# Mathematical Analysis

# Lecture

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### 1 Rules

No textbook, so take notes. Classes are mandatory

### 2 Requirements

During the classes we will start with a quiz, every practice. To pass the course you need 50% of points from the quizzed. A Quizes is 15min every quiz is worth 5 points. You get points from your top 10 quizes.

#### 3 Notation

#### 3.1 Number sets

- 1. Natural Numbers  $N = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$
- 2. Integers  $\mathbb{Z} = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...\}$
- 3. Rational  $\mathbb{Q} = \{\frac{p}{q}; p, q \in Z, q \neq 0\}$
- 4. Irrational  $ex.: \sqrt{2}, \pi, \dots$
- 5. Real Numbers  $\mathbb{R} = Rational + Irrational$

#### 3.2 Sets notation

- $(a,b) = x \in R : a < x < b$
- $(a,b) = x \in R : a \le x \le b$
- $(a,\infty) = x \in R : x > a$
- (a,b) open interval
- [a,b]-closedinterval

 $A \subset B$  A is a subset of B

 $x \in A$  X is an element of A, x belongs to A

 $x \notin A$  X is not an element of A, x does not belong to A

#### 3.3 Cartesian Product

Given two sets A and B, we can form the set consisting of all ordered pairs of the form (a, b) where  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ . This set is called the Cartesian product of A and B and is denoted by AxB

$$AxB\{(a,b): a \in A, \in B\}$$

If A = B, then AxA is denoted by  $A^2$ 

#### 3.4 Quantifiers

- 1. Existential  $\exists$  "There exists x such that", "For at least one x"
- 2. Universal ∀ "For all x", "For each x", "For every x"

Example:

$$\exists t > 0 \ \forall \ x \in \mathbb{R} \ x^2 + 4x + 4 > t$$

The statement above is false

The negation of the statement:

$$\forall \ t > 0 \ \exists \ x_0 \in \mathbb{R} \ x_0^2 + 4x_0 + 4 \le t$$

#### 4 Functions

A function f is a rule that assigns to each element x in a set A  $\underbrace{\text{exactly one}}$  element , called f(x), in a set B.

In our class  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $B \subset \mathbb{R}$  The set A is called the domain of the function f and will be denoted  $D_f$ .

The range of the function f is the set of all possible values of f(x) as x varies throughout the domain. The range of f will be denoted by  $R_f$ .

The most common method for visualizing a function is its.

If f is a function with domain  $D_f$  then its graph is the set of ordered pairs.

$$\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \ x \in D_f, y = f(x)\}$$

Example:

Min function

$$f(x) = \min\{x, x^2\}$$

$$f(2) = \min\{2, 4\} = 2$$

$$f(\frac{1}{2}) = \min\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}\} = \frac{1}{4}$$
(1)

Absolute

$$f(x) = |x| = \{x, ifx \ge 0 \text{ or } -x, ifx - 2 < 0\}$$
  
$$f(x) = |x - 2| = \{x - 2, ifx \ge 0 \text{ or } -(x - 2), ifx - 2 < 0\}$$
 (2)

|x-a| represents the distance between x and a

#### 4.1 The Vertical Line Test

A curve is the XY plane is the graph of a function of x if and only if no vertical line intersects the curve more than once.

#### 4.2 Classes of functions

1. Periodic functions

We say that f is a periodic function if

$$\exists T > 0 \ \forall x \in D_f(x \pm T \in D_f \text{ and } f(x+T) = f(x))$$

A periodic function is a function that repeats its values after some determined period has been added to its independent variable.

#### 2. Symmetric functions

• Even

A function f is called even if:

$$\forall x \in D_f \ (-x \in D_f) \text{ and } f(-x) = f(x)$$

The geometric significance of an even function is that its graph is symmetric with respect to the Y axis.

If f is even  $D_f$  is symmetric about the Y Axis.

Odd

A function f is called odd if:

$$\forall x \in D_f(-x \in D_f) \text{ and } f(-x) = -f(x)$$

The graph of and odd function is symmetric about the origin. If an odd function is defined at x=0 then f(0) must be 0!!

Example: Check if function is even or odd.

$$f(x) = \frac{3^x - 3^{-x}}{x}$$

(a) Check if domain is symmetric

$$D_f = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

- (b) Substitute -x for x
- Monotonicity:

A function is monotonic if it is increasing, or decreasing, or nondecreasing, or non-increasing.

