Study Notes of Principles of Mathematical Analysis

Jacob Xie

January 1, 2023

1 The Real and Complex Number Systems

Ordered Sets

Definition 1.7. Suppose S is an ordered set, $E \subset S$, and E is bounded above. Suppose there exists an $\alpha \in S$ with the following properties:

- (i) α is an upper bound of E.
- (ii) If $\gamma < \alpha$ the γ is not an upper bound of E.

Then α is called the *least upper bound of E* or the *supremum of E*, and we write

$$\alpha = \sup E$$

The greatest lower bound, or infimum, of a set E which is bounded below is defined in the same manner: The statement

$$\alpha = \inf E$$

means that α is a lower bound of E and that no β with $\beta > \alpha$ is a lower bound of E.

Note S 是有序集合的情况下,E 又是属于 S 的,并且 E 拥有上界。那么只会存在一个 α 是 E 的最小上界。同理如果是 E 拥有下界,只会存在一个 α 是 E 的最大下界。发音: Supremum [su:'pri:məm]; Infimum ['ɪnfaɪməm]。

Definition 1.10. An ordered set S is said to have the *least-upper-bound property* if the following is true: If $E \subset S$, E is not empty, and E is bounded above, then $\sup E$ exists in S.

Note S 中存在 $E \subset S$, 且 E 具有最小上界,那么 S 就具有最小上界性,反之亦然。

Theorem 1.11. Suppose S is an ordered set with the least-upper-bound property, $B \subset S$, B is not empty, and B is bounded below. Let L be the set of all lower bounds of B. Then $\alpha = \sup L$ exists in S, and $\alpha = \inf B$. In particular, $\inf B$ exists in S.

Proof.

因为 B 是有下界的,且 L 不为空。由于 L 包含了所有的 y ($y \in S$) 且满足不等式 $y \le x$ ($x \in B$),那么所有的 $x \in B$ 都是 L 的上界。因此 L 是有上界的。关于 S 的假设意为在 S 中有一个 L 的最小上界,被称为 α 。

如果 $\gamma < \alpha$ 那么 (根据 Definition 1.8) γ 并不是 L 的一个上界,因此 $\gamma \notin B$ 。对于所有 的 $x \in B$ 都有 $\alpha \le x$ 。因此 $\alpha \in L$ 。

如果 $\alpha < \beta$ 那么 $\beta \notin L$, 因为 α 是 L 的一个上界。

我们展示过了 $\alpha \in L$ 但是 $\beta \notin L$ 而 $\beta > \alpha$ 的情况。也就是说, α 是 B 的一个下界,但是 当 $\beta > \alpha$ 时 β 却不是。这就意味着 $\alpha = \inf B$ 。

Fields

Definition 1.12. A field is a set F with two operations, called *addition* and *multiplication*, which satisfy the following so-called "field axioms" (A), (M), and (D):

(A) Axioms for addition

- (A1) If $x \in F$ and $y \in F$, then their sum x + y is in F.
- (A2) Addition is commutative: x + y = y + x for all $x, y \in F$.
- (A3) Addition is associative: (x + y) + z = x + (y + z) for all $x, y, z \in F$.
- (A4) F contains an element 0 such that 0 + x = x for every $x \in F$.
- (A5) To every $x \in F$ corresponds an element $-x \in F$ such that x + (-x) = 0.

(M) Axioms for multiplication

- (M1) If $x \in F$ and $y \in F$, then their product xy is in F.
- (M2) Multiplication is commutative: xy = yx for all $x, y \in F$.
- (M3) Multiplication is associative: (xy)z = x(yz) for all $x, y, z \in F$.
- (M4) F contains an element $1 \neq 0$ such that 1x = x for every $x \in F$.
- (M5) If $x \in F$ and $x \neq 0$ then there exists an element $\frac{1}{x} \in F$ such that $x \cdot (\frac{1}{x}) = 1$.

(D) The distributive law

$$x(y+z) = xy + xz$$
 holds for all $x, y, z \in F$.

Note 域的定义: 维基百科。

Definition 1.17. An ordered field is a field F which is also an ordered set, such that:

- 1. x + y < x + z if $x, y, z \in F$ and y < z,
- 2. xy > 0 if $x \in F$, $y \in F$, x > 0, and y > 0.

如果 x > 0,我们称 x 为 positive;如果 x < 0,x 则为 negative。

The Real Field

Theorem 1.19. There exists an ordered field R which has the least-upper-bound property. Moreover, R contains Q as a subfield.

第二个声明意味着 $Q \subset R$ 以及加法与乘法在 R 上的运算,当应用于 Q 的成员时,与有理数的通常操作重合;同样的,正有理数成员是 R 的正元素。

R 的成员被称为 real numbers, 即实数。

Theorem 1.20.

