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# Mathematical Analysis I

 Springer

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## Functions

Functions crop up regularly in everyday life (for instance: each student of the Polytechnic of Turin has a unique identification number), in physics (to each point of a region in space occupied by a fluid we may associate the velocity of the particle passing through that point at a given moment), in economy (each working day at Milan's stock exchange is tagged with the Mibtel index), and so on.

The mathematical notion of a function subsumes all these situations.

### 2.1 Definitions and first examples

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two sets. A **function  $f$  defined on  $X$  with values in  $Y$**  is a correspondence associating to each element  $x \in X$  *at most* one element  $y \in Y$ . This is often shortened to 'a function from  $X$  to  $Y$ '. A synonym for function is **map**. The set of  $x \in X$  to which  $f$  associates an element in  $Y$  is the **domain** of  $f$ ; the domain is a subset of  $X$ , indicated by  $\text{dom } f$ . One writes

$$f : \text{dom } f \subseteq X \rightarrow Y.$$

If  $\text{dom } f = X$ , one says that  $f$  is defined **on**  $X$  and writes simply  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ .

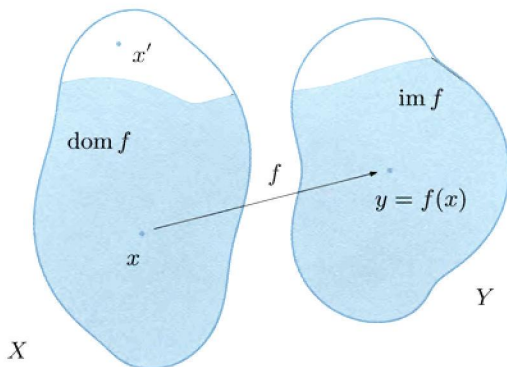
The element  $y \in Y$  associated to an element  $x \in \text{dom } f$  is called the **image of  $x$  by or under  $f$**  and denoted  $y = f(x)$ . Sometimes one writes

$$f : x \mapsto f(x).$$

The set of images  $y = f(x)$  of all points in the domain constitutes the **range of  $f$** , a subset of  $Y$  indicated by  $\text{im } f$ .

The **graph** of  $f$  is the subset  $\Gamma(f)$  of the Cartesian product  $X \times Y$  made of pairs  $(x, f(x))$  when  $x$  varies in the domain of  $f$ , i.e.,

$$\Gamma(f) = \{(x, f(x)) \in X \times Y : x \in \text{dom } f\}. \quad (2.1)$$



**Figure 2.1.** Naive representation of a function using Venn diagrams

In the sequel we shall consider maps between sets of numbers most of the time. If  $Y = \mathbb{R}$ , the function  $f$  is said **real** or **real-valued**. If  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , the function is of **one real variable**. Therefore the graph of a real function is a subset of the Cartesian plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

A remarkable special case of map arises when  $X = \mathbb{N}$  and the domain contains a set of the type  $\{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq n_0\}$  for a certain natural number  $n_0 \geq 0$ . Such a function is called **sequence**. Usually, indicating by  $a$  the sequence, it is preferable to denote the image of the natural number  $n$  by the symbol  $a_n$  rather than  $a(n)$ ; thus we shall write  $a : n \mapsto a_n$ . A common way to denote sequences is  $\{a_n\}_{n \geq n_0}$  (ignoring possible terms with  $n < n_0$ ) or even  $\{a_n\}$ .

### Examples 2.1

Let us consider examples of real functions of real variable.

i)  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = ax + b$  ( $a, b$  real coefficients), whose graph is a straight line (Fig. 2.2, top left).

