

# MATH 20410 (Analysis in $\mathbb{R}^n$ II – Accelerated) Notes

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## Chapter 6

# The Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

### 6.1 Notes

1/28:

- Plan:

1. Finish up Fundamental Theorem of Calculus proof.
2. Basic consequences.
3. Rectifiable curves.

- Recall that we're given  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous,  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x \mapsto \int_a^x f(t) dt$ .

- Goal: Show  $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$ .

- WTS: Find  $\delta$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - f(x_0) \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \left| \int_{x_0}^x (f(t) - f(x_0)) dt \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x |f(t) - f(x_0)| dt \\ &< \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

- Since  $f$  is continuous, there exists  $\delta$  such that if  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ , then  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon$ .

- Now

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x |f(t) - f(x_0)| dt &< \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x \epsilon dt \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

- Applications:

1. Theorem (MVT for integration):  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous, then there exists  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  such that

$$f(x_0) = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

- Apply MVT to  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ . Then

$$F'(x_0) = f(x_0) = \frac{F(b) - F(a)}{b - a}$$

as desired.

2. Theorem (Integration by parts): Let  $F, G : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable with  $F' = f$ ,  $G' = g$  and with  $f$  and  $g$  both integrable. Then

$$\int_a^b Fg = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b fG$$

- Just use the product rule plus the FTC to prove.
- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (FG)' &= \int_a^b fG + \int_a^b Fg \\ F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) &= \int_a^b fG + \int_a^b Fg \\ \int_a^b Fg &= F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b fG \end{aligned}$$

3. Theorem ( $u$ -substitution).

- Follows similarly from the chain rule and FTC.

- Integration of vector-valued functions.

- If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ , we define  $\int_a^b f$  by

$$\int_a^b f = \left( \int_a^b f_1, \dots, \int_a^b f_k \right)$$

- Alternatively, you can define  $\int_a^b f$  using  $P$ ,  $U(f, P)$ ,  $L(f, P)$ , etc. and then prove that the integral exists iff all  $f_i$  are integrable and in this case the above definition holds.
- Rectifiable curves: Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  be a continuous function.
- Plan: Define the length of  $\gamma$  and show that we can compute it with an integral.
  - Idea: For polygonal paths, we know how to define length. So let's approximate  $\gamma$  by polygons and take a limit.
  - Ref: Given a partition  $P$ , then define the length of  $\gamma$  with respect to  $P$  as  $\Lambda(\gamma, P)$ . Let the length of  $\gamma$  be  $\Lambda(\gamma) = \sup_P \Lambda(\gamma, P)$  if this limit exists in this case, we call  $\gamma$  **rectifiable**.
- Fractals are not rectifiable — their length diverges.
- Theorem: Suppose  $\gamma$  is continuously differentiable (i.e.,  $\gamma$  is differentiable and  $\gamma'$  is continuous). Then  $\gamma$  is rectifiable and

$$\Lambda(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

- Notice: If  $P \leq P'$ , then  $\Lambda(\gamma, P) \leq \Lambda(\gamma, P')$ . (Prove with triangle inequality.)
- WTS: For all partitions  $P$ ,  $\Lambda(\gamma, P) \leq \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$  and thus  $\Lambda(\gamma) \leq \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$ .
- We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(\gamma, P) &= \sum_{i=1}^n |\gamma(x_i) - \gamma(x_{i-1})| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \gamma'(t) dt \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} |\gamma'(t)| dt \\ &= \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt \end{aligned}$$

- Catch up.
  - I should make up PSets 1-2.
  - Exams have less than Rudin-strength problems.
  - Exams are mostly true/false (and of that, mostly false, provide a counterexample).

## 6.2 Exam 1 Additional Topics

- A continuous function that is not always differentiable.

$$f(x) = |x|$$

- A differentiable function with a discontinuous derivative.

$$f(x) = x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x}$$

- A vector-valued function that doesn't satisfy the MVT.

$$\mathbf{f}(x) = e^{ix}$$

- Between 0 and  $2\pi$ .

- A pair of vector-valued functions that don't satisfy L'Hôpital's rule.

$$f(x) = x \qquad g(x) = x + x^2 e^{i/x^2}$$

# Chapter 7

## Sequences and Series of Functions

### 7.1 Notes

- 1/31:
- Midterm on differentiation and integration, and a bit of stuff from this week.
  - Plan:
    - Talk about sequences of functions, all with the same domain and range, converging.
    - Address what properties of  $f_n$  remain in the limit (e.g., continuity, differentiability, integrability).
      - The answer depends on what we mean by “convergence.”
      - $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise implies basically nothing.
      - $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly implies that basically everything works out nicely.
  - We’ll restrict ourselves to real functions because those have all the properties (integrability, differentiability, etc.) that we care about.
  - **Pointwise** (convergent sequence  $\{f_n\}$  to  $f$ ): A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  such that for all  $x \in X$ , the sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges to  $f(x)$ , where  $f_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Denoted by  $f_n \rightarrow f$ .
  - Bad functions.
    - Consider  $f_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $x \mapsto x^n$ . Each  $f_n$  is continuous, but  $f$  is not (zero everywhere except  $f(1) = 1$ )<sup>[1]</sup>.
    - Consider  $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f_n(x) = x^2/(1 + x^2)^n$ , and  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ . As a geometric series,  $f(x) = 1 + x^2$  when  $x \neq 0$  but  $f(0) = 0$ . Thus, the limit exists but is not continuous once again.
    - Consider  $f_m : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $x \mapsto \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \cos^{2n}(m!\pi x)$ . Each  $f_m$  is integrable, but the limit  $f$  is the function that’s 1 for rationals and zero for irrationals. In particular,  $f$  is not integrable.
      - We take even powers of the cosine to make it always positive.
      - We use  $\cos^2(x)$  just because it’s always between  $[0, 1]$ , and we know when it is equal to 1.
      - In particular,  $\cos^2(\pi x)$  is equal to 1 at every integer,  $\cos^2(2\pi x)$  is equal to 1 at every half integer.  $\cos^2(6\pi x)$  is equal to 1 at every one-sixth of an integer.
      - Then raising it to the  $n^{\text{th}}$  power just makes it spiky.
  - Aside: Interchanging limits.
    - If all  $f_n$  are continuous, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x) = f_n(x_0)$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Questions that require counterexamples like this could show up on the midterm!