- (a) If $x \in R$, $y \in R$, and x > 0, then there is a positive integer n such that nx > y.
- (b) If $x \in R$, $y \in R$, and x < y, then there exists a $p \in Q$ such that x .

对于 (a) 部分通常认为是 R 具有 $archimedean\ property$,即阿基米德性质,详见维基百科。 (b) 部分则表明 Q 是在 R 中 dense,即具有稠密性:在任意两个实数之间有一个有理数。

Proof.

- (a) 令 A 作为所有 nx 的集合,其中 n 为所有的正整数。如果 (a) 是错误的,那么 y 则会是 A 的一个上界。但是接着 A 会在 R 中拥有一个最小上界,即 $\alpha = \sup A$ 。由于 x > 0, $\alpha x < \alpha$,以及 αx 不是 A 的上界,因此 $\alpha x < mx$ 对于某些正整数 m 成立。但是 这样就会有 $\alpha < (m+1)x \in A$,这是不可能的,因为 α 是 A 的上界。
- (b) 因为 x < y, y x > 0 以及由 (a) 所知一个正整数 n 满足

$$n(y-x) > 1$$

再次应用 (a), 获取正整数 m_1 与 m_2 满足 $m_1 > nx$, $m_2 > -nx$, 那么

$$-m_2 < nx < m_1$$

因此会有一个整数 m $(-m_2 \le m \le m_1)$ 满足

$$m-1 \le nx \le m$$

如果我们结合这些不等式,则会得到

$$nx < m \le 1 + nx < ny$$

因为 n > 0, 它遵循

$$x < \frac{m}{n} < y$$

通过 $p = \frac{m}{n}$ 证明了 (b)。

Note (b) 的第一步将 y-x 作为整体,将 (a) nx>y 中的 x 替换为 y-x,y 替换为 1。同理对于整数 m_1 与 m_2 而言,可分别将 nx 与 -nx 视为不等式右侧的 y,而不等式左侧的 x 视为 1,那么就有了 $m_1 \cdot 1 > nx$ 与 $m_2 \cdot 1 > -nx$ 。对于整数 m 的 $-m_2 \le m \le m_1$ 最坏的情况可将 $-m_2$ 与 m_1 视为相邻的整数,比如说 1 和 2,那么当 m 取值为 2 时视为 $2-1 \le nx < 2$,满足 $m-1 \le nx < m$ 。最后根据有理数的定义 p=m/n $m,n \in Q$ 可以得出 x 与 y 之间一定存在一个有理数。

Theorem 1.21. For every real x > 0 and every integer n > 0 there is one and only one positive real y such that $y^n = x$.

这个 y 数可以被写作 $\sqrt[n]{x}$ 或是 $x^{\frac{1}{n}}$ 。

Proof.

对于至多存在一个 y 的论证很简单,因为 $0 < y_1 < y_2$ 意味着 $y_1^n < y_2^n$.

今 E 为所有满足 $t^n < x$ 的正实数 t 的集合。

如果 t = x/(1+x) 那么 $0 \le t < 1$,那么 $t^n \le t < x$ 。因此 $t \in E$,且 E 不为空。

如果 t > 1 + x 那么 $t^n \ge t > x$,所以 $t \notin E$ 。因此 1 + x 是 E 的一个上界。

所以根据 Theorem 1.19 得出,存在一个

$$y = \sup E$$

而证明 $y^n = x$ 我们需要展示不等式 $y^n < x$ 与 $y^n > x$ 皆会导致矛盾。

当 0 < a < b 时,等式 $b^n - a^n = (b - a)(b^{n-1} + b^{n-2}a + \cdots + a^{n-1})$ 得出不等式

$$b^n - a^n < (b - a)nb^{n-1}$$

假设 $y^n < x$ 。选择 h 使得 0 < h < 1 且

$$h < \frac{x - y^n}{n(y+1)^{n-1}}$$

今 a = y, b = y + h, 那么就有

$$(y+h)^n - y^n < hn(y+h)^{n-1} < hn(y+1)^{n-1} < x - y^n$$

因此 $(y+h)^n < x$, 且 $y+h \in E$ 。因为 y+h > y,这与 y 是 E 的一个上界相矛盾。假设 $y^n > x$ 。令

$$k = \frac{y^n - x}{ny^{n-1}}$$

那么 0 < k < y。如果 $t \ge y - k$,我们得出以下结论:

