# MATH 3142 Notes — Spring 2016

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This document is a template for you to take notes in my MATH 3142 course. For your note check grade, you are required to complete all proofs/solutions for the problems specified. This template will be updated periodically throughout the course; you are responsible for updating your copy as the template is updated. See the syllabus for more details.

You should maintain your notes on Overleaf.com and provide me with a link so I can check on them. I'll give you notice before notes are "due"; when they are due I will download a copy myself from Overleaf.

This is not a replacement for the textbook for this course, *Advanced Calculus* by Patrick M. Fitzpatrick. Many proofs are outlined in that text, as well as all the relevant definitions and other results not included in these notes.

A proof is valid if and only if it uses concepts proven previously in the book. For example, you cannot prove a lemma in Chapter 6 using a theorem from Chapter 10, but using a proposition from Chapter 4 is allowed.

I hope you enjoy working through these results. Please email me with any questions.

— Dr. Steven Clontz (sclontz5@uncc.edu)

# Integration: Two Fundamental Theorems

#### 6.1 Darboux Sums: Upper and Lower Integrals

**Lemma** (6.1). Suppose that the function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is bounded and the numbers m,M have the property that

$$m \le f(x) \le M$$

for all x in [a, b]. Then, if P is a partition of the domain [a, b],

$$m(b-a) \le L(f,P)$$
 and  $U(f,P) \le M(b-a)$ .

Proof.

**Lemma** (6.2, The Refinement Lemma). Suppose that the function  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded and that P is a partition of its domain [a, b]. If  $P^*$  is a refinement of P, then

$$L(f,P) \leq L(f,P^\star) \text{ and } U(f,P^\star) \leq U(f,P).$$

Proof.

**Lemma** (6.3). Suppose that the function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is bounded and that  $P_1,P_2$  are partitions of its domain. Then  $L(f,P_1)\leq U(f,P_2)$ .

Proof.

**Lemma** (6.4). For a bounded function  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f \le \overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f.$$

Proof.

**Exercise** (2). For an interval [a, b] and a positive number  $\delta$ , show that there is a partition  $P = \{x_i : 0 \le i \le n\}$  of [a, b] such that each partition interval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  of P has length less than  $\delta$ .

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (3). Suppose that the bounded function  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  has the property that for each rational number x in the interval [a,b], f(x)=0. Prove that

$$\underline{\int_{a}^{b}} f \le 0 \le \overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f.$$

 $\square$ 

**Exercise** (6). Suppose that  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is a bounded function for which there is a partition P of [a,b] with L(f,P)=U(f,P). Prove that  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is constant.

Solution.  $\Box$ 

#### 6.2 The Archimedes-Riemann Theorem

**Lemma** (6.7). For a bounded function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  and a partition P of [a,b],

$$L(f,P) \le \int_a^b f \le \overline{\int_a^b} f \le U(f,P).$$

Proof.

**Theorem** (6.8, The Archimedes-Riemann Theorem). Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded function. Then f is integrable on [a, b] if and only if there is a sequence  $\{P_n\}$  of partitions of the interval [a, b] such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} [U(f, P_n) - L(f, P_n)] = 0.$$

Moreover, for any such sequence of partitions,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} L(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f = \lim_{n \to \infty} U(f, P_n).$$

Proof.

**Example** (6.9). Show that a monotonically increasing function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is integrable.

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Example** (6.11). Show that  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}$ .

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (4). Prove that for a natural number n,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}.$$

Then use this fact and the Archimedes-Riemann Theorem to show that  $\int_a^b x \, dx = (b^2 - a^2)/2$ .

$$\Box$$
 Solution.

**Exercise** (6b). Use the Archimedes-Riemann Theorem to show that for  $0 \le a < b$ ,

$$\int_{a}^{b} x^{2} \, dx = \frac{b^{3} - a^{3}}{3}.$$

 $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (9). Suppose that the functions  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  are integrable. Show that there is a sequence  $\{P_n\}$  of partitions of [a,b] that is an Archimediean sequence of partitions for f on [a,b] and also an Archimedean sequence of partitions for g on [a,b].

