Functions & Relations Sequences & Series Limits & Continuity Lecture 3

Termeh Shafie

relations and functions

used to compare concepts and uncover relationships between them

- a <u>relation</u> is a relationship between sets of information
- a function is a well-behaved relation



all functions are relations but not all relations are functions

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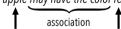
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relations and functions

example

Consider the set of fruits and the set of colors. We associate fruits with their colors, e.g.,

"apple may have the color red"

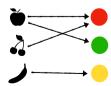


element of first set

element of second set

 \dots so the following set of ordered pairs is a $\underline{\text{relation}}$:

{(apple, red), (apple, green), (cherry, red), (banana, yellow)}



but is this a function?

relations

- a relation R from the set A to the set B is a subset $A \times B$
 - relation R consists of ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$
 - we say *is related to* and can write a(R)b

can be replaced by familiar symbols such as <, $\not<$, >, $\not>$, \neq , =, \neq

example

Suppose there are two sets $A = \{4, 36, 49, 50\}$ and $B = \{1, \cdot 2, \cdot 6, \cdot 7, 7, 6, 2\}$ Define "(a, b) is in the relation R if a is a square of b"

answer: $R = \{(4,-2), (4,2), (36,-6), (36,6), (49,-7), (49,7)\}$

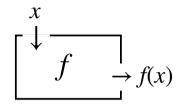
functions

input-output

we define the function f as $f(x): A \to B$ which often is read as as "f maps A into B" we assign this value to a variable y as in y = f(x)

what is the rule we follow to obtain f(x)?

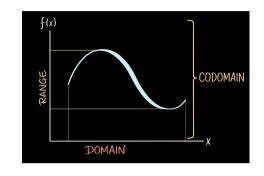
- computational
- · table
- algorithm
- · verbal or text



Note: a function must be single valued and can't give back 2 or more results for the same input So "f(16) = 4 or -4" is not right!

domain, range and codomain

functions $f(x): A \to B$ describe the relationship between two variables as a unique one-to-one mapping where each value of the domain A is mapped to one value of the codomain B



values reached by $x \in A$ are known as image

→ the image is a subset of the codomain B

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visual representations of functions and relations

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when domain or range of a relation is finite \implies lists and graphs can be used

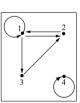
infinite \Longrightarrow not possible to visualize the entire relation

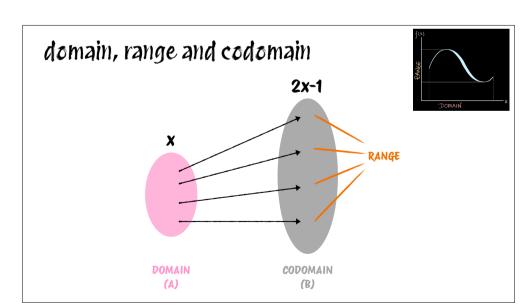
example

let A be a small finite set: $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$

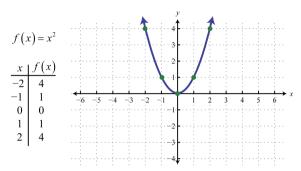
the relation R is defined as $R = \{(1,1), (4,4), (1,3), (3,2), (1,2), (2,1)\}$

graph representation:





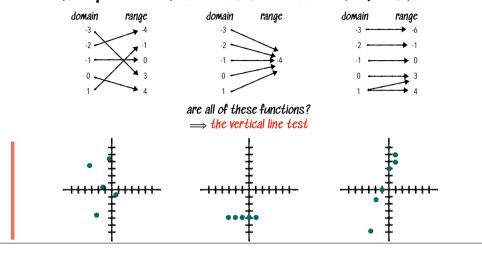
visual representations of functions and relations example



Which points represent the relation $R = \{x, y \in \mathbb{R} \mid y \geq x^2\}$? Is it bounded?

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visual representations of functions and relations

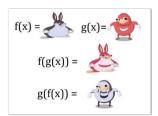


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function composition

Let $f: A \to B$ and $g: C \to D$. The **composition** of g with f, denoted $g \circ f$, is the function from A to C defined by $g \circ f(x) = g(f(x))$.

