

# MAT257: Real Analysis II

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# 1 Review: Inner Product, Cauchy-Schwarz, Triangle Inequality

Lectures 1 and 2 (Sept 10/13)

- Everything in the course will lead to Stokes' Theorem:

$$\int_C dW = \int_{\partial C} W \quad (1)$$

This generalizes a well-known theorem in one-dimensional calculus, known as the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

$$\int_{[a,b]} F'(t) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_{\partial[a,b]} F \quad (2)$$

where  $\partial[a, b] = \left\{ \underbrace{b}_{+}, \underbrace{a}_{-} \right\}$ .

- Continuity in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :** Recall that continuity in  $\mathbb{R}$  is formally defined via  $\delta - \epsilon$ . However intuitively it means that if you wiggle the input by a tiny bit, you wiggle the output by a tiny bit.

A similar way can be used to view continuity in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition:** For  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the **standard (Euclidean) inner product** of  $x$  and  $y$  denoted

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \quad (3)$$

The **norm squared** is defined as

$$|x|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle \quad (4)$$

and the **norm** of  $x$  is defined:

$$|x| = \sqrt{|x|^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad (5)$$

**Idea:** There are multiple ways of defining  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Some people will define it as the set of all column vectors while others define it as the set of all row vectors. In linear algebra, the distinction is important but in real analysis, this distinction is not too important.

- A **bilinear** function  $f(x, y)$  means that the function is linear in each of the two variables. This means that

$$f(ax + by, z) = af(x, z) + bf(y, z) \quad (6)$$

and similarly the same thing for the other parameter.

- A **semi-linear** function  $f(x)$  is one such that

$$f(ax) = |a|f(x) \quad (7)$$

**Proposition 1:** If  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , then:

- $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is bilinear and  $|\cdot|$  is semi-linear. Also note that  $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$ .
- $|x| \geq 0$  and  $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$ .
- Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq |x||y|$  and equality holds if and only if  $x, y$  are dependent.
- Triangle Inequality:  $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$
- Polarization Identity:  $\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{|x + y|^2 - |x - y|^2}{4}$

*Proof.* We prove each part separately, and skip 0:

- We have  $|x| = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2} \geq 0$  since every  $x_i^2$  is non-negative. Then  $|x| = 0$  if and only if  $x_i = 0$ , i.e.  $x = 0$ .

2. Consider and note that  $||y|^2x - \langle x, y \rangle y|^2 \geq 0$ . This is equal to 0 if and only if the first term (a multiple of  $x$ ) equals the second term (a multiple of  $y$ ), which is equivalent to  $x, y$  being dependent.

Next, note that

$$|s + t|^2 = \langle s + t, s + t \rangle \quad (8)$$

$$= \langle s, s \rangle + \langle s, t \rangle + \langle t, s \rangle + \langle t, t \rangle \quad (9)$$

$$= |s|^2 + 2\langle s, t \rangle + |t|^2 \quad (10)$$

Using this result, we can simplify the earlier expression to get that

$$||y|^2x - \langle x, y \rangle y|^2 = |y|^4|x|^2 + \langle x, y \rangle^2|y|^2 - 2|y|^2\langle x, y \rangle^2 \quad (11)$$

$$= |y|^2(|y|^2|x|^2 - \langle x, y \rangle^2) \quad (12)$$

Since this quantity is non-negative, it follows that  $|y|^2|x|^2 \geq \langle x, y \rangle^2$ , which is what we wanted to show.

Note that there is another part regarding equality, which will not be proven in these notes.

3. As both  $|x + y|$  and  $|x| + |y|$  are nonnegative, we can square both sides. It suffices to prove that

$$|x + y|^2 \stackrel{?}{\leq} (|x| + |y|)^2 \quad (13)$$

$$\langle x + y, x + y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2|x||y| \quad (14)$$

$$\langle x, x \rangle + 2\langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2|x||y| \quad (15)$$

$$|x|^2 + 2\langle x, y \rangle + |y|^2 \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2|x||y| \quad (16)$$

$$\langle x, y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x| \cdot |y| \quad (17)$$

which is true via Cauchy-Schwarz.