 $\square$ 

#### 6.3 Additivity, Monotonicity, and Linearity

**Theorem** (6.12, Additivity over Intervals). Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be integrable on [a, b] and let  $c \in (a, b)$ . Then f is integrable on [a, c] and [c, b], and furthermore

$$\int_{a}^{b} f = \int_{a}^{c} f + \int_{c}^{b} f.$$

Proof.

**Theorem** (6.13, Monotonicity of the Integral). Suppose  $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  are integrable and that  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f \le \int_{a}^{b} g.$$

Proof.

**Lemma** (6.14). Let  $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be bounded and let P partition [a, b]. Then

$$L(f,P)+L(g,P) \leq L(f+g,P) \ \ \text{and} \ \ U(f+g,P) \leq U(f,P)+U(g,P).$$

Moreover, for any number  $\alpha$ ,

$$U(\alpha f, P) = \alpha U(f, P)$$
 and  $L(\alpha f, P) = \alpha L(f, P)$  if  $\alpha \ge 0$   
 $U(\alpha f, P) = \alpha L(f, P)$  and  $L(\alpha f, P) = \alpha U(f, P)$  if  $\alpha < 0$ .

Proof.

**Theorem** (6.15, Linearity of the Integral). Let  $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be integrable. Then for any two numbers  $\alpha, \beta$ , the function  $\alpha f + \beta g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is integrable and

$$\int_{a}^{b} [\alpha f + \beta g] = \alpha \int_{a}^{b} f + \beta \int_{a}^{b} g.$$

Proof.

**Exercise** (1). Suppose that the functions  $f, g, f^2, g^2, fg$  are integrable on [a, b]. Prove that  $(f - g)^2$  is also integrable on [a, b] and that  $\int_a^b (f - g)^2 \ge 0$ . Use this to prove that

$$\int_{a}^{b} fg \le \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{a}^{b} f^2 + \int_{a}^{b} g^2 \right].$$

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (4). Suppose that S is a nonempty bounded set of numbers and that  $\alpha$  is a number. Define  $\alpha S$  to be the set  $\{\alpha x : x \in S\}$ . Prove that

$$\sup \alpha S = \alpha \sup S$$
 and  $\inf \alpha S = \alpha \inf S$  if  $\alpha \ge 0$ 

while

 $\sup \alpha S = \alpha \inf S$  and  $\inf \alpha S = \alpha \sup S$  if  $\alpha < 0$ .

 $\square$ 

**Exercise** (6). Suppose that  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded and let a < c < b. Prove that if f is integrable on both [a, c], [c, b], then it is integrable on [a, b].

Solution.  $\Box$ 

#### 6.4 Continuity and Integrability

**Lemma** (6.17). Let the function  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous let P partition its domain. Then there is a partition interval of P that contains two points u, v for which the following estimate holds:

$$0 \le U(f, P) - L(f, P) \le [f(v) - f(u)][b - a].$$

Proof.

**Theorem** (6.18). A continuous function on a closed bounded interval is integrable.

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem** (6.19). Supose  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded on [a, b] and continuous on (a, b). Then f is integrable on [a, b] and the value of  $\int_a^b f$  does not depend on the values of f at the endpoints of [a, b].

Proof.

**Exercise** (1). Determine whether each of the following statements is true or false, and justify your answer.

- (a) If  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is integrable and  $\int_a^b f=0$ , then f(x)=0 for all  $x\in[a,b]$ .
- (b) If  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is integrable, then f is continuous.
- (c) If  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is integrable and  $f(x)\geq 0$  for all  $x\in [a,b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f\geq 0$ .
- (d) A continuous function  $f:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  defined on an open interval (a,b) is bounded.
- (e) A continuous function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  defined on a closed interval [a,b] is bounded.

Solution. (a)

- (b)
- (c)
- (d)

(e)

**Exercise** (5). Suppose that the continuous function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  has the property

$$\int_{c}^{d} f \le 0 \text{ whenever } a \le c < d \le b.$$

Prove that  $f(x) \leq 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Is this true if we only require integrability of the function?

 $\Box$  Solution.

**Exercise** (6). Suppose that  $f:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and that  $f(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Prove that  $\int_0^1 f > 0$  if and only if there is a point  $x_0 \in [0,1]$  at which  $f(x_0) > 0$ .