- The question “is  $f$  continuous” is equivalent to being able to interchange limits:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x)$$

- Sequence example showing we need to be careful interchanging limits:  $s_{n,m} = m/(m+n)$ .
- All of this pathology goes away with the right definition, though.
- **Uniformly** (convergent sequence  $\{f_n\}$  to  $f$ ): A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  such that for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N$  such that if  $n \geq N$ , then  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in X$ , where  $f_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .
- Proposition (Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence):  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly iff for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that for all  $m, n \geq N$  and for all  $x \in X$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$ .
  - Forward direction: Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Suppose  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly. Choose  $N$  such that the functions are within  $\epsilon/2$ . Then

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \leq |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f(x) - f_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

2/2:

- Office hours tomorrow 4-5 PM.
- Plan:
  1. More on uniform convergence.
    - Limit of continuous functions is continuous.
    - Limit of the integral of functions is the integral of the limit.
  2.  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  perspectives on uniform convergence.
- Corollary (Weierstraß M-test): If there exist constants  $M_n \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$  for all  $x$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  converges uniformly.
- Theorem:  $f_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f_n$  continuous at  $x_0 \in X$  for all  $n$ , and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly imply  $f$  continuous at  $x_0$ .
  - Idea:
    - “ $\epsilon/3$  trick”: Find  $\delta$  such that if  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ , then

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \leq |f(x) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)| + |f_N(x_0) - f(x_0)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$$

- Proof:

- $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly implies there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f_N(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3$  for all  $x \in X$ .
  - $f_N$  continuous at  $x_0$ : There exists  $\delta$  such that if  $d(x, x_0) < \delta$ , then  $|f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)| < \epsilon/3$ .
  - Thus, by the  $\epsilon/3$  trick, we have the continuity of  $f$ .
- Defining a norm on  $\mathcal{C}(X)$ .

$$\|f\| = \sup_{x \in X} |f(x)|$$

- This makes  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  into a vector space.
- We can now define our metric  $d(f, g)$  by  $d(f, g) = \|f - g\|$ .
- $f_n \rightarrow f \iff f$  is bounded.
  - $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly  $\iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup |f_n(x) - f(x)| = 0 \iff f_n \rightarrow f$  is  $\mathcal{C}(X)$ .
- Corollary to the Weierstraß M-test:  $\mathcal{C}(X)$  is complete (i.e., all uniformly Cauchy sequences converge).



- Assume  $\{f_n\}$  is Cauchy. Then by the Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence,  $f_n$  converges uniformly to some  $f$ . But this  $f$  must be continuous, too, meaning  $f \in \mathcal{C}(X)$ .

2/4:

- Plan.

1.  $\int \lim f_n = \lim \int f_n$ .
2.  $\mathrm{d}x \lim f_n = \lim \mathrm{d}x f_n$ .
3. Definitions: Pointwise/uniform boundedness, equicontinuity.

- Theorem:  $f_n : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  integrable and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly implies  $f$  is integrable and

$$\int_a^b f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n$$

- Plan:

1. Show  $f$  is integrable.
2. Show  $\int f = \lim \int f_n$ .

- Proof:

- Let  $\epsilon_n = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x) - f_n(x)|$ .
- Since  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly,  $\epsilon_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- By definition,  $f_n - \epsilon_n \leq f \leq f_n + \epsilon_n$ .
- Thus, by Theorems 6.4 and 6.5,

$$\int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) = \int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) \leq \int_a^b f \leq \int_a^b (f_n + \epsilon_n)$$

- It follows since

$$0 \leq \int_a^b f - \int_a^b f_n \leq \int_a^b (f_n + \epsilon_n) - \int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) = (b - a) \epsilon_n$$

that  $f$  is integrable.

- Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) &\leq \int_a^b f \leq \int_a^b (f_n + \epsilon_n) \\ \left| \int_a^b f_n - \int_a^b f \right| &\leq \epsilon_n (b - a) \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n &= \int_a^b f \end{aligned}$$

- Theorem:  $f_n : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , each  $f_n$  differentiable,  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise, and  $(f_n)' \rightarrow g$  uniformly implies that  $f$  is differentiable and  $f' = g$ .

- Note that you can do better: Substituting  $f_n(x_0)$  converging for some  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  for  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise still implies the desired result.
- Idea: We use the  $\epsilon/3$  trick;  $2/3$  will be easy and  $1/3$  will be tricky.
- Goal: We want

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - g(x_0) \right| < \epsilon$$

for some  $\delta$  with  $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$ . We will show that

$$\begin{aligned} &\left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} + \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f'_N(x_0) + f'_N(x_0) - g(x_0) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| + \left| \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f'_N(x_0) \right| + |f'_N(x_0) - g(x_0)| \end{aligned}$$

- For the middle inequality, use Chapter 5, Exercise 8.
- For the right inequality, use the uniform convergence condition.
- For the left inequality, it will suffice to show the Cauchy condition

$$\left| \frac{f_n(x) - f_n(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \frac{f_m(x) - f_m(x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

so, noting that the left term above is equal to

$$\left| \frac{[f_n(x) - f_m(x)] - [f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)]}{x - x_0} \right|$$

which is equal to  $|f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)|$  by the MVT, from which we can apply the Cauchy form of the uniform convergence of  $(f_n)'$  condition.