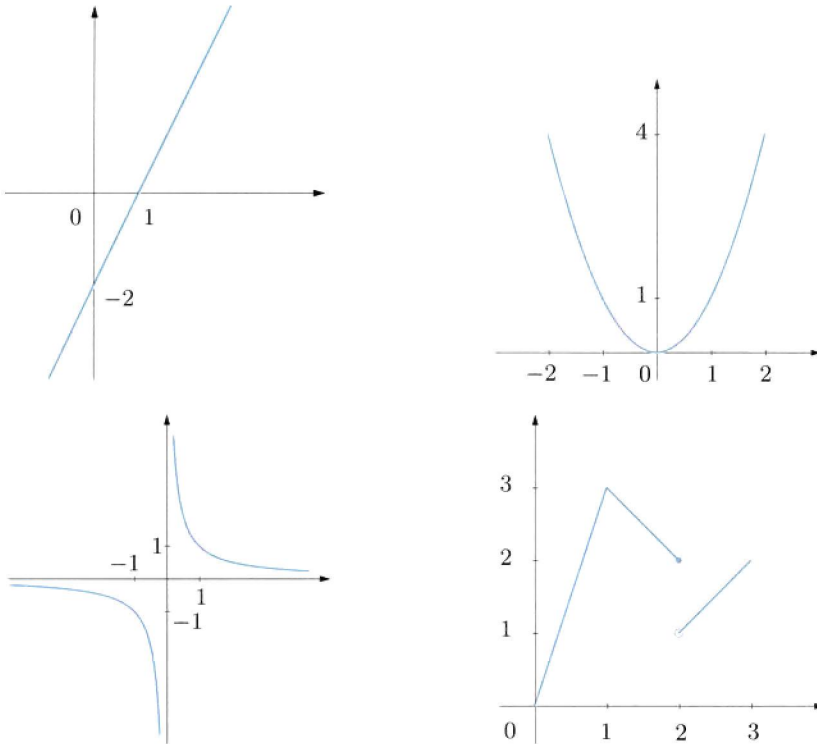
ii)  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^2$ , whose graph is a parabola (Fig. 2.2, top right).

iii)  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ , has a rectangular hyperbola in the coordinate system of its asymptotes as graph (Fig. 2.2, bottom left).

iv) A real function of a real variable can be defined by multiple expressions on different intervals, in which case is it called a **piecewise function**. An example is given by  $f : [0, 3] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 3x & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, \\ 4 - x & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2, \\ x - 1 & \text{if } 2 < x \leq 3, \end{cases} \quad (2.2)$$

drawn in Fig. 2.2, bottom right.



**Figure 2.2.** Graphs of the maps  $f(x) = 2x - 2$  (top left),  $f(x) = x^2$  (top right),  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  (bottom left) and of the piecewise function (2.2) (bottom right)

Among piecewise functions, the following are particularly important:

v) the **absolute value** (Fig. 2.3, top left)

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) = |x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0; \end{cases}$$

vi) the **sign** (Fig. 2.3, top right)

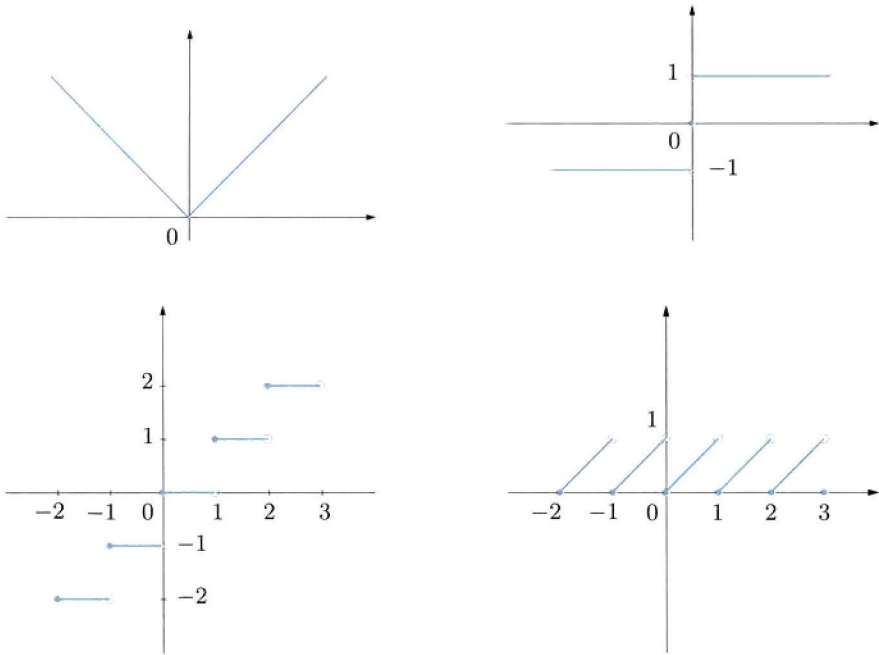
$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad f(x) = \text{sign}(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0; \end{cases}$$