 $\Box$  Solution.

# 6.5 The First Fundamental Theorem: Integrating Derivatives

**Lemma** (6.21). Suppose  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is integrable and that the number A has the property that for every P partitioning [a, b],

$$L(f, P) \le A \le U(f, P).$$

Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f = A.$$

Proof.

**Theorem** (6.22, The First Fundamental Theorem: Integrating Derivatives). Let  $F : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b). Moreover, suppose that its derivative  $F' : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$  is both continuous and bounded. Then

$$\int_a^b F'(x) \ dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Proof.

**Exercise** (1). Let m, b be positive numbers. Find the value of  $\int_0^1 mx + b \ dx$  in the following three ways:

- (a) Using elementary geometry, interpreting the integral as an area.
- (b) Using upper and lower Darboux sums based on regular partitions of the interval [0, 1] and using the Archimedes-Riemann Theorem.
- (c) Using the First Fundamental Theorem (Integrating Derivatives).

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (5). The monotonicity property of the integral implies that if the functions  $g, h : [0, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous and  $g(x) \le h(x)$  for all  $x \ge 0$ , then

$$\int_0^x g \le \int_0^x h \quad \text{for all } x \ge 0.$$

Use this and the First Fundamental Theorem to show that each of the following inequalities implies the next:

$$\cos x \le 1 \quad \text{if } x \ge 0.$$

$$\sin x \le x \quad \text{if } x \ge 0.$$

$$1 - \cos x \le \frac{x^2}{2} \quad \text{if } x \ge 0.$$

$$x - \sin x \le \frac{x^3}{6} \quad \text{if } x \ge 0.$$
$$x - \frac{x^3}{6} \le \sin x \le x \quad \text{if } x \ge 0.$$

(For this problem, you may assume that the sine and cosine functions are differentiable functions with the properties  $\sin(0) = 0$ ,  $\cos(0) = 1$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)] = \cos(x)$ , and  $\frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)] = -\sin(x)$ .)

Solution.  $\Box$ 

# 6.6 The Second Fundamental Theorem: Differentiating Integrals

**Theorem** (6.26, The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals). Suppose that  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous. Then there is a point  $x_0$  in the interval [a,b] at which

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f = f(x_0).$$

Proof.

**Proposition** (6.27). Suppose that the function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is integrable. Define

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f$$
 for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

Then the function  $F:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

Proof.

**Theorem** (6.29, The Second Fundamental Theorem: Differentiating Integrals). Suppose that  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous. Then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_{a}^{x} \right] = f(x) \text{ for all } x \in (a, b).$$

Proof.

**Exercise** (2b). Suppose  $f:[0,2]\to\mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1 \\ x & \text{if } 1 < x \le 2 \end{cases}.$$

Define

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt \text{ for all } x \in [a, b]$$

and find a formula for F(x) which does not involve integrals.

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (5). Suppose  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous. Define

$$G(x) = \int_0^x (x-t)f(t) dt$$
 for all  $x$ .

Prove that G''(x) = f(x) for all x.

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (12). Suppose that  $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous and that  $\alpha, \beta$  are real numbers. Define

$$H(x) = \int_a^x [\alpha f + \beta g] - \alpha \int_a^x [f] - \beta \int_a^x [g] \text{ for all } x \in [a, b].$$

Prove that H(a) = 0 and H'(x) = 0 for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . Use this fact and the Identity Criterion to give an alternate proof of Theorem 6.15 for continuous functions.

 $\square$ 

# The Euclidean Space $\mathbb{R}^n$

# 10.1 The Linear Structure of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and the Scalar Product

**Proposition** (10.2). Let  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then both of the following hold:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$$

$$\langle \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{w}, v \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$$

Proof.

**Lemma** (10.4). For  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  are orthogonal if and only if  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

Proof.

**Lemma** (10.5). For  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , define  $\lambda = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}$  and  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} - \lambda \mathbf{v}$ . Then  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  are orthogonal and  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{w} + \lambda \mathbf{v}$ .

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem** (10.6, The Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality). For any two vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| < \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|.$$

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem** (10.7, The Triangle Inequality). For any two vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \le \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|.$$

**Exercise** (3). Show that for  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ :

- (a)  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ .
- (b)  $\|\alpha \mathbf{u}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{u}\|.$

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (4). For  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  verify the identity

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle.$$

 $\Box$  Solution.