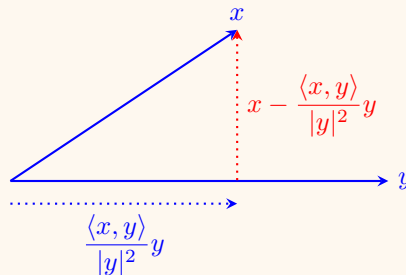
4. The proof is trivial. Expanding everything on the right hand side leads to the left hand side.

*Note:* This property is important as it tells us that if we know how to compute norms, we can compute inner products.

□

**Idea:** In the proof for 2, a weird quantity  $||y|^2x - \langle x, y \rangle y|^2$  was introduced. There is actually an intuition behind it. Recall that a geometric interpretation of Cauchy-Schwarz in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  can be given as follows:  $\langle x, y \rangle = |x||y| \cos \theta$  where  $\theta$  is the “angle” between the two vectors  $x, y$ . This is smaller than  $|x||y|$  since  $\cos \theta \leq 1$ .

Similarly, we want to find a generalized way to express something equivalent to  $\cos \theta \leq 1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . One idea to show whether two vectors are dependent or not is to look at the separation between them, i.e. the length of the red line below.



Therefore, we have

$$\left| x - \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{|y|^2} y \right| \geq 0 \quad (18)$$

Removing the fraction gives

$$||y|^2x - \langle x, y \rangle y| \geq 0. \quad (19)$$

## 2 Review: Continuity, Distance, and Linear Algebra Review

Lecture 2 and 3 (Sept 13 and 15) + Tutorial 1

- The properties in the previous section will be important when giving a formal definition of continuity.

**Definition:** If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then:

$$d(x, y) = \text{"Distance between } x \text{ and } y" = |x - y| \quad (20)$$

**Theorem:**

- $d$  is **symmetric**, i.e.  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ .
- $d$  is **positive definite**, i.e.  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  and  $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ .
- Triangle Inequality:  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$ .

*Proof.* We prove each separately:

- $d(x, y) = |x - y| = |-(y - x)| = |-1| \cdot |y - x| = |y - x| = d(y, x)$
- $d(x, y) = 0 \iff |x - y| = 0 \iff x - y = 0 \iff x = y$
- We need to check that

$$d(x, z) \stackrel{?}{\leq} d(x, y) + d(y, z) \quad (21)$$

$$|x - z| \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x - y| + |y - z| \quad (22)$$

$$|x - z| \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x - z| \quad (23)$$

where the third line comes from the previous triangle inequality. The last statement is true, and the steps are reversible, so we are done. □

- This theorem is significant as these are the only properties that we need to know about distances to formally define continuity.

*Note:* In a future section, we will use these properties to *define* a distance function (formally a metric), which is anything that satisfies these properties. This will allow us to generalize continuity to more abstract spaces.

- A note on notation. Our definition of a norm is known as the  $L^2$  or *Euclidean norm*, i.e.

$$|x|_{L^2} = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2} \quad (24)$$

The  $L^1$  norm can be defined as

$$|x|_{L^1} = \sum |x_i| \quad (25)$$

and the infinity norm:

$$|x|_{\infty} = \sup |x_i|. \quad (26)$$

which is the maximum coordinate. Note that for a finite space, we can use max, but the use of supreme allows us to generalize to infinite spaces.

