

MAT257 Lecture Notes

ARKY!! :3C

'24 Fall & '25 Winter Semester

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§1 Day 1: Course Administrative Details and Equivalent Norms (Sep. 4, 2024)

Course administrative details!

- The prerequisites to this class are calculus and linear algebra; specifically, this class is about calculus on manifolds.
- The main three theorems this class will cover are the inclusive function theorem, change of variable in integral, and Stokes' theorem (generalization of FTC).
- The main techniques we will study this class are manifolds, theory of integration, and differential forms.

To give an example of how linear algebra can be used in defining differentiability, we start by recalling that for a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to be differentiable in 1 variable, we need

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} =: c = f'(a)$$

to exist for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Specifically, this may be rewritten as

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - (f(a) + ch)}{h} = 0,$$

where we have $f(a) + f'(a)h$ as the best local linear approximation of $f(a+h)$ at $h=0$, and $h \mapsto ch$ is a linear transformation $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. For the higher dimensional analogue of the above, let us take $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, and have

$$\begin{aligned} a &= (a_1, \dots, a_n), \\ x &= (x_1, \dots, x_n), \\ h &= (h_1, \dots, h_n). \end{aligned}$$

If we let $y = f(x)$, then $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and we can write it as a column vector with components y_1, \dots, y_m ;

$$f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

In this way, each y_i for $1 \leq i \leq m$ can be viewed as a function in n variables. We say f is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if there exists a linear transformation $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ such that¹

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(a+h) - (f(a) + \lambda h)|}{|h|} = 0$$

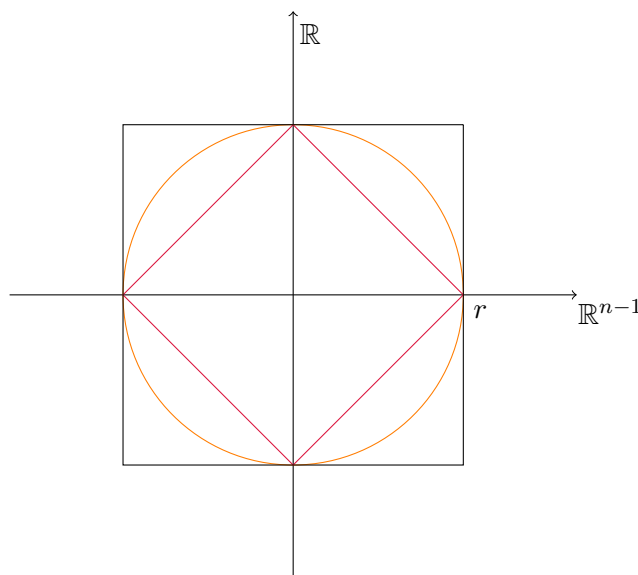
In this way, we have that $f(a) + \lambda h$ is the best linear approximation of $f(a+h)$ at $h=0$. Notice that compared to the $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiability condition, we impose a norm on $f(a+h) - (f(a) + \lambda h)$ and h , since we cannot divide by $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m$ vectors.

¹i think we need a norm in the numerator for the limit below; bierstone didn't do it in class though, so... idk. also lambda is jacobian?

This also brings the topic of what sort of norms we could be looking at; for example, we have²

$$\begin{aligned} |x| &= \sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}, \\ \|x\| &= \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}, \\ |||x||| &= |x_1| + \cdots + |x_n|. \end{aligned}$$

We say that two norms p, q are equivalent to each other if we may find a constant C where $p(x) \leq Cq(x)$ (and vice versa). In fact, the norms $|x|, \|x\|, |||x|||$ are all equivalent to each other; here is a visual proof,



where each figure is the level sets of their respective norms. In particular, $|x| \leq \sqrt{n} \|x\|$, and $|||x||| \leq \sqrt{n} |x|$. To prove the latter analytically, we may write the norm as an inner product, $|||x||| = \langle x, u(x) \rangle < |x| |u(x)| \leq \sqrt{n} r$, where u_i is the sign of each component of x .³

²these are (in order) euclidean, maximum, and taxicab norms; or $\ell^2, \ell^\infty, \ell^1$

³i kinda get where this proof is going, but at the same time i dont really know how he defined u in the first place, so yeah. alternate proof would be to give Cauchy-Schwarz

§2 Day 2: Review of MAT247, Metric Spaces (Sep. 6, 2024)

Course administrative details!