**Exercise** (9). Let  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and suppose  $\|\mathbf{u}\| < 1$ . Show that for  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}\| < 1 - \|\mathbf{u}\|$  implies  $\|\mathbf{v}\| < 1$ .

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (10). Let  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and r > 0. Suppose  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are at a distance less than r from  $\mathbf{u}$ . Prove that if  $0 \le t \le 1$ , then the point  $t\mathbf{v} + (1-t)]\mathbf{w}$  is also at a distance less than r from  $\mathbf{u}$ .

 $\Box$ 

#### 10.2 Convergence of Sequences in $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Theorem** (10.9, The Componentwise Convergence Criterion). Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{u}$  if and only if  $\{p_i(\mathbf{u}_k)\}$  converges to  $p_i(\mathbf{u})$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

Proof.

**Theorem** (10.10). Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$ ,  $\{\mathbf{v}_k\}$  be sequences in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\{\mathbf{v}_k\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{v}$ . Then for any  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} [\alpha \mathbf{u}_k + \beta \mathbf{v}_k] = \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v}.$$

Proof.

**Exercise** (1). Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that converges to  $\mathbf{u}$ . Prove the following for all  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}\langle\mathbf{u}_k,\mathbf{v}\rangle=\langle\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}\rangle.$$

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (2). Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Prove that if

$$\lim_{k\to\infty}\langle \mathbf{u}_k,\mathbf{v}\rangle=\langle \mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}\rangle$$

holds for all  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{u}$ .

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (5). Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_k\}$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that converges to  $\mathbf{u}$  where  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = r > 0$ . Prove that there is an index K where

$$\|\mathbf{u}_k\| > \frac{r}{2} \text{ if } k \ge K.$$

Solution.  $\Box$ 

#### 10.3 Open Sets and Closed Sets in $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Example** (10.11). Let a < b be in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then int(a, b] = (a, b).

Proof.

**Example** (10.12). Let  $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be the set of rational real numbers. Then int  $\mathbb{Q} = \emptyset$ .

Proof.

**Proposition** (10.13). Every open ball  $B_r(\mathbf{u})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is open.

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Example** (10.14). Let a < b be in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then [a, b] is closed.

Proof.

Example (10.15). The set

$$[-1,1] \times [-1,1] = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : -1 \le x \le 1 \text{ and } -1 \le y \le 1\}$$

is closed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Proof.

**Theorem** (10.16, The Complementing Characterization). A subset  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is open if and only if its complement  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$  is closed.

Proof.

**Proposition** (10.17.i). The union of a collection of open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is open.

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition** (10.17.ii). The intersection of a collection of closed subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed.

Proof.  $\Box$ 

<b>Proposition</b> (10.18.i). The intersection of a finite collection of open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is op	en.
<i>Proof.</i> <b>Proposition</b> (10.18.ii). The union of a finite collection of closed subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is closed.	
<i>Proof.</i> <b>Proposition</b> (10.19.i). $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is open if and only if $A \cap \operatorname{bd} A = \emptyset$ .	
<i>Proof.</i> <b>Proposition</b> (10.19.ii). $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if and only if $\operatorname{bd} A \subseteq A$ .	
<i>Proof.</i> <b>Exercise</b> (2). Determine which of the following subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$ are open, closed, neither, both.	or
(a) $\{(x,y): x^2 > y\}$ (b) $\{(x,y): x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ (c) $\{(x,y): x \text{ is rational}\}$ (d) $\{(x,y): x \ge 0, y \ge 0\}$	
Solution. (a) (b) (c) (d)	
<b>Exercise</b> (3). Let $r > 0$ and $O = {\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n :   \mathbf{u}   > r}$ . Prove that $O$ is open.	
Solution. Exercise (7a). Show that $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is open if and only if $\mathbf{w} + A = \{\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{u} : \mathbf{u} \in A\}$	
is open for all $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .	
Solution. <b>Exercise</b> (12). For $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , denote its closure by $\operatorname{cl} A = \operatorname{int} A \cup \operatorname{bd} A$ .	
Prove that $A \subseteq \operatorname{cl} A$ . Then prove that $A = \operatorname{cl} A$ if and only if A is closed.	
Solution.	