- chaining multiple functions: "g composed with f"
- · order matters!



function composition

example

Consider function composition of the following two functions

$$f(x) = 2x + 3$$

$$g(x) = x^2$$

Composition 1: $g \circ f$

1. First
$$f(x) = 2x + 3$$

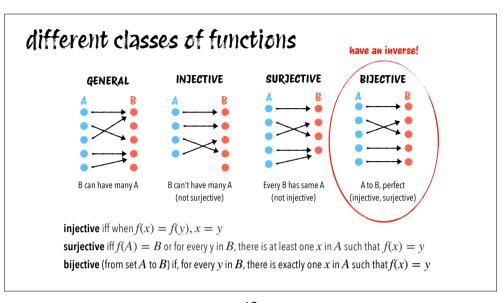
2. Then
$$g(f(x)) = (2x + 3)^2$$

now use specific value x = 2

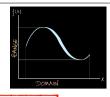
 $\textbf{Composition 2:} \, f \circ g$

1. First
$$g(x) = x^2$$

2. Then
$$f(g(x)) = 2(x^2) + 3 = 2x^2 + 3$$



different classes of functions



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

- The function f is said to be **injective** (or **one-to-one**) if for any $x, y \in A$, f(x) = f(y) implies x = y. Or by contrapositive: $x \neq y$ implies $f(x) \neq f(y)$.
- The function f is said to be **surjective** (or **onto**) if range(x) = B.
- If f is both injective and surjective, we say that f is **bijective**.
 - a bijective function is invertible, and so has an inverse.

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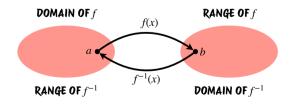
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inverse functions

Suppose $f:A\to B$ is a bijection. Then the inverse of f , denoted

$$f^{-1}: B \to A$$

is the function defined by the rule $f^{-1}(y) = x$ if and only if f(x) = y



inverse functions

algorithm

- (1) replace f(x) with y in original function
- (2) 'switch' instances of x and y (any variables) in original function
- (3) solve for y
- (4) change y to $f^{-1}(x)$

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inverse functions

example

Let f(x) = 2x - 3, then it's inverse is $f^{-1}(x) = \frac{x+3}{2}$.

- (1) replace f(x) with y in original function
- (2) 'switch' instances of x and y (any variables) in original function
- (3) solve for y
- (4) change y to $f^{-1}(x)$

(1)
$$y = 2x - 3$$

(2)
$$x = 2y - 3$$

We can check this both ways:

$$(3) y = \frac{x+3}{2}$$

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = \frac{(2x-3)+3}{2} = \frac{2x}{2} = x$$

$$(4) f^{-1} = \frac{x+3}{2}$$

$$f(f^{-1}(x)) = 2\left(\frac{x+3}{2}\right) - 3 = x + 3 - 3 = x$$

Since both compositions yield \boldsymbol{x} (the identity function), the functions are indeed inverses

monotonic functions

f(x)

Monotonicity is the characteristic of order preservation: it preserves the order of elements from the domain in the range.

Monotonic

Non-monotonic

"strictly": < A function is monotonic increasing if $f(x_1)$ $(\le) f(x_2)$

whenever $x_1 < x_2 \quad \forall x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

A function is monotonic decreasing if $f(x_1) \ge f(x_2)$ whenever $x_1 > x_2 \quad \forall x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

example

f(x) = 2x + 3 is monotonically increasing because for any two values x_1 and x_2 , then $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ always.

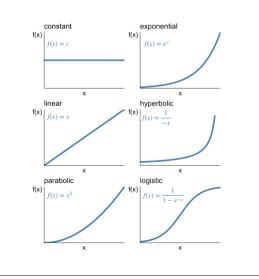
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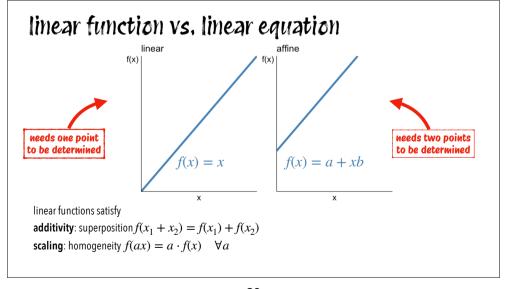
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monotonic functions