- Fall Office Hours will be held on Mondays from 10:30 to 11:30AM (likely in Bahen 6114).

We start with a review on functions and continuity. Given \mathbb{R}^n with elements $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$, we define the following addition and scalar multiplication,

$$\begin{aligned}x + y &= (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n), \\ \lambda x &= (\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n), \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.\end{aligned}$$

We may also equip it with the Euclidean inner product and norm,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, y \rangle &= x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n, \\ |x| &= (x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle},\end{aligned}$$

of which it has the properties

- Non-negativity; $|x| \geq 0$, and is equal to 0 if and only if $x = 0$.
- Absolute Homogeneity; $|\lambda x| = |\lambda| |x|$ for any scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Triangle Inequality; $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$ for any vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

We may check that the properties above hold for the Euclidean norm;

- Trivial, since the square of each component is non-negative.
- Not discussed in class, but we may directly expand the norm to get the equality,

$$|\lambda x| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (\lambda x_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\lambda^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\lambda| |x|.$$

- Start by observing that from inner product properties, we have $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq |x| |y|$, with equality if and only if x, y are linearly dependent. If x, y are LI, observe $\lambda y - x \neq 0$ for all scalars $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, and we may write

$$\begin{aligned}0 < |\lambda y - x|^2 &= \langle \lambda y - x, \lambda y - x \rangle \\ &= \lambda^2 \langle y, y \rangle - 2\lambda \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x, x \rangle \\ &= |y|^2 \lambda^2 - 2 \langle x, y \rangle \lambda + |x|^2.\end{aligned}$$

Reading the above as a polynomial in λ , we observe that it must not have any real roots, and so the discriminant is necessarily negative, i.e. $4 \langle x, y \rangle^2 - 4 |x|^2 |y|^2 < 0$, which implies $|\langle x, y \rangle| < |x| |y|$. Returning to the triangle inequality, let us start by squaring both sides to obtain

$$|x + y|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle + 2 \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \leq |x|^2 + 2 |x| |y| + |y|^2.$$

This leaves us with $2 \langle x, y \rangle \leq 2 |x| |y|$, which, from the above, we find equality if x, y are linearly dependent, and “ $<$ ” if LI.

Consider the linear transformation, $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, equipped with standard bases $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n , and $\{f_1, \dots, f_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^m ; let the matrix representation of T be given by the below matrix A ,

$$y = T(x) \implies \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}}_A \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

In terms of basis vectors, we may visualize T by

$$T(e_i) = \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ji} f_j.$$

Now, suppose $S : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\ell$ be a linear transformation, with corresponding matrix representation $B \in M_{\ell \times m}(\mathbb{R})$. Then the composition $S \circ T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\ell$ has matrix $B \cdot A \in M_{\ell \times n}(\mathbb{R})$.

Here is an example from class; if $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear map, then $|Tx| \leq M|x|$ for some $M > 0$. To see this, let us start by writing

$$Tx = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i T(e_i).$$

This gives us

$$\begin{aligned} |Tx| &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i T(e_i)| = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| |T(e_i)| \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} =: |A|. \end{aligned}$$

Then we have

$$|Tx| \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|\right) |A| \leq \sqrt{n} |A| |x|.$$

We simply pick $M \geq \sqrt{n} |A|$ and we are done. \square

§2.1 Topology of \mathbb{R}^n

Let us equip \mathbb{R}^n with the Euclidean norm; this is an example of a metric space (i.e., a set equipped with a distance function $d(x, y)$). The function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has the following properties,

- (a) Symmetry, $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.
- (b) Non-negativity, $d(x, y) \geq 0$, with $d(x, y) = 0$ if $x = y$.
- (c) Triangle inequality, $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$.

