

## 1. SUPREMA AND INFIMA

**Definition 1.1.** Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{F}$  where  $\mathbb{F}$  is an ordered field. Then  $b \in \mathbb{F}$  is an upper bound of  $\Omega$  if  $b \geq x$  for all  $x \in \Omega$ .

**Definition 1.2.** Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{F}$  where  $\mathbb{F}$  is an ordered field. Then  $b \in \mathbb{F}$  is a lower bound of  $\Omega$  if  $b \leq x$  for all  $x \in \Omega$ .

**Definition 1.3.** Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{F}$  where  $\mathbb{F}$  is an ordered field. Then  $b \in \mathbb{F}$  is the *least upper bound*, or *supremum*, if  $b \leq c$  for every upper bound  $c$ .

**Definition 1.4.** Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{F}$  where  $\mathbb{F}$  is an ordered field. Then  $b \in \mathbb{F}$  is the *greatest lower bound*, or *infimum*, if  $b \geq c$  for every lower bound  $c$ .

**Proposition 1.1.** *The supremum of a set is unique.*

**Proposition 1.2.** *The infimum of a set is unique.*

**Proposition 1.3.** *If  $\sup \Omega = \inf \Omega$  then  $\Omega$  has only one point.*

**Proposition 1.4.** *Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $\Omega \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $S = \sup \Omega$  if and only if*

- (1) *For all  $x \in \Omega, s \geq x$ .*
- (2) *For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $x \in \Omega$  such that  $s - \epsilon < x$ .*

## 2. ELEMENTS OF ANALYSIS

**Definition 2.1.** An ordered field  $\mathbb{F}$  possess' the *least upper bound property* if and only if every non-empty bounded set in  $\mathbb{F}$  has a least upper bound in  $\mathbb{F}$ .

**Proposition 2.1.** *Every ordered field with the least upper bound property is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}$ .*

**Definition 2.2** (Metric space). A set  $X$  is a metric space iff there is a function  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that for any points  $p, q \in X$

- (1)  $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$ ,
- (2)  $d(p, q) > 0$  if  $p \neq q$ ,
- (3)  $d(p, p) = 0$ , and
- (4)  $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$  for any  $r \in X$ .

**Lemma 2.2** (Triangle inequality). *If  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $||a| - |b|| \leq |a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ .*

**Proposition 2.3.** *The set  $\mathbb{R}$  is a metric space.*

**Definition 2.3.** We say two sets  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$  have the same *cardinality*, that is  $|\Omega_1| = |\Omega_2|$ , iff there is a bijection between  $\Omega_1$  and  $\Omega_2$ .

**Definition 2.4.** A set  $\Omega$  is *countable* if it has the same cardinality as  $\mathbb{N}$ .

**Proposition 2.4.** *The set  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable.*

**Proposition 2.5.** *The set  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable, but  $\mathbb{R}$  is not.*

**Proposition 2.6** (Axiom of choice). *Suppose we have a family of sets  $S(w)$  indexed by  $w \in W$ . Then there is a choice function*

$$f : W \rightarrow \bigcup_{w \in W} S(w)$$

*such that  $f(w) \in S(w)$  for all  $w \in W$ .*

## 3. SEQUENTIAL LIMITS

**Definition 3.1.** A sequence is a mapping from  $\mathbb{N}$  to a set.

**Definition 3.2.** Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of reals. We write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ , or  $a_n \rightarrow a$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , if and only if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that if  $n \geq N$  then  $|a_n - a| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 3.3.** If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has a limit then it *converges*. Otherwise, it *diverges*.

**Proposition 3.1.** *All limits are unique. Suppose the sequence  $a_n \rightarrow L$  and  $a_n \rightarrow M$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then  $L = M$ .*

**Proposition 3.2** (Squeeze theorem). *Suppose the sequences  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , and  $(c_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  satisfy*

- (1)  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and
- (2)  $a_n \rightarrow L$  and  $c_n \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

*Then  $b_n \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

**Definition 3.4.** The sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *monotone increasing* if and only if  $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 3.5.** The sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *strictly monotone increasing* if and only if  $a_n < a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 3.6.** The sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *monotone decreasing* if and only if  $a_n \geq a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 3.7.** The sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is *strictly monotone decreasing* if and only if  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Lemma 3.3** (Convergent sequences are bounded). *If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges then there exists  $M > 0$  such that  $|a_n| \leq M$  for all  $n$ .*

**Proposition 3.4.** *Let  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a monotone sequence. This sequence converges iff it is bounded.*

**Proposition 3.5.** *If the sequences  $a_n \rightarrow a$  and  $b_n \rightarrow b$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,*

- (1)  $a_n + b_n \rightarrow a + b$ ,  $a_n - b_n \rightarrow a - b$ ,
- (2)  $\lambda a_n \rightarrow \lambda a$  for constant  $\lambda$ ,
- (3)  $a_n b_n \rightarrow ab$ , and
- (4)  $1/a_n \rightarrow 1/a$  for  $a \neq 0$ .