# Continuity, Compactness, and Connectedness

#### 11.1 Continuous Functions and Mappings

**Proposition** (11.1). For each  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , the *i*th projection map  $p_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

**Theorem** (11.3). Let  $\mathbf{u} \in A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $h, g : A \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$ . Then for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , the following functions are continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$ :

$$\alpha h + \beta q : A \to \mathbb{R}$$
  $h \cdot q : A \to \mathbb{R}$ .

Also if  $g(\mathbf{v}) \neq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{v} \in A$ , then the following function is also continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$ :

$$\frac{h}{g}:A\to\mathbb{R}.$$

**Theorem** (11.5). Let  $\mathbf{u} \in A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $G : A \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$ . Also let  $G(A) \subseteq B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $H : B \to \mathbb{R}^k$  be continuous at  $G(\mathbf{u})$ . Then the composition

$$H \circ G : A \to \mathbb{R}^k$$

is continuous at u.

Proof. 
$$\Box$$

**Theorem** (11.9, The Componentwise Continuity Criterion). Let  $\mathbf{u} \in A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $F : A \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then F is continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$  if and only if  $F_i = p_i \circ F : A \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$  for each  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

Proof.

**Theorem** (11.11, Exercise 12). Let  $\mathbf{u} \in A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $F : A \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then F is continuous at  $\mathbf{u}$  if and only if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}\| < \delta$  implies  $\|F(\mathbf{v}) - F(\mathbf{u})\| < \epsilon$ .

Proof.

**Theorem** (11.12). Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $F: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then F is continuous if and only if  $F^{-1}(V)$  is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for every open  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ .

Proof.

**Example** (11.15). Use corollary 11.13 and proposition 10.18.i to prove that  $U = \{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n : a < \|\mathbf{u}\| < b\}$  is open. (You may assume  $f(\mathbf{u}) = \|\mathbf{u}\|$  is continuous.)

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (3). Fix a point  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Prove that  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(\mathbf{u}) = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  is continuous.

 $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (6). Suppose  $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous. Prove that  $\{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(\mathbf{u}) = g(\mathbf{u}) = 0\}$  is closed. (Hint: use corollary 11.13 and proposition 10.17.ii.)

Solution.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (11). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . The characteristic function  $\phi_A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  for A is defined to be

$$\phi_A(\mathbf{u}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{u} \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{u} \notin A \end{cases}.$$

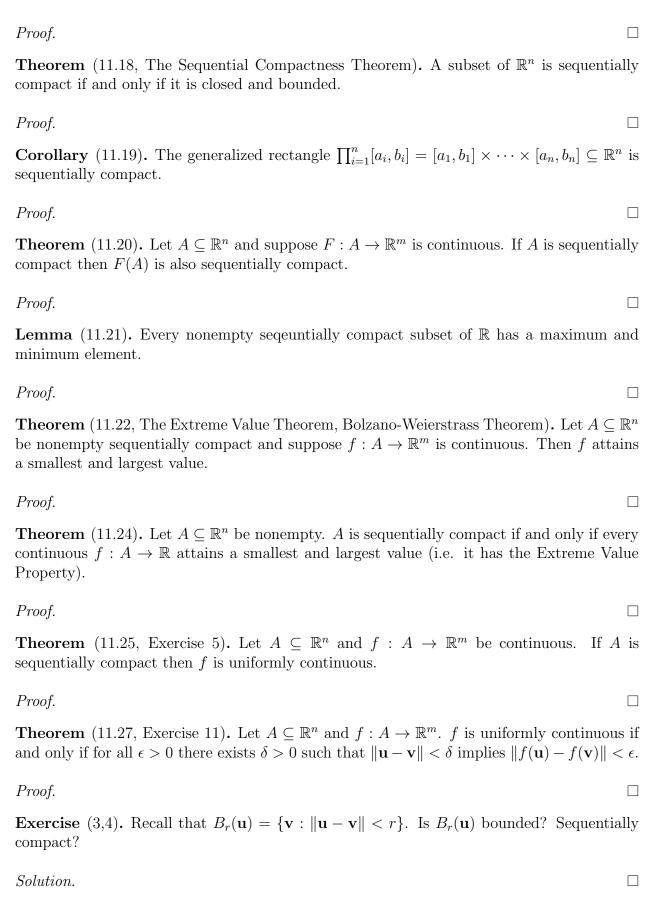
Prove that  $\phi_A$  is continuous at points in int A and ext A, but not continuous at points in bd A.

