

Analysis I - Summary

lrshsl

Important terms

Triangle inequality

$$|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$$

Reverse Triangle inequality

$$\|x| - |y\| \leq |x - y|$$

Sequences

$$(x_n)_{n \geq 1 \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{R}$$

Convergence

Definition

(x_n) converges to limit l iff

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \in \mathbb{R} \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ st } \forall n > N \in \mathbb{N} \quad |x_n - l| < \varepsilon$$

We write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n) = l$ or $(x_n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} l$

If no such limit exists, (x_n) diverges.

Properties

$$\exists l \rightarrow \exists!l$$

(x_n) is convergent $\rightarrow (x_n)$ is bounded

Limit laws

If $(x_n) \rightarrow a$ and $(y_n) \rightarrow b$ then

- (I) $x_n + y_n \rightarrow a + b$
- (II) $x_n - y_n \rightarrow a - b$
- (III) $x_n y_n \rightarrow ab$
- (IV) $\frac{x_n}{y_n} \rightarrow \frac{a}{b}$ if $b \neq 0$
- (V) $|x_n| \rightarrow |a|$

Attention

In order to apply these laws the limits of x_n and y_n need to exist and be finite.

Monotonicity

Difference criterion

For a real sequence (a_n) and $d = a_{n+1} - a_n$:

$$\begin{cases} d > 0 : \text{strictly increasing} \\ d < 0 : \text{strictly decreasing} \\ d = 0 : (\text{locally}) \text{ constant} \end{cases}$$

If this is true $\forall n >$ some N , the sequence is eventually monotone. One can also use the quotient $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$

Monotone convergence theorem

x_n is bounded above (below) and monotone increasing (decreasing) $\rightarrow x_n$ converges.

Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Every bounded sequence in \mathbb{R} has a convergent subsequence.

Alternating sequence

Convergence of an alternating sequence

An alternating sequence converges iff its magnitude converges (to zero). Alternating sequences can only converge to zero.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$$

Cauchy criterion

In \mathbb{R} :

(x_n) converges

$$\iff$$

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \text{ st } \forall n, m > N$$

$$|x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon$$

Root limit test

Let (x_n) be a sequence st $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|x_n|} = l$

Then

1. if $l < 1$ converges
2. if $l > 1$ diverges
3. if $l = 1$ inconclusive

Squeeze theorem

Let $(x_n) \rightarrow a$ and $(y_n) \rightarrow a$.

If $x_n \leq a_n \leq y_n \forall n$, then $a_n \rightarrow a$

Series

A infinite sum (series) s_n of a sequence x_n is defined as a sequence of finite sums.

$$s_n = \sum_{i=0}^n (x_n)_i$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (x_n)_i$$

Absolutely convergent $\Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} |(x_n)_i|$ converges.

x_n is absolutely convergent $\Rightarrow x_n$ converges

Thus: Signs don't matter when determining the absolute convergence of a series

Series Tests

Nth-Term Test (for Divergence)

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n \neq 0$ or \nexists limit, then $\sum x_n$ diverges.

Warning

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$, this test is inconclusive.

Comparison Tests

(For positive-term series, $x_n, y_n \geq 0$)

Direct Comparison

Let $0 \leq x_n \leq y_n$ for all large n

- $\sum y_n$ converges $\Rightarrow \sum x_n$ converges
- $\sum x_n$ diverges $\Rightarrow \sum y_n$ diverges

Limit Comparison

Let $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{x_n}{y_n} \right)$. If $0 < L < \infty$, then:

$$\sum x_n \text{ and } \sum y_n$$

either both converge or both diverge.

Ratio Test

Let $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x_{n+1}}{x_n} \right|$

$L < 1$: Series converges absolutely
$L > 1$: Series diverges
$L = 1$: Test is inconclusive

Especially useful for factorials ($n!$) and exponentials (c^n).

