

# Graph Rectifiability Summer Research

## Daily Report (in reverse chronological order)

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# 1 May 28-30

## 1.1 Exercises and Solutions

**Exercise 1.18** Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a decreasing sequence of Borel subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $A = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$ . If  $\mu$  is a measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\mu(A_1) < \infty$ , show using (1.6) that  $\mu(A_k) \rightarrow \mu(A)$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Solution 1.18** Consider that  $\{A_1 \setminus A_k\}$  is an increasing sequence as  $\{A_k\}$  decreasing. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (A_1 \setminus A_k)\right) &= \mu\left(A_1 \setminus \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right) = \mu(A_1) - \mu(A) \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_1 \setminus A_k) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (\mu(A_1) - \mu(A_k)) = \mu(A_1) - \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_k) \end{aligned}$$

As  $\mu(A_1) < \infty$ ,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_k) = \mu\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right)$

**Conclusion:** For a **decreasing sequence**  $A_k$  of Borel subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_k) = \mu\left(\bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k\right)$$

**Exercise 1.23** Let  $D$  be a Borel subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mu$  be a measure on  $D$  with  $\mu(D) < \infty$ . Let  $f_k : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence of functions such that  $f_k(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $D$ . Prove **Egoroff's theorem**: that given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a Borel subset  $A$  of  $D$  with  $\mu(D \setminus A) < \varepsilon$  such that  $f_k(x)$  converges to  $f(x)$  uniformly for  $x$  in  $A$ .

**Solution 1.23** Assume that for  $k, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $A_{k,n} = \{x \in D : |f_l(x) - f(x)| < 1/n, \forall l \geq k\}$  (so we consider  $\delta = 1/n$  here), then we have  $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_{k,n} = D$  and  $A_{1,n} \subset A_{2,n} \subset A_{3,n} \subset \dots$ . Next, by Property of measure 2.1.1:

$$\mu(D) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_{k,n}\right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_{k,n}) < \infty$$

Hence,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(D \setminus A_{k,n}) = \mu(D) - \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_{k,n}) = 0$$

Then,  $\exists k' \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t. whenever  $k \geq k'$ ,  $\mu(D \setminus A_{k,n}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2^n}$ . Next, we can construct  $A = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{k',n}$ , which is a Borel subset of  $D$  and satisfies:

$$\mu(D \setminus A) = \mu\left(D \setminus \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{k',n}\right) = \mu\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} D \setminus A_{k',n}\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mu(D \setminus A_{k',n}) < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon}{2^n} = \epsilon$$

As  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1$ , and  $A$  exists for the question. Finally,  $\forall \delta > 0, n > 1/\delta, \forall x \in A$  where  $x \in A_{k',n}$  as well, such that whenever  $k \in \mathbb{N}, k > k', |f_k(x) - f(x)| < 1/n < \delta \Rightarrow f_k(x)$  converges to  $f(x)$  uniformly for  $x$  in  $A$ .

**Note:**  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1$  is always used to construct  $\epsilon$  in analysis proofs.

**Exercise 1.24** Prove that if  $\mu$  is a measure on  $D$  and  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfies  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $D$  and  $\int_D f \, d\mu = 0$  then  $f(x) = 0$  for  $\mu$ -almost all  $x$ .

**Solution 1.24** Suppose  $f(x) \geq \epsilon > 0$  on a set  $E_\epsilon \subset D$  given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have for  $x \in D \setminus E_\epsilon, f(x) = 0$  and then:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_D f(x) d\mu \\ &= \int_{E_\epsilon} f(x) d\mu + \int_{D \setminus E_\epsilon} f(x) d\mu \\ &\text{As } \epsilon \chi_{E_\epsilon}(x) \text{ is a simple function and by the integral of more general functions} \\ &\geq \int \epsilon \chi_{E_\epsilon}(x) d\mu + 0 \\ &= \epsilon \mu(E_\epsilon) + 0 \end{aligned}$$

As  $\epsilon \mu(E_\epsilon) \leq 0$  while  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have  $\mu(E_\epsilon) = 0 \Rightarrow \mu(\bigcup_{\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+} E_\epsilon) = \mu(\{x : f(x) > 0\}) = 0 \Rightarrow f(x) = 0$  for  $\mu$ -a.e..

**Note:**

1.  $f(x) = 0$  for  $\mu$ -a.e  $\Leftrightarrow$  The set of points where  $f(x) \neq 0 (f(x) > 0$  in this case) has measure zero.
2.  $\int_E 1 d\mu = \mu(E)$

**Definition 1.1.1 (Simple Function)** Simple functions are sums of linear combination of characteristic functions, e.g.  $f(x) = \sum a_i \chi_{A_i}(x)$

## 2 May 27

### 2.1 Measurers and Mass Distributions(1.3)

**Definition 2.1.1 (Measure)** We call  $\mu$  a measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if  $\mu$  assigns a non-negative number, possibly  $\infty$ , to each subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that

(a)  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$

(b)  $\mu(A) \leq \mu(B)$  if  $A \subset B$

(c) if  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  is a countable (or finite) sequence of sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i)$$

with equality in above, that is

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_i),$$

if the  $A_i$  are disjoint Borel sets.

Condition (a) says that the **empty set has zero measure**, condition (b) says **'the larger the set, the larger the measure'** and condition (c) says that if a set is a union of a countable number of pieces (which may overlap), then the sum of the measure of the pieces is at least equal to the measure of the whole. If **a set is decomposed into a countable number of disjoint Borel sets**, then the **total measure of the pieces equals the measure of the whole**.