- **Pointwise bounded** ( $\{f_n\}$ ): A sequence of real functions  $\{f_n\}$  such that for all  $x \in X$ , there exists  $M_x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M_x$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- **Uniformly bounded** ( $\{f_n\}$ ): A sequence of real functions  $\{f_n\}$  for which there exists  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x \in X$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|f_n(x)| \leq M$ .
- Proposition:  $f_n : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\{f_n\}$  is pointwise bounded, and  $E$  is countable implies there is a subsequence  $\{f_{n_k}\}$  that converges pointwise.
  - Enumerate  $E = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ .
  - Then since  $\{f_n(x_m)\}$  is bounded for all  $m$  by hypothesis, it always has a convergent subsequence.
  - The claim is if you look at the sequence of diagonal functions, it is such a subsequence, i.e., if  $f_1(x_1)$  is the first term for  $x_1$ ,  $f_3(x_2)$  is the second term for  $x_2$ ,  $f_{11}(x_3)$  is the third term for  $x_3$ , and so on,  $f_1, f_3, f_{11}, \dots$  is such a subsequence.

2/9: • Build up to the Arzelà-Ascoli theorem.

2/11: • The Arzelà-Ascoli theorem.

# Chapter 9

## Functions of Several Variables

### 9.1 Notes

2/14:

- Plan:
  1. Warm-up with matrices.
  2. The total derivatives of  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  ( $n = m = 2$ , i.e.,  $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ).
  3. Basic properties: Chain rule, relation with partial derivatives, implicit function theorem.
- Let  $V, W$  be finite-dimensional vector spaces over  $\mathbb{R}$ . We let  $L(V, W)$  be the vector space of all linear transformations  $\phi : V \rightarrow W$ .
- If we pick bases  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  of  $V$  and  $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_m$  of  $W$ , then  $V \cong \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $W \cong \mathbb{R}^m$ . It follows that  $L(V, W) \cong \mathbb{R}^{mn}$ .
- $L(V, W) \times L(W, U) \xrightarrow{\text{compose}} L(V, U)$ , i.e.,  $\mathbb{R}^{mn} \times \mathbb{R}^{nl} \xrightarrow[\text{mult.}]{\text{matrix}} \mathbb{R}^{ml}$ .
- Sup norm: If  $A$  is an  $m \times n$  real matrix, then  $\|A\| = \sup_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ |\mathbf{x}|=1}} |A\mathbf{x}|$ .
  - Basic properties:
    1.  $|A\mathbf{x}| \leq \|A\| |\mathbf{x}|$ .
    2.  $\|A\| < \infty$  and all  $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  are uniformly continuous.
    3.  $\|A\| = 0 \iff A = 0$ .
    4.  $\|cA\| = |c| \|A\|$ .
    5.  $\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$ .
    6.  $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$ .
  - Note that we get a metric space structure on  $L(V, W)$  by defining  $d(A, B) = \|A - B\|$ .
- Proves that 1 and 2 imply the uniform continuity of all  $A$  (via Lipschitz continuity).
- **Differentiable** (function  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ ): A function  $\mathbf{f} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  ( $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ) such that to  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$  there corresponds some linear transformation  $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that
$$\lim_{\mathbf{h} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}} \frac{|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) - A\mathbf{h}|}{|\mathbf{h}|} = 0$$
- **Total derivative** (of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ ): The linear transformation  $A$  in the above definition. Denoted by  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$ ,  $D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ ,  $d\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ .
- “An proof and progress in mathematics” - Thurston.

- Relating to the old one dimensional derivative.
- A paper we'd find rather impressionistic right now.

- Propositions ahead of us.

- Proposition: Suppose that  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$  and  $A, B$  are both derivatives of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ . Then  $A = B$ .
- Proposition: Differentiable implies continuous.
- Proposition: Sum rule, product rule, quotient rule.

2/16:

- Plan: Derivatives of functions  $\mathbf{f} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  where  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- Basic properties: Differentiability implies continuity,  $(\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g})' = \mathbf{f}' + \mathbf{g}'$ ,  $(c\mathbf{f})' = c\mathbf{f}'$ , chain rule,  $\mathbf{f}' = 0$  iff  $\mathbf{f}$  is constant.
- Relationship with partial derivatives (how we compute everything and anything).
- When is  $\mathbf{f}$  differentiable?
- Inverse function theorem.
- Implicit function theorem.

- **Continuously differentiable** (function  $\mathbf{f}$ ): A function  $\mathbf{f} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  that is differentiable for all  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$  and such that  $\mathbf{f}' : U \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  is continuous. *Also known as  $\mathcal{C}^1$ .*

- Proposition: Let  $\mathbf{f} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ . Then  $\mathbf{f}$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .

- The proof makes use of the fact that  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{h})$ .

- Proposition: Given  $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  both differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ , then  $\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g}$  is also differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  with

$$(\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g})'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0) + \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

- The proof is immediate via the triangle inequality.

- Theorem (Chain Rule): Given  $\mathbf{f} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbf{g} : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ , where  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{f}(U) \subset V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , with  $\mathbf{f}$  differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  differentiable at  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ , the composition  $\mathbf{g} \circ \mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  with

$$(\mathbf{g} \circ \mathbf{f})'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)) \cdot \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

- The proof is rather subtle.

- **Partial derivative** (of  $f_i$  wrt.  $x_j$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ ): The following limit, if it exists, where  $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , and  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Denoted by  $(\partial \mathbf{f}_i / \partial x_j)(\mathbf{x}_0)$ ,  $(D_j \mathbf{f}_i)(\mathbf{x}_0)$ . Given by

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_i(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{e}_j) - f_i(\mathbf{x}_0)}{t}$$

- **Directional derivative** (of  $f_i$  toward  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ): The following limit, if it exists, where  $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . Denoted by  $D_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{f}_i$ . Given by

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f_i = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_i(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{u}) - f_i(\mathbf{x}_0)}{t}$$

- **Jacobian**: The following matrix. Given by

$$\left[ \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right]$$

- Theorem: Let  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_m) : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , where  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , be differentiable at some  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ . Then the partial derivatives  $\partial f_i / \partial x_j$  ( $1 \leq i \leq m$ ;  $1 \leq j \leq n$ ) exist at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  and, with respect to the usual choice of bases,

$$\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \left[ \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right]$$

2/18:      – We have that

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_j) + \mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_j)$$

- Since  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ ,  $\mathbf{f}(t\mathbf{e}_j)/t \rightarrow 0$  as  $t \rightarrow 0$ .
- Additionally,  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_j)/t = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{e}_j)$ .
- Therefore,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_j)}{t} = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{e}_j) - \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_j)}{t} = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{e}_j)$$

as desired.