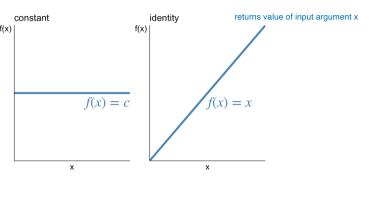
characteristics

- no local extrema
- continuity (when continuous)
- injective





identity function



exponents, roots, logarithms

example: a^n

- How do I solve for x in $a^n = x$? \rightarrow exponents
- How do I solve for n in $a^n = x$? \rightarrow logarithms
- How do I solve for a in $a^n = x$? \rightarrow radicals/roots

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sequences

Sequences are an ordered "list" of things $a = \{1,3,5,7,9,...\}$

- can be finite: $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^n$ or infinite: $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$
- ► use curly braces {} and commas as delimiters
- ► have "rules" that "predict/give" the next value
- \rightarrow values have an order, which identifies them: e.g. a_3 is the third value

Differences between sequences and sets:

- sets contain every element once, sequences may contain one element many times
- sequences are ordered, whereas order does not matter in sets

example

The following two sequences have patterns:

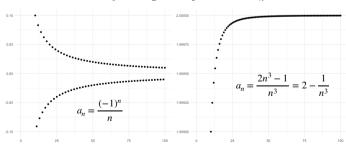
$$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,...\}$$

 $\{-1, 1, -1, 1, -1,...\}$

sequences

- Sometimes, we can use a function (or algebraic expression) to define the *n*-th term of a sequence
- A sequence is a function from the positive integers to the real numbers $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ with $f(n) = a_n$
- We can draw a graph of this function as a set of points in the plane:

$$(1,a_1), (2,a_2), (3,a_3), ..., (n,a_n), ...$$



limit

A limit is the value a function/sequence approaches if argument x approaches some value c

$$\lim_{n\to c} a_n = L$$
 or
$$a_n \to L \text{ as } n\to c$$

- $\lim_{n\to c} f(x) = L$ "the limit of f of x as x approaches c equals L"
- limits are often challenging to compute, to decide whether a limit exists, we may choose to carry out a convergence test first!
- ► convergent ← finite limit
- ▶ divergent ← limit DoesNotExist or limit = $\pm \infty$

series

- A series is the summation of a sequence $S = 1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9 + \dots$
 - ► Finite series you have probably encountered before
 - Infinite series are infinite sums
 - if $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = S_n$ then $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$

examples

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \cdots$$

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geometric series

a geometric series is a series summing the terms of an infinite geometric sequence (the sum of an infinite number of terms), with a constant ratio between them

The geometric series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots$$

is convergent if |r| < 1 and its sum is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} \qquad |r| < 1$$

If |r| > 1 the series is divergent.

harmonic series

a harmonic series is the sum of all positive unit fractions

The harmonic series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges (does not have a finite limit).

Proof by contradiction.

- Suppose the series converges to S: $S = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \cdots$
- Then: $\frac{1}{2}S = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n} + \dots$
- Therefore, the sum of the odd-numbered terms: $1+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{2n-1}+\cdots$ must be the other half of S
- However this is impossible since $\frac{1}{2n-1} > \frac{1}{2n}$ for each positive integer n.

limit of a function

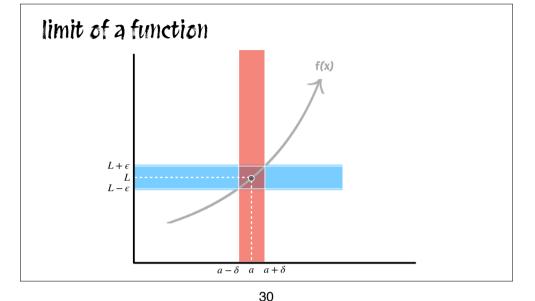
Let f(x) be a function defined on some open interval that contains a except possibly at a itself. We say that the limit of f(x) as x approaches a is C, and we write:

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$$

if, for every number $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that whenever

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta$$
, it follows that $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$.

- ϵ : this represents how close we want f(x) to be to L. We can choose ϵ to be any small positive number, indicating the "closeness" level we desire
- δ : this represents how close x needs to be to a in order for f(x) to be within ϵ of L



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limit of a sequence

How do find the limits? Recall, sequences are really just functions of the integers n...