# 11.2 Sequential Compactness, Extreme Values, and Uniform Continuity

**Theorem** (11.16). Every sequentially compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is bounded and closed.

Proof.

**Theorem** (11.17). Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a convergent subsequence.



Exercise (2). Let  $D_r(\mathbf{u}) = {\mathbf{v} : ||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|| \le r}$ . Prove  $D_r(\mathbf{u})$  is sequentially compact.

 $\square$ 

**Exercise** (optional, Heine-Borel Theorem). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . We say A is compact when for every collection  $\mathcal{U}$  such that U is open for all  $U \in \mathcal{U}$  and  $A \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{U}$ , there exists a finite subset  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$  such that  $A \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{F}$ . Prove that A is compact if and only if A is closed and bounded.

 $\Box$ 

### Metric Spaces

**Definition.** A pair (X, d) is called a *metric space* if X is a set and d is a function  $d: X^2 \to [0, \infty)$  satisfying the following properties:

- Identity: d(p,q) = 0 if and only if p = q.
- Symmetry: d(p,q) = d(q,p).
- Triangle Inequality:  $d(p,q) \le d(p,w) + d(w,q)$ .

**Theorem** (12.2).  $dist(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = ||\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{p}||$  is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition.** Let (X, d) be a metric space. For  $p \in X, r > 0$ ,

$$B_r(p) = \{ q \in X : d(p,q) < r \}$$

is the open ball about p with radius r. For  $A \subseteq X$ ,

- int  $A = \{ q \in A : \exists r > 0 (B_r(q) \subseteq A) \}$
- $\operatorname{ext} A = \{ q \in A : \exists r > 0 (B_r(q) \subseteq X \setminus A) \}$
- bd  $A = \{q \in A : \forall r > 0(B_r(q) \cap A \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B_r(q) \setminus A \neq \emptyset)\}$

Call A open in (X, d) if A = int A. Note that these concepts match the definitions we gave for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  using the metric  $d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \|\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{p}\|$ .

**Theorem** (12.8). Let (X, d) be a metric space. Let  $p \in X, r > 0$ . Then  $B_r(p)$  is open.

**Definition.** Let d be a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say d is compatible with the usual topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if the open sets determined by d are exactly the open sets determined by dist.

**Example.**  $s : \mathbb{R}^n \to [0, \infty)$  defined by  $s(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \max\{|p_i(\mathbf{v}) - p_i(\mathbf{u})| : 1 \le i \le n\}$  is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Proof.

**Theorem.** s is compatible with the usual topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Proof.

**Example.**  $t: \mathbb{R}^n \to [0, \infty)$  defined by  $t(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^n |p_i(\mathbf{v}) - p_i(\mathbf{u})|$  is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem.** t is compatible with the usual topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Proof.

**Definition.**  $d: X \to [0, \infty)$  defined by d(p,q) = 1 for  $p \neq q$  and d(p,p) = 0 is called a discrete metric on X.

**Theorem** (12.4). The discrete metric on X is a metric.

Proof.

**Theorem.** The discrete metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is not compatible with the usual topology on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . (Hint: show that every subset of a discrete metric space is open.)

Proof.

**Definition.** Let  $C([a,b],\mathbb{R})$  be the set of all continuous functions  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ , and for  $f,g\in C([a,b],\mathbb{R})$  let  $d(f,g)=\max\{|f(x)-g(x)|:x\in[a,b]\}.$ 

**Theorem** (12.3).  $d(f,g) = \max\{|f(x) - g(x)| : x \in [a,b]\}$  is a metric on  $C([a,b],\mathbb{R})$ .

Proof.

