# MAT257—Analysis 2

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1	Course Overview	
	$ullet$ $\mathbb{R}  o \mathbb{R}^n$	
	Linear Algebra	

- Continuity
- Differentiability
- Integration
- Key theorem of this class is Stokes' Theorem

$$\int_{C} d\omega = \int_{\partial C} \omega \tag{1.1}$$

Generalizes the fundamental theorem of calculus:

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

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

#### $\mathbf{2}$ **Distances**

- ullet Roughly speaking, continuity from  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  means if two points are near, their images should be near also.
- ullet 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

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

The norm-squared of x is

$$|x|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle = \sum x_i^2 \tag{2.2}$$

and the norm of  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is

$$|x| = \sqrt{|x|^2} = \sqrt{\sum x_i^2} \tag{2.3}$$

**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".

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

$$\langle z, ax + by \rangle = \dots {2.5}$$

$$|ax| = |a||x| \tag{2.6}$$

Aside:

$$1 = \sqrt{1} = \sqrt{-1 \cdot -1} = \sqrt{-1}\sqrt{-1} = i \cdot i = -1 \tag{2.7}$$

1.

$$|x| \ge 0\&|x| = 0 \iff x = 0 \tag{2.8}$$

2.

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle \tag{2.9}$$

3. Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le |x||y| \tag{2.10}$$

with equality if x&y are dependent.

4. Triangle inequality

$$|x+y| \le |x| + |y| \tag{2.11}$$

5. Polarization identity

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

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

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

$$|s+t|^2 = |s|^2 + |t|^2 + 2\langle s, t \rangle \tag{2.13}$$

Look at

$$0 \le \left| |y|^2 x - \langle x, y \rangle y \right|^2 = |y|^4 |x| + \langle x, y \rangle^2 |y|^2 - 2|y|^2 \langle x, y \rangle^2 \tag{2.14}$$

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

This is equal to zero only if  $|y|^2x - \langle x, y \rangle y = 0$ . 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.

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

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

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

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

$$\langle x, y \rangle \stackrel{?}{\leq} |x||y| \tag{2.20}$$

(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

$$d(x,y) = |x-y| \tag{2.21}$$

### Theorem:

- 1. d is symmetric: d(x,y) = d(y,x)
- 2. d is positive definite:  $d(x,y) \ge 0$  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.

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

2.

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

3.

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

This is true by the previous triangle inequality,  $|p|+|q| \ge |p+q|$ . 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 satisfys these three properties.

• There is a bijection between linear maps from  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  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)  $e_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow i$ —th position

- by  $A \in M_{m \times n} \to L_A(x) = Ax$ , where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- ullet If T is a linear transformation,  $M_T = \left(Te_1|Te_2|\dots|Te_n
  ight)$

Definition: Homomorphism: A map that preserve the structure.

### Theorem:

0. Bijective

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

- 1.  $A \rightarrow L_A$  is linear:  $L_{aA+bB} = aL_A + bL_b$ 
  - $T \to M_T$  is linear:  $M_{aT+bS} = aM_T + bM_S$
- 2. Given  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m, S: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^p$ , and  $S \circ T \equiv T//S: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^p$ . 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.
- ullet To specify a rectangle, we must bound the each of the n coordinates.

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

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

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

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

$$R = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (a_i, b_i) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall i \ a_i < x_i < b_i \}$$
(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.
- $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

#### **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.

⇐ Every open ball is open using the rectangle definition.

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

## Proposition: [De-Morgan's Laws]

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

$$\left(\bigcup Y_{\alpha}\right)^{C} = \bigcap Y_{\alpha}^{C} \tag{3.3}$$

$$\left(\bigcap Y_{\alpha}\right)^{C} = \bigcup Y_{\alpha}^{C} \tag{3.4}$$

### 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.  $x \in \prod (x_i - 1, x_i + 1) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .  $\Longrightarrow \emptyset$  is closed. The empty set has no points, thus the condition holds. "Every horse in an empty set of horses has horns."  $\Longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed.

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

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

Let  $x \in A$ , find  $\alpha$  such that  $s \in A_{\alpha}$ . 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  $\cap B_{\alpha}$  is closed.  $\left(\bigcap B_{\alpha}\right)^{C} = \bigcup B_{\alpha}^{C}$  is open  $\Longrightarrow \bigcap B_{\alpha}^{C}$  is closed.

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

Suppose  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are open. Pick  $x \in A_1 \cap A_2$ . By openness of  $A_1$ ,  $x \in A_1 \implies \exists R_1 : x \in \mathbb{R}_1 \subset A_1$ . Similarly, by openness of  $A_2$ ,  $x \in A_2 \implies \exists R_2 : x \in \mathbb{R}_2 \subset A_2$ . Then,  $x \in R_1 \cap R_2 \equiv R \subset A_1 \cap A_2$ .