vii) the **integer part** (Fig. 2.3, bottom left), also known as **floor function**,

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad f(x) = [x] = \text{the greatest integer } \leq x$$

(for example,  $[4] = 4$ ,  $[\sqrt{2}] = 1$ ,  $[-1] = -1$ ,  $[-\frac{3}{2}] = -2$ ); notice that

$$[x] \leq x < [x] + 1, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R};$$



**Figure 2.3.** Clockwise from top left: graphs of the functions: absolute value, sign, mantissa and integer part

viii) the **mantissa** (Fig. 2.3, bottom right)

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) = M(x) = x - [x]$$

(the property of the floor function implies  $0 \leq M(x) < 1$ ).

Let us give some examples of sequences now.

ix) The sequence

$$a_n = \frac{n}{n+1} \tag{2.3}$$

is defined for all  $n \geq 0$ . The first few terms read

$$a_0 = 0, \quad a_1 = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5, \quad a_2 = \frac{2}{3} = 0.\bar{6}, \quad a_3 = \frac{3}{4} = 0.75.$$

Its graph is shown in Fig. 2.4 (top left).

x) The sequence

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \tag{2.4}$$

is defined for  $n \geq 1$ . The first terms are

$$a_1 = 2, \quad a_2 = \frac{9}{4} = 2.25, \quad a_3 = \frac{64}{27} = 2.37\overline{037}, \quad a_4 = \frac{625}{256} = 2.44140625.$$

Fig. 2.4 (top right) shows the graph of such sequence.

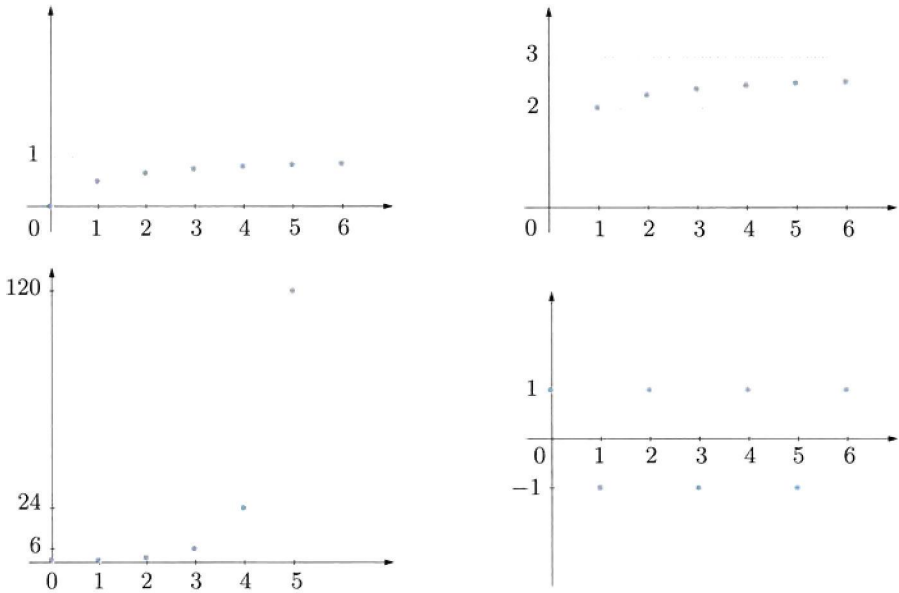


Figure 2.4. Clockwise: graphs of the sequences (2.3), (2.4), (2.6), (2.5)

x*i*) The sequence

$$a_n = n! \tag{2.5}$$

associates to each natural number its factorial, defined in (1.9). The graph of this sequence is shown in Fig. 2.4 (bottom left); as the values of the sequence grow rapidly as  $n$  increases, we used different scalings on the coordinate axes.

