

MATH1010 G/H University Mathematics, 2014-15

Review :

1) Notations :

Set : collection of objects (elements)

\subseteq : Subset

\in : belongs to

e.g. $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$

That means S is a set containing 3 elements, namely 1, 2 and 3.

OR : $1, 2, 3 \in S$

If $T = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, then we say S is a subset of T , or $S \subseteq T$.

That means all elements in S and also in T .

Notations often used in this course :

\mathbb{N} : set of all natural numbers

\mathbb{Q} : set of all rational numbers

\mathbb{R} : set of all real numbers

$[a, b]$: set of all real numbers x such that $a \leq x \leq b$

(a, b) : set of all real numbers x such that $a < x < b$

$[a, +\infty)$: set of all real numbers x such that $a \leq x$

$\mathbb{R} \setminus \{a\}$: set of all real numbers except the number a

e.g. Set of all positive even integers

$$= \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$$

$$= \{2m \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

i.e. this set consists of elements of the form $2m$ such that $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Ex: Set of all positive odd integers = ? (How to describe?)

$$\text{Ans: } = \{2m-1 \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

e.g. Set of all real numbers x such that $a \leq x \leq b$
 $= \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$

\forall : for all

\exists : there exists

$\exists!$: there exists unique

\Rightarrow : implies

\Leftrightarrow : if and only if (equivalent to)

s.t. : such that

e.g. $\forall y \in (0, +\infty), \exists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $x^2 = y$.
↓ translate

For all positive real number y , there exists (at least one) real number x such that $x^2 = y$.
(In fact, $x = \sqrt{y}$ or $-\sqrt{y}$)

e.g. $\forall y \in (0, +\infty), \exists! x \in (0, +\infty)$ s.t. $x^2 = y$.
↓ translate

For all positive real number y , there exists unique positive real number x such that $x^2 = y$.
(In fact, $x = \sqrt{y}$ only)

e.g. If $x > 0$, $y = \sqrt{x} \Rightarrow y^2 = x$
but $y^2 = x \not\Rightarrow y = \sqrt{x}$ (Why?)

e.g. In a $\triangle ABC$,

$$\angle ABC = 90^\circ \Rightarrow AB^2 + BC^2 = AC^2 \quad (\text{Pyth. thm.})$$

$$AB^2 + BC^2 = AC^2 \Rightarrow \angle ABC = 90^\circ \quad (\text{Converse of Pyth. thm.})$$

If both statements are true, we say

$$\angle ABC = 90^\circ \text{ if and only if } AB^2 + BC^2 = AC^2$$

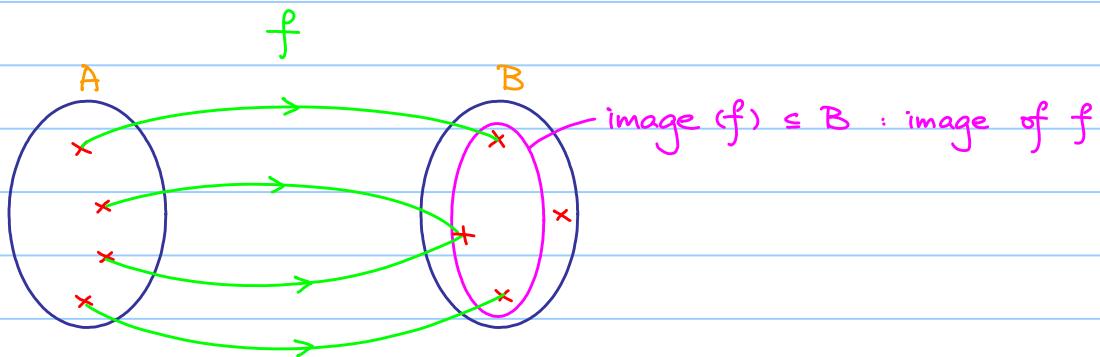
and denote it by $\angle ABC = 90^\circ \Leftrightarrow AB^2 + BC^2 = AC^2$

2) Functions :

Function : A function is a rule that assigns to each object in a set A exactly one object in a set B.

set A : domain (input)

set B : range (output)