- Increasing:

A function f is called increasing on a set  $I \subset D_f$ ,

if 
$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in I \ [(x_1 < x_2) \Rightarrow (f(x_1) < f(x_2))]$$

- Non-decreasing:

A function f is called increasing on a set  $I \subset D_f$ ,

if 
$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in I \ [(x_1 < x_2) \Rightarrow (f(x_1) \le f(x_2))]$$

- Decreasing:

A function f is called increasing on a set  $I \subset D_f$ ,

if 
$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in I [(x_1 < x_2) \Rightarrow (f(x_1) > f(x_2))]$$

- Non-increasing:

A function f is called increasing on a set  $I \subset D_f$ ,

if 
$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in I \ [(x_1 < x_2) \Rightarrow (f(x_1) \ge f(x_2))]$$

Algebraic way to check monotonicity:

let 
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$
 and  $I = (-\infty, 0]$ 

Take any 2 points  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  with  $x_1 < x_2$ .

fact any 2 points 
$$x_1, x_2 \in T$$
 with  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) = \frac{1}{1+x_2^2} - \frac{1}{1+x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_2^2}{(1+x_1^2)(1+x_2^2)} = \frac{(x_1-x_2)(x_1+x_2)}{(1+x_2^2)(1+x_1^2)} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_2^2}{x_1-x_2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2} = \frac{1+x_1^2-1+x_1^2}{x_1-x_1^2}$ 

$$\frac{(1+x_1^2)(1+x_2^2)}{(x_1-x_2)(x_1+x_2)}$$

$$x_1 - x_2 < 0$$

$$x_1 - x_2 < 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 < 0$$

#### New functions from Old functions

• Vertical and horizontal shifts: Suppose c > 0.

To obtain the graph of y = f(x) + c shift the graph of y a distance of c units upwards. If y = f(x) - c shift downwards.

To obtain the graph of y = f(x - c) shift the graph y a distance of c units to the right.

To obtain the graph of y = f(x+c) shift the graph y a distance of c units to the left.

• Vertical and horizontal stretching and reflecting:

Suppose c > 1.

To obtain the graph y = c \* f(x) stretch y vertically by a factor of x.

To obtain the graph y = f(c \* x) compress the graph of y horizontally by a factor of c.

To obtain the graph y = -f(x) reflect the graph of y about the y axis.

To obtain the graph y = f(-x) reflect the graph of y about the x axis.

• Algebra of functions:

let f and g be functions with domains  $D_f$  and  $D_g$ . Then the functions  $f_g$ , f-g, fg and  $\frac{f}{g}$  are as follows:

$$(f \pm g)(x) = f(x) \pm g(x); D_{f+g} = D_f \cap D_g$$

$$(f * g)(x) = f(x) * g(x); D_{f*g} = D_f \cap D_g$$
  
 $(\frac{f}{g})(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f(g)}; D_{f+g} = D_f \cap D_g$ 

$$(\frac{f}{g})(x) = \frac{f(x)}{f(g)}; D_{f+g} = D_f \cap D_g$$

#### 4.4 Composite Functions

Given 2 functions f and g the composite function is denoted by  $f \circ g$  and is defined as  $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$ .

#### Example:

If  $f(x) = \sqrt{2-x}$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ , then:

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = \sqrt{2 - \sqrt{x}}$$

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = \sqrt{\sqrt{2-x}}$$

For a  $\sqrt{x}$  to be defined, we must have  $x \geq 0$ . For  $\sqrt{2-\sqrt{x}}$  to be defined we must have a  $2-\sqrt{x}\geq 0$  that is  $\sqrt{x}\leq 2$  or  $x\leq 4$ . One can see that  $D_{f\circ g}=[0,4]$ therefore  $D_{g \circ f} = (-\infty, 2]$ 

Let 
$$h(x) = 3^{\sqrt{x+3}}$$
, write it as  $f \circ g$ :  
  $f(x) = 3^x$ 

$$g(x) = \sqrt{x+3}$$
  

$$(f^{-1} \circ f)(x) = x, \forall x \in D_f$$
  

$$(f \circ f^{-1})(x) = x, \forall x \in R_f$$

#### 4.5 One-to-one functions

A function f is called an one-to-one function on a set  $I \subset D_f$   $\forall x_1, x_2 \in I \ [(x_1 \neq x_2) \Rightarrow (f(x_1) \neq f(x_2))]$  Example:

- (Strictly) increasing function are 1-1
- Exponential functions are 1-1

#### 4.5.1 Horizontal Line Test

A function f in one-to-one if and only if no horizontal line intersects the graph at most once

Let f be a 1-1 function with a domain  $D_f$  and a range  $R_f$ . Then its inverse function  $f^{-1}$  has a domain  $D_{f^{-1}} = R_f$  and  $R_{f^{-1}} = D_f$  and is defined by:

$$(f^{-1})(y) = x \Leftrightarrow f(x) = y$$

Example:

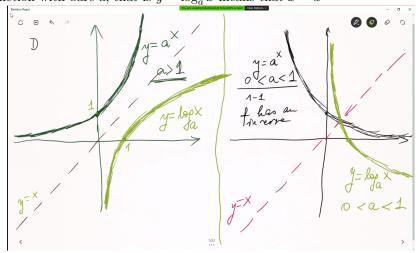
Let  $g(x) = 3 + x + 2^x$ . Is g invertible? Yes, because its a strictly increasing function.

The inverse of  $y = a^x$  is  $y = \log_a x$  where a > 1.