x*ii*) The sequence

$$a_n = (-1)^n = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \end{cases} \quad (n \geq 0) \tag{2.6}$$

has alternating values  $+1$  and  $-1$ , according to the parity of  $n$ . The graph of the sequence is shown in Fig. 2.4 (bottom right).

At last, here are two maps defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (functions of *two real variables*).

x*iii*) The function

$$f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

maps a generic point  $P$  of the plane with coordinates  $(x, y)$  to its distance from the origin.

x*iv*) The map

$$f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, \quad f(x, y) = (y, x)$$

associates to a point  $P$  the point  $P'$  symmetric to  $P$  with respect to the bisectrix of the first and third quadrants. □

Consider a map from  $X$  to  $Y$ . One should take care in noting that the symbol for an element of  $X$  (to which one refers as the *independent variable*) and the symbol for an element in  $Y$  (*dependent variable*), are completely arbitrary. What really determines the function is the way of associating each element of the domain to its corresponding image. For example, if  $x, y, z, t$  are symbols for real numbers, the expressions  $y = f(x) = 3x$ ,  $x = f(y) = 3y$ , or  $z = f(t) = 3t$  denote the *same* function, namely the one mapping each real number to its triple.

## 2.2 Range and pre-image

Let  $A$  be a subset of  $X$ . The **image of  $A$  under  $f$**  is the set

$$f(A) = \{f(x) : x \in A\} \subseteq \text{im } f$$

of all the images of elements of  $A$ . Notice that  $f(A)$  is empty if and only if  $A$  contains no elements of the domain of  $f$ . The image  $f(X)$  of the whole set  $X$  is the range of  $f$ , already denoted by  $\text{im } f$ .

Let  $y$  be any element of  $Y$ ; the **pre-image of  $y$  by  $f$**  is the set

$$f^{-1}(y) = \{x \in \text{dom } f : f(x) = y\}$$

of elements in  $X$  whose image is  $y$ . This set is empty precisely when  $y$  does not belong to the range of  $f$ . If  $B$  is a subset of  $Y$ , the **pre-image of  $B$  under  $f$**  is defined as the set

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in \text{dom } f : f(x) \in B\},$$

union of all pre-images of elements of  $B$ .

It is easy to check that  $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A))$  for any subset  $A$  of  $\text{dom } f$ , and  $f(f^{-1}(B)) = B \cap \text{im } f \subseteq B$  for any subset  $B$  of  $Y$ .

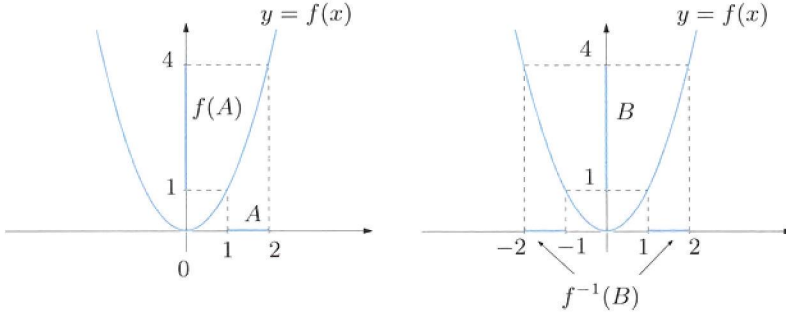
### Example 2.2

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^2$ . The image under  $f$  of the interval  $A = [1, 2]$  is the interval  $B = [1, 4]$ . Yet the pre-image of  $B$  under  $f$  is the union of the intervals  $[-2, -1]$  and  $[1, 2]$ , namely, the set

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 1 \leq |x| \leq 2\}$$

(see Fig. 2.5). □

The notions of infimum, supremum, maximum and minimum, introduced in Sect. 1.3.1, specialise in the case of images of functions.