$$y^{n} - t^{n} \le y^{n} - (y - k)^{n} \le kny^{n-1} = y^{n} - x$$

因此 $t^n > x$, 且 $t \notin E$ 。它遵循 y - k 是 E 的一个上界。

但是因为 y-k < y, 其与 y 是 E 的最小上界的事实相矛盾。

因此 $y^n = x$, 证明完成。

Note 至多存在一个 y 换个角度也就是说但凡有第二个 y 使得 $y_1^n=y_2^n$,那么 $y_1=y_2$ 。 等式

$$b^{n} - a^{n} = (b - a)(b^{n-1} + b^{n-2}a + \dots + a^{n-1})$$

左侧可以视为

$$(b-a)(b^{n-1}+b^{n-1}\frac{a}{b}+\cdots+b^{n-1}\frac{a}{b^{n-1}})$$

提取 b^{n-1} 后得

$$(b-a)b^{n-1}(1+\frac{a}{b}+\cdots+\frac{a^{n-1}}{b^{n-1}})$$

由于有0 < a < b这么一个前提,可以将第三项变为

$$1 + \frac{a}{b} + \dots + \frac{a^{n-1}}{b^{n-1}} < 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = n$$

因此可得不等式

$$b^n - a^n < (b - a)nb^{n-1}$$

至于在证明 $y^n < x$ 不成立时,选择 h 的 $h < \frac{x-y^n}{n(y+1)^{n-1}}$ 分母为什么是 $n(y+1)^{n-1}$,是因为这是为了之后处理不等式而特意设置的消除项(这里利用了函数 $f(x) = x^n$ 是连续的事实,也就是说分母一定也是实数,那么就可以将 h 视为小于某实数);同样的在证明 $y^n > x$ 时的 k 也是如此。

Corollary. If a and b are positive real numbers and n is a positive integer, then

$$(ab)^{1/n} = a^{1/n}b^{1/n}$$

Proof.

$$ab = \alpha^n \beta^n = (\alpha \beta)^n$$

而乘法是符合交换律的, 因此

$$(ab)^{1/n} = \alpha\beta = a^{1/n}b^{1/n}$$

The Extended Real Number System

Definition 1.23. The extended real number system consists of the real field R and two symbols, $+\infty$ and $-\infty$. We preserve the original order in R, and define

$$-\infty < x < +\infty$$

for every $x \in R$.

可以清楚的知道 $+\infty$ 是所有衍生的实数系统子集的一个上界,且每个非空子集都有一个最小上界。如果 E 是一个实数的非空集合,且没有上界在 R 中,那么 $\sup E = +\infty$ 在衍生实数系统中。

下界同理。

衍生实数系统并不形成一个域,但它形成了一下惯例:

(a) 如果 x 是实数则

$$x + \infty = +\infty$$
, $x - \infty = -\infty$, $\frac{x}{+\infty} = \frac{x}{-\infty} = 0$

- (b) 如果 x > 0 则 $x \cdot (+\infty) = +\infty$, $x \cdot (-\infty) = -\infty$
- (c) 如果 x < 0 则 $x \cdot (+\infty) = -\infty$, $x \cdot (-\infty) = +\infty$

The Complex Field

Definition 1.24. A complex number is an ordered pair (a, b) of real numbers. "Ordered" means that (a, b) and (b, a) are regarded as distinct if $a \neq b$.

令 x = (a,b), y = (c,d) 为两个复数。当且仅当 a = c 以及 b = d 时有 x = y。(注意该定义并非是完全不必要的;考虑有理数的等式,表现为整数的商。)我们定义:

$$x + y = (a + c, b + d)$$

$$xy = (ac - bd, ad + bc)$$

Note 作为补充 (详见该篇文章), 对于任意两个复数 x = (a,b), y = (c,d) 的四则运算:

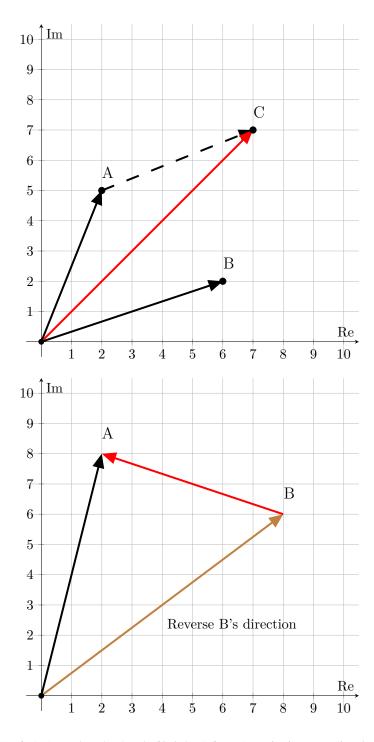
(1)
$$x + y = (a + c) + i(b + d)$$

(2)
$$x - y = (a - c) + i(b - d)$$

(3)
$$xy = (a+ib)(c+id) = ac - bd + i(ad + bc)$$

(4)
$$\frac{x}{y} = \frac{(a+ib)(c-id)}{(c+id)(c-id)} = \frac{(ac+bd)+i(bc-ad)}{c^2+d^2}$$

