Analysis 1

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- Analysis 1 ITET, F Ziltener https://metaphor.ethz.ch/x/2024/hs/401-0231-10L/Ziltener_Notizen_Analysis_1_ITET_RW.pdf
- Analysis für Informatik, M
 Struwe https://people.math.ethz.ch/~struwe/Skripten/InfAnalysis-bbm-8-11-2010.pdf

Logik

Aussage - Eine Aeusserung, die entweder wahr oder falsch ist

Luegner Paradox - Das ist keine Aussage: "Dieser Satz ist falsch"

Menge (Set) - eine ungeordnete Zusammenfassung verschiedener Objekte zu einem Ganzen

 \wedge - and

∨ - or

 $\forall \ (XOR) \ \text{- either} \ \dots \ \text{or} \ \dots$

Materiale Aequivalenz (⇔)

Logische Aequivalenz (\equiv) $A \Leftrightarrow B \equiv (A \Rightarrow B) \land (B \Rightarrow A)$ - Sie haben die gleichen

Wahrheitstabellen

 $A \Leftrightarrow B$ - A genau dann wenn B

 $A \Rightarrow B$ - Wenn A, dann B

 $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$ - Kontraposition

$$A \Rightarrow B \equiv \neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$$

Zum Beispiel:

Es hat geregnet \Rightarrow die Strasse ist nas

Kontraposition: Die Strasse ist nicht nass \Rightarrow Es hat nicht geregnet

Das ist genauso wahr aufgrund der Physik.

Wahr: $0 < 0 \Rightarrow 1 + 1 = 2$ Falsch: $0 < 0 \Leftrightarrow 1 + 1 = 2$

Distributive:

$$P \wedge (Q \vee R) \equiv (P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R)$$

$$P \lor (Q \land R) \equiv (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$$

Proofs

Beweis - eine Herleitung einer Aussage aus den Axiomen

Satz - eine Bewiesene Aussage

Lemma (oder Hilfssatz) - ein Satz, der dazu dient, einen anderen Satz zu beweisen

q.e.d. (■) - end of proof

Beweiss formalisieren - Express a proof formally in terms of symbols and Limmas, can be checked by a computer.

Divide et impera - divide and conquer Zermelo + Fraenkel Axioms - Foundational axioms of all proofs

Beweis Methode

Modus ponens - Wird (meistens mehrmals) verwendet, um etwas zu beweisen:

A := Es hat geregnet (Premise)

Wenn es geregnet hat, dann ist die Strasse nass (Regel: $A \Rightarrow B$)

B := Die Strasse ist nass (Konklusion)

Kontraposition - Prove the Kontraposition, which subsequently proves the original statement (they are logically equivalent)

Beweisen, dass $\sqrt{2} < \sqrt{3}$:

$$A := \sqrt{2} > \sqrt{3} \equiv \neg \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{3}$$

Monotonie des Quadrierens:

$$x,y \geq 0$$
 Wenn $x \leq y, \text{dann ist } x^2 \leq y^2$

Laut der Monotonie des Quadrierens, $B := 2 \ge 3$ ist wahr

$$A \Rightarrow B \equiv \neg B \Rightarrow \neg A \equiv 2 < 3 \Rightarrow \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{3}$$

Widerspruch beweis

Um A zu beweisen, nehmen wir an, dass A falsch ist.

Widerspruch finden - das beweist die Aussage A

Zum Beispiel:

Beweis des Satzes $\sqrt{2} < \sqrt{3}$

Nehmen wir an, dass $\sqrt{2} \ge \sqrt{3}$ wahr ist

Lemma (Monotonie des Quadrierens): $\sqrt{2} \ge \sqrt{3} \Rightarrow 2 \ge 3$

Widerspruch: $2 \ge 3$ ist falsch, deshalb ist $\sqrt{2} \ge \sqrt{3}$ auch falsch.

$$\neg \left(\sqrt{2} \ge \sqrt{3}\right) \equiv \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{3} \blacksquare$$

It is more rigorous to prove / rewrite something through Contraposition, because we start with a false statement in contradiction.

