

**A FIRST COURSE
IN
ANALYSIS**

A FIRST COURSE IN ANALYSIS

MAT2006 Notebook

Lecturer

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Notations and Conventions

\mathbb{R}^n	n -dimensional real space
\mathbb{C}^n	n -dimensional complex space
$\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$	set of all $m \times n$ real-valued matrices
$\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$	set of all $m \times n$ complex-valued matrices
x_i	i th entry of column vector \mathbf{x}
a_{ij}	(i, j) th entry of matrix \mathbf{A}
\mathbf{a}_i	i th column of matrix \mathbf{A}
\mathbf{a}_i^T	i th row of matrix \mathbf{A}
\mathbb{S}^n	set of all $n \times n$ real symmetric matrices, i.e., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i, j
\mathbb{H}^n	set of all $n \times n$ complex Hermitian matrices, i.e., $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $\bar{a}_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i, j
\mathbf{A}^T	transpose of \mathbf{A} , i.e, $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^T$ means $b_{ji} = a_{ij}$ for all i, j
\mathbf{A}^H	Hermitian transpose of \mathbf{A} , i.e, $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^H$ means $b_{ji} = \bar{a}_{ij}$ for all i, j
$\text{trace}(\mathbf{A})$	sum of diagonal entries of square matrix \mathbf{A}
$\mathbf{1}$	A vector with all 1 entries
$\mathbf{0}$	either a vector of all zeros, or a matrix of all zeros
\mathbf{e}_i	a unit vector with the nonzero element at the i th entry
$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$	the column space of \mathbf{A}
$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{A})$	the row space of \mathbf{A}
$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$	the null space of \mathbf{A}
$\text{Proj}_{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{A})$	the projection of \mathbf{A} onto the set \mathcal{M}

Chapter 8

Week8

8.1. Friday

This lecture will discuss the multi-variable calculus.

8.1.1. Introduction to metric space

The multi-variable calculus aims to study the function $f : \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$f(\underbrace{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m}_{\mathbf{x}}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_n(\mathbf{x}))$$

To begin with, let's assume $n = 1$, i.e., we study only one component in RHS first. The preliminaries for this concept are limit points or something else. Let's define them in high dimension first.

Generalization from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R}^2 . The distance between two points in \mathbb{R}^2 is usually defined as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) \\ \mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2) \end{array} \implies d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2} \quad (L_2 \text{ norm})$$

- Sometimes another distance measure is $d_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = |x_1 - y_1| + |x_2 - y_2|$, which is called L_1 norm
- Or more generally, $d_\infty(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i - y_i|$, which is called L_∞ norm.

Those distance measures are essentially the same in order, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &\leq d_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \sqrt{2}d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), & \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \\ d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &\leq d_\infty(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \sqrt{2}d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), & \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^2\end{aligned}$$

R

- For those distance measures with the same order, the corresponding properties defined with those measures are also nearly the same. We always define the L_2 norm as our distance measure by default.
- However, one distance measure is different in order from those above:

$$\bar{d}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Definition 8.1 [Metric Space] The binary operation $d : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is called a metric if the following are satisfied:

1. $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq 0, \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{H}$;
2. $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}), \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{H}$;
3. $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \leq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}), \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{H}$,

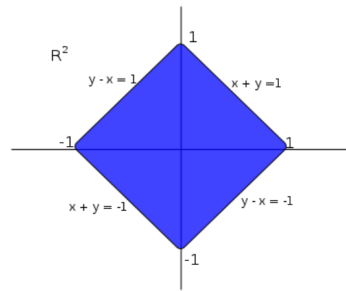
where \mathcal{H} is called the **metric space**, e.g., \mathbb{R}^m is a common metric space. ■

The reason for defining metric is to describe **convergence** in high dimensions. Let's define the corresponding definitions related to convergence again:

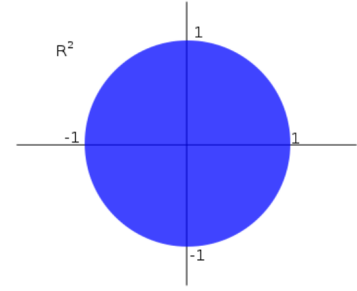
Definition 8.2 [Open ball] The open ball is a set $B_r(\mathbf{a})$ such that

$$B_r(\mathbf{a}) := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{H} \mid d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) < r\} \quad (8.1)$$

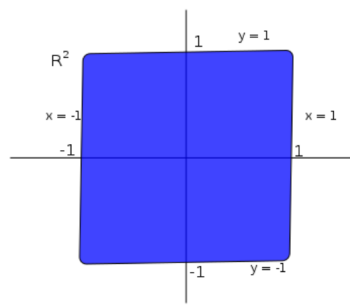
Some illustrations for $B_1(\mathbf{0})$ in the metric space \mathbb{R}^2 is shown as follows:



(a) The L_1 metric with unit ball $B_1(\mathbf{0})$



(b) The L_2 metric with unit ball $B_1(\mathbf{0})$



(c) The L_∞ metric with unit ball $B_1(\mathbf{0})$

Figure 8.1: illustrations for $B_1(\mathbf{0})$ in the metric space \mathbb{R}^2

Definition 8.3 [Convergence] The sequence defined on the metric space (\mathcal{H}, d) is convergent to x_0 if $d(x_n, x_0) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, which is denoted as $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x_0$, or simply $x_n \rightarrow x_0$ ■

Check rudin's book in page 32 for the concepts about Openness, closedness, neighborhood, boundness, **compactness**, limit points, **connectness**. In particular, let's discuss something important.

Definition 8.4 [Compact] A set K is said to be compact if every open cover has a finite subcover. ■

The proof of the proposition that K is compact if it is bounded and closed is left as exercise.

Definition 8.5 A set S is **pathwise** connected if for any two points $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$, there exists a "path" Γ connecting \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} , where Γ is a continuous function $[0, 1] \mapsto S$ with the

property that $\Gamma(0) = \mathbf{x}, \Gamma(1) = \mathbf{y}$. ■

Definition 8.6 [Domain] A domain is an open set which is **path-wise connected**. ■

Ⓡ An open set is not necessarily path-wise connected.

Definition 8.7 [Oscillation]

1. The **oscillation** of $f : X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ on a set $E \subseteq X$ is $\omega(f; E) = d(f(E))$, where d denote the diameter of the set $f(E)$, i.e.,

$$\omega(f; E) = d(f(E)) = \sup_{x, y \in E} d(f(x), f(y)).$$

2. The **oscillation** of f at a point \mathbf{a} is

$$w(f; \mathbf{a}) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0+} \omega(f; B_r(\mathbf{a}))$$

Local Properties.

Proposition 8.1 — Useful Properties. Let f be a function mapping a metric space \mathcal{H} to \mathbb{R}^m , then

1. f is continuous at the point \mathbf{a} iff $\omega(f; \mathbf{a}) = 0$
2. If f is continuous at \mathbf{a} with $f(\mathbf{a}) > 0$, then $f > 0$ in some neighborhood of \mathbf{a}
3. The linear combinations of continuous functions $(\alpha f + \beta g)$, component-wise products $(f \cdot g)$, or component-wise quotients $(\frac{f}{g}, g_i \neq 0)$ are also continuous functions

Proposition 8.2 — Global Properties. 1. Let $f : K \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ be a continuous function with K being compact, then we have

- (a) f is **uniformly continuous** on K
- (b) f is **bounded** on K

(c) f assumes its maximum and minimum on K

2. Intermediate Value property: If $f : E \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, where E is **path-wise connected**, then $f(a) = A$ and $f(b) = B$ implies for all c between A and B , there exists $c \in E$ such that $f(c) = C$.

■ **Example 8.1** 1.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0, & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

For any (x, y) on the line $y = mx$, we have

$$f(x, mx) = \frac{mx^2}{x^2 + m^2x^2} = \frac{m}{1 + m^2},$$

thus $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$ does not exist since different paths toward the origin may lead to a different limit. There is another interesting fact:

$$\begin{cases} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) = 0, \\ \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) = 0 \end{cases}$$

2.

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

Apply ε - δ language to verify that $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = 0$, but

$$\begin{cases} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) = 0 \\ \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) \text{ does not exist} \end{cases}$$

Ⓡ The continuity of a function at $x = a$ does not necessarily imply the interchangeability of limit processes. However, the uniform convergence can enable us to arrive at positive results.

3.

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 y}{x^4 + y^2}, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

For any (x,y) on the line $y = mx$, we have

$$f(x, mx) = \frac{mx^2 \cdot x}{x^4 + m^2 x^2} = \frac{mx}{x^2 + m^2} \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0$$

However, for any (x,y) on the line $y = x^2$, we have

$$f(x, x^2) = \frac{x^2 \cdot x^2}{x^4 + x^4} = \frac{1}{2},$$

which means f is not continuous at $(0,0)$.

4.

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 y}{x^6 + y^2}, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

When $y = mx$, we have $f(x, mx) = \frac{mx}{x^4 + m^2} \rightarrow 0$.

When $y = x^3$, we have $f(x, x^3) = \frac{1}{2x} \rightarrow \infty$, i.e., f is unbounded near origin.

Question. Is it possible that a sphere S^2 and a circle S^1 are situated such that the distance from any point on the sphere to any point on the circle is the same, i.e., is it possible for a function

$$d(x,y) : S^2 \times S^1 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

remains constant? When will this fact be possible in \mathbb{R}^k ?