The inverse of  $y = a^x$  is  $y = \log_a x$  where 0 < a < 1.

# 5 Logarithms

The logarithm to the bare a is defined as the inverse function of the exponential function with bare a, that is  $y = \log_a x$  means that  $x = a^y$ 



## 5.1 Laws of logarithms

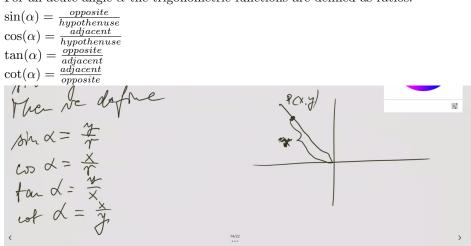
- 1.  $\log_a(bc) = \log_a b + \log_a c$
- $2. \, \log_a b^c = c * \log_a b$
- $3. \log_a \frac{b}{c} = \log_a b \log_a c$
- $4. \log_a c = \log_a b * \log_b c$

## 6 Trigonometry

A standard position of an angle occurs when we place its vertex at the origin of a coordinate system and initial side on the positive x-axis.

A positive angle is obtained by rotating the initial side counterclockwise until it coincides with the terminal side. Negative angles are obtained by a clockwise rotation. Angles can be measured in radians. Mandatory for this class.

For an acute angle  $\alpha$  the trigonometric functions are defined as ratios.



The signs of the trig functions for angles in each of the quadrants can be remembered with: "All Students Take Calculus"

### 6.1 Trigonometric identities

We have a angle  $\alpha$  and a point P(x,y)

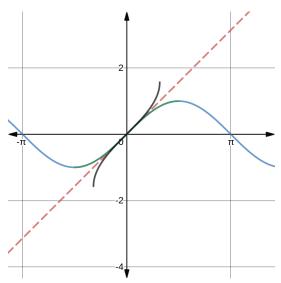
- $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \sin^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \alpha = 1$
- $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$
- $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \cos(-\alpha) = \cos \alpha$
- $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \sin(\alpha + 2\pi) = \sin(\alpha) \text{ and } \cos(\alpha + 2\pi) = \cos(\alpha)$
- $\sin(x+y) = \sin(x)\cos(y) + \cos(y)\sin(x)$
- $\sin(x y) = \sin(x)\cos(y) \cos(y)\sin(x)$
- $\sin(2x) = 2\sin(x)\cos(x)$
- If we denote  $x+y=\alpha$  and  $x-y=\beta$ , then  $\sin(\alpha)+\sin(\beta)=2\sin(\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2})*\cos(\frac{\alpha-\beta}{2})$
- cos(x+y) = cos(x)cos(y) sin(x)sin(y)
- $\cos(x y) = \cos(x)\cos(y) + \sin(x)\sin(y)$
- $\cos(\alpha) + \cos(\beta) = 2\cos(\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}) * \cos(\frac{\alpha-\beta}{2})$
- $\bullet \cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) \sin^2(x)$
- $\bullet \cos^2(x) = \frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2}$

#### 6.2 Reduction formulas

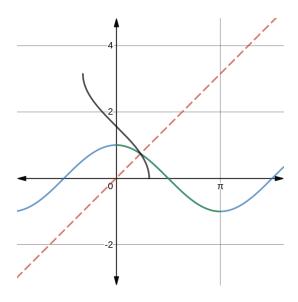
- $\sin(\alpha + k\frac{\pi}{2}) = \sin(\alpha)\cos(k\frac{pi}{2}) + \cos(\alpha)\sin(k\frac{\pi}{2})$ when k is even  $\pm\sin(\alpha)$ when k is odd  $\pm\cos(\alpha)$
- $\cos(\alpha + l\frac{\pi}{2}) = \cos(\alpha)\cos(k\frac{\pi}{2}) \sin(\alpha)\sin(k\frac{\pi}{2})$ when k is even  $\cos(\alpha)$ when k is odd  $\pm\sin(\alpha)$

# 6.3 Inverse of trigonometric functions / Cyclometric functions

The function  $\sin(x)$  is not 1-1 but if we consider  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  for  $x \in \left[\frac{-\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$  as a 1-1 function The existing inverse is called  $\arcsin(x) = y \Leftrightarrow \sin(y) = x$  and  $\frac{-\pi}{2} \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ 



The function  $\cos(x)$  is not 1-1 but if we consider  $f(x) = \cos(x)$  for  $x \in [0, \pi]$  as a 1-1 function The existing inverse is called  $\arccos(x) = y \Leftrightarrow \sin(y) = x$  and  $0 \le \pi$ 



#### Example:

Show that 
$$\arcsin(x) + \arccos(x) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$
  
 $\arcsin(x) = \alpha \Leftrightarrow \sin(\alpha) = x \text{ and } \frac{-\pi}{2} \le \alpha \le \frac{\pi}{2}$   
 $\arccos(x) = \beta \Leftrightarrow \cos(\beta) = x \text{ and } 0 \le \beta \le \pi$