**Lemma 3.6** (Bernoulli inequality).

- (1) *Assuming  $x \geq -1$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  but  $x = -1$  and  $n = 0$  do not hold at the same time,*

$$(1 + x)^n \geq 1 + nx.$$

- (2) *We have a strict inequality in the above formula if and only if  $n > 1$  and  $x \neq 0$ .*

**Proposition 3.7.** Define  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  and  $(b_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  by

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

and

$$b_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1}.$$

Then  $a_n$  is strictly increasing,  $b_n$  is strictly decreasing and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n.$$

**Definition 3.8** (Euler's number). Euler's number  $e$  is given by

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$

which converges, as per the previous proposition.

#### 4. SUBSEQUENTIAL LIMITS

**Definition 4.1.** Suppose  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is a *cluster point* of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$

$$\left| \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid |x_n - x| < \epsilon\} \right| = |\mathbb{N}|.$$

**Proposition 4.1.** Assume  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $x$  is a cluster point of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a natural  $n \geq N$  such that  $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$ .

**Proposition 4.2.** Assume  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $x$  is a cluster point iff there exists a subsequence  $(x_{n_k})_{k=1}^\infty$  such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n_k} = x.$$

**Proposition 4.3.** Assume  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$$

iff every subsequence of  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  converges to  $x$ .

**Proposition 4.4.** Assume  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  converges iff  $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is bounded and has exactly one cluster point.

**Definition 4.2.** Suppose  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a sequence and  $n : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $(a_{n_k})_{k=1}^\infty$  is a *subsequence* of  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ .

**Definition 4.3** (Limit supremum and infimum). For the sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ ,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{n \geq N} a_n$$

and

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{n \geq N} a_n.$$

**Proposition 4.5.** We have

$$x = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$$

iff  $x$  is the greatest cluster point of the sequence. Similarly

$$x = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$$

iff  $x$  is the least cluster point of  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ .

**Proposition 4.6.** If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  converges, then

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$$

and

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$$

exist.

#### 5. THE COMPLETENESS OF THE REALS

**Definition 5.1.** Suppose  $\Omega \neq \emptyset$  then the *diameter* of  $\Omega$  is

$$\text{diam } \Omega = \sup_{x, y \in \Omega} |x - y|.$$

**Definition 5.2.** The sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a *Cauchy sequence* iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $m, n \geq N$  implies  $|a_m - a_n| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 5.3.** We say  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  is a *peak point* of the sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  iff for all  $n > k$  we have  $a_n < a_k$ .

**Lemma 5.1.** Any sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  contains a subsequence which is either non-decreasing or non-increasing.

**Proposition 5.2** (Bolzano-Weierstass Theorem). Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.

**Definition 5.4.** Let  $X$  be a metric space. Suppose that given any Cauchy sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset X$ ,  $a_n \rightarrow L$  where  $L \in X$ . Then we say that  $X$  is *complete*.

**Lemma 5.3.** If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is Cauchy then it converges.

**Lemma 5.4.** If  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  converges then it is Cauchy.

**Proposition 5.5.** The set  $\mathbb{R}$  is a complete metric space.

**Lemma 5.6.** For any sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ ,

$$\text{diam } (a_n)_{n=1}^\infty = \sup (a_n)_{n=1}^\infty - \inf (a_n)_{n=1}^\infty.$$

**Proposition 5.7.** For any bounded sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ ,  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is Cauchy iff

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{diam } (a_n)_N^\infty = 0.$$

#### 6. INFINITE SUMS

**Definition 6.1.** Consider the sequence

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$

where  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}$ . We define the following sum thus:

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n.$$

**Proposition 6.1.** If  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n$  converges, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0.$$

**Proposition 6.2** (Cauchy criterion).

The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that if  $q > p \geq N$  then

$$\left| \sum_{n=p+1}^q a_n \right| < \epsilon.$$

**Proposition 6.3** (Convergence laws for series). Assume  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = b$ .

(1) Then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) = a + b$$

(2) for constant  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\lambda a_n) = \lambda a$$

However, though, by definition of the product of these sequence,

$$\left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \right) \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \right) = ab,$$

it could be the case that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n b_n) \neq ab.$$

**Proposition 6.4** (Comparison theorem). If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges and  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$  then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

**Lemma 6.5.**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = 1$$

**Proposition 6.6.** The series

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

converges.

