

- ii) A point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a limit point of the set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if there is a sequence  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $x_k \in A \setminus \{x\}$  such that  $x_k \rightarrow x$ .
- iii) For a set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  the following are equivalent:
- a)  $A$  is closed
  - b)  $A' \subset A$
  - c)  $A = \bar{A}$
  - d) for every sequence  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $x_k \rightarrow x$ ,  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $x_k \in A$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $x \in A$ .

Definition. A subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called compact if it is closed and bounded.

Remark. It is not difficult to show that a set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if and only if every sequence  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $A$  has a convergent subsequence with limit in  $A$ .

Examples. i) Closed balls  $B_r(x) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  are compact.

ii) One can show that  $K_1 \times K_2 \times \dots \times K_m \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if  $K_1, \dots, K_m$  are compact subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

The central objects in multivariate calculus are functions  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  with domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  for some integers  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Such a function is real-valued if  $m=1$ , and vector-valued if  $m \geq 2$ .

Moreover, for  $x \in D$  we write

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))^T,$$

where  $f_1, \dots, f_m: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are the components of  $f$ . We recall that the range of a function is given by

$$f(D) = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^m : x \in D\},$$

and its graph is defined by

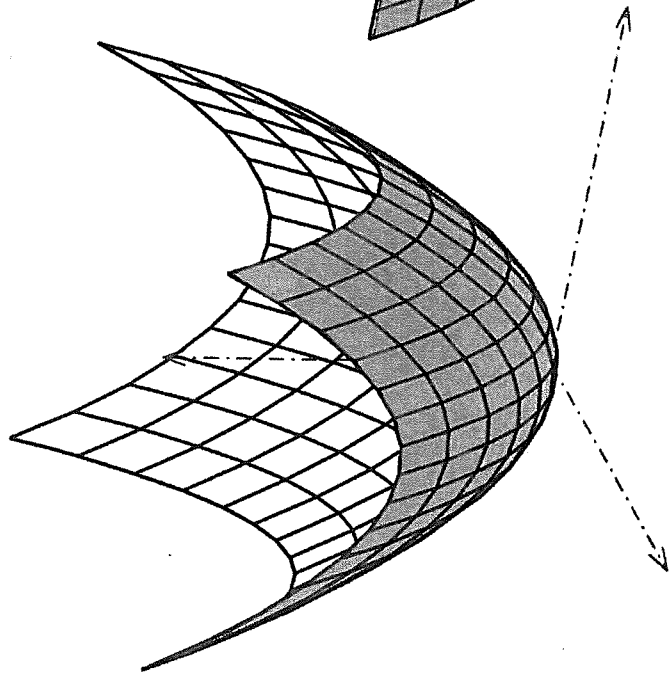
$$\{(x, f(x)) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m : x \in D\}.$$

Examples. In the case  $m=2$  and  $m=1$  graphs can be visualised as surfaces in a three-dimensional space. For instance:

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

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

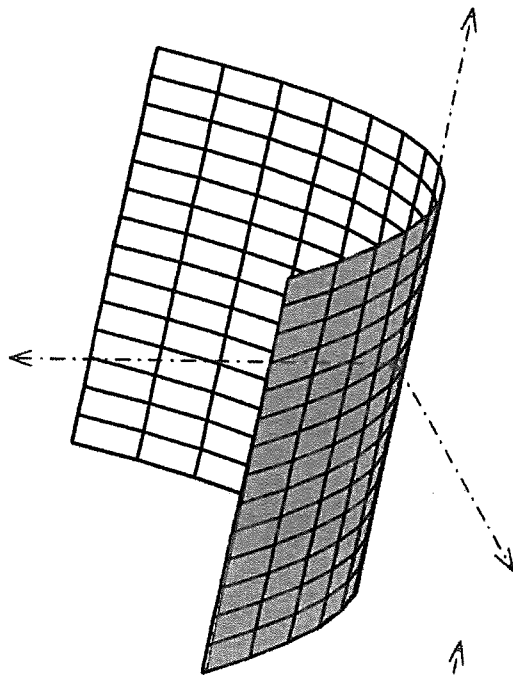
$$h: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad h(x, y) := x^2 - y^2.$$