§3 Day 3: Topology in \mathbb{R}^n (Sep. 9, 2024)

What are some n -dimensional analogues of closed intervals $[a, b] \in \mathbb{R}$? We have

- The closed rectangle $[a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n] \subset \mathbb{R}^n$,
- The closed ball $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |x - a| \leq r\}$.

For n -dimensional analogues of open intervals, we have open rectangles and balls, i.e.

- $(a_1, b_1) \times \cdots \times (a_n, b_n)$,
- $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |x - a| < r\}$.

We say a subset $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is open (two definitions) if:

- For any $a \in U$, we may pick $\varepsilon > 0$ such that the ball $B(a, \varepsilon) \subseteq U$.
- For any $a \in U$, there exists an open rectangle R such that $a \in R \subseteq U$.

We say a subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus C$ is open. Here are some examples of closed sets,

- \emptyset, \mathbb{R}^n ;
- Closed rectangles and balls as per earlier;
- Finite sets.

Let us take the closed subset $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and have A contain all rationals in $(0, 1)$. We claim that $[0, 1] \subseteq A$. To see this, consider $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$. Since A is closed, $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$ is open, which means there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \varepsilon) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$. By density of \mathbb{Q} in \mathbb{R} , we may always find a rational in $B(x, \varepsilon)$, meaning $B(x, \varepsilon) \cap A \neq \emptyset$, and $x \notin [0, 1]$. \square

A few remarks;

- Any union of open sets is open.
- The finite union of closed sets is closed.
- Arbitrary unions of closed sets are not necessarily closed; observe

$$\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left[\frac{1}{n} - 1, 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right] = (-1, 1).$$

Now, consider $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$; there are 3 possibilities:

1. There exists an open ball B such that $x \in B \subset A$ (i.e. the interior of A , $\text{int } A$).
2. There exists an open ball B such that $x \in B \subset \mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$ (i.e. the exterior of A , $\text{ext } A$).
3. For all open balls B such that $x \in B$, there exists $y_1 \in A$ and $y_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$ such that $y_1, y_2 \in B$ (i.e. the boundary of A , $\text{bdry } A$).

For example, we may consider $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ to be the rationals in $(0, 1)$; then the interior of A is \emptyset , the exterior of A is $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus [0, 1]$, and the boundary of A is $[0, 1]$.

Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$; given the function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ then we define the graph of f ,

$$\text{graph } f = \{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in A\} \subseteq A \times \mathbb{R}^m.$$

§4 Day 4: Graphing Example; Operations on Functions, Definition of Continuity by Open Sets (Sep. 11, 2024)

We graphed $w = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$ in class today. Since I don't really know how to LaTeX these kinds of graphs, I'll just drop these pictures in;



The main idea was to start by considering $z = 0$ and observing that $w = x^2 + y^2$ is really a parabola ($w = x^2$, $w = y^2$) rotated about the w -axis; setting x or y to 0, we get the left picture. If we examine the level sets of $w = x^2 - z^2$, we may combine the two to obtain the level surfaces of $w = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$ (as per the rightmost diagram on the blackboard).

Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, and consider a function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ (i.e., a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with domain restricted onto A). If we want to create another function $g : B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ to be composed with A , we implicitly ask that $f(A) \subset B$; with this, we may write

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

where $\text{dom}(g \circ f) = f^{-1}(B)$. Now, let us consider the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let f, g be functions from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m . Then we may construct

$$(f, g)(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^m, \\ f \cdot g = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \circ (f \cdot g),$$

which we may indeed check sends $\mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as expected of the definition of dot product.