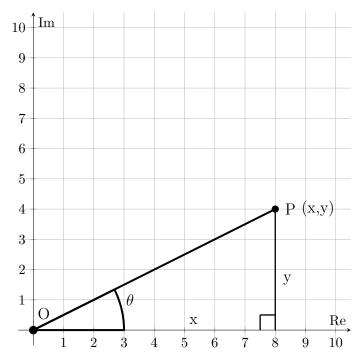
首先,对于任意一个复数 z = a + ib,可以用复平面上的一个点来表示,那么复数加减法可以通过向量来理解:



而对于复数的乘除法,需要先引入复数在极坐标上的几何意义 – 对于任意一个复数 z=a+ib 用极坐标来表示:



那么复数的三角表示为:



这里将 OP 的长度作为复数 z 的模 (Modulus), 用 |z| 表示; 而角 θ 为复数 z 的幅角 (Ar-

gument),用 arg(z)表示。那么复数的三角表示为:

$$z = x + iy = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta), \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}$$

接下来是复数乘法的几何意义,使用复数的三角形式计算下列两个复数的乘积:

$$z_1 = r_1(\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1)$$
$$z_2 = r_2(\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2)$$

那么有:

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1) (\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2)$$

= $r_1 r_2 (\cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 - \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 + i (\sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 + \cos \theta_1 \sin \theta_2))$

那么根据三角和差公式:

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2))$$

可以发现 $z_1 \cdot z_2$ 计算后模为两个复数模的乘积 $|z_1||z_2|$,幅角为两个复数幅角之和 $\arg(z_1z_2) = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$ 。因此复数的乘积可以理解为**拉伸与旋转**。例如:



因为

$$z_1 = \sqrt{2}(\cos\frac{\pi}{4} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{4}), \quad z_2 = 1(\cos\frac{\pi}{2} + i\sin\frac{\pi}{2})$$

所以 z_1z_2 的模长为 $\sqrt{2}$ 且幅角为 $\frac{3\pi}{4}$ 。而复数的除法只需要将除法写成乘法形式即可

$$z^{-1} = (r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta))^{-1}$$

$$= r^{-1} \frac{1}{\cos\theta + i\sin\theta}$$

$$= r^{-1} \frac{\cos\theta - i\sin\theta}{(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)(\cos\theta - i\sin\theta)}$$

$$= r^{-1}(\cos\theta - i\sin\theta)$$

那么两个复数

$$z_1 = r_1(\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1)$$
$$z_2 = r_2(\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2)$$

的除法便是

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = z_1 z_2^{-1}
= \frac{r_1}{r_2} (\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_2) (\cos \theta_1 - i \sin \theta_2)
= \frac{r_1}{r_2} (\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2))$$

因此, $\frac{z_1}{z_2}$ 的模长为两个模相除 $\frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|}$,幅角为 $\arg(\frac{z_1}{z_2}) = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2)$ 。所以复数的除法也可以理解为**拉伸与旋转**。

综上所述, 复数的加减法就是向量的加减法, 乘除法就是拉伸与旋转变换。

Theorem 1.25. These definitions of addition and multiplication turn the set of all complex numbers into a field, with (0, 0) and (1, 0) in the role of 0 and 1.

Proof.

我们简单的验证一下域的公理(Definition 1.12),使用 R 的域结构。令 x=(a,b),y=(c,d),z=(e,f)。

(A1) 很清楚。

(A2)
$$x + y = (a + c, b + d) = (c + a, d + b) = y + x$$

(A3)
$$(x + y) + z = (a + c, b + d) + (e, f)$$
$$= (a + c + e, b + d + f)$$
$$= (a, b) + (c + e, d + f)$$
$$= x + (y + z)$$

(A4)
$$x + 0 = (a, b) + (0, 0) = (a, b) = x$$

(A5)
$$\diamondsuit -x = (-a, -b)$$
, 那么 $x + (-x) = (0, 0) = 0$

(M1) 很清楚。

(M2)
$$xy = (ac - bd, ad + bc) = (ca - db, da + cb) = yx$$

(M3)
$$(xy)z = (ac - db, ad + bc)(e, f)$$

$$= (ace - bde - adf - bef, acf - bdf + ade + bce)$$

$$= (a, b)(ce - df, cf + de)$$

$$= x(yz)$$

(M4)
$$1x = (1,0)(a,b) = (a,b) = x$$

(M5) 如果 $x \neq 0$ 那么 $(a,b) \neq (0,0)$,也就是说 a 和 b 至少有一个实数不等于 0。因此 $a^2 + b^2 > 0$,根据 Proposition 1.18(d),我们可以定义

$$\frac{1}{x} = \left(\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}, \frac{-b}{a^2 + b^2}\right)$$

