

# MAT257—Analysis 2

Jonah Chen

September 22, 2021

## Contents

<b>1 Course Overview</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2 Continuity</b>	<b>1</b>
2.1 Norms and Inner Product . . . . .	2
2.2 Distance Functions . . . . .	3
<b>3 Rectangles</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>4 Compactness</b>	<b>6</b>
4.1 Finding all compact subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$ . . . . .	7

## 1 Course Overview

- $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
- Linear Algebra
- Continuity
- Differentiability
- Integration
- Key theorem of this class is **Stokes' Theorem**

$$\int_C d\omega = \int_{\partial C} \omega \quad (1.1)$$

Generalizes the fundamental theorem of calculus:

$$\int_{[a,b]} F'(t)dt = F(b) - F(a) = \int_{\partial[a,b]} F \quad (1.2)$$

Note that  $\partial[a, b] = \{b+, a-\}$ .

## 2 Continuity

- Roughly speaking, continuity from  $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  means if two points are near, their images should be near also.
- Thus, in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the intuitive meaning should be similar.

## 2.1 Norms and Inner Product

Note there are 2 conventions for  $\mathbb{R}^n$

1. The set of all n-dimensional real column vectors.
2. The set of all n-dimensional real row vectors.

In this class, the distinction is not very important.

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

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \quad (2.1)$$

The norm-squared of  $x$  is

$$|x|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle = \sum x_i^2 \quad (2.2)$$

and the norm of  $x$  is

$$|x| = \sqrt{|x|^2} = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2} \quad (2.3)$$

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

0. The inner product is bilinear & the norm is "semi-linear".

$$\langle ax + by, z \rangle = a\langle x, z \rangle + b\langle y, z \rangle \quad (2.4)$$

$$\langle z, ax + by \rangle = \dots \quad (2.5)$$

$$|ax| = |a||x| \quad (2.6)$$

**Aside:**

$$1 = \sqrt{1} = \sqrt{-1 \cdot -1} = \sqrt{-1}\sqrt{-1} = i \cdot i = -1 \quad (2.7)$$

- 1.

$$|x| \geq 0 \& |x| = 0 \iff x = 0 \quad (2.8)$$

- 2.

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle \quad (2.9)$$

3. *Cauchy-Schwarz inequality*

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq |x||y| \quad (2.10)$$

with equality if  $x$  &  $y$  are dependent.

4. *Triangle inequality*

$$|x + y| \leq |x| + |y| \quad (2.11)$$

5. *Polarization identity*

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{|x + y|^2 - |x - y|^2}{4} \quad (2.12)$$

*Proof.* 1.  $|x| = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2} \quad |x| = 0 \implies \sum x_i^2 = 0 \implies \forall i, x_i^2 = 0 \implies \forall i, x_i = 0 \implies x = 0$

2. For  $s, t \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$|s + t|^2 = |s|^2 + |t|^2 + 2\langle s, t \rangle \quad (2.13)$$

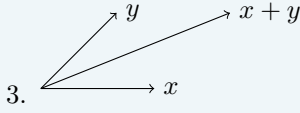
Look at

$$0 \leq \left| |y|^2 x - \langle x, y \rangle y \right|^2 = |y|^4 |x| + \langle x, y \rangle^2 |y|^2 - 2|y|^2 \langle x, y \rangle^2 \quad (2.14)$$

$$= |y|^2 (|y|^2 |x|^2 - \langle x, y \rangle^2) \quad (2.15)$$

This is equal to zero only if  $|y|^2 x - \langle x, y \rangle y = 0$ . If we have equality, that implies  $x$  &  $y$  are dependent.

**Why, what does this mean?**



As both sides of the triangle inequality are  $\geq 0$ , square both sides.

$$|x + y|^2 \stackrel{?}{\leq} (|x| + |y|)^2 \quad (2.16)$$

$$\langle x + y, x + y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2|x||y| \quad (2.17)$$

$$\langle x, x \rangle + 2\langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2|x||y| \quad (2.18)$$

$$|x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2\langle x, y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x|^2 + |y|^2 + 2|x||y| \quad (2.19)$$

$$\langle x, y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x||y| \quad (2.20)$$

(2.20) is true by cauchy-schwarz.