- Unpacking the definition of the linear transformation as a matrix gives the rest of the proof.

- Today:

- More on differentiation (recall the Jacobian).
- Sufficient condition for differentiability.
- $\mathbf{f}' = 0$  iff  $\mathbf{f}$  is constant.
- State the inverse function theorem.

- It is not true that having all partials exist implies that  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .

- Theorem:  $\mathbf{f}$  continuously differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  iff all partials exist and are continuous at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ .

2/21:      • Contraction mapping theorem.

2/23:      • Plan.

1. Proof of the inverse function theorem.
2. Commuting partials.

- Theorem (Inverse function theorem): If  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open,  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E$ , and  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is invertible, then there exist  $U \subset E$  open with  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$  and  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open with  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) \in V$  such that  $\mathbf{f}|_U : U \rightarrow V$  is a bijection and  $(\mathbf{f}|_U)^{-1}$  is continuously differentiable.

- Idea.

1. Find  $U$  and prove one-to-one restricted to  $U$ .
2.  $\mathbf{f}(U)$  is open.
3. Prove the inverse is continuously differentiable (left as an exercise to us).

- There is a trick for 1-2: We introduce an auxiliary function  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  and apply the contraction mapping theorem.

- Proof.

- Let  $A = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$ .
- Since  $\mathbf{f}'$  is continuous, there is an open ball  $U \subset E$  with center  $\mathbf{x}_0$  such that  $\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) - A\| < \lambda$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ .
  - We'll pick  $\lambda = 1/(2\|A^{-1}\|)$  without motivation for now.

- Note that if you need to pick a  $U$  (for an example function), this criterion gives you one (not necessarily the best one, but it gives you a one).
- Trick: For all  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , consider  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by

$$\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + A^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))$$

- Important property of this function:  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$  iff  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$ .
- Plan: Show that for all  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{f}(U)$  that  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  is a contraction. Therefore, by the contraction mapping theorem,  $\mathbf{f}$  has exactly 1 fixed point, so  $\mathbf{f}|_U$  is injective.
- Proving that  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  is a contraction. Claim:  $|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$ . Use the Chain Rule, MVT, and the fact that  $\|AB\| \leq \|A\|\|B\|$ .
- Using the chain rule, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi'_{\mathbf{y}} &= I - A^{-1}\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= A^{-1}(A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}))\end{aligned}$$

- Thus,

$$\|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \|A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| < \frac{1}{2}$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}$ .

- It follows by the MVT that

$$|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$$

- Therefore,  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  is a contraction.
- We now prove that  $\mathbf{f}(U)$  is open.
- Let  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in \mathbf{f}(U)$  be such that  $\mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p}_0)$ .
- Pick  $B_r(\mathbf{p}_0) \subset U$  such that  $\overline{B} \subset U$ .
- Claim: For all  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_0| < \lambda r$ , we have that  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{f}(U)$ .
  - We are going to show that  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\overline{B}) \subset \overline{B}$  and therefore  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}} : \overline{B} \rightarrow \overline{B}$  is a contraction and therefore by the contraction mapping theorem, there exists a fixed point  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{y}}$  of  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  in  $\overline{B}$ . Therefore,  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{y}}) = \mathbf{y}$  and so  $\mathbf{f}(U)$  is open.
- $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  is derived from Newton's method. The contraction mapping thing then is what substitutes for convergence. You have to start in the right area though, the chosen  $U$ !

2/25:

- Plan:
  1. A point on the IFT.
  2. Commuting partials.
  3. Implicit function theorem.
- Subtle point: Last time, in the proof of the IFT, we first found the  $U \subset E$  and prove that  $\mathbf{f}|_U$  is injective, and then we proved that  $\mathbf{f}(U)$  is open.
- The properties of  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ .
  - $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(U) \subset U$ .
  - $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$  is a contraction since  $|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$ .
  - $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$  iff  $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$  (fixed points for this contraction mapping).
- Commuting partials.

- When does the following hold?

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

- Simple answer: Not often, but with enough regularity, yes.

- Theorem: Given  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , we say that  $f$  is  $C^2$  (or of class  $C^2$ )
- **Class  $C^2$**  (function  $f$ ): A function  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (where  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ) such that all partials  $\partial^2 f / \partial x_j \partial x_i$  exist and are continuous for all points in  $E$ . Denoted by  $\mathbf{f} \in C^2$ .
- Lemma (MVT): If  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  open,  $f : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\partial f / \partial x$ ,  $\partial^2 f / \partial y \partial x$  exist for all  $(x, y) \in E$ ,  $Q = [a, a+h] \times [b, b+k] \subset E$ , and

$$\Delta(f, Q) = f(a+h, b+k) - f(a+h, b) + f(a, b+k) - f(a, b)$$

then there exists  $(x_0, y_0) \in Q$  such that

$$\Delta(f, Q) = hk \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$

- Proof idea: We reduce to the goal of the 1D MVT.
- Define  $u(t) = f(t, b+k) - f(t, b)$ . Then  $u$  is differentiable by the sum and scalar multiple rules.
- It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta(f, Q) &= u(a+h) - u(a) \\ &= hu'(x_0) \\ &= h \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right] \\ &= hk \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x}(x_0, y_0) \end{aligned}$$

- Theorem: If  $f \in C^2$ , then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

for all  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ .

- Idea.
  - To make life easy, take  $n = 2$ . Then we just need the right kind of mean value theorem (the one in the lemma).
- Proof.
  - Follows from the lemma as  $h, k \rightarrow 0$ .
  - See Theorem 15.3 in Labalme (2021).

2/28:

- Plan:
  1. Implicit function theorem (end of Chapter 9).
  2. Sharkovsky's theorem.
  3. Go back and talk about Chapter 8 material.

- Theorem (Implicit Function Theorem; informal): Given a nice system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(c_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

and a particular solution  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ , we can solve for  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$  locally at  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ .

- Theorem (Implicit Function Theorem): If  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ ,  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  continuously differentiable,  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \in E$  with  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $A = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ ,  $A_{\mathbf{x}} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{0})$  invertible, and  $A_{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by  $\mathbf{y} \mapsto \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{y})$ , then there exists  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ ,  $W \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  with  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \in U$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in W$  such that:

1. For every  $\mathbf{y} \in W$ , there exists a unique  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in U$  and  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{0}$ .
2. There is a continuously differentiable function  $\mathbf{g} : W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{0}$$

for all  $\mathbf{y} \in W$  and

$$\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b}) = -(A_{\mathbf{x}})^{-1}A_{\mathbf{y}}$$

- Example: Consider  $f : \mathbb{R}^{1+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $(x, y) \mapsto x^2 + y^2 - 1$ .
  - Then  $f^{-1}(\{0\})$  is the unit circle.
  - $Df = [2x \quad 2y]$ ,  $A_x = [2x]$ , and  $A_y = [2y]$ .
- Idea:
  - Use the inverse function theorem, and apply it to  $A_{\mathbf{x}}$ .
  - Goal: Find  $U$  and  $W$ ; from this,  $\mathbf{g}$  follows uniquely (though you also technically need to show continuous differentiability).
  - Define  $F : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$  by  $F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), \mathbf{y})$ . Claim:  $F'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  is invertible. Apply the inverse function theorem to  $F$ .
- Proof left to us.
- The goal of Sharkovsky's theorem is to understand the iterates of  $f$ , i.e.,  $x, f(x), f^2(x), f^3(x), \dots$ . This fits in thematically with the contraction mapping theorem.
- **Periodic** (point  $p \in I$ ): A point  $p \in I$  for which  $f^m(p) = p$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- **Period** (of  $p \in I$  periodic): The least number  $m$  such that  $f^m(p) = p$ .
- **Fixed point**: A periodic point of period 1.
- Example:  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  defined by  $f(x) = 1 - x$  has periodic points of period 2 everywhere on its domain save  $1/2$ , which has period 1.
- Theorem: If  $f$  has a point  $p$  of period 3, then  $f$  has points of all other periods.
- **Sharkovsky ordering**: All of the odd numbers, then  $2^1$  times the odd numbers, then  $2^2$  times the odd numbers, then continuing for  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and then  $2^n$  as large as possible all the way down to 1.
  - If  $n$  comes before  $m$  in the Sharkovsky ordering, we write  $n \triangleright m$ .
- Sharkovsky's theorem: If  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous satisfies  $f(A) \subset A$  and has a period  $m$  point with  $m \triangleright l$ , then  $f$  has a period  $l$  point.
- Example: Logistic maps  $g_b : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  defined by  $x \mapsto bx(1 - x)$  for  $b \in [1, 4]$ .



- 3/2:
- Theorem (Li & Yorke): If  $f$  has a period 3 point, then there exists an uncountable set  $S \subset A$  such that for all  $p, q \in S$ ,

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f^n(p) - f^n(q)| = 0 \qquad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f^n(p) - f^n(q)| > 0$$

- Plan:

1. Prove the warm-up to Sharkovsky.

- Theorem: If  $f$  continuous has a period 3 point, then  $f$  has points of all other periods.
- Notation.
  - We say “ $I$  covers  $J$ ” and write  $I \rightarrow J$  when  $I, J \subset A$  are closed intervals with  $f(I) \supset J$ .
- Lemma 1: If  $[a, b] \rightarrow [a, b]$ , then  $f$  continuous has a fixed point in  $[a, b]$ .
  - Consider  $f(x) - x$  on  $[a, b]$ .
  - Either  $f(a) = a$ ,  $f(b) = b$ , or we can invoke the IVT.
  - Alternatively, since  $[a, b] \subset f([a, b])$ , there exist  $a_0, b_0$  with  $f(a_0) = a$  and  $f(b_0) = b$ . Thus,  $f(a_0) - a_0 \leq 0$  and  $f(b_0) - b_0 \geq 0$ , so by the IVT, there is some zero of  $f(x) - x$  on  $[a, b]$ , as desired.
- Lemma 2:  $p$  has period  $m$  iff  $p$  is a fixed point of  $f^m$  and not a fixed point of  $f^i$  for  $i < m$ .
- Lemma 3: Suppose we have a loop of intervals  $J_0 \rightarrow J_1 \rightarrow J_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow J_{n-1} \rightarrow J_0 \rightarrow \cdots$ . Then there is a fixed point  $p \in J_0$  of  $f^n$  such that  $f^i(p) \in J_i$  for all  $0 \leq i < n$ .

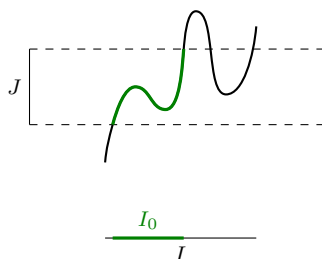


Figure 9.1: Loop mapping.

- Isn't this obvious? No – there's an issue, namely that  $f(J_i) \not\subset J_{i+1}$ . We can solve this though by noting that if  $I \rightarrow J$ , then there exists some subinterval  $I_0 \subset I$  such that  $f(I_0) \subset J$  and  $I_0 \rightarrow J$  (i.e.,  $f(I_0) = J$ ).
- You can use this idea to pull a  $J'_i$  out of each  $J_i$  for which set equality holds.
- Then by the previous lemma, there exists a fixed point  $p$  of  $f^n$  in  $J'_0$ . Then  $f(p) \in J'_1 \subset J_1, \dots, f^{n-1}(p) \in J'_{n-1} \subset J_{n-1}$ .
- Notation.
  - In the case of Lemma 3, we say that  $p$  is **following** the cycle  $J_0 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow J_{n-1} \rightarrow J_0 \rightarrow \cdots$ .
  - We call  $J_0 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow J_{n-1} \rightarrow J_0 \rightarrow \cdots$  **elementary** if it is only followed by points of period  $n$ .
- Lemma: Let  $q$  have period  $m$  and let  $\mathcal{O} = \{q, f(q), \dots, f^{m-1}(q)\}$ . Let  $J_0 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow J_{n-1} \rightarrow J_0 \rightarrow \cdots$  and suppose
  - (i) all endpoints of the  $J_i$  are in  $\mathcal{O}$ ;

- (ii) the loop is not followed by any point in  $\mathcal{O}$ ;
- (iii) The interior of  $J_0$ ,  $\text{int}(J_0)$  is disjoint from the other  $J_i$ .