$$z = x^2 + y^2$$

$$= f(x, y)$$

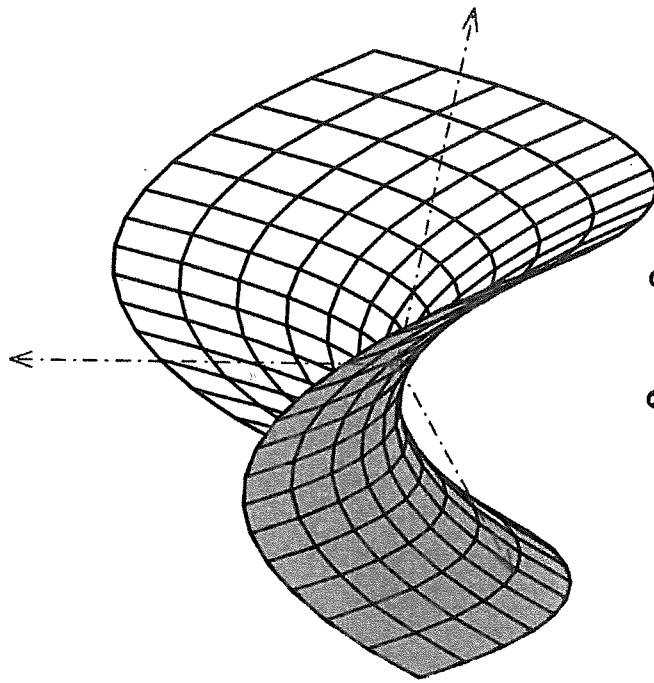
"elliptic paraboloid"



$$z = x^2$$

$$= g(x, y)$$

"parabolic cylinder"



$$z = x^2 - y^2$$

$$= h(x, y)$$

"hyperbolic paraboloid"

Definition. Let  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  ( $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ) be a function,  
 $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  a limit point of  $D$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

We say that  $f$  tends to the limit  $b$  as  $x$  tends to  $\xi$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  
 a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\|f(x) - b\| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for all } x \in D \cap (U_\delta(\xi) \setminus \{\xi\}).$$

In this case we write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f(x) = b$  or  
 $f(x) \rightarrow b, x \rightarrow \xi$ .

Remarks. i) It is not difficult to show that,  
 if it exists, the limit is unique.

ii) It is crucial in the definition to look at  
 the "deleted" ball  $U_\delta(\xi) \setminus \{\xi\}$  instead  
 of  $U_\delta(\xi)$ . For instance, let us consider

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) := \begin{cases} 1, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases},$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1, \quad f(0) \neq 1.$$

If we used  $U_\delta(\xi)$  in the definition,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$   
 would not exist.

Theorem 2. Let  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  ( $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ) be a function,  $\xi$  a limit point of  $D$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

i) If we write  $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))^T$  and  $b = (b_1, \dots, b_m)^T$ , then we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f(x) = b \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f_i(x) = b_i \text{ for all } i=1, \dots, m.$$

ii) We have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f(x) = b$  if and only if for every sequence  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $x_k \in D \setminus \{\xi\}$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that  $x_k \rightarrow \xi$ ,  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) = b.$$

iii) Let  $g: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be another function and assume that  $f$  and  $g$  both have a limit at  $\xi$ . Then we have for all  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} (\lambda f(x) + \mu g(x)) = \lambda \lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f(x) + \mu \lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} g(x),$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f(x)^T g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} \langle f(x), g(x) \rangle$$

$$= \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} f(x) \right)^T \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} g(x) \right), \text{ and}$$

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

if  $m=1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \xi} g(x) \neq 0$ .