Returning to earlier, let us consider $f : (A \subset \mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, and let us consider $f(x)$ written in its components, $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))$. If we wish to be specific, observe that we may write each f_i as the following composition,

$$f_i = \pi_i \circ f \text{ where } \pi_i : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

where π_i is the mapping $(x_1, \dots, x_m) \mapsto x_i$.

On the topic of limits, recall from MAT157 that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = b$ means that for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if x is in a δ -ball of a , then $f(x)$ is in an ε -ball of b . We may extend this idea to define continuity; we say f is continuous at a if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a),$$

and that f is a continuous function if it is continuous for all $a \in A$. If we want to define continuity in its topological notion, though, we have that $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(U)$ is open in \mathbb{R}^n for all $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$.

Theorem 4.1 (Spivak 1.8). We say $f : (A \subset \mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous if and only if, for all $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$, $f^{-1}(U) = A \cap V$ for some open set $V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$.⁴

(\Rightarrow) Consider any open set $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$. If $a \in f^{-1}(U)$, we have $b := f(a) \in U$. Since U is open, there exists some $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $B(b, \varepsilon) \subset U$; using the fact that f is continuous at a , we may construct a δ -ball $B(a, \delta(a))$ about a such that

$$A \cap B(a, \delta(a)) \xrightarrow{f} B(f(a), \varepsilon).$$

With this, we may take the union of all such balls $B(a, \delta(a))$ and observe that

$$f^{-1}(U) = A \cap \underbrace{\left(\bigcup_{a \in f^{-1}(U)} B(a, \delta(a)) \right)}_{:=V},$$

where we may note V is open (since the arbitrary union of open sets is open). We may note that $A \cap V$ indeed covers $f^{-1}(U)$; if it did not, then we would be able to pick a new $a \in f^{-1}(U)$ and repeat the above process, contradicting the definition of V .

(\Leftarrow) For any $a \in A$, let us have $U = B(f(a), \varepsilon)$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$. Then $f^{-1}(U) = A \cap V$ for some open set $V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$; by definition of open sets, we may find a ball about a contained in V ; let it be $B(a, \delta)$. Then this fulfills the $\varepsilon - \delta$ definition of continuity, and we are done. \square

⁴do note that this proof is different from lecture, since i either mis-transcribed or bierstone made a mistake concerning balls for all $a \in A$ sending to b .

§5 Day 5: Composition of Continuous Functions; Uniform Continuity, Distance Metric, Compactness (Sep. 13, 2024)

We start with a few examples:

- Is $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ continuous? The answer is no, since the limit on $(x, y) \rightarrow 0$ on ℓ_x (read: X -axis) is equal to -1 , while the limit on ℓ_y is equal to 1 . This means there are two conflicting limits approaching $(x, y) \rightarrow 0$, meaning that f is not continuous at 0 .
- Is $f(x, y) = e^{-\frac{|x-y|}{x^2 - 2xy + y^2}}$ continuous? Observe that

$$e^{-\frac{|x-y|}{x^2 - 2xy + y^2}} = e^{-\frac{1}{|x-y|}};$$

since $|x - y|$ and $e^{-\frac{1}{x}}$ are continuous, we see that the composition is continuous as well, and so $f(x, y)$ is continuous.

While the composition of continuous functions property has been proved in 327, we provide a 257 variant of the proof;

Theorem 5.1 (Composition of Continuous Functions is Continuous). Let $f : (A \subset \mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $g : (B \subset \mathbb{R}^m) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ be continuous, with $f(A) \subset B$. Then we have that $g \circ f$ is continuous.

Let U be open in \mathbb{R}^p ; then $g^{-1}(U) = B \cap V$ where V is open in \mathbb{R}^m (as per our definition of continuity). Furthermore, we also have $(g \circ f)^{-1}(U) = f^{-1}(B \cap V) = f^{-1}(B) \cap f^{-1}(V)$; let $f^{-1}(V) = A \cap W$ for some open $W \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, then we have

$$f^{-1}(B) \cap f^{-1}(V) = \underbrace{f^{-1}(B) \cap A}_{f^{-1}(B) \supset A} \cap W = A \cap W,$$

which is as desired. □

We now provide examples of continuity.

