

Math 341. An Introduction to Real Analysis

My name is David Catlin

Office is 744, Math. Bldg.

My email address is

catlind@purdue.edu.

My office hours are

Mon. 9:30

Wed. 10:30 Thur. 9:30

The text is :

An Introduction to
Real Analysis, 4th Edition

by Bartle and Sherbert.

The lectures and homework

exercises will be posted

online at math.purdue.edu/~catlin

the course homepage.

In this course we will give
a rigorous and detailed
study of the ideas and
techniques of calculus of
calculus of one variable,
including

1. Set Theory
2. Real Numbers

3. Sequences and Series

4. Limits

5. Continuous Functions

6. Differentiation

7. Riemann Integral

8 Sequences and Series of
Functions

9. Taylor Series

1.1 Sets and Functions

If x is in a set A , we write

$$x \in A$$

We also say x is a member of A or that x belongs to A .

If x is not in A ,

we write $x \notin A$.

If every element of a set

belongs to a set B , we say

A is a subset of B , and

$$A \subseteq B \quad \text{or} \quad B \supseteq A.$$

Some common sets of numbers
are :

$$N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

natural
numbers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots\}$$

integers

$$Q = \left\{ \frac{m}{n} : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0 \right\}$$

rational numbers

$$\mathbb{R} = \text{set of real numbers}$$

Sometimes a set A is obtained by specifying a property that determines the elements of A .

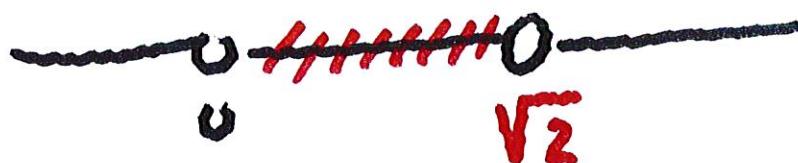
Ex. We say n is an even integer if there is an integer k , so that $n = 2k$.

$$E = \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : n = 2k, \text{ for any } k \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

or

$$E = \{ 2k : k \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

Ex. Let $I = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{Q} : \begin{array}{l} 0 < x \\ \text{and} \\ x^2 < 2 \end{array} \right\}$



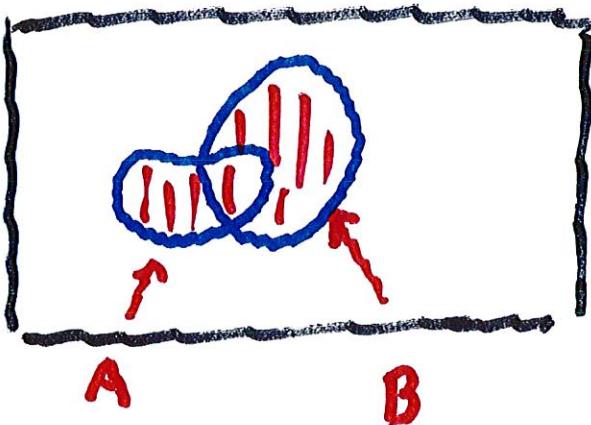
Set Operations

Def (a). The union of sets

A and B is

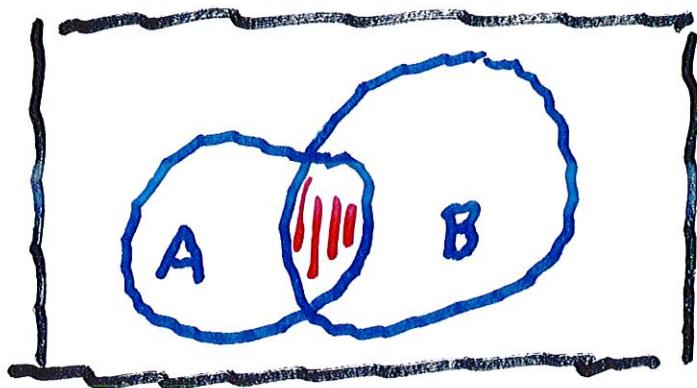
$$A \cup B = \{x; x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