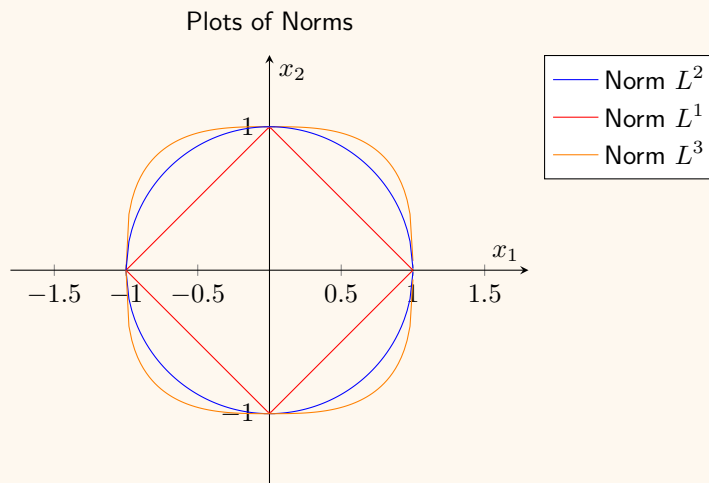
**Idea:** The  $p$ -norm can be defined as

$$|x|_{L^p} = \left( \sum x_i^p \right)^{1/p} \quad (27)$$

And it turns out that

$$|x|_{\infty} = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} |x|_{L^p}. \quad (28)$$

There is a nice geometric idea behind why this is the case. Consider  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Then we can plot vectors with a norm of 1 in  $L^1, L^2, L^3$  where the coordinate axes are  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .



We can see that as the dimension of the norm increases, the plot becomes closer and closer to a square, which can be represented by  $\max\{x_1, x_2\}$ .

**Example 1:** Suppose we have  $\|\cdot\|_a$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and a norm  $\|\cdot\|_b$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose  $\exists c > 0$  such that  $\|x\|_b \leq c\|x\|_a$ . Then if  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous with respect to the  $b$ -norm, then it is also continuous with respect to the  $a$ -norm.

*Proof.* We know that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have  $\|x - y\|_b < \delta_b \implies |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ . Let us pick  $\delta = \frac{\delta_b}{c}$ . Then we have:

$$\|x - y\|_a < \frac{\delta_b}{c} \implies c\|x - y\|_a < \delta_b \quad (29)$$

$$\implies \|x - y\|_b \leq c\|x - y\|_a < \delta_b \quad (30)$$

$$\implies |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon \quad (31)$$

□

- Similarly, distances for  $L^1$  and the infinity norms can be defined as  $d_1(x, y) = |x - y|_1$  and  $d_\infty(x, y) = |x - y|_\infty$ .

**Exercise:** Show that  $d_1$  and  $d_\infty$  also satisfy the properties of a distance.

- There is a bijection from the linear map  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and a  $m \times n$  matrix:

$$\{T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m\} \longleftrightarrow M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R}) \quad (32)$$

which is also a homomorphism. We can associate a matrix with any linear transformation, and any linear transformation is associated with a matrix. Here, the standard basis is used.

- Specifically, we have the map:

$$A \in M_{m \times n} \mapsto L_A(x) = Ax \quad (33)$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and

$$T \mapsto M_T = (Te_1 \quad Te_2 \quad \cdots \quad Te_n) \quad (34)$$

- We also need to show that this map is bijective, i.e both

$$L_{M_T} = T, \quad M_{L_A} = A \quad (35)$$

are both satisfied.

- Furthermore, we can also show that this map is a homomorphism. Note that the set of linear transformations is itself a vector space. Both  $A \mapsto L_A$  and  $T \mapsto M_T$  is linear, so

$$L_{aA+bB} = aL_A + bL_B \quad (36)$$

$$M_{aT+bS} = aM_T + bM_S. \quad (37)$$

- Furthermore, suppose we have two maps  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $S : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ . To go from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^p$ , we can take the composition

$$S \circ T \tag{38}$$

or

$$S \parallel T \tag{39}$$

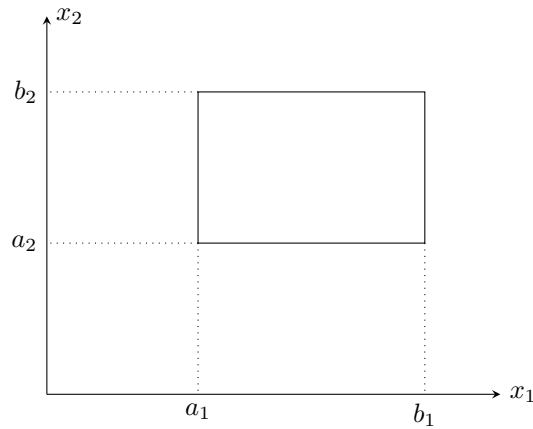
The bijection is a homomorphism, so we have

$$M_S M_T = M_{S \circ T} \tag{40}$$

### 3 Intervals, Regions, Open and Closed Sets

Lecture 3 and 4 (Sept 15, 20)