**Proposition 6.7.** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

**Proposition 6.8** (Leibniz test). If the series  $a_n$  is a non-negative non-increasing sequence which converges to zero, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$$

converges.

**Definition 6.2.** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  converges then we say  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges *absolutely*. If it converges, but  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  does not converge - we say it converges *conditionally*. Absolute convergence implies conditional convergence however the converse is not true.

**Proposition 6.9** (Ratio test). The series  $\sum a_n$

(1) converges if

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$$

(2) diverges if

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$$

(3) has uncertain convergence if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1$$

(could go either way.)

**Proposition 6.10** (Root test). Set

$$a = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}.$$

(1) If  $a < 1$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

(2) If  $a > 1$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

(3) If  $a = 1$ , test is inconclusive.

## 7. FUNCTIONAL LIMITS

**Definition 7.1.** We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$$

if and only if for every  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq N$  implies  $a_n > M$ .

**Definition 7.2.** We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = -\infty$$

if and only if for every  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \geq N$  implies  $a_n < M$ .

**Definition 7.3.** We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$$

iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $M$  such that  $x > M$  implies  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 7.4.** We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$$

iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $M$  such that  $x < M$  implies  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 7.5.** Assume  $X$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . The point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is called a *limit point* of  $X$  if every neighbourhood of  $a$  contains another point  $A \neq a$  such that  $A \in X$ . That is, for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $x \in (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon) \setminus \{a\}$ .

**Definition 7.6.** The *r-neighbourhood* of  $a$  is the set of all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \in (a - r, a + r)$ .

**Definition 7.7.** The *deleted r-neighbourhood* of  $a$  is the set of all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \in (a - r, a + r) \setminus a$ .

**Definition 7.8.** Assume  $a$  is a limit point and  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . We write

(1)

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

iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x$ ,  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

(2)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$$

iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x > a$ ,  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

(3)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$$

iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x < a$ ,  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

**Lemma 7.1.** Given a function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and a limit point  $a \in \Omega$ ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad (1)$$

implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = L.$$

for any sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S$  with

$$S = \left\{ (a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \Omega^{\mathbb{N}} \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a, a_n \neq a \right\}.$$

( $\Omega^{\mathbb{N}}$  is the set of functions from  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\Omega$ )

**Lemma 7.2.** Given a function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and a limit point  $a \in \Omega$ ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad (2)$$

if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = L. \quad (3)$$

for any sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S$  with

$$S = \left\{ (a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \Omega^{\mathbb{N}} \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a, a_n \neq a \right\}.$$

( $\Omega^{\mathbb{N}}$  is the set of functions from  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\Omega$ )

**Proposition 7.3** (Sequential criterion for functional convergence). Given a function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and a limit point  $a \in \Omega$ ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad (4)$$

iff

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = L. \quad (5)$$

for any sequence  $(a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in S$  with

$$S = \left\{ (a_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \Omega^{\mathbb{N}} \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a, a_n \neq a \right\}.$$

( $\Omega^{\mathbb{N}}$  is the set of functions from  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\Omega$ )

**Proposition 7.4.** Suppose

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

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M.$$

Then the following holds

(1)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f + g)(x) = L + M,$$

(2)

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

(3) if  $m \neq 0$ ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left( \frac{f}{g} \right)(x) = \frac{L}{M}.$$

**Proposition 7.5** (Squeeze theorem). Define three functions:  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and  $h : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If

$$f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x)$$

for all  $x \in X$  and if

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

then

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

## 8. CONTINUITY

**Definition 8.1** (Continuity). The function  $f$  from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  is *continuous* at  $x_0 \in \Omega$  iff

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0).$$

**Definition 8.2** (Continuity on an open interval). The function  $f$  from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $(a, b) \subset \Omega$  iff

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0).$$

for all  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ .

**Definition 8.3** (Continuity on a closed interval). The function  $f$  from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b] \subset \Omega$  iff it is continuous on  $(a, b)$ ,

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

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^+} f(x) = f(b).$$

**Proposition 8.1.** If  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuous at  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  then

(1)  $f + g$  is continuous at  $x_0$

(2)  $fg$  is continuous at  $x_0$

(3)  $f/g$  is continuous at  $x_0$  if  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ .

**Corollary 8.2.** Any polynomial or rational function is continuous where defined.

**Proposition 8.3** (Intermediate Value Theorem). Suppose  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that is continuous on  $[a, b] \subset \Omega$ . If  $f(a) < \lambda < f(b)$  then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = \lambda$ .

**Definition 8.4.** Suppose  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $f$  is *uniformly continuous* on  $\Omega$  iff given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x, y \in \Omega$ ,  $f(x) - f(y) < \epsilon$  if  $|x - y| < \delta$ .

**Proposition 8.4.** Suppose  $f$  is continuous on a closed and bounded interval  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

## 9. SEQUENCES AND SERIES OF FUNCTIONS

**Definition 9.1.** A sequence of functions is a function  $f : \mathbb{N} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$ . We say that the sequence of functions  $f_n$  converge pointwise to  $f$  on  $\Omega$  iff for all  $x \in \Omega$ ,  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ .

**Definition 9.2.** We say  $f_n$  converges to  $f$  uniformly on  $\Omega$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f(x) - f_n(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$  and  $x \in \Omega$ .

**Proposition 9.1.** If  $f_n : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuous functions and  $f_n$  uniformly converges to  $f$  then  $f$  is also continuous.

**Proposition 9.2.** The functions  $f_n$  converge uniformly to  $f$  iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $k, l > N$  for all  $x$ ,  $|f_k(x) - f_l(x)| < \epsilon$ .

**Proposition 9.3.** Suppose  $(a_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is Cauchy. Then for any uniformly continuous function  $f$ ,  $(f(a_n))_{n=1}^\infty$  is Cauchy.

**Definition 9.3.** A series of functions is sequence  $s : \mathbb{N} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of the form

$$s_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)$$

where  $f : \mathbb{N} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function and  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$ . We say that

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty f_n(x) = f(x)$$

converges pointwise on  $\Omega$  to the uniform sum  $f(x)$  iff  $s_n \rightarrow s$  pointwise. Additionally, we say that the series converges pointwise on  $\Omega$  to the uniform sum  $f(x)$  iff  $s_n$  converges uniformly iff  $s_n \rightarrow s$  uniformly.

**Proposition 9.4** (Weierstrass M-test). Suppose  $(f_n(x))_{n=1}^\infty$  is defined for all  $x \in \Omega$  where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$   $|f_n(x)| < M_n$  where  $(M_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  is a sequence. Then  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty f_n$  converges uniformly on  $\Omega$  if  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty M_n$  converges.

## 10. DIFFERENTIATION

**Definition 10.1.** Suppose  $x_0 \in [a, b)$  and  $f : [a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The right derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$  is

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}.$$

If these limits exist, then  $f$  is right differentiable at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 10.2.** Suppose  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  and  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The left derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$  is

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}.$$

If these limits exist, then  $f$  is left differentiable at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 10.3.** Suppose  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  and  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If the left derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$  is equal to the right derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$ , then the common value these limits is called the derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$  and  $f$  is said to be differentiable at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 10.4.** Define differentiability on open and closed intervals, analogously to how continuity was defined for open and closed intervals.

**Proposition 10.1.** Suppose  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  and  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  then its derivative is given by

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}.$$

**Proposition 10.2.** If  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Lemma 10.3.** Suppose

- (1) the intervals  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $J \subset \mathbb{R}$  are open,
- (2) the function  $g : I \rightarrow J$  is differentiable at  $x_0 \in I$ , and
- (3) the function  $f : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $g(x_0) \in J$

then  $f' \circ g(x_0)$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f[g(x_0) + h] - f[g(x_0)]}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f \circ g(x_0 + h) - f \circ g(x_0)}{g(x_0 + h) - g(x_0)}. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

**Proposition 10.4** (Chain rule). Suppose

- (1) the intervals  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $J \subset \mathbb{R}$  are open,
- (2) the function  $g : I \rightarrow J$  is differentiable at  $x_0 \in I$ , and
- (3) the function  $f : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $g(x_0) \in J$

Then the function  $f \circ g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and

$$(f \circ g)'(x_0) = f' \circ g(x_0) \cdot g'(x_0). \quad (7)$$

**Proposition 10.5.** Take  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and  $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  is open and assume they are differentiable at  $x \in I$ . Then  $f + g$ ,  $fg$  are differentiable. Similarly  $f/g$  is differentiable if  $g \neq 0$  for all values of  $g$ . Further

- (1)  $(f + g)' = f' + g'$  and
- (2)  $fg = fg' + gf'$ .