**Definition.** Let  $\{p_k\}$  denote a *sequence* in a metric space (X, d), i.e. a function from  $\mathbb{N}$  to X.

**Definition.** We say the sequence  $\{p_k\}$  converges to  $p \in X$  when

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} d(p_k, p) = 0.$$

**Definition.**  $C \subseteq X$  is said to be *closed* in the metric space (X, d) when for every sequence  $\{p_k\}$  of points in C converging to  $p \in X$ , it follows that  $p \in C$ .

**Example** (12.11). The set  $\{f \in C([a,b],\mathbb{R}) : f(x) \geq 0\}$  is closed.

Proof.  $\Box$ 

<b>Theorem</b> (12.12, The Complementing Characterization). Let $(X, d)$ be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$ . Then $A$ is open in $(X, d)$ if and only if $X \setminus A$ is closed in $(X, d)$ .
Proof.
<b>Definition.</b> A sequence $\{p_k\}$ in a metric space $(X,d)$ is called a <i>Cauchy sequence</i> when for each $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $k, l \geq N$ implies $d(p_k, p_l) < \epsilon$ .
<b>Proposition</b> (12.15). Every convergent sequence in a metric space is Cauchy.
Proof.
<b>Lemma</b> (9.3). Every Cauchy sequence in $(\mathbb{R}, dist)$ is bounded.
Proof.
<b>Theorem</b> (9.4). A sequence in $(\mathbb{R}, dist)$ is Cauchy if and only if it is convergent.
Proof.
Corollary (Example 12.16). A sequence in $(\mathbb{R}^n, dist)$ is Cauchy if and only if it is convergent.
Proof.
<b>Definition.</b> A <i>complete metric space</i> is a metric space where every Cauchy sequence is convergent.

# Differentiating Functions of Several Variables

#### 13.1 Limits

**Definition.** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . We call  $\mathbf{x}_* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  a *limit point* of A in the case that there exists a sequence in  $A \setminus \{\mathbf{x}_*\}$  which converges to  $\mathbf{x}_*$ .

**Definition.** Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  have a limit point  $x_* \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $f : A \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. Then we say the *limit of f as*  $\mathbf{x}$  approaches  $\mathbf{x}_*$  is  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ , or

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{x}_*} f(\mathbf{x}) = L$$

in the case that whenever  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  is a sequence of points in  $A \setminus \{\mathbf{x}_*\}$  converging to  $\mathbf{x}_*$ , then  $\{f(\mathbf{x}_k)\}$  is a sequence of real numbers which converges to L.

**Theorem** (13.3). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{x}_*$  be a limit point of A. Suppose the functions  $f, g: A \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfy

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_*} f(\mathbf{x}) = L_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_*} g(\mathbf{x}) = L_2.$$

Then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_*}[f(\mathbf{x})+g(\mathbf{x})]=L_1+L_2$$

and

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_*}[f(\mathbf{x})g(\mathbf{x})]=L_1L_2.$$

And assuming  $g(\mathbf{x}) \neq 0$  for  $x \in A$  and  $L_2 \neq 0$ ,

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x}\to\mathbf{x}_*} [f(\mathbf{x})/g(\mathbf{x})] = L_1/L_2.$$

Proof.  $\Box$ 

Example (13.4). The limit

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

does not exist.

Proof.

Example (13.5).

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)}\frac{x^3}{x^2+y^2}=0.$$

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (4). Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Prove that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^n y^m}{x^2 + y^2}$$

exists if and only if m + n > 2.

 $\square$ 

**Exercise** (5). Give an example of a subset  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and point  $x \in A$  such that x is not a limit point of A.

 $\Box$ 

**Exercise** (12). Show that  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed if and only if it contains all its limit points.

Solution.  $\Box$ 

#### 13.2 Partial Derivatives

**Definition.** For each  $1 \le i \le n$ , let  $\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy  $p_i(\mathbf{e}_i) = 1$  and  $p_j(\mathbf{e}_i) = 0$  for  $j \ne i$ .

**Definition.** Let  $\mathbf{x} \in U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  with U open. For a function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ , define its first-order partial derivative with respect to its ith component at  $\mathbf{x}$  to be

$$\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f\right](\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}) = f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{e}_i) - f(\mathbf{x})}{t}$$

whenever the limit exists.

**Definition.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open. For a function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x})$  exists for all  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ , let  $f_{x_i}: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be defined as its first-order partial derivative with respect to its ith component.