- In single-variable calculus, we typically focused on an interval  $[a, b]$  on the real number line. Similarly, we can talk about intervals in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  which can be represented as a rectangle:



- We can generalize to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Given  $a_i \leq b_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , we can define the **closed rectangle** corresponding to  $a_i, b_i$ :

$$R = \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall i \ a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i\} \quad (41)$$

- Recall from set theory, if  $X$  and  $Y$  are sets, then  $X \times Y = \{(x, y) : x \in X, y \in Y\}$  (also referred to as direct product in group theory). This is associative (up to isomorphism), so

$$(X \times Y) \times Z \neq X \times (Y \times Z) \quad (42)$$

but

$$(X \times Y) \times Z \cong X \times (Y \times Z). \quad (43)$$

As a result, while they are not equal strictly speaking, we can view them as the same.

- We can then view  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x_1 \dots x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\} \quad (44)$$

- Products of intervals can be written as

$$\prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i] = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : \forall i \ x_i \in [a_i, b_i]\} \quad (45)$$

- Likewise, there are also **open rectangles**. Specifically, the open rectangle defined by  $a_i, b_i$  is

$$\prod_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i) = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : \forall i \ x_i \in (a_i, b_i)\} \quad (46)$$

- There is a way to define continuity using open sets.

**Definition:** The subset  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is called “open” if:

For every  $a \in A$ , there exists an open rectangle  $R$ , such that  $a \in R \subset A$ .

Note that this isn't the only definition. Instead of surrounding  $a$  with a rectangle, we can surround  $a$  with an open ball  $B$  instead.

**Definition:** An open ball  $B$  is a ball of radius  $r$  centered at  $x_0$ :

$$B = B_r(x_0) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x_0 - y| < r\} \quad (47)$$

This implicitly gives rise to the theorem:

**Theorem:** Defining “open” sets using rectangles is equivalent to defining “open” sets using balls.

*Proof.* The intuition of the proof is as follows:

1. Suppose  $A$  is open, so we can construct a rectangle  $R$  around  $a \in A$ .
2. In the rectangle, we can find a ball  $B$  such that  $B \subset R$ .

This shows one direction of the proof. The other direction is as follows:

1. Suppose  $A$  is open, so we can construct a ball  $B$  around  $a \in A$ .
2. In the ball, we can find a rectangle  $R$  such that  $R \subseteq B$ .

This is equivalent to showing that every open rectangle is open using the ball definition and that every open ball is open using the rectangle definition.  $\square$

- Note that balls depend on the norms that we use. Norms in  $L^1, L^2, L^\infty$  will all look different. We can use any of these norms to define a ball and still be valid in the theorem.
- We can also define closed sets.

**Definition:**  $B$  is **closed** if  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B = B^C$  is open.

**Theorem:** We have the following theorems related to open and closed sets.

1.  $\emptyset, \mathbb{R}^n$  are both closed and open.
2. Any union of open sets is open. Any intersection of closed sets is closed.
3. A finite intersection of open sets is open. A finite union of closed sets is closed.

*Proof.* We prove each separately:

1. To show that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is open, we just need to show that every point in  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is contained in a rectangle, i.e.  $x \in \prod (x_i - 1, x_i + 1) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . This also implies that  $\emptyset$  is closed.

To finish, we need to show that  $\emptyset$  is open. Since there are no points in  $\emptyset$ , the condition holds<sup>1</sup>. This also implies that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed.