**Definition 10.5.** The function  $f$  from  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  has a local maximum at  $c \in E$  iff there exists an open interval  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  such that  $c \in U$  and  $f(c) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x \in U \cap E$ .

**Definition 10.6.** The function  $f$  from  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  has a local minimum at  $c \in E$  iff there exists an open interval  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  such that  $c \in U$  and  $f(c) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in U \cap E$ .

**Definition 10.7.** Suppose that the function  $f$  from  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  and there exists  $c \in E$  such that  $f(c) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . Then  $f$  is said to have an absolute maximum at  $c$ .

**Definition 10.8.** Suppose that the function  $f$  from  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  and there exists  $c \in E$  such that  $f(c) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in E$ . Then  $f$  is said to have an absolute minimum at  $c$ .

**Proposition 10.6.** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function and  $c \in (a, b)$ . If  $f$  has a local extremum at  $c$  and  $f'(c)$  exists then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Proposition 10.7** (Rolle's theorem). Suppose  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that is continuous on  $[a, b] \subset \Omega$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f(a) = f(b)$  then there exists  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(\xi) = 0$ .

**Proposition 10.8** (Mean value theorem). Suppose  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

**Proposition 10.9.** Assume  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f = a$  for  $a \in [a, b]$ .

**Proposition 10.10.** Assume  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Also assume  $|f'(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . Then  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq M|x - y|$  for all  $x, y \in (a, b)$ .

**Proposition 10.11.** Assume  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ .

- (1) if  $f' \geq 0$  on  $(a, b)$  then  $f$  is non-decreasing.
- (2) If  $f' \leq 0$  on  $(a, b)$  then  $f$  is non-increasing.
- (3) if  $f' > 0$  then  $f$  is strictly increasing
- (4)  $f' < 0$  then  $f$  is strictly decreasing.

**Proposition 10.12.** Assume  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Assume  $f$  is twice differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Let  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ . Then

- (1) If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) > 0$ , then  $x_0$  is a local minimum.
- (2) If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) < 0$ , then  $x_0$  is a local maximum.

## 11. RIEMANN INTEGRATION

**Definition 11.1** (Partition). A partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  is a set of points  $\{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$  such that

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b.$$

Assume  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is bounded, but not necessarily continuous. Then lower sum of  $P$  is

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

where

$$m_i = \inf f(x)$$

and  $x \in [x_i, x_{i-1}]$ . Similarly, the upper sum of  $P$  is

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

where

$$M_i = \sup f(x)$$

and  $x \in [x_i, x_{i-1}]$ .

**Definition 11.2.** The partition  $P'$  is a refinement of  $P$  if  $P' \supset P$ .

**Lemma 11.1.** If  $P' \supset P$ , then

$$L(f, P) \leq L(f, P')$$

and

$$U(f, P) \geq U(f, P').$$

**Definition 11.3.** The number

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \sup \{L(f, P) \mid P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}$$

is called the lower integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$ . Similarly, the number

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \inf \{U(f, P) \mid P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}$$

is called the upper integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$ .

**Definition 11.4.** If

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

then  $f$  is called integrable and

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

**Proposition 11.2.** The function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is some  $P$  such that

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \epsilon.$$

**Proposition 11.3.** If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is bounded and continuous at all but finitely many points, then  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

**Proposition 11.4.** If  $f$  is increasing or decreasing, then it's integrable.

**Proposition 11.5.**

- (1) If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $kf$  is integrable and

$$\int_a^b kf dx = k \int_a^b f dx.$$

- (2) If  $f, g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  then so is  $f + g$  and

$$\int_a^b (f + g) dx = \int_a^b f dx + \int_a^b g dx.$$

(3) If  $f, g$  are integrable and  $f \leq g$  on  $[a, b]$  then

$$\int_a^b f \, dx \leq \int_a^b g \, dx.$$

(4) If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $[b, c]$  then it is integrable on  $[a, c]$  and

$$\int_a^c f \, dx = \int_a^b f \, dx + \int_b^c f \, dx$$

(5) If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  then so is  $|f|$  and

$$\left| \int_a^b f \, dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f| \, dx$$