(x can be in both)



(b) The intersection of the sets A and B is the set

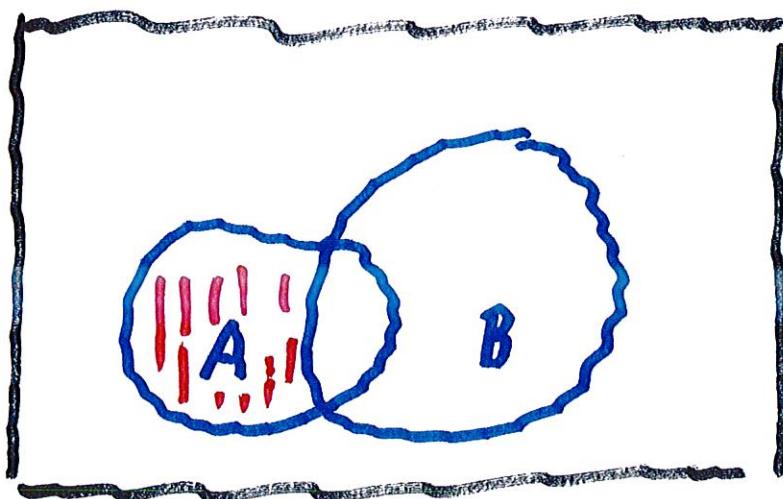
$$A \cap B = \{x; x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$



(c) The complement of B

relative to A is the set

$$A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$



The set with no elements

is the empty set, written

as \emptyset

Two sets A and B are said

to be disjoint if there

is no element in both

A and B.

A and B are disjoint if $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Here's a way to show two sets are equal:

De Morgan laws for three sets.

Thm. If A , B and C are sets, then

$$(a) A \setminus (B \cup C) = (A \setminus B) \cap (A \setminus C).$$

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

Pf. of (b). Assume first

that $x \in A \setminus (B \cap C)$. Then

$x \in A$ and $x \notin (B \cap C)$. Note that

$x \notin (B \cap C) \Rightarrow \underline{x \notin B}$ or $\underline{x \notin C}$.

Hence, $x \in A \setminus B$ or $x \in A \setminus C$,

which implies that

$x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$.

Thus,

$A \setminus (B \cap C) \subseteq (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$.

Now assume that

$$x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C).$$

Then either

$x \in A$ and $x \notin B$, or

$x \in A$ and $x \notin C$.

Note that

$x \notin B$ or $x \notin C \Rightarrow x \notin (B \cap C)$.

Hence $x \in A \setminus (B \cap C)$.

This implies that

$$(A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C) \subseteq A \setminus (B \cap C).$$

which shows that (b) holds.