2. Suppose  $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is a collection of open sets, where  $I$  is an indexing set. We need to show

$$A = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \{x : \exists \alpha \in I \text{ s.t. } x \in A_\alpha\} \quad (48)$$

is open. Let  $x \in A$ . We need to find an open rectangle that surrounds  $x$ . Note that we can find an  $\alpha$  such that  $x \in A_\alpha$ . Since  $A_\alpha$  is open, there exists an open rectangle such that  $x \in R \subset A_\alpha$ .

Using De-Morgan's Laws, we can prove the second part. Suppose  $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is a collection of closed sets. We want to show that  $\bigcap B_\alpha$  is closed. However,

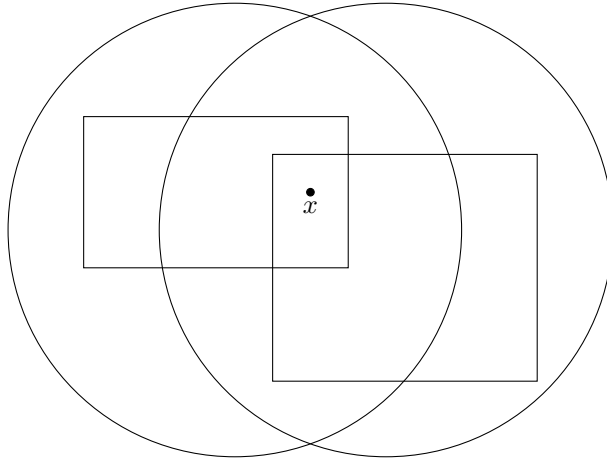
$$\left(\bigcap B_\alpha\right)^C = \bigcup B_\alpha^C \quad (49)$$

However,  $B_\alpha^C$  is an open set, so by earlier,  $\left(\bigcap B_\alpha\right)^C$  is open, so  $\bigcap B_\alpha$  is closed.

3. We can use induction. We just need to show that the intersection of two open sets is open. We can visualize it as follows:

<sup>1</sup>This is analog to: Every horse in an empty set of horses has horns.





If we take the intersection of the two open rectangles, we see that we have a rectangle that surrounds the point  $x$ .

**Lemma:** The intersection of two open rectangles, if non-empty, is an open rectangle.

We can formalize as follows: Suppose  $x \in A_1 \cap A_2$  by openness of  $A_i$ , there exists open rectangles  $R_i$  such that  $x \in R_i \subset A_i$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Then:

$$x \in \underbrace{R_1 \cap R_2}_{\text{open rectangle}} \subset A_1 \cap A_2. \quad (50)$$

To finish, we use induction. Suppose  $A_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  are open. Then:

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i = (\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i) \cap A_n \quad (51)$$

By induction, the first part is open and by the base case, the intersection is open.

We can do something similar for the second part. Suppose  $B_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  is closed. Then:

$$\left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i \right)^C = \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i^C \quad (52)$$

We've shown that the right hand side is open, so  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i$  must be closed.

□

- The following is important to relate intersections and unions.

**Theorem: De-Morgan's Laws:** If  $Y_\alpha$  is any collection of subsets of some universe  $U$ . Then:

$$\left( \bigcup Y_\alpha \right)^C = \bigcap Y_\alpha^C \quad (53)$$

and

$$\left( \bigcap Y_\alpha \right)^C = \bigcup Y_\alpha^C \quad (54)$$

- Note that part (3) of the theorem on closed/open sets is not true if we take an infinite intersection. As a counterexample, consider

$$\bigcap_{n>0} \left( -\frac{1}{n}, 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) = [0, 1] \quad (55)$$

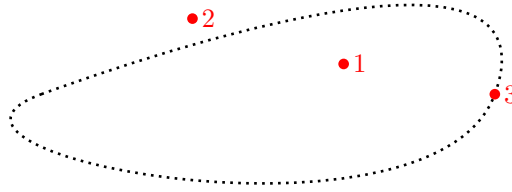
Again by De-Morgan, we can use this to construct an example of an infinite union of closed sets that is not closed.