Then the loop is elementary, and so  $f$  has a period  $n$  point.

- Suppose  $p$  follows the loop.
- Then by (i) and (ii),  $p$  is not an endpoint of  $J_0$ , so if  $f^i(p) = p \in J_0$  for  $i < n$ , then  $\text{int}(J_0) \cap J_i$ , contradicting (iii).

3/4:

- Plan:
  1. Finish 3 implies all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ .
  2. Hint at the rest of Sharkovsky.
  3. Power series/fun with the exponential function (Chapter 8).
- Theorem (warm-up Sharkovsky): If  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  continuous,  $f(I) \subset I$ , and  $f$  has a period 3 point, then  $f$  has a period  $n$  point for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
  - Consider the three point loop.
  - Let  $I_1$  be the interval from  $p_0$  to  $p_1$ , and let  $I_2$  be the interval from  $p_1$  to  $p_2$ . We can choose  $p_0, p_1, p_2$  WLOG such that  $I_1 \cap I_2 = \{p_1\}$ .
  - We have  $I_1 \rightarrow I_2$ ,  $I_2 \rightarrow I_2$ , and  $I_2 \rightarrow I_1$ .
  - We may construct

$$I_1 \xrightarrow[m-1 \text{ times}]{I_2} I_1$$

to yield a point of period  $m$  by the last lemma.

- Period 1 point:  $I_2 \rightarrow I_2$  apply Lemma 1.

## 9.2 Chapter 9: Functions of Several Variables

From Rudin (1976).

2/15:

- Defines a vector space by the closure of its elements under addition and scalar multiplication.
- Defines a linear combination, span, independence and dependence, dimension, basis, coordinates, and the standard basis.
- Theorem 9.2: If  $X$  is spanned by  $r$  vectors,  $\dim X \leq r$ .
- Corollary:  $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$ .
- Theorem 9.3: Let  $X$  a vector space with  $\dim X = n$ .
  - (a)  $E \subset X$  containing  $n$  vectors spans  $X$  iff  $E$  is independent.
  - (b)  $X$  has a basis, and every basis contains  $n$  vectors.
  - (c) If  $1 \leq r \leq n$  and  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_r\}$  is independent in  $X$ , then  $X$  has a basis containing  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_r\}$ .
- Defines linear transformation, linear operator.
- Notes that  $A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$  if  $A$  is a linear transformation, and that  $A$  is completely determined by its action on any basis.
- **Invertible** (linear operator): A linear operator  $A$  that is one-to-one and onto.
- Theorem 9.5:  $A$  a linear operator on  $X$  finite-dimensional is one-to-one iff it is onto.

- Defines  $L(X, Y)$ ,  $L(X)$ , the product  $BA$  of two linear transformations, and the supremum norm of a linear transformation.
- Theorem 9.7:
  - (a)  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  implies  $\|A\| < \infty$  and  $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  uniformly continuous.
  - (b)  $A, B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  and  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  implies

$$\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\| \qquad \|cA\| = |c|\|A\|$$

Defining  $d(A, B) = \|A - B\|$  makes  $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  a metric space.

- (c)  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  and  $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^k)$  implies

$$\|BA\| \leq \|B\|\|A\|$$

- Theorem 9.8: Let  $\Omega$  be the set of all invertible linear operators on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

- (a)  $A \in \Omega$ ,  $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , and  $\|B - A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| < 1$  implies  $B \in \Omega$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\|A^{-1}\| = 1/\alpha$ , and let  $\|B - A\| = \beta$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|B - A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| &< 1 \\ \beta \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha} &< 1 \\ \beta &< \alpha \end{aligned}$$

To prove that  $B \in \Omega$ , the definition of invertibility and Theorem 9.5 tell us that it will suffice to show that  $B$  is 1-1. To do so, it will suffice to show that  $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  iff  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Let's begin. Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha|\mathbf{x}| &= \alpha|A^{-1}A\mathbf{x}| \leq \alpha\|A^{-1}\| \cdot |A\mathbf{x}| = |A\mathbf{x}| \leq |(A - B)\mathbf{x}| + |B\mathbf{x}| \leq \beta|\mathbf{x}| + |B\mathbf{x}| \\ (\alpha - \beta)|\mathbf{x}| &\leq |B\mathbf{x}| \end{aligned}$$

It follows that if  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then  $|B\mathbf{x}| > 0$ . This combined with the fact that  $B\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$  implies the desired result.  $\square$

- (b)  $\Omega$  is open in  $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $A \mapsto A^{-1}$  is continuous on  $\Omega$ .

*Proof.* To prove that  $\Omega$  is open in  $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , it will suffice to show that for all  $A \in \Omega$ , there exists  $N_r(A)$  such that if  $\|B - A\| < r$ , then  $B \in \Omega$ . Let's begin. Let  $A \in \Omega$  be arbitrary. Choose  $N_\alpha(A)$  to be our neighborhood, where  $\alpha$  is defined as in part (a). Let  $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n)$  satisfy  $\|B - A\| < \alpha$ . Then  $\|B - A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| < 1$ , so  $B \in \Omega$  by part (a), as desired.