Functions

Def'n. If A and B are

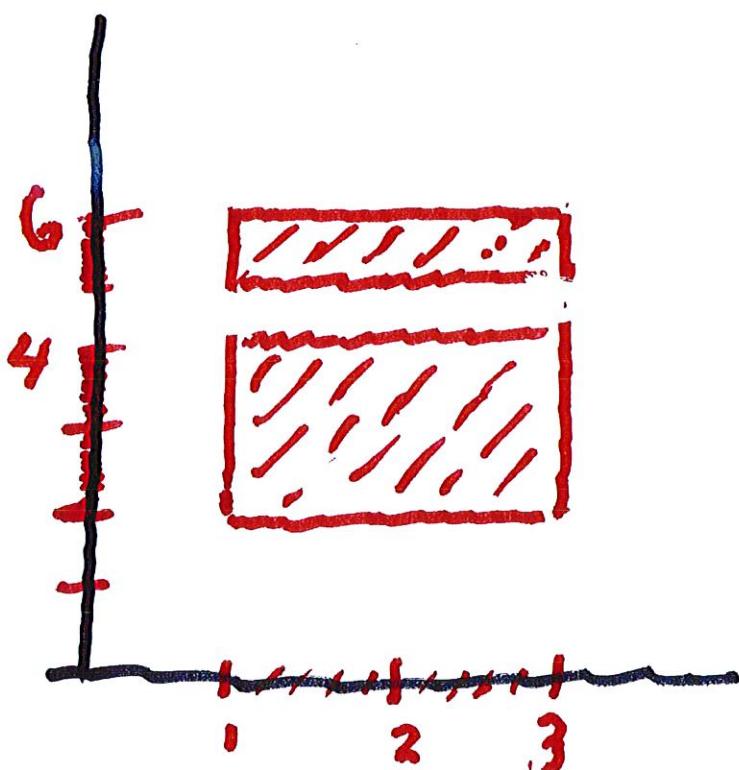
nonempty, then the

Cartesian product $A \times B$ is

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$$

If $A = \{x : 1 \leq x \leq 3\}$

and $B = \{y : 2 \leq y \leq 4 \text{ or } 5 \leq y \leq 6\}$



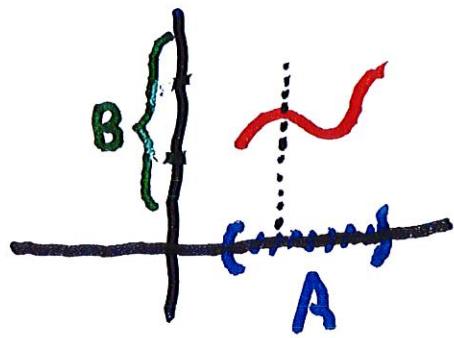
A function f from A to B

is a set f of ordered pairs

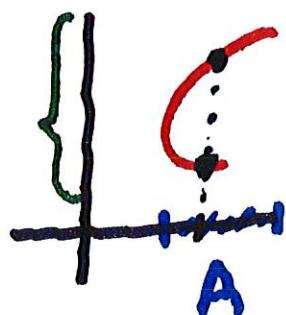
in $A \times B$ such that for each

a in A , there is unique

b in B such that $(a, b) \in f$



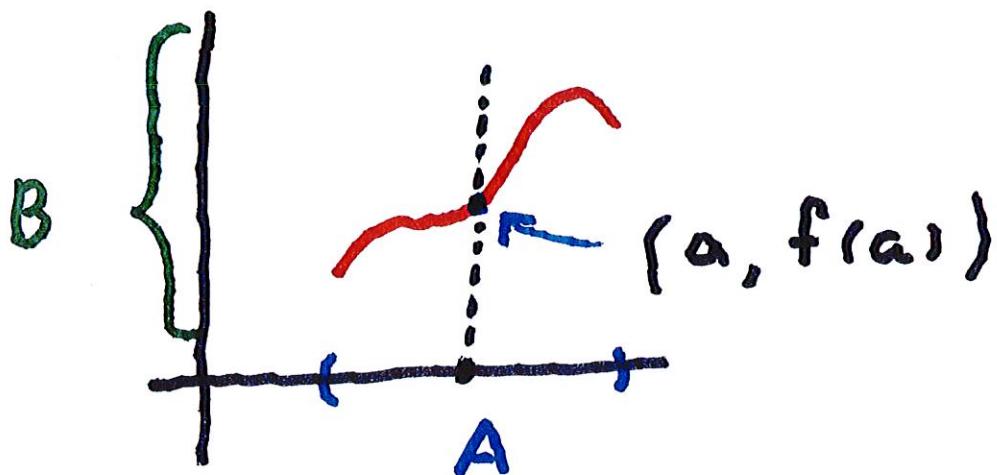
is a fcn.



not a fcn.

If $(a, b) \in f$, we often

write $f(a) = b$



We write Domain = $D(f) = A$

Also $R(f) = \{f(a) : a \in A\}$

Composition of Functions.

