frac{M}{(n+1)!} |x^{n+1}|$$
$$= O(x^{n+1})$$

 $\cdot$  Hence we have that

$$f(x) - P_{n,0}(x) = O(x^{n+1})$$
  
$$f(x) = P_{n,0}(x) + O(x^{n+1})$$