那么

$$x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = (a,b) \left(\frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}, \frac{-b}{a^2 + b^2} \right) = (1,0) = 1$$
(D)
$$x(y+z) = (a,b)(c+e,d+f)$$

$$= (ac + ae - bd - bf, ad + af + bc + be)$$

$$= (ac - bd, ad + bc) + (ae - bf, af + be)$$

$$= xy + yz$$

Theorem 1.26. For any real numbers a and b we have

$$(a,0) + (b,0) = (a+b,0), \quad (a,0)(b,0) = (ab,0)$$

Definition 1.27. i = (0, 1)

Theorem 1.28. $i^2 = -1$

Proof.

$$i^2 = (0,1)(0,1) = (-1,0) = -1$$

Theorem 1.29. If a and b are real, then (a,b) = a + bi

Proof.

$$a + bi = (a, 0) + (b, 0)(0, 1)$$
$$= (a, 0) + (0, b)$$
$$= (a, b)$$

Definition 1.30. If a, b are real and z = a + bi, then the complex number $\overline{z} = a - bi$ is called the *conjugate* of z. The numbers a and b are the *real part* and the *imaginary part* of z, respectively. We shall occasionally write

$$a = Re(z), \quad b = Im(z)$$

Theorem 1.31. If z and w are complex, then

- (a) $\overline{z+w} = \overline{z} + \overline{w}$
- (b) $\overline{zw} = \overline{z} \cdot \overline{w}$
- (c) $z + \overline{z} = 2 \operatorname{Re}(z), z \overline{z} = 2i \operatorname{Im}(z)$
- (d) $z\overline{z}$ is real and positive (except when z=0)

Definition 1.32. If z is a complex number, its absolute value |z| is the non-negative square root of $z\overline{z}$; that is, $|z| = (z\overline{z})^{1/2}$.

|z| 的存在(以及唯一性)遵循 Theorem 1.12 以及 Theorem 1.31 (d)。 注意当 x 为实数时,那么 $\overline{x}=x$,因此 $|x|=\sqrt{x^2}$ 。所以如果 $x\geq 0$ 时 |x|=x,如果 x<0 时 |x|=-x。

Theorem 1.33. Let z and w be complex numbers. Then

- (a) |z| > 0 unless z = 0, |0| = 0
- (b) $|\overline{z}| = |z|$
- (c) |zw| = |z||w|
- (d) $|Re z| \leq |z|$
- (e) $|z + w| \le |z| + |w|$

Proof.

(a) 与 (b) 不足为道。令 z=a+bi, w=c+di, 其 a,b,c,d 皆为实数。那么

$$|zw|^2 = (ac - bd)^2 + (ad + bc)^2 = (a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2) = |z|^2|w|^2$$

即 $|zw|^2 = (|z||w|)^2$ 。(c) 遵循 Theorem 1.21 所声明的唯一性。

证明 (d), 有 $a^2 \le a^2 + b^2$, 因此

$$|a| = \sqrt{a^2} < \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

证明 (e), 有 $\overline{z}w$ 与 $z\overline{w}$ 是共轭的, 因此 $\overline{z}w + z\overline{w} = 2Re(z\overline{w})$ 。因此

$$|z+w|^2 = (z+w)(\overline{z}+\overline{w})$$

$$= z\overline{z} + z\overline{w} + \overline{z}w + w\overline{w}$$

$$= |z|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(z\overline{w}) + |w|^2$$

$$\leq |z|^2 + 2|z\overline{w}| + |w|^2$$

$$= |z|^2 + 2|z||w| + |w|^2$$

$$= (|z| + |w|)^2$$

两边开根号后即可得 (e)。

Note 计算中第一步的 $|z+w|^2=(z+w)(\overline{z}+\overline{w})$ 是将 z+w 视为整体,并使用了 Definition 1.32 中的 $|z|=(z\overline{z})^{1/2}$ 转换为 $(z+w)(\overline{z}+\overline{w})$,而又因为 Theorem 1.31 (a) 可将第二项变为 $(\overline{z}+\overline{w})$;而第三步到第四步的不等式则利用了 Theorem 1.33 (d),即 $|Rez|\leq |z|$;第四步到第五步则使用了 Theorem 1.33 (c),即 |zw|=|z||w|。

Notation 1.34. If x_1, \ldots, x_n are complex numbers, we write

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j$$

我们用一个重要的不等式来结束本节,它通常被称为 Schwarz inequality。

Theorem 1.35. If a_1, \ldots, a_n and b_1, \ldots, b_n are complex numbers, then

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j \bar{b}_j \right|^2 \le \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_j|^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} |b_j|^2$$

Proof.