If A , B , and C are sets,

and $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$

then the composition of f and g is

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

for all x in A

Ex. Suppose $f(x) = x^4 - 1$
for x in

$$(-\infty, \infty)$$

and $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$, for
 $0 \leq x < \infty$,

then we cannot form

$$(g \circ f)(x) = \sqrt{x^4 - 1}.$$

The problem is $x^4 - 1 < 0$
 if $-1 < x < 1$,

because $\sqrt{x^4 - 1}$ only makes
 sense

if $x^4 - 1 \geq 0$, i.e., if $|x| \geq 1$.

Then we modify f by

defining $f(x) = x^4 - 1$ for $|x| \geq 1$.

Definition. A function

$f: A \rightarrow B$ is injective,

if whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$,

then $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$. (f is 1-to-1}

Equivalently, if whenever

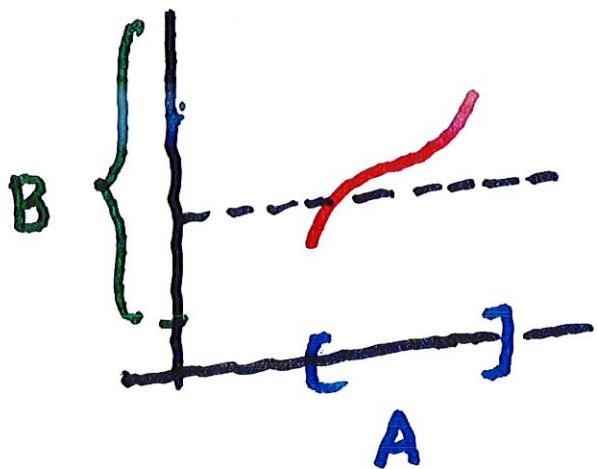
$f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then $x_1 \neq x_2$.

Also $f: A \rightarrow B$ is surjective

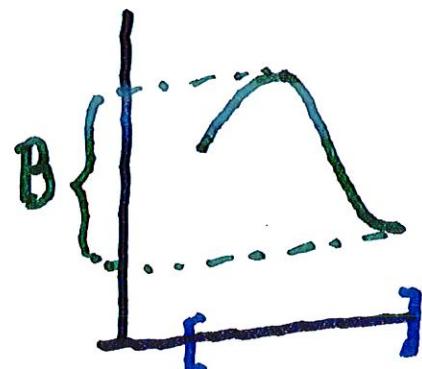
if whenever $y \in B$, then

there is an x in A so $f(x) = y$

{ f is onto}



f is 1-to-1
but not onto



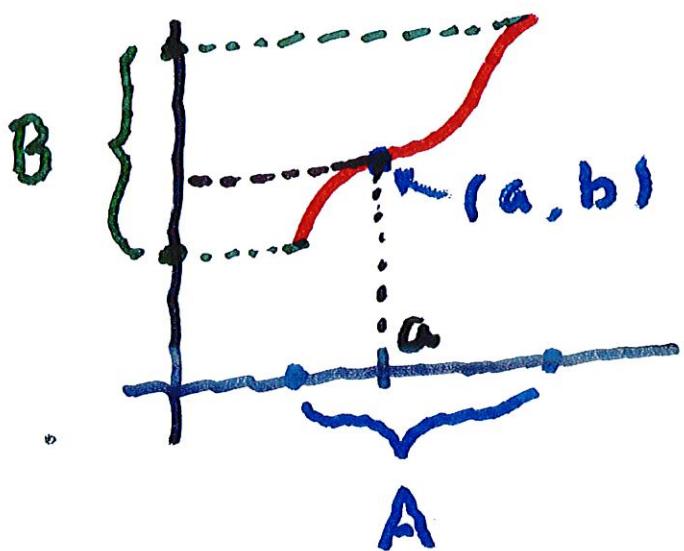
f is onto
but not
1-to-1

Lecture 1 cont'd :

We say f is bijective

if f is both injective

and surjective.



$$f(a) = b$$

$$g(b) = a.$$

Theorem. Suppose $f: A \rightarrow B$

is bijective, (i.e., both
onto and
 $1-1$)

Then there is a bijection

$g: B \rightarrow A$ that satisfies

(i) $g(f(a)) = a$ for all
a in A

(ii) $f(g(b)) = b$ for all
b in B

First we define $g(b)$ for
any b in B

Since f is onto, there is one
element a in A so that

(1) $f(a) = b$. Moreover there
is only one such a .