Alternating Series Test (Leibniz)

AST

The series $\sum (-1)^n x_n$ (with $x_n > 0$) converges if **both** are true:

1. $x_{n+1} \leq x_n$ for all large n (non-increasing)
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$

Examples

Constant sequence

$$x_n = c \quad c \neq 0$$

$$\rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \pm\infty$$

Geometric series

$$x_n = q^n$$

$$s_n = \frac{1 - q^{n+1}}{1 - q}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - q} (1 - q^{n+1})$$

if $|q| < 1$ then s_n converges to $\frac{1}{1-q}$

Harmonic series

$$x_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} = \infty$$

$$x_n = \frac{1}{n!}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e$$

Cheat sheet

Useful limits

$\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$	$\xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0}$	1
$\frac{\log(1+x)}{x}$	$\xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0}$	1
$\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$	$\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty}$	e
$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$	$\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty}$	e^x

$$\exists N \text{ st } \forall n > N$$

$$a_{n+1} - a_n \begin{cases} > 0 \rightarrow \text{monotone increasing} \\ < 0 \rightarrow \text{monotone decreasing} \\ = 0 \rightarrow \text{constant sequence} \end{cases}$$

“Divergence speed tricks”

Principle

The limit of polynomials is determined by the terms with the fastest growth.

Growth hierarchy

$$\forall c \quad c \ll \log n \ll n^c \ll c^n \ll n! \ll n^n$$

For polynomials in the same growth category, the base resp. exponent counts ($c < n^1 < n^2, \dots, n^\infty$, $2^n < 3^n, \dots, (\infty)^n$)

Example

For example for taking the limit of a fraction in the form

$$x_n = \frac{a_p n^p + a_{p-1} n^{p-1} \dots a_0 n^0}{b_q n^q + b_{q-1} n^{q-1} \dots b_0 n^0}$$

Only the terms with the highest degrees $a_p n^p$ and $b_q n^q$ determine the limit:

$$(p < q) \rightarrow (x_n \rightarrow 0)$$

$$(p = q) \rightarrow \left(x_n \rightarrow \frac{a_p}{b_q} \right)$$

$$(p > q) \rightarrow (x_n \rightarrow \pm\infty)$$

Check monotony

Just check the difference between a_n and a_{n+1} :

Functions

Domain & Range (Co-Domain)

$$f : D \rightarrow R$$

Image

$$\text{Im}(f) := \{f(x) \mid x \in D\}$$

The division by 2 is not necessary but convention

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \text{even version of } f(x) + \\ \text{odd version of } f(x) \end{cases}$$

Periodic functions

$$f : D \rightarrow R$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \exists T > 0 \text{ st } \forall x \in D x + T \in D \\ \Rightarrow f(x) = f(x + T) \end{aligned}$$

A periodic function can be defined on some interval and extended periodically:

Let $f(x)$ be a T -periodic function defined for $(0, T]$. $f(x)$ for $x = 3T + 1$ is $f(x - 3T) = f(1)$

Examples

- cos is even symmetric
- sin is odd symmetric

Hyperbolic functions

$$\cosh(x) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} : \text{odd}$$

$$\sinh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} : \text{even}$$

Examples

Trigonometric functions

- $\sin(\alpha x), \cos(\alpha x)$ are $\frac{2\pi}{\alpha}$ -periodic
- $\tan(\alpha x), \cot(\alpha x)$ are $\frac{\pi}{\alpha}$ -periodic

Rational characteristic function

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x) = \begin{cases} x \in \mathbb{Q} : 1 \\ \text{otherwise} : 0 \end{cases}$

Then f is T -periodic $\forall T \in \mathbb{Q}$

Symmetric functions

A function is odd symmetric if it is mirrored about the origin, and even symmetric if it is mirrored along the y-axis

From any function $f(x)$ an odd/even symmetric function can be built, for example through:

$$\begin{cases} \text{odd} : \frac{f(x) + f(-x)}{2} \\ \text{even} : \frac{f(x) - f(-x)}{2} \end{cases}$$