令 $A=\sum |a_j|^2$, $B=\sum |b_j|^2$, $C=\sum a_j \overline{b}_j$, 本证明中 j 取值 $1,\ldots,n$ 。如果 B=0, 那么就有 $b_1=\cdots=b_n=0$, 那么结论很清楚。因此假设 B>0。根据 Theorem 1.31 有

$$\sum |Ba_j - Cb_j|^2 = \sum (Ba_j - Cb_j)(B\overline{a}_j - \overline{CB}_j)$$

$$= B^2 \sum |a_j|^2 - B\overline{C} \sum a_j \overline{b}_j - BC \sum \overline{a}_j b_j + |C|^2 \sum |b_j|^2$$

$$= B^2 A - B|C|^2$$

$$= B(AB - |C|^2)$$

因为在首次求和的每个项都是非负的, 可以知道

$$B(AB - |C|^2) \ge 0$$

又因为 B > 0, 它遵循 $AB - |C|^2 \ge 0$ 。它便是预期的不等式。

Note $|Ba_j-Cb_j|^2$ 为构造项,将其中 Ba_j-Cb_j 视为整体根据 Definition 1.32,可转换为 $(Ba_j-Cb_j)(\overline{Ba_j}-\overline{Cb_j})$,而后者根据 Theorem 1.31 即可写为 $B\overline{a}_j-\overline{Cb_j}$ (这里 $B=\sum |b_j|^2$ 的共轭还是其本身);根据乘法分配律得出第二步后,将之前设定的 A,B,C 带入即可得出 $B(AB-|C|^2)$;最后根据起始的构造项 $|Ba_j-Cb_j|^2$ 必然非负以及之前假设的 B>0 可以得出 $AB-|C|^2\geq 0$;将 A,B,C原本代表的值带入,即 $\sum |a_j|^2\sum |b_j|^2-|\sum a_j\overline{b}_j|\geq 0$ 。

Euclidean Spaces

Definition 1.36. For each positive integer k, let R^k be the set of all ordered k-tuples

$$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$$

where x_1, \ldots, x_k are real numbers, called the *coordinates* of \mathbf{x} . The elements of R^k are called points, or vectors, especially when k > 1. We shall denote vectors by boldfaced letters. If $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \ldots, y_k)$ and if α is a real number, put

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_k + y_k)$$
$$\alpha \mathbf{x} = (\alpha x_1, \dots, \alpha x_k)$$

so that $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in R^k$ and $\alpha \mathbf{x} \in R^k$. This defines addition of vectors, as well as multiplication of a vector by a real number (a scalar). These two operations satisfy the commutative, associative, and distributive laws (the proof is trivial, in view of the analogous for the real numbers) and make R^k into a vector space over the real field. The zero element of R^k (sometimes called the origin or the null vector) is the point $\mathbf{0}$, all of whose coordinates are 0.

We also define the so-called "inner product" (or scalar product) of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} by

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i y_i$$

and the *norm* of \mathbf{x} by

$$|\mathbf{x}| = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x})^{1/2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i^2\right)^{1/2}$$

The structure now defined (the vector space \mathbb{R}^k with the above inner product and norm) is called euclidean k-space.

Theorem 1.37. Suppose $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, and α is real. Then

- (a) $|\mathbf{x}| \ge 0$;
- (b) $|\mathbf{x}| = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$;
- (c) $|\alpha \mathbf{x}| = |\alpha||\mathbf{x}|$;
- (d) $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \le |\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}|$;
- (e) $|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}| \le |\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}|$;
- (f) $|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{z}| \le |\mathbf{x} \mathbf{y}| + |\mathbf{y} \mathbf{z}|$

Proof.

前三项不必赘述,而(d)是 Schwarz 不等式的间接结论。通过(d)可以有

$$|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|^2 = (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})$$

$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} + 2\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$\leq |\mathbf{x}|^2 + 2|\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| + |\mathbf{y}|^2$$

$$= (|\mathbf{x}| + |\mathbf{y}|)^2$$

这样 (e) 就被证明了。最后替换 (e) 中的 \mathbf{x} 为 $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$ 以及 \mathbf{y} 为 $\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}$ (f) 可以得出 (f)。

Remark 1.38. Theorem 1.37 (a), (b), and (f) will allow us (see Chap. 2) to regard \mathbb{R}^k as a metric space.