- Given  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , exactly one of the three things hold, i.e. a *trichotomy*:

1.  $\exists$  open rectangle  $R$  such that  $x \in R \subset A$ .

2.  $\exists$  open rectangle  $R$  such that  $x \in R \subset A^C$
3. Every open rectangle  $R$  s.t.  $x \in R$ , has  $R \cap A^C \neq \emptyset$  and  $R \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .

For example: 1,2,3 can be represented below:



**Definition:** Points that satisfy the trichotomy are known as:

1. Interior:  $x \in \text{int}(A) = \overset{\circ}{A}$
2. Exterior:  $x \in \text{ext}(A)$ . The closure can be defined as  $\text{cl}A = \bar{A} = (\text{ext}A)^C$ .
3. Boundary:  $x \in \text{Bd}(A)$ .

- The closure of  $A$  can be defined as  $\text{cl}(A) = \bar{A} = (\text{ext}A)^C$  and has the following property:

**Theorem:** We have  $x \in \text{cl}(A)$  if and only if every open rectangle  $R \ni x$  satisfies  $R \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .

- We also make the following claims:

1.  $\text{int}(A) \dot{\cup} \text{ext}(A) \dot{\cup} \text{Bd}(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$ .
2.  $\text{cl}(A) = A \cup \text{Bd}(A)$
3.  $\text{int}(A) = A \setminus \text{Bd}(A)$

**Example 2:** Consider the set  $[0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Then:

- $\text{int}(A) = (0, 1)$
- $\text{ext}(A) = (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$
- $\text{cl}(A) = [0, 1]$
- $\text{Bd}(A) = \{0, 1\}$

## 4 Compactness

- We start with an open cover

**Definition:** An open cover of a set  $A$  is a collection  $\{U_\alpha\}$  of open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha} \supset A \quad (56)$$

A subcover of  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is a collection where  $\alpha$  runs over  $I' \subset I$  such that

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I'} U_{\alpha} \supset A \quad (57)$$

**Definition:**  $A$  is called compact if every open cover of  $A$  has a finite sub-cover.

**Example 3:** If  $F \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is finite, then it is compact.

**Example 4:**  $\mathbb{R}$  is not compact.

*Proof.* We just need to find a counterexample. Let  $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (n-1, n+1)$ .

Alternatively, we can write  $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-n, n)$ . □

- We want to eventually classify all compact subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem:** The **Heine-Borel Theorem** tells us that  $[0, 1]$  is compact.

*Proof.* Let  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an open cover of  $I = [0, 1]$ . To find a finite subcover, we will look for a point  $g$  such that we can find a finite subcover that covers  $[0, g]$ , and we want to push  $g$  as far to the right as possible.

Let us define  $G = \{g \in [0, 1] : \exists J' \subset J \text{ s.t. } \bigcup_{\alpha \in J'} U_{\alpha} \supset [0, g]\}$  where  $J'$  is finite. We want to show that  $1 \in G$ .

Let  $\gamma$  be the furthest we can “push”  $g$ . Specifically, let  $\gamma = \sup(G)$ . This is well defined since  $G$  is clearly bounded  $G \subset [0, 1]$  and is nonempty since  $0 \in G$ .

We claim that  $\gamma = 1$ . Suppose this is not true, i.e.  $\gamma < 1$ . If this is true, then there exists some open set  $U_\beta$  with  $\beta \in J$  such that  $\gamma \in U_\beta$ . Since  $U_\beta$  is open, there exists  $g'$  and  $g''$  such that  $\gamma \in [g', g''] \subset U_\beta$ . Therefore,  $[0, g''] = [0, g'] \cup [g', g'']$ . Since  $[0, g']$  has a finite cover, and  $[g', g'']$  is covered by  $U_\beta$ . This has a finite cover, so  $g'' \in G$ . However,  $\sup(G) \geq g'' > \gamma$ , which leads to a contradiction. □