4. The proof is trivial because you can expand the right hand side.

**Note:** The inner product and the norm are not independent. If you know how to compute one, you can compute the other.

□

## 2.2 Distance Functions

**Definition:** If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , define the distance between  $x$  &  $y$

$$d(x, y) = |x - y| \quad (2.21)$$

**Theorem:**

1.  $d$  is symmetric:  $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
2.  $d$  is positive definite:  $d(x, y) \geq 0$  and  $d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$
3. Triangle inequality:  $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

The significance of this theorem is that this is all we need to know about distances to comment on continuity.

**Aside:** Later, this theorem will become a definition for a distance function or a metric.

*Proof.* 1.

$$d(x, y) = |x - y| = |-(y - x)| = |-1||y - x| = |y - x| = d(y, x) \quad (2.22)$$

2.

$$d(x, y) = 0 \iff |x - y| = 0 \iff x - y = 0 \iff x = y \quad (2.23)$$

3.

$$|x - z| \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x - y| + |y - z| \quad (2.24)$$

This is true by the previous triangle inequality,  $|p| + |q| \geq |p + q|$ . Letting  $p = x - y, q = y - z \implies p + q = x - z$ .

□

There are other norms and distance functions that we will rarely use.

- The euclidian norm which we use is  $|x|_{L^2} = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2}$ .
- There is a L1 norm  $|x|_{L^1} = \sum |x_i|$ .
- The L-infinity norm is  $|x|_{L^\infty} = \max |x_i|$ .

The distance functions for these norms also satisfy these three properties.

- There is a bijection between linear maps from  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and the set of  $m \times n$  matrices with real coefficients. This bijection can be realized by choosing a basis.

- In  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , there is a natural basis (the standard basis)  $e_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow i\text{-th position}$

- by  $A \in M_{m \times n} \rightarrow L_A(x) = Ax$ , where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- If  $T$  is a linear transformation,  $M_T = \begin{pmatrix} Te_1 | Te_2 | \dots | Te_n \end{pmatrix}$

**Definition:** Homomorphism: A map that preserve the structure.

**Theorem:**

0. Bijective

$$L_{(M_T)} = T, M_{(L_A)} = A \quad (2.25)$$

1.
  - $A \rightarrow L_A$  is linear:  $L_{aA+bB} = aL_A + bL_B$
  - $T \rightarrow M_T$  is linear:  $M_{aT+bS} = aM_T + bM_S$
2. Given  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $S : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ , and  $S \circ T \equiv T/S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ .  
Then,  $M_S M_T = M_{S \circ T}$ .

End of the review.

### 3 Rectangles

- It is common to use intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ . In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we use rectangles.
- To specify a rectangle, we must bound the each of the  $n$  coordinates.

**Definition:** Given  $a_i \leq b_i$ , where  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,

- The closed rectangle corresponding to  $a_i, b_i$  is defined as

$$R = \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall i \ a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i\} \quad (3.1)$$

- The opened rectangle defined by  $a_i, b_i$  is defined as

$$R = \prod_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall i \ a_i < x_i < b_i\} \quad (3.2)$$

- If  $X$  &  $Y$  are sets, we define (from set theory) the cartesian product  $X \times Y = \{(x, y) : x \in X, y \in Y\}$
- Given 3 sets, the cartesian product is strictly speaking not associative as  $((x, y), z) \neq (x, (y, z))$ . However, for convinence we agree that  $((x, y), z) = (x, y, z) = (x, (y, z))$ . Thus, the cartesian product is associative.
- $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .

**Definition:**

- $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is called an open set if  $\forall a \in A \exists$  an open rectangle  $R : x \in R \subset A$ .
- $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is called an open set if  $\forall a \in A \exists$  an open ball  $B : x \in B \subset A$ . An open ball  $B = B_r(x_0) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x_0 - y| < r\}$ . Note an open ball can be defined with any norm.

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

*Proof.*  $\implies$  Every open rectangle is open using the ball definition.

$\impliedby$  Every open ball is open using the rectangle definition. □

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

**Proposition: [De-Morgan’s Laws]**

If  $Y_\alpha$  is any collection of subsets of some universe  $U$ ,

$$\left(\bigcup Y_\alpha\right)^C = \bigcap Y_\alpha^C \quad (3.3)$$

$$\left(\bigcap Y_\alpha\right)^C = \bigcup Y_\alpha^C \quad (3.4)$$

**Theorem:**

1.  $\emptyset, \mathbb{R}^n$  are clopen.
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.* 1.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is open.  $x \in \prod (x_i - 1, x_i + 1) \subset \mathbb{R}^n. \implies \emptyset$  is closed. The empty set has no points, thus the condition holds. “Every horse in an empty set of horses has horns.”  $\implies \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed.