 R^1 (the set of all real numbers) is usually called the line, or the real line. Likewise, R^2 is called the plane, or the complex plane (compare Definitions 1.24 and 1.36). In these two cases the norm is just the absolute value of the corresponding real or complex number.

2 Basic Topology

Finite, Countable, and Uncoutable Sets

本节由函数概念的定义开始。

Definition 2.1. Consider two sets A and B, whose elements may be any objects whatsover, and suppose that with each element x of A there is associated, in some manner, an element of B, which we denote by f(x). Then f is said to be a function from A to B (or a mapping of A into B). The set A is called the domain of f (we also say f is defined on A), and the elements f(x) are called the values of f. The set of all values of f is called the range of f.

Definition 2.2. Let A and B be two sets and let f be a mapping of A into B. If $E \subset A$, f(E) is defined to be the set of all elements f(x), for $x \in E$. We call f(E) the *image* of E under f. In this notation, f(A) is the range of f. It is clear that $f(A) \subset B$. If f(A) = B, we say that f maps A onto B. (Note that, according to this usage, onto is more specific than into.)

If $E \subset B$, $f^{-1}(E)$ denotes the set of all $x \in A$ such that $f(x) \in E$. We call $f^{-1}(E)$ the inverse image of E under f. If $y \in B$, $f^{-1}(y)$ is the set of all $x \in A$ such that f(x) = y. If, for each $y \in B$, $f^{-1}(y)$ consists of at most one element of A, then f is said to be a 1-1 (one-to-one) mapping of A into B. This may also be expressed as follows: f is a 1-1 mapping of A into B provided that $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2, x_1 \in A, x_2 \in A$.

(The notation $x_1 \neq x_2$ means that x_1 and x_2 are distinct elements; otherwise we write $x_1 = x_2$.)

Note 简单来说:

- 1. f(E) 是集合 E 通过 f 得到的像 (image)。
- 2. f(A) 是 f 的范围。
- 3. 如果 f(A) = B, 那么称 f 将 A 完全映射至 (onto) B 。
- 4. 而当 $E \subset B$ 且 $x \in A$ 时,反函数 $f^{-1}(E)$ 是集合 E 通过 f 得到的反像 (inverse image)。
- 5. $\forall x \in A$ 通过 f 映射后且满足 $\forall f(x) \in B$ 被称为——映射(1-1 mapping)。

Definition 2.3. If there exists a 1-1 mapping of A onto B, we say that A and B can be put in 1-1 correspondence, or that A and B have the same cardinal number, or, briefly, that A and B are equivalent, and we write $A \sim B$. This relation clearly has the following properties:

It is reflexive: $A \sim A$.

2 BASIC TOPOLOGY 18

It is symmetric: If $A \sim B$, then $B \sim A$.

It is transitive: If $A \sim B$ and $B \sim C$, then $A \sim C$.

Any relation with these three properties is called an *equivalence relation*.

Note Reflexive 自反性, 维基百科。

Definition 2.4. For any positive integer n, let J_n be the set whose elements are the integers $1, 2, \ldots, n$; let J be the set consisting of all positive integers. For any set A, we say:

- (a) A is finite if $A \sim J_n$ for some n (the empty set is also considered to be finnite).
- (b) A is *infinite* if A is not finite.
- (c) A is countable if $A \sim J$.
- (d) A is uncountable if A is neither finite nor countable.
- (e) A is at most countable if A is finite or countable.

Countable sets are sometimes called *enumerable*, or *denumerable*.

For two finite sets A and B, we evidently have $A \sim B$ if and only if A and B contain the same number of elements. For infinite sets, however, the idea of "having the same number of elements" becomes quite vague, whereas the notion of 1-1 correspondence retains its clarity.

Note 可数集 (countable set),是指每个元素都能与自然数集 N 的每个元素之间能建立一一对应的集合;不可数集顾名思义就是无法与自然数集 N 建立一一对应的集合。

Definition 2.7. By a sequence, we mean a function f defined on the set J of all positive integers. If $f(n) = x_n$, for $n \in J$, it is customary to denote the sequence f by the symbol $\{x_n\}$, or sometimes by x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots The values of f, that is, the elements x_n , are called the terms of the sequence. If A is a set and if $x_n \in A$ for all $n \in J$, then $\{x_n\}$ is said to be a sequence in A, or a sequence of elements of A.