**Figure 2.5.** Image (left) and pre-image (right) of an interval relative to the function  $f(x) = x^2$

**Definition 2.3** Let  $f$  be a real map and  $A$  a subset of  $\text{dom } f$ . One calls **supremum of  $f$  on  $A$**  (or **in  $A$** ) the supremum of the image of  $A$  under  $f$

$$\sup_{x \in A} f(x) = \sup f(A) = \sup\{f(x) \mid x \in A\}.$$

Then  $f$  is **bounded from above on  $A$**  if the set  $f(A)$  is bounded from above, or equivalently, if  $\sup_{x \in A} f(x) < +\infty$ .

If  $\sup_{x \in A} f(x)$  is finite and belongs to  $f(A)$ , then it is the maximum of this set.

This number is the **maximum value** (or simply, the **maximum**) of  $f$  on  $A$  and is denoted by  $\max_{x \in A} f(x)$ .

The concepts of **infimum** and of **minimum** of  $f$  on  $A$  are defined similarly. Eventually,  $f$  is said **bounded on  $A$**  if the set  $f(A)$  is bounded.

At times, the shorthand notations  $\sup_A f$ ,  $\max_A f$ , et c. are used.

The maximum value  $M = \max_A f$  of  $f$  on the set  $A$  is characterised by the conditions:

i)  $M$  is a value assumed by the function on  $A$ , i.e.,

$$\text{there exists } x_M \in A \text{ such that } f(x_M) = M;$$

ii)  $M$  is greater or equal than any other value of the map on  $A$ , so

$$\text{for any } x \in A, f(x) \leq M.$$

**Example 2.4**

Consider the function  $f(x)$  defined in (2.2). One verifies easily

$$\max_{x \in [0,2]} f(x) = 3, \quad \min_{x \in [0,2]} f(x) = 0, \quad \max_{x \in [1,3]} f(x) = 3, \quad \inf_{x \in [1,3]} f(x) = 1.$$

The map does not assume the value 1 anywhere in the interval  $[1,3]$ , so there is no minimum on that set. □



### 2.3 Surjective and injective functions; inverse function

A map with values in  $Y$  is called **onto** if  $\text{im } f = Y$ . This means that each  $y \in Y$  is the image of one element  $x \in X$  at least. The term **surjective** (on  $Y$ ) has the same meaning. For instance,  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = ax + b$  with  $a \neq 0$  is surjective on  $\mathbb{R}$ , or onto: the real number  $y$  is the image of  $x = \frac{y-b}{a}$ . On the contrary, the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^2$  is not onto, because its range coincides with the interval  $[0, +\infty)$ .

A function  $f$  is called **one-to-one** (or **1-1**) if every  $y \in \text{im } f$  is the image of a unique element  $x \in \text{dom } f$ . Otherwise put, if  $y = f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  for some elements  $x_1, x_2$  in the domain of  $f$ , then necessarily  $x_1 = x_2$ . This, in turn, is equivalent to

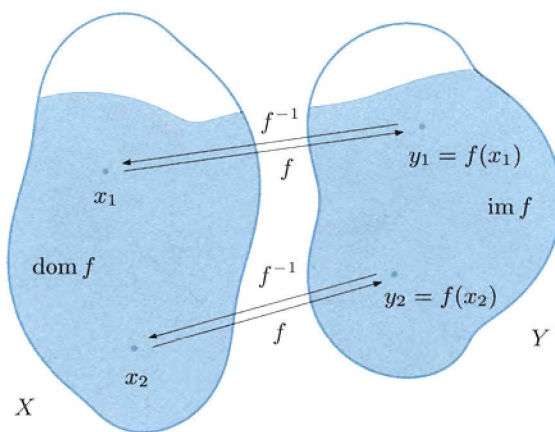
$$x_1 \neq x_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$$

for all  $x_1, x_2 \in \text{dom } f$  (see Fig. 2.6). Again, the term **injective** may be used. If a map  $f$  is one-to-one, we can associate to each element  $y$  in the range the unique  $x$  in the domain with  $f(x) = y$ . Such correspondence determines a function defined on  $Y$  and with values in  $X$ , called **inverse function** of  $f$  and denoted by the symbol  $f^{-1}$ . Thus

$$x = f^{-1}(y) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad y = f(x)$$