A function f from A to B

We denote it by $f: A \rightarrow B$

$$\text{image}(f) = f(A) := \{f(x) \in B \mid x \in A\}$$

↑
defined by

e.g. If 1) $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2$ image(f) = $[0, +\infty)$
 2) $f: [-1, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2$ image(f) = $[0, 4]$

e.g. $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 4$

$$f(-3) = (-3)^2 + 4 = 13$$

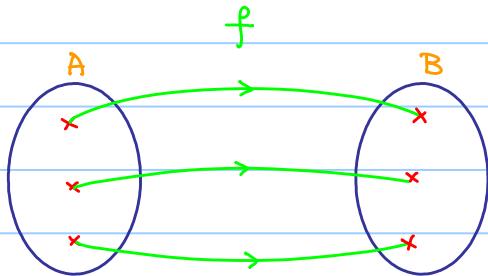
↑ ↑
input output

OR write : $y = x^2 + 4$

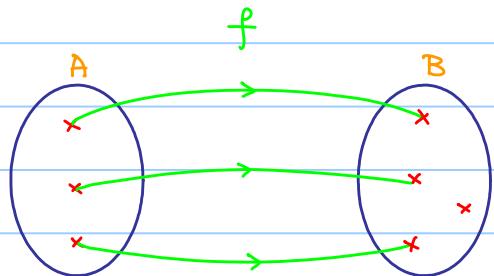
↑ ↑
dependent independent
variable variable

Injective and Surjective Functions

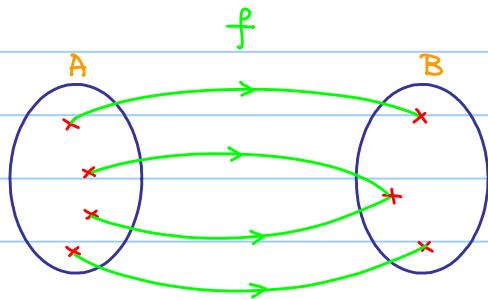
Intuitive idea :



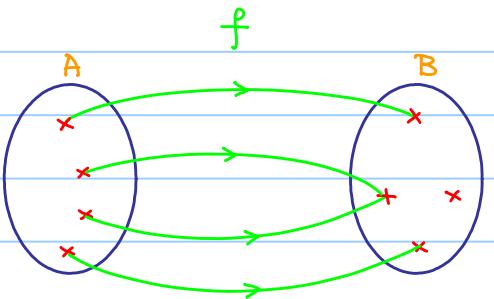
injective + surjective



injective but NOT surjective



surjective but NOT injective



injective : every $y \in \text{image}(f)$ comes from exactly one $x \in A$

surjective : every $y \in B$ comes from one $x \in A$

Definition :

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a function.

1) f is said to be an **injective function** if

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$$

2) f is said to be a **surjective function** if

$$\forall y \in B, \exists x \in A \text{ st. } f(x) = y \quad (f(A) = B)$$

If a function is both **injective** and **surjective**,

then it is said to be a **bijective** function.

e.g. Show $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = 2x + 3$ is a bijective function

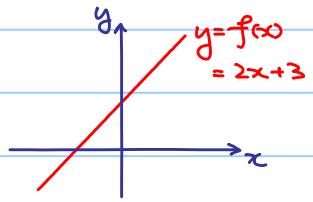
1) Injective:

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x_1 + 3 = 2x_2 + 3$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$$

$\therefore f$ is injective.



2) Surjective:

Let $y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\text{take } x = \frac{y-3}{2} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{then } f(x) = f\left(\frac{y-3}{2}\right)$$

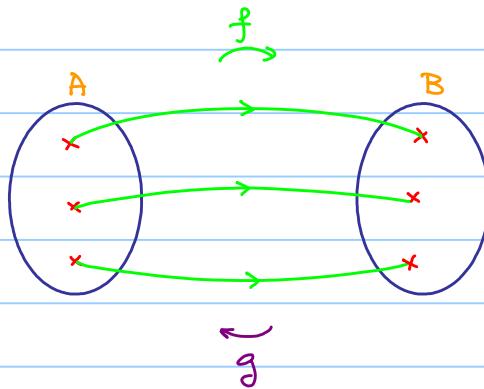
$$= 2\left(\frac{y-3}{2}\right) + 3$$

$$= y$$

$\therefore f$ is surjective.

Inverse of a Function

Intuitive idea:



Definition:

Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a function. If $g: B \rightarrow A$ is a function such that

$$1) g(f(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in A$$

$$2) f(g(y)) = y \quad \forall y \in B$$

Then g is said to be an inverse of f .

FACT: 1) Once an inverse of f exists, it is unique, we denote it by f^{-1} .