**Definition.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open. A function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_{x_i}$  exists for all  $1 \le i \le n$  is said to have *first-order partial derivatives*.

**Example** (13.8\*). If  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = xyz - 3xy^2$$

then  $f_y: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfies

$$f_y(x, y, z) = xz - 6xy.$$

Proof.  $\Box$ 

**Example** (13.9). The function  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} xy/(x^2 + y^2) & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

has first-order partial derivatives, but is not continuous.

Proof.

**Definition.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open. Then a function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuously differentiable provided that  $f_{x_i}: U \to \mathbb{R}$  exists and is continuous for  $1 \le i \le n$ .

**Definition.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open, and  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$  have first-order partial derivatives. Then for  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$  let

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} : U \to \mathbb{R}$$

be the partial derivative of  $\partial f/\partial x_i: U \to \mathbb{R}$  with respect to its jth component. This is also denoted by  $f_{x_ix_j}$ . When i=j, this is also denoted by  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}$ .

**Definition.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open. A function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_{x_i x_j}$  exists for all  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$  is said to have second-order partial derivatives.

**Definition.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open. A function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_{x_i x_j}$  exists and is continuous for all  $1 \le i, j \le n$  is said to have *continuous second-order partial derivatives*.

**Lemma** (13.11). Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  be open and nonempty, and suppose  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  has second-order partial derivatives. Then there are points  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in U$  such that  $f_{xy}(x_1, y_1) = f_{yx}(x_2, y_2)$ .

Proof.

**Theorem** (13.10). Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and nonempty, and suppose  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  has continuous second-order partial derivatives. Then for all  $1 \le i, j \le n$ , it follows that  $f_{x_i x_j} = f_{x_j x_i}$ .

Proof for n=2.

**Example** (13.12, exercise 13). The function  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} xy(x^2 - y^2)/(x^2 + y^2) & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

has second-order partial derivatives, but

$$f_{xy}(0,0) = -1$$
 while  $f_{yx}(0,0) = 1$ .

Proof.

**Exercise** (4). Prove that  $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfying  $|g(x,y)| \leq x^2 + y^2$  must have partial derivatives with respect to both x and y at the point (0,0).

 $\square$ 

### Midterm Part 3

Choose two of the below problems (which you did not choose for Part 2) and typeset your solutions. Delete the other three. Each will be worth 20/100 points towards your midterm grade for a total of 40/100 points.

**Exercise** (1). Prove that if  $Q_n$  is a partition of [a,b] refining the partition  $P_n$  of [a,b] for each natural number n, and  $\{P_n\}$  is an Archimedian sequence of partitions for f on [a,b], then  $\{Q_n\}$  is also Archimedian.

 $\Box$  Solution.

**Exercise** (2). Explain the error(s) in the following "proof", and then give a counterexample showing that the theorem is false.

**Theorem:** If  $f:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$  is integrable, then f is also continuous.

**Proof:** Since f is integrable, we may define  $F:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$  by  $F(x)=\int_0^x f$ . It follows that F(x) is a differentiable function, because it is an antiderivative of f. Thus  $\frac{d}{dx}[F(x)]=f(x)$  by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Since the derivative of any differentiable function is continuous, we conclude f is continuous.

 $\Box$  Solution.

**Exercise** (3). Recall that an **even** function satisfies the condition f(x) = f(-x). Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be an even continuous function. Prove that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_{-x}^{x} f \right] = 2f(x).$$

(Hint: Corollary 6.30 says that  $\frac{d}{dx}[\int_x^0 f] = -f(x)$ .)

Solution.  $\Box$ 

Exercise (4). Prove the following theorem:

Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  be a sequence of points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If for every open set U containing  $\mathbf{x}$ , there is an index K such that  $\mathbf{x}_k \in U$  for all  $k \geq K$ , then  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$  converges to  $\mathbf{x}$ .

(Hint:  $B_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{x})$  is open.)

Solution.	
<b>Exercise</b> (5). Prove that any finite subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is closed.	
(Hint: First prove that any singleton subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is closed.)	
Solution.	

CHAPTER 13. DIFFERENTIATING FUNCTIONS OF SEVERAL VARIABLES

28