**Proposition 11.6** (Mean value theorem for integrals). If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = f(c)(b - a).$$

**Definition 11.5.** The function  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  iff  $F' = f$ .

**Proposition 11.7** (Fundamental theorem of calculus). Assume  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and let

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \, dt.$$

Then  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  and

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

**Proposition 11.8** (Integral test). Assume  $f$  is continuous, non-negative and non-increasing on  $[1, \infty)$ . Then  $\int_1^\infty f(x) \, dx$  converges iff  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty f(n)$  converges.

**Proposition 11.9** (Integration by parts). If  $u, v : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and  $u', v'$  are continuous on  $(a, b)$  then

$$\int_a^b uv' \, dx = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b u'v \, dx$$

**Definition 11.6** (Improper integral). Consider a function  $f : (a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  which is not necessarily bounded. Assume  $f$  is integrable on  $[a + \epsilon, b]$  for all  $\epsilon \in (0, b - a)$ . Then

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{a+\epsilon}^b f(x) \, dx$$

is called the *improper integral* of the first kind of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ .

**Definition 11.7.** Assume  $f : [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  for all  $b > a$ . Then

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

is called the *improper integral* of the second kind of  $f$  on  $[a, \infty)$ . We also define

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) \, dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x) \, dx + \int_0^\infty f(x) \, dx,$$

provided both integrals on the right exist.

## 12. THE TRIGONOMETRIC, EXPONENTIAL, AND LOGARITHMIC FUNCTIONS

**Definition 12.1.** The well known constant  $\pi$  is defined thus:

$$\pi = 2 \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1 - x^2} \, dx$$

**Definition 12.2.** Let

$$A(x) = (A_1 + A_2)(x)$$

where

$$A_1 = \frac{x\sqrt{1 - x^2}}{2}$$

and

$$A_2 = \int_x^1 \sqrt{1 - s^2} \, ds.$$

**Definition 12.3.** If  $x \in [0, \pi]$ , then  $\cos(x)$  is defined as the unique number such that

$$A(\cos(x)) = \frac{x}{2}.$$

**Definition 12.4.** Given  $x \in [0, \pi]$  define

$$\sin(x) = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 x}.$$

**Proposition 12.1.** If  $x \in (0, \pi)$  then

$$(1) \cos'(x) = -\sin x$$

$$(2) \sin'(x) = \cos x.$$

**Definition 12.5.** We extend the definition of  $\sin$  and  $\cos$  to  $[0, 2\pi]$  by setting

$$\sin x = -\sin(2\pi - x)$$

if  $x \in [\pi, 2\pi]$ , and

$$\cos x = \cos(2\pi - x).$$

It is also trivial to extend  $\cos$  and  $\sin$  periodically to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 12.6.** Define the logarithmic function so

$$\log x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} \, dt.$$

**Proposition 12.2.** If  $x, y > 0$ , then

$$\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y).$$

**Definition 12.7.** The exponential function  $\exp$  is defined as the inverse function of  $\log$ .

**Proposition 12.3.** We have that  $\exp'(x) = \exp(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proposition 12.4.** We have that

$$\exp(x + y) = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y).$$

**Definition 12.8.** Define

$$a^x = \exp(x \log(a))$$

for  $a > 0$ .

### 13. TAYLOR SERIES

**Definition 13.1.** Suppose  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $f$  is  $n$ -times differentiable on  $(a, b) \subset \Omega$  iff  $f^{(n+1)}(t)$  exists for any  $t \in (a, b)$ .

**Lemma 13.1** (Rolle's theorem for  $(n+1)$ -times differentiable functions). Suppose  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that is continuous on  $[a, b] \subset \Omega$  and  $(n+1)$ -times differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Assume, that

$$f(a) = f'(a) = f''(a) = \cdots = f^{(n)}(a) = 0 = f(b).$$

Then for some  $\xi \in (a, b)$ ,  $f^{(n+1)}(\xi) = 0$ .