注意一个序列的 x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots 项不需要是独特的。

由于每个可数集合是一个定义在 J 上一一映射的范围,可将每个可数集合视为一系列不同项的范围。更宽泛来说,任何可数集合中的原始可以被"排列在一个序列上"。

有时可以将定义中的 J 替换为所有非负整数集合,这样可能会更加的方便,例如开始于 0 而不是 1。

Theorem 2.8. Every infinite subset of a countable set A is coutable.

2 BASIC TOPOLOGY 19

Proof.

假设 $E \subset A$,且 E 为无限的。排列 A 中的元素 x 构建 $\{x_n\}$ 独特序列。构建一个满足如下的序列 $\{n_k\}$:

令 n_1 为最小的正整数使得 $x_{n_1} \in E$ 。选择 n_1, \ldots, n_{k-1} $(k=2,3,4,\ldots)$,令 n_k 为最小的大于 n_{k-1} 的整数使得 $x_{n_k} \in E$ 。

今 $f(k) = x_{n_k}$ (k = 1, 2, 3, ...),我们获取一个 E 与 J 的一一映射关系。

根据定理, 粗略的说可数集合表示了"最小的"无限性: 没有不可数集合可以成为一个可数集合的子集。

Note 一个可数集合 A 的任意无限子集都是可数的。

Definition 2.9. Let A and Ω be sets, and suppose that with each element α of A there is associated a subset of Ω which we denote by E_{α} .

The set whose elements are the sets E_{α} will be denoted by $\{E_{\aleph}\}$. Instead of speaking of sets of sets, we shall sometimes speak of a collection of sets, or a family of sets.

The *union* of the sets E_{α} is defined to be the set S such that $x \in S$ if and only if $x \in E_{\alpha}$ for at least one $\alpha \in A$. We use the notation

$$(1) S = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha}.$$

If A consists of the integers $1, 2, \ldots, n$, one usually writes

$$(2) S = \bigcup_{m=1}^{n} E_m$$

or

$$(3) S = E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \cdots \cup E_n.$$

If A is the set of all positive integers, the usual notation is

$$(4) S = \bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty} E_m.$$

The symbol ∞ in (4) merely indicates that the union of a *countable* collection of sets is taken, and should not be confused with the symbols $+\infty$, $-\infty$, introduced in Definition 1.23.

The intersection of the sets E_{α} is defined to be the set P such that $x \in P$ if and only if $x \in E_{\alpha}$ for every $\alpha \in A$. We use the notation

$$(5) P = \bigcap_{\alpha \in A} E_{\alpha},$$

2 BASIC TOPOLOGY

or

(6)
$$P = \bigcap_{m=1}^{n} E_m = E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \cdots \cap E_n,$$

or

(7)
$$P = \bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty} E_m,$$

as for unions. If $A \cap B$ is not empty, we say that A and B intersect; otherwise they are disjoint.

20

Remark 2.11. Many properties of unions and intersections are quite similar to those of sums and products; in fact, the words sum and product were sometimes used in this connection, and the symbols Σ and Π were written in place of \bigcup and \bigcap .

The commutative and associative laws are trivial:

(8)
$$A \cup B = B \cup A; \quad A \cap B = B \cap A.$$

$$(9) (A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C); (A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C).$$

Thus the omission of parenthese in (3) and (6) is justified.

The distributive law also holds:

$$(10) A \cap (b \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).$$

To prove this, let the left and right members of (10) be denoted by E and F, respectively.

Suppose $x \in E$. Then $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$, that is, $x \in B$ or $x \in C$ (possibly both). Hence $x \in A \cap B$ or $x \in A \cap C$, so that $x \in F$. Thus $E \subset F$.

Next, suppose $x \in F$. Then $x \in A \cap B$ or $x \in A \cap C$. That is, $x \in A$, and $x \in B \cup C$. Hence $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$, so that $F \subset E$.

It follows that E = F.

We list a few more relations which are easily verified:

$$(11) A \subset A \cup B,$$

$$(12) A \cap B \subset A.$$

If 0 denotes the empty set, then

$$(13) A \cup 0 = A, \quad A \cap 0 = 0.$$

If $A \subset B$, then

$$(14) A \cup B = B, \quad A \cap B = A.$$

21

Metric Spaces

WIP

Compact Sets

WIP

Perfect Sets

WIP

Connected Sets

WIP

3 Numerical Sequences and Series

4 CONTINUITY 23

4 Continuity

5 DIFFERENTIATION 24

5 Differentiation

6 The Riemann-Stiltjes Integral

7 Sequences and Series of Functions

8 Some Special Functions

9 Functions of Several Variables

10 Integration of Differential Forms

11 The Lebesgue Theory