Proof. The proof of part i) follows the same idea as the proof of Theorem 1. Parts ii) and iii) are analogous to the case of real-valued functions of one variable.  $\square$

Examples. i) Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2$ , and  $\xi = (a, b)^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with fixed  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . We prove that  $f$  has a limit at the point  $\xi$  which is given by  $a+b$ . To this end, let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|f(x_1, x_2) - (a+b)\| &= |x_1 + x_2 - (a+b)| \\ &= |x_1 - a + x_2 - b| \leq |x_1 - a| + |x_2 - b| \\ &\leq 2 \left( (x_1 - a)^2 + (x_2 - b)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 2 \|(x_1 - a, x_2 - b)^T\| \end{aligned}$$

$= 2 \left\| \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \right\| < \varepsilon$ , where the last inequality is true as long as we choose the vector  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$  close enough to  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ , i.e.,

if  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{U}_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \left( \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \right)$ . Hence, if we choose

$\delta := \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ , then for all  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{U}_{\delta} \left( \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \right) \setminus \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

we have  $\|f(x_1, x_2) - (a+b)\| < \varepsilon$ , in other words,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \zeta} f(x) = a+b$ .

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ii) Let us consider  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(x_1, x_2) := \frac{x_1^2}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}}.$$

We prove  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ , where we note that

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  is shorthand for  $\lim_{(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x_1, x_2)$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|f(x_1, x_2) - 0\| &= \frac{x_1^2}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}} \leq \frac{x_1^2 + x_2^2}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}} \\ &= \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right\| < \varepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality is true if

$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{U}_\varepsilon \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right)$ . So we choose  $\delta := \varepsilon$ , and

we obtain  $\|f(x_1, x_2) - 0\| < \varepsilon$  for all

$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{U}_\delta \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \setminus \{(0)\}$ . As this works for every possible  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we conclude that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0.$$

iii) Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

$$f(x_1, x_2) := \frac{x_1}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}}. \quad \text{We prove that } f$$

does not have a limit at  $\xi = (0)$ .

According to Theorem 2 part ii), it is sufficient to find two sequences  $(x_{k,1})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}, (y_{k,1})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0)\}$  such that both

sequences converge to  $(0)$  but

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_{k,1}, x_{k,2}) \neq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(y_{k,1}, y_{k,2}).$$

We define  $(x_{k,1}, x_{k,2})^T := (0, \frac{1}{k})^T$   
and  $(y_{k,1}, y_{k,2})^T := (\frac{1}{k}, 0)^T, k \in \mathbb{N}.$

Then we have  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_{k,1}, x_{k,2}) = 0$

but  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(y_{k,1}, y_{k,2}) = 1.$

iv) Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{(0) : x_3 \in \mathbb{R}\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be defined by

$$f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, x_3) := \left( 1 + x_2 + x_3 + \frac{x_1^2}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}}, x_1 + x_3 \right)^T.$$

To determine whether  $f$  has a limit at  $\xi = (0, 0, 0)^T$ , and, if so, to compute it,



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it is sufficient by Theorem 2 part i) to examine the individual components given by

$$f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 1 + x_2 + x_3 + \frac{x_1^2}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}},$$

$$f_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1 + x_3.$$

To this end, we can use Theorem 2, part iii) and Examples i) and ii) above:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow (0,0,0)} f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) &= 1 + \lim_{x \rightarrow (0,0,0)} (x_2 + x_3) + \lim_{x \rightarrow (0,0,0)} \frac{x_1^2}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}} \\ &= 1, \text{ and} \end{aligned}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow (0,0,0)} f_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 0.$$

Hence, we conclude  $\lim_{x \rightarrow (0,0,0)} f(x) = (1, 0)^T$ . 25/09/25

Next we introduce the concept of continuity.

Definition. Let  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  ( $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ) be a function.

We say that  $f$  is continuous at the point  $\xi \in D$

if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$

such that

$$\|f(x) - f(\xi)\| < \varepsilon \text{ for all } x \in \mathcal{U}_\delta(\xi) \cap D.$$