To prove that  $A \mapsto A^{-1}$  is continuous, it will suffice to show that  $\|B^{-1} - A^{-1}\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $B \rightarrow A$ . First off, we have by part (a) and the substitution  $\mathbf{x} = B^{-1}\mathbf{y}$  ( $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ) that

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha - \beta)|B^{-1}\mathbf{y}| &\leq |BB^{-1}\mathbf{y}| = |\mathbf{y}| \\ \left| B^{-1} \left( \frac{\mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|} \right) \right| &\leq (\alpha - \beta)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, since  $|B^{-1}\mathbf{u}|$  is bounded by  $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$  for every unit vector  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\|B^{-1}\|$  is bounded by  $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$ . This combined with the fact that

$$\begin{aligned} B^{-1} - A^{-1} &= B^{-1}I - IA^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}AA^{-1} - B^{-1}BA^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}(A - B)A^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

implies by Theorem 9.7c that

$$\|B^{-1} - A^{-1}\| \leq \|B^{-1}\| \|A - B\| \|A^{-1}\| \leq (\alpha - \beta)^{-1} \cdot \beta \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha} = \frac{\beta}{\alpha(\alpha - \beta)}$$

Therefore, since  $\beta \rightarrow 0$  as  $B \rightarrow A$ , the above inequality establishes the desired result.  $\square$

- Note that the mapping  $A \mapsto A^{-1}$  defined in Theorem 9.8b is a 1-1 mapping of  $\Omega$  onto  $\Omega$  and its own inverse.
- Defines matrices, column vectors, and matrix multiplication.
- From the Schwarz inequality, we can show that

$$\|A\| \leq \left( \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

- “If  $S$  is a metric space, if  $a_{11}, \dots, a_{mn}$  are real continuous functions on  $S$ , and if for each  $p \in S$ ,  $A_p$  is the linear transformation of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  whose matrix has entries  $a_{ij}(p)$ , then the mapping  $p \rightarrow A_p$  is a continuous mapping of  $S$  into  $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ ” (Rudin, 1976, p. 211).
- Rudin (1976) spends some time motivating the definition of the total derivative. He also discusses the natural 1-1 correspondence between  $\mathbb{R}^1$  and  $L(\mathbb{R}^1)$ .
- Defines differentiability in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Theorem 9.12:  $A_1, A_2$  the derivative of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{x}$  implies  $A_1 = A_2$ .
- If  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  where  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\mathbf{f}' : E \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ .
- $\mathbf{f}$  differentiable implies  $\mathbf{f}$  continuous.
- Example ( $\mathbf{f}$  is linear):

– If  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ , then  $A'(\mathbf{x}) = A$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Note that this means that  $A' : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ , as expected.

- Theorem 9.15 (Chain Rule):  $E$  open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E$ ,  $I \supset \mathbf{f}(E)$  open in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $\mathbf{g} : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  differentiable at  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$  implies  $\mathbf{F} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  defined by

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))$$

is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  with

$$\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)^{[1]}$$

*Proof.* Largely symmetric to that of the one-dimensional chain rule in Chapter 5.  $\square$

- **Components** (of  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ): The real functions  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  defined by

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{u}_i$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  or, equivalently, by  $f_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq m$ ), where  $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Note that the right-hand side of this equation contains the product of two linear transformations.

- Defines partial derivatives.
- Theorem 9.17:  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open and  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  differentiable at  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  imply the partial derivatives  $(D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x})$  exist and

$$\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_j = \sum_{i=1}^m (D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{u}_i$$

for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .

- It follows that

$$[\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})] = \begin{bmatrix} (D_1 f_1)(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & (D_n f_1)(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ (D_1 f_m)(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & (D_n f_m)(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Discusses the gradient and the directional derivative.
- Theorem 9.19:  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  convex and open,  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  differentiable in  $E$ , and there exists  $M$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| \leq M$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  implies

$$|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})| \leq M|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}|$$

for all  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in E$ .

- Corollary: If, in addition,  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , then  $\mathbf{f}$  is constant.
- **Continuously differentiable** (mapping  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ): A function  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that  $\mathbf{f}' : E \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  is continuous. *Also known as  $\mathcal{C}^1$ -mapping. Denoted by  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathcal{C}^1(E)$ .*
- Theorem 9.21: Let  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open and  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathcal{C}^1(E)$  iff the partial derivatives  $D_j f_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq m; 1 \leq j \leq n$ ) exist and are continuous on  $E$ .

2/20:

- **Contraction** (of  $X$  into  $X$ ): A function  $\varphi : X \rightarrow X$  for which there exists a number  $c < 1$  such that

$$d(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) \leq c \cdot d(x, y)$$

for all  $x, y \in X$ , where  $X$  is a metric space with metric  $d$ .

- Theorem 9.23:  $X$  a complete metric space and  $\phi$  a contraction of  $X$  into  $X$  implies there exists a unique  $x \in X$  such that  $\varphi(x) = x$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x_0 \in X$  be arbitrary. Define  $\{x_n\}$  recursively by

$$x_{n+1} = \phi(x_n)$$

for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . Let  $c < 1$  be the number corresponding to the contraction  $\varphi$ . Then for  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) = d(\varphi(x_n), \varphi(x_{n-1})) \leq c \cdot d(x_n, x_{n-1})$$

or, for  $n \geq 0$ ,

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) \leq c^n d(x_1, x_0)$$

by induction. Now to prove that  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy, it will suffice to show that for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N$  such that  $m \geq n \geq N$  implies  $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$ . But since

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_n, x_m) &\leq \sum_{i=n+1}^m d(x_i, x_{i-1}) \\ &\leq (c^n + c^{n+1} + \cdots + c^{m-1})d(x_1, x_0) \\ &\leq [(1-c)^{-1}d(x_1, x_0)]c^n \end{aligned}$$

we can simply choose  $N$  large enough that  $[(1-c)^{-1}d(x_1, x_0)]c^N < \epsilon$ . Thus, since  $\{x_n\}$  is Cauchy and  $X$  is complete, there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ . Therefore, since  $\varphi$  is Lipschitz continuous, we have that

$$\varphi(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = x$$

as desired.

Now suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists  $y \neq x$  such that  $\varphi(y) = y$ . Then since  $\varphi$  is a contraction,

$$d(y, x) = d(\varphi(y), \varphi(x)) \leq c \cdot d(y, x) < d(y, x)$$

a contradiction.  $\square$

- Theorem 9.24 (Inverse Function Theorem):  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open,  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  a  $\mathcal{C}^1$ -mapping,  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})$  invertible for some  $\mathbf{a} \in E$ , and  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})$  implies

- (a) There exist  $U, V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open with  $\mathbf{a} \in U$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in V$  such that  $\mathbf{f}$  is 1-1 on  $U$  and  $\mathbf{f}(U) = V$ .