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

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

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, ..., n is closed,

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

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

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

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

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

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

if  $z\in A$ , the rectangele containing  $z\cap l_{xy}$  includes  $l(t_0+\epsilon)\in A^C$  for some  $\epsilon$ . Similarly if  $z\in A^C\Longrightarrow$  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,

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

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)

- 1. x belongs to the *interior* of A:  $\exists$  open rectangle R such that  $x \in R \subset A$ .
- 2. x belongs to the *exterior* of A:  $\exists$  open rectangle R such that  $x \in R \subset A^C$ .
- 3. x belongs to the boundary or 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:
  - 1.  $\overline{A} \ni x$  iff. every open rectangle  $R \ni x$  satisfies  $R \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .
  - 2.  $int A \cup ext A \cup BdA = \mathbb{R}^n$
  - 3.  $cl = A \cup BdA$
  - 4.  $int A = A \setminus BdA$ .
  - 5.  $\mathrm{int}S$  is the largest open set in S,  $\mathrm{int}S=\bigcup_{U\subset S}U$
  - 6.  $\overline{S}$  is the smallest closed set containing S,  $\overline{S} = \bigcap_{C \supset S} C$ .

## Example 1

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

- int A = (0,1)
- $\operatorname{ext} A = (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$
- $BdA = \{0, 1\}$
- clA = [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

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_{\alpha} \supset A \tag{4.1}$$

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

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I'} U_{\alpha} \supset A \tag{4.2}$$

**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  $G = \{g \in [a, b] : \exists J' \subset J\}$  such that J' 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  $g' < \gamma$ , [0, 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  $\sup G = b > b^-, \exists g' \in G : b^- < g' < b$ .

$$[a,b] = [a,g'] \cup [b^-,b] \tag{4.3}$$

**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  $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{p} : \{W_{\alpha_{1}}, \ldots, W_{\alpha_{p}}\}$  cover B. So,  $\{U_{\alpha_{1}}, \ldots, U_{\alpha_{p}}\}$  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  $x_1,\ldots,x_q:\bigcup_{j=1}^q N_{x_j}\supset A$ . i.e.  $\bigcup_{j=1}^q N_{x_j}\times B\supset A\times B$ .

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

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

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:

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

## 5 Continuity

**Definition**: [Image and Preimage] Given  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,

- $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , the image of C is  $F(C) := \{F(\gamma) : \gamma \in C\}$
- $D \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , the preimage of D is  $F^{-1}(D) := \{ \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^n : F(\gamma) \in D \}$

Note the image behaves better on points, but preimage behaves better on sets, as,

$$F^{-1}(D_1 \cup D_2) = F^{-1}(D_1) \cup F^{-1}(D_2)$$
(5.1)

$$F^{-1}(D_1 \cap D_2) = F^{-1}(D_1) \cap F^{-1}(D_2) \tag{5.2}$$

$$F^{-1}(D^C) = F^{-1}(D)^C (5.3)$$

$$F(C_1 \cup C_2) = F(C_1) \cup F(C_2) \tag{5.4}$$

$$F(C_1 \cap C_2) \subset F(C_1) \cap F(C_2) \tag{5.5}$$

$$F(C^C) \neq F(C)^C \tag{5.6}$$

**Definition**: [Projection]  $\pi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\pi_i \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x_i \tag{5.7}$$

**Definition**: [Coordinate Functions] For  $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , or

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \to \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(5.8)$$

Where  $f_i: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  for i = 1, ..., m are the coordinate functions of f.  $f_i = \pi_i \circ F$ 

**Definition**: [Composition] Given  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $g: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^p$ , and  $h = g \circ f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^p$ 

$$h(x) = g(f(x)) = (g \circ f)(x) \tag{5.9}$$

**Definition**: [Graph] A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , the graph of f is

$$\Gamma_f = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathbb{R}\} \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$$
(5.10)

A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , the graph of f is

$$\Gamma_f = \{x, f(x) : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m = \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$$
(5.11)

**Definition**: [Limit] Suppose  $f: A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m; a \in \overline{A}$ 

$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = b \text{ means } \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : x \in (B_{\delta}(a) \setminus \{x\}) \cap A \implies f(x) \in B_{\epsilon}(b) \tag{5.12}$$

• If the limit exists, it is unique.

**Definition**: [Continuity]  $f:A\subset\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^m$  is continuous at  $a\in A$  if  $\lim_{x\to a}f(x)=f(a)$ .

f is continuous on  $A \iff f$  is cont. at every  $a \in A$ .

$$\iff \forall a \, \forall \epsilon > 0 \, \exists \delta > 0 \, \forall x \in A : |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon \tag{5.13}$$

**Definition**:  $B \subset A$  is open in A if  $\exists U$  open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $B = U \cap A$ .

## Theorem:

- 1.  $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is cont. iff for every open set  $V\subset \mathbb{R}^m, f^{-1}(V)$  is also open.
- 2.  $f:A\subset\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^m$  is cont. iff for every open set  $V\subset\mathbb{R}^m, f^{-1}(V)$  is open in A.