**Proposition 13.2** (The mean value theorem for  $(n+1)$ -times differentiable functions, otherwise known by the unenlightened as Taylor's theorem). Suppose  $f$  is a function from  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that is continuous on  $[\alpha, \beta] \subset \Omega$  and  $(n+1)$ -times differentiable on  $(\alpha, \beta)$ . Then for all distinct  $a, b \in [\alpha, \beta]$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists  $\xi \in (\min\{a, b\}, \max\{a, b\})$  such that

$$f(b) = (P_n + R_n)(b)$$

where

$$P_n(b) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (b-a)^k$$

is defined to be the  $n$ th Taylor polynomial of  $f$  centred at  $a$  and

$$R_n(b) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} (b-a)^{n+1}$$

is defined to be the Lagrange form of the  $n$ th Taylor remainder.

**Proposition 13.3.** If the Taylor remainder of  $f$ ,  $R_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for some  $x$ , then

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n.$$

**Definition 13.2.** If the Taylor remainder of  $f$ ,  $R_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for some  $x$ , then,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

is called the *Taylor series* of  $f$  at  $a$ . If  $a = 0$ , it is also called a *Maclaurin series*.

**Definition 13.3.** We say that the *radius of convergence* of a power series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-a)^n$$

is  $r$  iff  $f$  converges for all  $x \in (a-r, a+r)$  and diverges for all  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus [a-r, a+r]$ .

**Proposition 13.4.** If  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-a)^n$  then the series is the Taylor series of  $f$ .

### 14. ELEMENTS OF MULTIVARIABLE ANALYSIS

**Definition 14.1.** Suppose  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

$$|x| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m x_i^2}$$

**Proposition 14.1.** If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$  then the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality holds:  $|(x, y)| \leq |x||y|$

**Proposition 14.2.** If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$  then the triangle inequality holds  $|x+y| \leq |x| + |y|$ .

**Definition 14.2.** A vector function is a function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

### 15. MULTIVARIABLE FUNCTIONAL LIMITS

**Definition 15.1.** Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . The point  $a \in \Omega$  is called a *limit point* of  $\Omega$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $y \in \Omega$  such that  $0 < |y-a| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 15.2.** Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Also let  $\mathbf{x}_0$  be a limit point of  $\Omega$  and  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}_0$$

iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| < \delta$  and  $x \in \Omega$  then  $|\mathbf{f}(x) - \mathbf{y}_0| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 15.3.** The function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  iff

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

### 16. MULTIVARIABLE IMPLICIT AND INVERSE FUNCTION THEOREMS

**Definition 16.1** (Interior points). For  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $x$  is an interior point of  $S$  if there exists an open ball centered at  $x$  which is completely contained in  $S$ .

**Definition 16.2** (Open sets). A set  $S$  is open iff every point within it is an interior point.

**Definition 16.3** (Closed sets). Let  $X$  be a metric space. A set is  $S \subset X$  closed iff its complement  $X \setminus S$  is open.

**Definition 16.4.** Let  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\Omega$  be open. The *Jacobian matrix* of  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is

$$J_f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

The determinant of the Jacobian matrix is called the *Jacobian* of  $f$ .

**Proposition 16.1** (Inverse function theorem). Consider  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  where  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f^{-1} : f(\Omega) \rightarrow \Omega$  such that  $f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$  for all  $x \in \Omega$ . Suppose the function  $f(x_1, \dots, x_m)$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . If



- (1) for all  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$  if  $1 \leq i \leq m$  and  $1 \leq j \leq n$  then  $\partial f_i / \partial x_j$  is continuous.
- (2) there exists  $\mathbf{x}_0$  such that the Jacobian  $J$  of  $f$  is such that  $J(x_0) \neq 0$ ,

then

- (1) The Jacobian  $J^*$  of  $f^{-1}$  is such that  $J^*(f(\mathbf{x}_0))$  is the inverse of  $J(\mathbf{x}_0)$ .
- (2) there exists an open set  $\Omega$  such that  $x_0 \in \Omega$  and  $f$  has a continuous inverse.

**Proposition 16.2** (Implicit function theorem). *Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$  be an open set and let  $F : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function with continuous first derivatives. Assume that  $(x_0, y_0) \in \Omega$ ,  $F(x_0, y_0) = 0$ , and  $\det J(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$ . Then there are open sets  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  such that  $x_0 \in U$ ,  $y_0 \in V$  and there is a unique function  $f : U \rightarrow V$  such that  $F(x, f(x)) = 0$  for  $x \in U$ .*