1. Let us have a linear function $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ such that T is uniformly continuous. Then

$$|T(x) - T(y)| = |T(x - y)| \leq C |x - y|$$

for some scalar C . In particular, when constructing an $\varepsilon - \delta$ proof for continuity here, for any $\varepsilon > 0$ we may pick $\delta < \frac{\varepsilon}{C}$.

2. Let $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$; we say that f is continuous if and only if each of f_i for $1 \leq i \leq m$ are continuous as well.

(\Rightarrow) By contrapositive; if any f_i is discontinuous at any point a , then f is discontinuous at a as well.

(\Leftarrow) If every f_i is continuous, there exists δ_i for each f_i such that $|f_i(x) - f_i(a)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{n}}$ whenever $|x - a| < \delta_i$. Then we may set $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m\}$ to see

$$|f(x) - f(a)|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m |f_i(x) - f_i(a)|^2 < n \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^2 = \varepsilon^2,$$

yielding $|f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $|x - a| < \delta$. □

In terms topological definitions though, we may write

- (\Rightarrow) If f is continuous, then we may use the composition of continuous functions to see that the projections $f_i = \pi_i \circ f$ are indeed continuous.
- (\Leftarrow) Take any open subset $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$. Then let R be an open rectangle in U , and let us consider the union of all possible rectangles,

$$f^{-1}(U) = \bigcup_{R \in \mathcal{U}} f^{-1}(R).$$

Since each rectangle is defined as the cartesian product of open intervals on each respective f_i , we see that $f^{-1}(R)$ is given by

$$f^{-1}(R) = \bigcap_{i=1}^m f_i^{-1}(R_i),$$

where R_i are the said respective open intervals. Since each f_i is continuous and the intersection of open sets is open, we see $f^{-1}(R)$ is open for all R , and so $f^{-1}(U)$ is open as well. \square

3. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, and define the metric $d(x, X) = \inf_{a \in X} |x - a|$, i.e. the smallest distance from x to some point $a \in X$. We want to show that $f(x) = d(x, X)$ is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R}^n .

To start, let us consider $|f(x) - f(y)| = |d(x, X) - d(y, X)| \leq |x - y|$; we wish to prove the inequality. To do this, start by taking $d(x, X) - |x - y|$, and consider

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, X) - |x - y| &\leq d(x, X) + \underbrace{|y - a| - |x - a|}_{\text{Triangle Ineq.}} \\ &\leq |y - a| \quad (d(x, X) - |x - a| \leq 0) \\ &\leq d(y, X). \end{aligned}$$

In this way, we get $|x - a| \leq |x - y| + |y - a|$, which yields $d(x, X) - d(y, X) \leq |x - y|$. \square

We also briefly touched on compactness at the end of the class. We call a subset $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ *compact* if every open covering \mathcal{O} of X has a finite subcovering (i.e., a subset of \mathcal{O} that covers X). Here are some examples,

- \mathbb{R} (equipped with the standard topology) is not compact. If we let \mathcal{O} be an open covering given by

$$\mathcal{O} = \{(a, a + 1) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

we have that \mathcal{O} covers \mathbb{R} , but there does not exist a finite subcovering. Thus, \mathbb{R} cannot be compact.

- The open interval $(0, 1)$ (once again, equipped with the standard topology) is not compact. This time, let

$$\mathcal{O} = \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right) \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \right\}.$$

Clearly, \mathcal{O} covers X , but it does not admit a finite subcovering.

- Any topology on a finite set X is compact. In particular, any covering is necessarily finite, since there are finitely many elements in $\mathcal{P}(X)$; this means any subcovering, even if it is the same as the covering, is finite as well.