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

$$A = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_\alpha = \{x : \exists \alpha \in I \ x \in A_\alpha\} \quad (3.5)$$

Let  $x \in A$ , find  $\alpha$  such that  $x \in A_\alpha$ . Find an open rectangle  $R$  such that  $x \in R \subset A_\alpha \subset A$

Suppose  $\{B_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is a collection of closed sets, show  $\bigcap B_\alpha$  is closed.  $\left(\bigcap B_\alpha\right)^C = \bigcup B_\alpha^C$  is open  $\implies \bigcap B_\alpha$  is closed.

**Lemma 1:** The intersection of two open rectangles, if non-empty, is an open rectangle.

3.

Suppose  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are open. Pick  $x \in A_1 \cap A_2$ . By openness of  $A_1$ ,  $x \in A_1 \implies \exists R_1 : x \in R_1 \subset A_1$ . Similarly, by openness of  $A_2$ ,  $x \in A_2 \implies \exists R_2 : x \in R_2 \subset A_2$ . Then,  $x \in R_1 \cap R_2 \equiv R \subset A_1 \cap A_2$ .

Suppose  $A_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  are open.

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i = \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i\right) \cap A_n \quad (3.6)$$

By induction hypothesis,  $\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i\right)$  is an open set. The intersection of two open sets are open  $\implies$  the intersection of  $n$  open sets are open.

Suppose  $B_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  is closed,

$$\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i\right)^C = \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_i^C \quad (3.7)$$

□

**Definition:** Clopen Sets: Suppose  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is clopen  $\implies A^C$  is clopen. Suppose neither is empty. Consider the line segment  $l_{xy}(t) = ty + (1-t)x$ .

$$l_{xy}(0) = x \in A \quad (3.8)$$

$$l_{xy}(1) = y \in A^C \quad (3.9)$$

$$t_0 = \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \{l_{xy}(t) \in A\} \quad (3.10)$$

$$l_{xy}(t_0) = z \quad (3.11)$$

if  $z \in A$ , the rectangle containing  $z \cap l_{xy}$  includes  $l(t_0 + \epsilon) \in A^C$  for some  $\epsilon$ . Similarly if  $z \in A^C \implies$  one of  $A$  and  $A^C$  is not clopen so the other one isn't clopen either. Thus, the only clopen sets is  $\emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$

- Consider the following example,

$$\bigcap_{n>0} \left(-\frac{1}{n}, 1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = [0, 1] \quad (3.12)$$

This infinite intersection of open sets is not an open set due to the points 0 and 1.

**Definition:** Given  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there is a tricotomy (**exactly** one of the following is true)

- $x$  belongs to the *interior* of  $A$ :  $\exists$  open rectangle  $R$  such that  $x \in R \subset A$ .
- $x$  belongs to the *exterior* of  $A$ :  $\exists$  open rectangle  $R$  such that  $x \in R \subset A^C$ .
- $x$  belongs to the *boundary* of  $A$ : Every open rectangle  $R$  such that  $x \in R$  has  $R \cap A^C \neq \emptyset$  AND  $R \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .

- The closure of  $A$  is the complement of the exterior.  $\overline{A} = (\text{ext}A)^C$ . It will satisfy either condition 1 or 3.

• **Claims:**

- $\overline{A} \ni x$  iff. every open rectangle  $R \ni x$  satisfies  $R \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .
- $\text{int}A \cup \text{ext}A \cup \text{Bd}A = \mathbb{R}^n$
- $\text{cl} = A \cup \text{Bd}A$
- $\text{int}A = A \setminus \text{Bd}A$ .
- $\text{int}S$  is the largest open set in  $S$ ,  $\text{int}S = \bigcup_{U \subset S} U$
- $\overline{S}$  is the smallest closed set containing  $S$ ,  $\overline{S} = \bigcap_{C \supset S} C$ .

**Example 1**

$$A = [0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}$$

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

## 4 Compactness

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

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha \supset A \quad (4.1)$$

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

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I'} U_\alpha \supset A \quad (4.2)$$

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

- Note: Showing one finite open cover with a finite subcover is not sufficient.

Examples:

1. If  $F \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is finite, then it is compact.
2.  $\mathbb{R}$  is not compact. Take  $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (n-1, n+1) = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-n, n)$ . These open covers does not have a finite subcover.

## 4.1 Finding all compact subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Theorem:** [Heine-Borel]  $[a, b]$  is compact.