(the notation mixes up deliberately the pre-image of  $y$  under  $f$  with the unique element this set contains). The inverse function  $f^{-1}$  has the image of  $f$  as its domain, and the domain of  $f$  as range:

$$\text{dom } f^{-1} = \text{im } f, \quad \text{im } f^{-1} = \text{dom } f.$$



**Figure 2.6.** Representation of a one-to-one function and its inverse

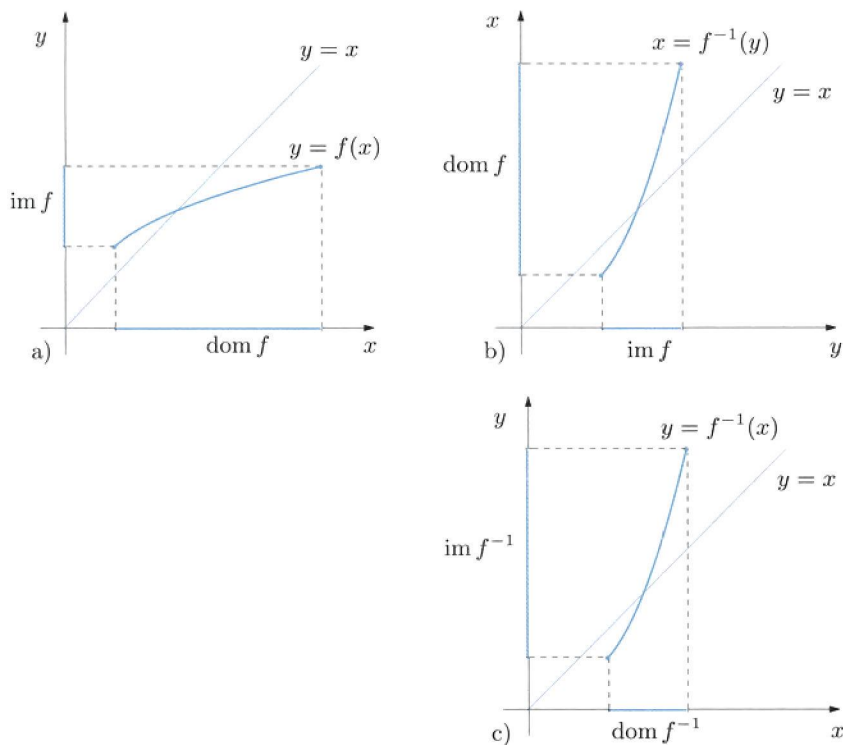
A one-to-one map is therefore **invertible**; the two notions (injectivity and invertibility) coincide.

What is the link between the graphs of  $f$ , defined in (2.1), and of the inverse function  $f^{-1}$ ? One has

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(f^{-1}) &= \{(y, f^{-1}(y)) \in Y \times X : y \in \text{dom } f^{-1}\} \\ &= \{(f(x), x) \in Y \times X : x \in \text{dom } f\}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the graph of the inverse map may be obtained from the graph of  $f$  by *swapping* the components in each pair. For real functions of one real variable, this corresponds to a reflection in the Cartesian plane with respect to the bisectrix  $y = x$  (see Fig. 2.7: a) is reflected into b)). On the other hand, finding the explicit expression  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  of the inverse function could be hard, if possible at all.