*Proof.* Let  $A = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})$ . Choose  $\lambda$  such that

$$2\lambda\|A^{-1}\| = 1$$

Define<sup>[2]</sup> for each  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  a function  $\varphi$  by

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + A^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ . (Note that a key property of  $\varphi$  is that as defined,  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$  iff  $\mathbf{x}$  is a fixed point of  $\varphi$ .) Now since  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathcal{C}^1$  and hence  $\mathbf{f}'$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{a}$ , there exists an open ball  $B_r(\mathbf{a}) \subset E$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) - A\| < \lambda$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in B_r(\mathbf{a})$ . Let  $U = B_r(\mathbf{a})$ . Clearly it follows that  $U$  is open. Thus, since each  $\varphi'(\mathbf{x}) = I - A^{-1}\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}(A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}))$ , we have that

$$\|\varphi'(\mathbf{x})\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \|A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| < \frac{1}{2\lambda} \cdot \lambda = \frac{1}{2}$$

Consequently, we have by Theorem 9.19 that for all  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in U$ ,

$$|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$$

Thus, by the uniqueness argument in the proof of Theorem 9.23,  $\varphi$  has at most one fixed point in  $U$ , so  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$  for at most one  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ . Therefore,  $\mathbf{f}$  is 1-1 on  $U$ .

Let  $V = \mathbf{f}(U)$ . To prove that  $V$  is open, it will suffice to show that for all  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in V$ , there exists an open subset of  $V$  containing  $\mathbf{y}_0$  such that. Let  $\mathbf{y}_0 \in V$  be arbitrary. By the definition of  $V$  as the image of  $U$  under  $\mathbf{f}$ , there exists  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$  such that  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$ . As such, choose  $B_r(\mathbf{x}_0)$  such that  $\overline{B} \subset U$ . Pick  $\mathbf{y}$  satisfying  $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_0| < \lambda r$ . Then

$$|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{x}_0| = |A^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_0)| < \|A\|\lambda r = \frac{r}{2}$$

so for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{B}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |\varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{x}_0| &\leq |\varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_0)| + |\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{x}_0| \\ &< \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| + \frac{r}{2} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot r + \frac{r}{2} \\ &= r \end{aligned}$$

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<sup>2</sup>How do we motivate this definition?

Thus,  $\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) \in B$ . Moreover, since  $|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$  naturally holds for all  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \overline{B} \subset U$ , we have that  $\varphi$  is a contraction of  $\overline{B}$  into  $\overline{B}$ . Additionally, since  $\overline{B} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed, it is a complete metric space under the Euclidean metric. Thus, Theorem 9.23 implies that  $\varphi$  has a fixed point  $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{B}$ . In particular,  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$ . Therefore,  $\mathbf{y} \in f(\overline{B}) \subset \mathbf{f}(U) = V$ , as desired.  $\square$

(b) If  $\mathbf{g}$  is the inverse of  $\mathbf{f}$  on  $V$  [which exists by (a)], i.e.,

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in U$ , then  $\mathbf{g} \in \mathcal{C}^1(V)$ .

*Proof.* We first show that for all  $\mathbf{y} \in V$ ,  $\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = [\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}))]^{-1}$ . Let  $\mathbf{y} \in V$  be arbitrary, and choose  $\mathbf{k}$  such that  $(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) \in V$ . It follows by part (a) that there exist  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h} \in U$  such that  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h})$ . Thus,

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h} + A^{-1}[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h})] = \mathbf{h} - A^{-1}\mathbf{k}$$

so

$$|\mathbf{h} - A^{-1}\mathbf{k}| = |\varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x})| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{x}| = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{h}|$$

Consequently,  $|A^{-1}\mathbf{k}| \geq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{h}|$ , so

$$|\mathbf{h}| \leq 2\|A^{-1}\|\|\mathbf{k}\| = \frac{\|\mathbf{k}\|}{\lambda}$$

Additionally, we know that  $\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) - A\|\|A^{-1}\| = 1/2 < 1$ , so Theorem 9.8a implies that  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})$  is invertible with an inverse that we may call  $T$ . Thus, since

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}) - T\mathbf{k} &= \mathbf{h} - T\mathbf{k} \\ &= -T[(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{y}] + T\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h} \\ &= -T[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}] \end{aligned}$$

we have that

$$\frac{|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}) - T\mathbf{k}|}{\|\mathbf{k}\|} \leq \frac{\|T\|\|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}\|}{\lambda|\mathbf{h}|}$$

Consequently,  $\mathbf{k} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$  implies that  $\mathbf{h} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ , which implies that the right side of the above inequality goes to zero, which implies that the left side of the above inequality goes to zero. Thus,  $\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = T$ , so

$$\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = [\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}))]^{-1}$$

for all  $\mathbf{y} \in V$ , as desired.

To prove that  $\mathbf{g}'$  is continuous on  $V$ , Theorem 4.7 and the above equation tell us that it will suffice to show that  $\mathbf{g} : V \rightarrow U$  is continuous,  $\mathbf{f}' : U \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is continuous, and  $M \mapsto M^{-1} : L(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is continuous. But we have the first condition since differentiability implies continuity and  $\mathbf{g}$  is differentiable, we have the second condition since  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathcal{C}^1$  by hypothesis, and we have the third condition by Theorem 9.8b, as desired.  $\square$

- Theorem 9.25:  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open,  $\mathbf{f} : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  a  $\mathcal{C}^1$ -mapping, and  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})$  invertible for all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  implies  $\mathbf{f}(W)$  open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for every open  $W \subset E$ .
  - Note that the hypotheses of this theorem guarantee that  $\mathbf{f}$  is locally 1-1 at each  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , but it may not be 1-1 in  $E$  under these conditions (see Exercise 9.17).

# References

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- Rudin, W. (1976). *Principles of mathematical analysis* (A. A. Arthur & S. L. Langman, Eds.; Third). McGraw-Hill.