For if $\tilde{a} \in A$ with $f(\tilde{a}) = b$,
and if $\tilde{a} \neq a$, then this
would mean $f(a) = f(\tilde{a})$,

which contradicts the fact

that f is 1-to-1. Hence

we define $g(b) = a$. (2)

Now we show that (ii) holds.

Apply f to both sides of (2)

$$\Rightarrow f(g(b)) = f(a) = b$$

↑ by (1).

Since b is arbitrary,

this proves (ii)

Now let a be in A .

Then $b = f(a)$, and as we

saw above, $g(b) = a$. (3)

If we apply g to both sides of $b = f(a)$, we get

$$g(b) = g(f(a)).$$

so according to (3)

$$a = g(f(a)), \quad \text{for all } a \text{ in } A.$$

This proves (ii).

Finally, note that (i)

proves that for any a in A ,

g maps $f(a)$ to a . $\therefore g$ is onto

Also, if $g(b_1) = g(b_2)$

then (a) shows that

$$f(g(b_1)) = f(g(b_2)),$$

which by (i) implies that

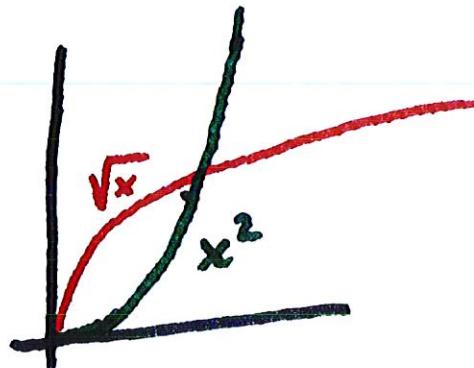
$b_1 = b_2$. Hence g is 1-to-1.

and so, g is bijective. \checkmark

Ex. Let $S(x) = x^2$. Then
 $(0 \leq x < \infty)$

inverse

of S is \sqrt{x} .



$$x^2 = 3$$

$$\text{Apply } \sqrt{\quad} : \sqrt{x^2} = \sqrt{3}$$

$$\text{or } x = \sqrt{3}.$$



Ex. $\sin x$ maps $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ to $[-1, 1]$

\sin^{-1} maps $[-1, 1]$ to $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$

Suppose $\sin x = .42$

Apply \sin^{-1} :

$$\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = \sin^{-1}(.42)$$

$$\rightarrow x = \sin^{-1}\{.42\}$$

Ex. Let $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \neq -1\}$

and let $f(x) = \frac{2x+1}{x+1}$.

Show that f is injective.

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

$$\frac{2x_1 - 1}{x_1 + 1} = \frac{2x_2 - 1}{x_2 + 1}$$

$$(2x_1 - 1)(x_2 + 1) = (2x_2 - 1)(x_1 + 1)$$

$$2x_1 - x_2 = -x_1 + 2x_2$$

$$\rightarrow 3x_1 = 3x_2$$

$$\text{or } x_1 = x_2. \quad \checkmark$$

Now find the range of f .

Find all y , such that

$$y = \frac{2x-1}{x+1} \rightarrow yx + y = 2x - 1$$

$$\text{Solve for } x : (y-2)x = -y-1$$

$$\rightarrow x = \frac{y+1}{2-y}$$

This can be solved only

$$\text{if } y \neq 2, R(f) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : y \neq 2\}$$