Theorem

If $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ and $f(n) = a_n$, where n is an integer, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$.

rules of limits

If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent sequences and c is any constant then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} ca_n = c \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} c = c \qquad \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n}$$

limit of series

Given a series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}a_n=a_1+a_2+a_3+\cdots$ we let s_n denote its n-th partial sum $s_n=a_1+a_2+a_3+\cdots+a_n$

If the sequence s_n is convergent and $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = S$ then the series $\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n$ is convergent and we let

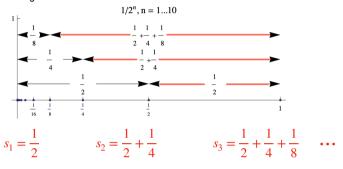
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = S \quad \blacktriangleleft \quad \text{sum of the series}$$

Otherwise the series is divergent

determine convergence/divergence using limit of Sn

example

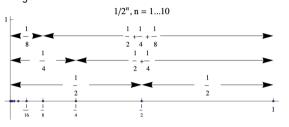
Find the partial sums $s_1, s_2, s_3, ..., s_n$ of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$. Find the sum of the series. Does the series converge?



determine convergence/divergence using limit of Sn

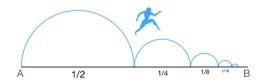
example

Find the partial sums $s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots, s_n$ of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$. Find the sum of the series. Does the series converge?



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Zeno's Paradox



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- Consider a runner who is to complete a course from point A to point B.
- Imagine that the runner completes half the distance from A to B, and then completes half the remaining distance, and again half the remaining distance, and so on...
- Will the runner ever reach point B?



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limits of...

- a sequence a_i is a number L such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$
- a series S_n considers the sum of its elements and is a number S such that $\lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{i=1}^n=S$
- a function y = f(x) are values of y given arbitrarily small steps toward an argument x = c such that $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = L$
 - it is possible to approach the limit from two sides: $\lim_{x\to c^+} f(x) = L^+ \text{ and } \lim_{x\to c^-} f(x) = L^-$
 - the limit exists iff $L^+ = L^- = L$

continuity intuitively

A continuous function's graph does not have sudden breaks

- the pencil test: can you draw the graph without lifting up a pencil?
- the limit test: a function is continuous at argument x, if x exists and is equal to f(x) such that $\lim_{x\to c^+} f(x) = \lim_{x\to c^-} f(x) = f(c)$

NOTE: a discontinuous function's graph has at least one break in it!

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continuity formally

A function f(x) is continuous at a point x_0 if the limit exists at x_0 and is equal to $f(x_0)$

Continuity test:

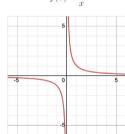
function is continuous at f(x) if it satisfies the following conditions:

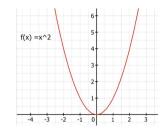
f(x) is defined at c, i.e. f(c) exists

f(x) approaches the same function value to the left and right of c, i.e. $\lim_{x\to c} f(x)$ exists

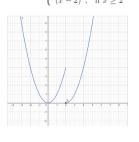
The function value that f(x) approaches from each side of c is f(c), i.e. $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$







 $f(x) = x^2$



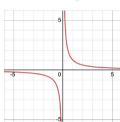
 $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x)$?

 $\lim_{x\to 2} f(x)$?

 $\lim_{x\to 2} f(x)$?

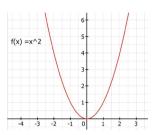
continuity $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$



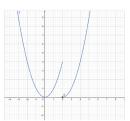
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{0} \leftarrow \mathsf{DNE}$$

$$f(x) = x^2$$



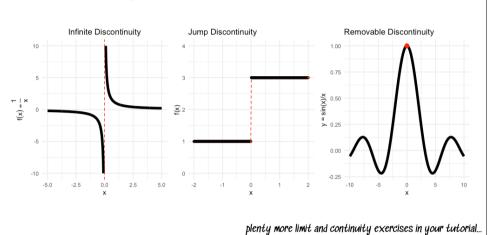
$$\lim_{x \to 2} x^2 = 2^2 = 4$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & \text{if } x < 2\\ (x-2)^2, & \text{if } x \ge 2 \end{cases}$$



$$\lim_{\substack{x \to 2^- \\ \lim_{x \to 2^+} (x-2)^2 = (2-2)^2 = 0^2}} x^2 = 2^2 = 4 \text{ and}$$

discontinuity



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continuity and differentiability

 $Differentiability \Rightarrow Continuity$

<u>but</u>

Continuity

⇒ Differentiability