2) f has an inverse $\Leftrightarrow f$ is bijective.

e.g.

		injective	surjective
$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$	defined by $f(x) = \sin x$	✗	✗
$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [-1, 1]$	defined by $f(x) = \sin x$	✗	✓
$f: [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$	defined by $f(x) = \sin x$	✓	✓

∴ We can define arcsin function!

$$\sin^{-1}: [-1, 1] \rightarrow [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$$

We write $\sin: [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$, then

$$\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x \quad \forall x \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$$

$$\sin(\sin^{-1}y) = y \quad \forall y \in [-1, 1]$$

Sequences of Real Numbers

e.g. $a_1 = 2, a_2 = \pi, a_3 = 1, \dots$

OR write as $\{2, \pi, 1, \dots\}$ (No pattern)

e.g. Sequences having patterns.

$$a_1 = 1, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 4, \dots$$

$$\text{in general, } a_n = 2^{n-1}$$

$$a_1 = 1, a_2 = \frac{1}{2}, a_3 = \frac{1}{3}, \dots$$

$$\text{in general, } a_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

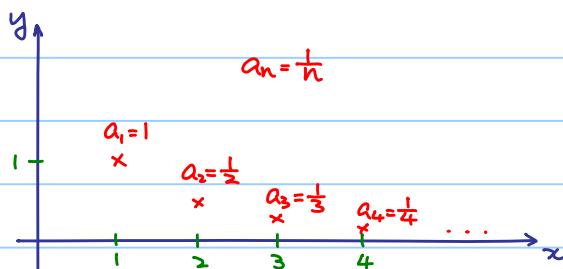
$$a_1 = -1, a_2 = 1, a_3 = -1, \dots$$

$$\text{in general, } a_n = (-1)^n$$

Remark: A sequence of real numbers can be regarded as a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

and $a_n = f(n)$ (i.e. given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, return the n -th entry of the sequence)

A sequence can be understood by the following diagram.



Any observation?

When n is getting larger and larger, a_n is getting closer and closer to 0.

Limits of Sequences

Informal definition :

Let a_n be a sequence of real numbers.

If n is getting larger and larger, a_n is getting closer and closer to $L \in \mathbb{R}$,
then we say L is the limit of the sequence a_n and we denote it by

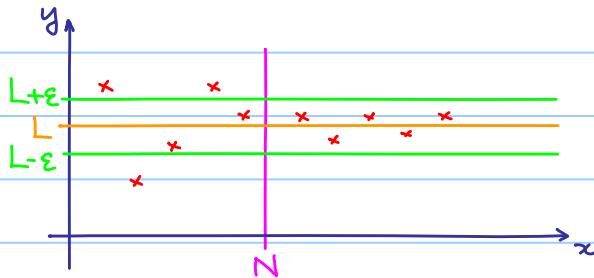
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L.$$

Definition :

Let $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $L \in \mathbb{R}$.

L is said to be the limit of the sequence a_n if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } |a_n - L| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq N.$$



Meaning : No matter how small ε you give me,

I can always find a $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. the tail (a_n with $n \geq N$) of sequence
lies in the ε -tunnel (ε -neighborhood of L)

e.g. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n \text{ does NOT exist.}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{n-1} \text{ does NOT exist.}$$

FACT (Without proof)

- 1) If $a_n = k \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ (constant sequence), then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = k$.
- 2) If $k > 0$ and $a_n = n^{-k} = \frac{1}{n^k}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$.

Algebraic Properties of Limits

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = M$ (very important), then

$$1) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + b_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L + M$$

$$2) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n - b_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L - M$$

$$3) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n)(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n) = LM$$

$$4) \text{If } M \neq 0, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n} = \frac{L}{M}.$$

e.g. Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} + 3$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2 = 2, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 \stackrel{\text{by 3}}{\Rightarrow} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} = (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2)(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}) = 2 \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} = 0, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3 = 3 \stackrel{\text{by 1}}{\Rightarrow} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} + 3 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3 = 0 + 3 = 3$$

e.g. Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 + 3}{2n^2 - 4n}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 + 3}{2n^2 - 4n} \quad (\text{We cannot use 4, why?})$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{3}{n^2}}{2 - \frac{4}{n}} \quad (\text{Now, we can use 4!})$$

$$= \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 + \frac{3}{n^2}}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2 - \frac{4}{n}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Ex: Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n+1}{n^2-2n}$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3+2n}{2n^2+1}$ (if exist)

Ans: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n+1}{n^2-2n} = 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3+2n}{2n^2+1}$ does NOT exist.

Any observation?

e.g. Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}$$

why it is true?
explain later!

$$= 0$$