Vollstaendige Induktion

 $n \in N_0, P(n)$ ist eine Aussage

P(0) ist wahr

Wenn $\forall k \in N_0$ gilt $P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$

Dann ist $\forall n \in N_0, P(n) \equiv \text{wahr}$

Zum Beispiel:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Satz: } \forall n \in N_0, P(n) &\coloneqq \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\ P(0) &= \frac{0(1)}{2} = 0 \\ \text{Sei } P(k) &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \\ \text{Zu zeigen } P(k+1) &= \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2} \\ P(k+1) &= P(k) + k + 1 = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + k + 1 \\ &= 2k^2 + 3k + 1 = \frac{k^2 + \frac{3}{2}k + \frac{1}{2}}{2} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Vollstaendige Induktion gibt, dass $\forall n \in N_0, P(n)$ wahr ist. \blacksquare

Mengenlehre

Eine ungeordnete Zusammenfassung von Elemente.

∅ - Leere Menge, hat keine Elemente

 $\{\emptyset\}$ hat genau ein Element

Aussageform $\{x \mid P(x)\}$ or $\{x; P(x)\}$ - die Menge aller x, fuer die P(x) gilt Example: $\{x \mid x \in \mathbb{N}_0, x \text{ ist gerade}\}$

Russelsche Antonomie - $\{x \mid x \in X, x \notin x\}$ ist ein Paradox

Loesung: Es muss immer so definiert werden $\{x \in X \mid P(x)\}$, wo X eine Menge ist.

$$A \cap B - \{x \mid x \in A \land x \in B\}$$
 - Intersection

$$A \cup B - \{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$$
 - Union

$$A \setminus B - \{x \in A \mid x \notin B\}$$
 - Without

 $A \subseteq B$ - Jedes Element von A liegt in B (between two sets, unlike $x \in A$ which describes a single element x being inside the set A)

 $A\subset B$ - Jedes Element von A liegt in B und A enthaelt weniger Elemente als B

 $A \subseteq X$, $A^{\complement} = X \setminus A$, wo X die Grundmenge ist, die jeder Element die wir betrachten enthaelt.

Distributive:

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$
$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$(1,2,3)$$
 - Tuple - Ordered set

Kartesische Product / Potenz - $X\times Y=\{(x,y)\mid x\in X, y\in Y\}$ Example:

$$\begin{split} X \coloneqq \{0,1\}, Y \coloneqq \{\alpha,\beta\} \\ X \times Y \coloneqq \{(0,\alpha), (0,\beta), (1,\alpha), (1,\beta)\} \\ |X \times Y| = |X| \times |Y| \end{split}$$

 \mathbb{R}^n := n-dimensionalen Koordinatenraum

$$\mathbb{R}^2 = X \times Y$$

$$\mathbb{R}^3 = X \times Y \times Z$$

Interval Notation

$$[a, b] - a \le x \le b$$
$$(a, b) - a < x < b$$

Open bounds cannot be the maximum / minimum of a set, as they are not contained in the set (and $0.\dot{9} \equiv 1$ etc.).

Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

Supremum

$$\sup A = \begin{cases} \text{Smallest upper bound} & \text{if A has an upper bound} \\ \infty & \text{if A doesn't have an upper bound} \\ -\infty & \text{if } A = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Infimum - Largest lower bound

$$\inf A = \begin{cases} \text{Largest lower bound} & \text{if A has a lower bound} \\ -\infty & \text{if A doesn't have a lower bound} \\ \infty & \text{if } A = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Infinity cannot be a Supre/Infimum, because $\infty \notin \mathbb{R}$

De Morgan's Laws

Also apply to boolean logic, where A, B := 1, 0

$$(A \cap B)^{\mathbb{C}} = A^{\mathbb{C}} \cup B^{\mathbb{C}}$$
$$(A \cup B)^{\mathbb{C}} = A^{\mathbb{C}} \cap B^{\mathbb{C}}$$

Quantoren

They cannot simply be swapped! See the largest natural number problem in script.

∃ - Existenzquantor - Es gibt

 \forall - Allquantor - Fuer alle

 $\exists !$ - Es gibt genau ein element

$$\neg(\forall x \in X | P(x)) = \exists x \in X | \neg P(x)$$
$$\neg(\exists x \in X | P(x)) = \forall x \in X | \neg P(x)$$

Goethe Prinzip - When a variable is renamed correctly, a statement is still logically equivalent

Funktionen

Eine Funktion ist ein Tripel f=(X,Y,G), wobei X und Y Mengen sind und $G\subseteq X\times Y$, sodass $\forall x\in X\exists y\in Y$, sodass $(x,y)\in G$

 ${\it Domain}$ - Set of possible inputs for a function

Codomain (Range) - Set of possible outputs of a function

Example:

Both are Quadratic funktions but are not equal:

$$X := Y := \mathbb{R}, G = \{(x, x^2) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$$
$$X := \mathbb{R}, Y :=]0, \infty[, G = \{(x, x^2) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$$

$$X \to X$$
, $id(x) := x$ - Identitaets Funktion

Bild und Urbild - Muss nicht bijektiv sein

$$\operatorname{im}(X):=f(X)$$
 - Bild von f $f:X \to \alpha, f^{-1}(Y):=\{x\in X\mid f(x)\in Y\}$ - Urbild von y unter f

Surjektiv - $\forall y \in Y \exists x \in X: f(x) = y$ - Es gibt fuer jeder Ausgang einige dazugehoerige Eingange Injektiv - $\forall x, x' \in X: x \neq x' \Rightarrow f(x) \neq f(x')$ - Es gibt genau eine Ausgang fuer jeder Eingang in dem Definitionsbereich

Bijektiv - Es ist Surjektiv und Injektiv, weshalb es eine Inverse hat

Umkehrfunktion

Sei $f:X \to Y$ eine Bijektive funktion, $f^{<-1>} \coloneqq Y \to X$ - Umkehr Funktion

The inverse can ONLY be defined when the function is Bijektiv, unlike the Urbild. When $X = Y = \mathbb{R}$ it is the reflection of the original function over the line y = x. It is sometimes notated as f^{-1} when the context is clear.

Do not forget to consider the given domain / range when considering if a function is bijektiv!

Zum Beispiel:

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, f(x) := x^2$$
$$\operatorname{im}(f) = f(\mathbb{R}) = [0, \infty]$$
$$f^{-1}([-\infty, 4]) = [-2, 2]$$

The inverse can be only be defined if f is Bijektiv:

$$f:[0,\infty]\to[0,\infty], f(X)\coloneqq x^2$$

$$f^{<-1>}=\sqrt{X}$$

 $g \circ f := g(f(x))$ - Only possible if the $\operatorname{codom}(f) = \operatorname{dom}(g)$

Zahlen und Vektoren

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{N}_0 &:= \{0,1,2,\ldots\} \\ \mathbb{N} &:= \{1,2,3,\ldots\} \\ \mathbb{Z} &:= \{\ldots,-1,0,1,\ldots\} \\ \mathbb{Q} &:= \left\{\frac{m}{n} \mid m \in Z \land n \in N\right\} \\ \mathbb{N}_0 \subseteq \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \end{split}$$

There are infinite gaps in the number line of rational numbers. These can be filled with $\mathbb{R}\setminus\mathbb{Q}$ - Irrational numbers, for example $\sqrt{2}$, π , e. For example: $\nexists s\in\mathbb{Q}\mid s^2=2$.

Reelen Zahlen

Dedekind Cut

A Dedekind cut is a way of representing the real numbers using the rational numbers by cutting the number line into two sections around a "gap" represented by an irrational number. Let $x \subset \mathbb{Q}$ (x contains less elements than \mathbb{Q}), the following properties describe the cut:

$$x \notin \emptyset$$

$$\forall r \in x \forall s \in \mathbb{Q} : s > r \Rightarrow s \in x$$

$$\forall r \in x \exists s_0 \in x : s_0 < r$$

This definition can of course include $\mathbb{Q} \cup (\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q})$ and therefore the entire \mathbb{R} set.

The elementary number operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication, inequalities etc.) can be defined in terms of Dedekind cuts, precisely defining our understanding of arithmetic. \mathbb{R} (und deshalb auch \mathbb{Q}) ist eine sogennante "total geordneter Koerper".

Dedekind Completeness - Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} with an upper / lower limit has a smallest / largest upper / lower limit.

This proves that the irrational numbers are not complete: $\{r \in Q \mid r^2 < 2\}$ has no smallest upper limit.

b-adischer Bruch

This is the formal name of the place value system which is defined for all bases ≥ 2 . The values of the digits before the radix point are nb, and $\frac{1}{nb}$ after the radix.

Youngsche Ungleichung

$$x, y, c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$c > 0$$

$$2|xy| \le cx^2 + \frac{y^2}{c}$$

Cardinality (Mächtigkeit)

Two sets have the same cardinality if they have the same size and therefore a bijective mapping between them exists (see Cantor's Diagonalmethod).

$$|\mathbb{N}_0| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}| \neq |\mathbb{R}|$$

Complex Numbers

The Real numbers contain no solution for $x^2=-1$, which is why the imaginary number $i=\sqrt{-1}$ was introduced, first considered by Cardano. They can be used to solve real world problems throughout electrical engineering, particularly for oscillations because powers of i^n have a repetitive nature.