*Proof.* Let  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$  be an open cover of  $[a, b]$ . We will first show there's a subcover from  $a$  to  $g > a$ .

Define  $G = \{g \in [a, b] : \exists J' \subset J \text{ such that } J' \text{ is a finite subcover of } [a, g]\}$ .

To show  $b \in G$  will prove the theorem. Set  $\gamma = \sup G$ . For  $G$  to have a supremum, it must be bounded ( $G \subset [a, b]$ ) and non-empty ( $a \in G$ ).

Claim:  $\gamma = b$ . Suppose  $\gamma < b$ , as  $\gamma \in [a, b]$ ,  $\exists \beta \in J$  such that  $\gamma \in U_\beta$ .

As  $U_\beta$  is open,  $\exists (g', g'') : \gamma \in (g', g'') \subset [g', g''] \subset U_\beta$ .

$[a, g''] = [a, g'] \cup [g', g'']$ .

As  $g' < \gamma$ ,  $[a, g']$  has a finite subcover.  $[g', g'']$  is covered by a single set  $U_\beta$ . Thus,  $g'' \in G$  and this is a contradiction as  $g'' > \gamma$ .

Next, we show  $b = \gamma \in G$ .

If  $b$  is covered by  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ , hence some interval  $(b^-, b^+)$  is covered by one set  $U_\alpha$ . As  $\sup G = b > b^-$ ,  $\exists g' \in G : b^- < g' < b$ .

$$[a, b] = [a, g'] \cup [b^-, b] \quad (4.3)$$

□

**Theorem:** [] If  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is compact and  $B \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  is compact. Then,  $A \times B \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$  is compact.

*Proof.* Suppose  $U = \{U_\alpha\}$  is an open cover of  $A \times B$ .

WLOG, each  $U_\alpha$  is itself an open rectangle.

**Lemma 2:** For every  $x \in A$ , we can find an open set  $N_x \ni x : N_x \times B$  can be covered with finitely many of the  $U_\alpha$ s.

*Proof.* Write  $U_\alpha = V_\alpha \times W_\alpha$ , where  $V_\alpha, W_\alpha$  are open rectangles in  $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m$  respectively. Consider that  $\{W_\alpha : x \in V_\alpha\}$  covers  $B$  which is compact. So find  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_p : \{W_{\alpha_1}, \dots, W_{\alpha_p}\}$  cover  $B$ . So,  $\{U_{\alpha_1}, \dots, U_{\alpha_p}\}$  cover  $\{x\} \times B$ .

Let  $N_x = \bigcap_{i=1}^p V_{\alpha_i} \subset V_{\alpha_i} \subset V_{\alpha_i} \forall i$ .

Now,  $N_x \times B \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^p N_x \times W_{\alpha_i} \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^p V_{\alpha_i} \times W_{\alpha_i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^p U_{\alpha_i}$ . □

□

Now,  $\{N_x\}_{x \in A}$  is an open cover of  $A$ . By compactness of  $A$ , find  $x_1, \dots, x_q : \bigcup_{j=1}^q N_{x_j} \supset A$ . i.e.  $\bigcup_{j=1}^q N_{x_j} \times B \supset A \times B$ .

For each  $j = 1, \dots, q$  find  $U_{ji}$  which are rectangles in  $U$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, p_j : \bigcup_{i=1}^{p_j} U_{ji} \supset N_{x_j} \times B$ .

Now,  $\bigcup_{j=1}^q \bigcup_{i=1}^{p_j} U_{ji} \supset A \times B$ .

**Corollary:** Closed rectangles  $R = \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$  are compact.

**Proposition:** A closed subset of a compact set is compact.

**Corollary:** Every closed and bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is compact.

**Theorem:** Every compact set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed and bounded.

*Proof.* Construct a cover for  $S$  with open balls of radius  $R$ . Given  $S$  is compact, it is covered by finitely many elements. Thus,  $S$  is bounded.

Let  $x \in S^C, y \in S$ , Let  $B_y = B(y, \frac{1}{3}|x - y|), C_y = B(x, \frac{1}{3}|x - y|)$  □

If  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is compact,

- Every open cover has a finite subcover
- Closed and bounded
- Every sequence  $(x_n)_n \in X$  has a converging subsequences that converge in  $X$ .

Continuity:

- $\epsilon - \delta$
- $f^{-1}(\text{open})$  is open
- If  $x_n$  converges to  $x$ , then  $f(x_n)$  converges to  $f(x)$ .