Provided that the inverse map in the form  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  can be determined, often one prefers to denote the independent variable (of  $f^{-1}$ ) by  $x$ , and the dependent variable by  $y$ , thus obtaining the expression  $y = f^{-1}(x)$ . This is merely a change of notation (see the remark at the end of Sect. 2.1). The procedure allows to draw the graph of the inverse function in the same frame system of  $f$  (see Fig. 2.7, from b) to c)).



**Figure 2.7.** From the graph of a function to the graph of its inverse

**Examples 2.5**

i) The function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = ax + b$  is one-to-one for all  $a \neq 0$  (in fact,  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow ax_1 + b = ax_2 + b \Rightarrow ax_1 = ax_2 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$ ). Its inverse is  $x = f^{-1}(y) = \frac{y-b}{a}$ , or  $y = f^{-1}(x) = \frac{x-b}{a}$ .

ii) The map  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^2$  is not one-to-one because  $f(x) = f(-x)$  for any real  $x$ . Yet if we consider only values  $\geq 0$  for the independent variable, i.e., if we **restrict**  $f$  to the interval  $[0, +\infty)$ , then the function becomes 1-1 (in fact,  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1^2 - x_2^2 = (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 + x_2) = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$ ). The inverse function  $x = f^{-1}(y) = \sqrt{y}$  is also defined on  $[0, +\infty)$ . Conventionally one says that the ‘squaring’ map  $y = x^2$  has the function ‘square root’  $y = \sqrt{x}$  for inverse (on  $[0, +\infty)$ ). Notice that the restriction of  $f$  to the interval  $(-\infty, 0]$  is 1-1, too; the inverse in this case is  $y = -\sqrt{x}$ .

iii) The map  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^3$  is one-to-one. In fact  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1^3 - x_2^3 = (x_1 - x_2)(x_1^2 + x_1x_2 + x_2^2) = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$  since  $x_1^2 + x_1x_2 + x_2^2 = \frac{1}{2}[x_1^2 + x_2^2 + (x_1 + x_2)^2] > 0$  for any  $x_1 \neq x_2$ . The inverse function is the ‘cubic root’  $y = \sqrt[3]{x}$ , defined on all  $\mathbb{R}$ . □

As in Example ii) above, if a function  $f$  is not injective over the whole domain, it might be so on a subset  $A \subseteq \text{dom } f$ . The **restriction of  $f$  to  $A$**  is the function

$$f|_A : A \rightarrow Y \quad \text{such that} \quad f|_A(x) = f(x), \quad \forall x \in A,$$

and is therefore invertible.

Let  $f$  be defined on  $X$  with values  $Y$ . If  $f$  is one-to-one and onto, it is called a **bijection** (or **bijective function**) from  $X$  to  $Y$ . If so, the inverse map  $f^{-1}$  is defined on  $Y$ , and is one-to-one and onto (on  $X$ ); thus,  $f^{-1}$  is a bijection from  $Y$  to  $X$ .

For example, the functions  $f(x) = ax + b$  ( $a \neq 0$ ) and  $f(x) = x^3$  are bijections from  $\mathbb{R}$  to itself. The function  $f(x) = x^2$  is a bijection on  $[0, +\infty)$  (i.e., from  $[0, +\infty)$  to  $[0, +\infty)$ ).

If  $f$  is a bijection between  $X$  and  $Y$ , the sets  $X$  and  $Y$  are in **bijective correspondence** through  $f$ : each element of  $X$  is assigned to one and only one element of  $Y$ , and vice versa. The reader should notice that two *finite* sets (i.e., containing a finite number of elements) are in bijective correspondence if and only if they have the same number of elements. On the contrary, an infinite set can correspond bijectively to a proper subset; the function (sequence)  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f(n) = 2n$ , for example, establishes a bijection between  $\mathbb{N}$  and the subset of even numbers.

To conclude the section, we would like to mention a significant interpretation of the notions of 1-1, onto, and bijective maps just introduced. Both in pure Mathematics and in applications one is frequently interested in solving a problem, or an equation, of the form

$$f(x) = y,$$