Complex addition is identical to real addition $+_{\mathbb{R}^2}$.

Complex multiplication is defined as:

$$\cdot_{\mathbb{C}} : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2, \begin{pmatrix} r \\ m \end{pmatrix} \cdot_{\mathbb{C}} \begin{pmatrix} r' \\ m' \end{pmatrix} \coloneqq \begin{pmatrix} rr' - mm' \\ rm' + r'm \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(r+mi)(r'+m'i) = rr' + rm'i + mr'i + mm'i^2$$

$$= rr' - mm' + (rm' + r'm)i$$

Therefore the complex body is defined as a tuple with the operations:

$$\mathbb{C} \coloneqq (\mathbb{R}^2, +_{\mathbb{R}^2}, \cdot_{\mathbb{C}})$$
$$i \in \mathbb{C}, i \coloneqq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is not a complete body as it doesn't contain any definitions for inequalities, like \mathbb{R} .

The following injective, non surjective function maps real numbers to complex numbers:

$$\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C} : x \in \mathbb{R}, \binom{x}{0} \in \mathbb{C}$$

There exists a root for -1 in the complex body:

$$i^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot_{\mathbb{C}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\sqrt{-1} = \pm i$$

The complex conjugate is defined as follows:

$$z := a + bi$$

$$\Re(z) = a$$

$$\Im(z) = b$$

$$\overline{z} = a - bi$$

The euclidian norm is defined as:

$$|z| = \sqrt{{|z_1|}^2 + {|z_2|}^2 + \ldots + {|z_n|}^2}$$

General identities:

$$z\overline{z} = |z|^{2}$$

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

$$\overline{zz'} = \overline{z} \cdot \overline{z'}$$

The function cis is defined to handle complex numbers in polar form:

$$\begin{aligned} &\operatorname{cis}(\theta) = \operatorname{cos}(\theta) + i \operatorname{sin}(\theta) \\ &\operatorname{cis}(\theta) \operatorname{cis}(\varphi) = \operatorname{cis}(\theta + \varphi) \\ &\operatorname{cis}\left(k\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = i^k \forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &z = |z| \operatorname{cis}(\varphi) = |z|e^{i\varphi} \\ &zz' = |z||z'| \operatorname{cis}(\varphi + \varphi') \\ &\overline{z} = |z| \operatorname{cis}(-\varphi) \end{aligned}$$

De Moivre's Theorem:

$$z^k = |z|^k \operatorname{cis}(k\varphi) = |z|^k e^{ik\varphi}$$

k'th Roots

For a complex number z, the k'th roots w are straightforward to determine:

$$\begin{split} w^k &= z\\ w_j &= |z|^{\frac{1}{k}} \, \operatorname{cis}\!\left(\frac{\varphi + 2j\pi}{k}\right)\!, j\coloneqq 0,1,...,k-1 \end{split}$$

Any of these roots to the power of k is equal to z, as well the product of all of them together. If $j \ge k$ the angle completes a full circle and the same roots are found.

The roots of z = 1 are called roots of unity, these will be important later in Fourier transforms:

$$\begin{split} w^k &= 1\\ \zeta_k(j) &= e^{\frac{2j\pi i}{k}}, j \coloneqq 0, 1, ..., k-1 \end{split}$$

Fundamental Theroem of Algebra - Every non-constant single variable polynomial contains at least 1 complex root.

Sequences and Series

Sequence - A function that maps a natural index $n\in\mathbb{N}_0\to\mathbb{C}$ Series - Sequence of partial sums of the terms in a sequence

Taylor Series - A series of derivatives of a function at a point, that converges towards the value of the function at that same point, more on this later...

Geometric Sequence - $n\in\mathbb{N}_0, a_n\to z^n$ - Converges towards 0 when z<1 Geometric Series - $n\in\mathbb{N}_0, a_n\to\sum_{k=0}^n z^k$

Harmonic Sequence - $n \in \mathbb{N}_0, a_n \to \frac{1}{n}$ - Converges towards 0

Convergence

$$A \in \mathbb{C}$$

A sequence converges towards $A \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon \in (0, \infty) \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}_0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0 : n \geq n_0, |a_n - A| \leq \varepsilon$ $a_n \to A \text{ (converges towards A)}$

We can also express this as a limit:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = A$$

Note: The index n cannot be set as ∞ , as infinity is not a natural number.