**Property 2.1.1 (Measure)**

1. if  $B \subset A$   $A$  and  $B$  are Borel sets with  $\mu(B)$  finite,

$$\mu(A \setminus B) = \mu(A) - \mu(B)$$

as  $A = B \cup (A \setminus B)$  and using Definition 2.1.1 (c).

2. if  $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots$  is an increasing sequence of Borel sets, then

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_i).$$

$$\text{as } \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = A_1 \cup (A_2 \setminus A_1) \cup (A_3 \setminus A_2) \cup \dots,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) &= \mu(A_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (\mu(A_{i+1}) - \mu(A_i)) \\ &= \mu(A_1) + \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^k (\mu(A_{i+1}) - \mu(A_i)) \\ &= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mu(A_k). \end{aligned}$$

3. A simple extension of above is that if, for  $\delta > 0$ ,  $A_\delta$  are Borel sets that are increasing as  $\delta$  decreases, that is,  $A_{\delta'} \subset A_\delta$  for  $0 < \delta < \delta'$ , then

$$\mu \left( \bigcup_{\delta > 0} A_\delta \right) = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \mu(A_\delta) .$$

**Definition 2.1.2 (Support of  $\mu$ )**

*spt  $\mu$ , is the smallest closed set  $X$  such that  $\mu(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus X) = 0$ .*

By above,  $x$  is in the support if and only if  $\forall r > 0, \mu(B(x, r)) > 0$ . We say that  $\mu$  ***is a measure on a set  $A$  if  $A$  contains the support of  $\mu$ .***

**Definition 2.1.3 (Mass Distributions)** *A measure on a bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for which  $0 < \mu(\mathbb{R}^n) < \infty$  will be called a mass distribution, and we think of  $\mu(A)$  as the mass of the set  $A$ .*

**Definition 2.1.4 (Lebsegue Measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ )**

$$\mathcal{L}^1(A) = \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (b_i - a_i) : A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} [a_i, b_i] \right\}$$

## 3 May 26

### 3.1 Exercises and Solutions

**Exercise 1.12** Let  $f, g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be Lipschitz functions. Show that the functions defined on  $[0, 1]$  by  $f(x) + g(x)$  and  $f(x)g(x)$  are also Lipschitz.

**Solution:**

(i) As  $f, g$  are Lipschitz function, we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c_1|x - y|$  and  $|g(x) - g(y)| \leq c_2|x - y|$  where  $\forall x, y \in [0, 1]$  and  $c_1, c_2 \geq 0$ . Then,  $|(f(x) + g(x)) - (f(y) + g(y))| = |f(x) - f(y) + g(x) - g(y)| \leq |f(x) - f(y)| + |g(x) - g(y)| \leq (c_1 + c_2) \cdot |x - y|, \forall x, y \in [0, 1]$ . Since  $(c_1 + c_2) \geq 0$ , the condition is satisfied and therefore the functions defined on  $[0, 1]$  by  $f(x) + g(x)$  is Lipschitz.

(ii) Consider that  $|f(x) - f(0)| \leq c_1|x| \leq c_1, x \in [0, 1]$ , so we have non-negative  $c_3 = |f(0)| + c_1 \geq |f(x)|$ . Similarly, we have non-negative  $c_4 \geq |g(x)|$

$$|f|, |g| < 1, \forall x, y \in [0, 1]$$

$$|f(x)g(x) - f(y)g(y)|$$

$$= |f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(y) + f(x)g(y) - f(y)g(y)|$$

$$= |f(x)(g(x) - g(y)) + g(y)(f(x) - f(y))|$$

$$\leq |g(y)||f(x) - f(y)| + |f(x)||g(x) - g(y)|$$

$$\leq c_1c_4|x - y| + c_2c_3|x - y|$$

$$\leq (c_1c_4 + c_2c_3)|x - y|$$

Since  $c_1c_4 + c_2c_3 \geq 0$ , the condition is satisfied and therefore the functions defined on  $[0, 1]$  by  $f(x)g(x)$  is Lipschitz.

**Exercise 1.13** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable with  $|f'(x)| \leq c$  for all  $x$ . Show, using the mean value theorem, that  $f$  is a Lipschitz function.

**Solution:**  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x \neq y$ , by mean-value theorem,  $\exists w \in (x, y)$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} &= f'(w) \\ \Rightarrow \left| \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} \right| &= |f'(w)| \leq c \\ \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| &\leq c|x - y| \quad (x, y \in \mathbb{R}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $f$  is a Lipschitz function.

**Exercise 1.14** Show that every Lipschitz function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

**Solution:** See proof wrote for Theorem 4.2.1.

**Exercise 1.15** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by  $f(x) = x^2 + x$ . Find (i)  $f^{-1}(2)$ , (ii)  $f^{-1}(-2)$  and (iii)  $f^{-1}([2, 6])$ .

**Solution:** As  $f(x) = x^2 + x$ ,  $x = -\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{1+4y}}{2}$

(i)  $f^{-1}(2) = \{-2, 1\}$

(ii)  $f^{-1}(-2) = \emptyset$

(iii) As  $x = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{1+4y}}{2}$  is increasing and  $x = -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{1+4y}}{2}$  is decreasing while  $y$  increasing,  $f^{-1}([2, 6]) = [-3, -2] \cup [1, 2]$

**Exercise 1.16** Show that  $f(x) = x^2$  is Lipschitz on  $[0, 2]$ , bi-Lipschitz on  $[1, 2]$  and not Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution:**

(i) As  $\forall x, y \in [0, 2]$ ,  $|x+y| \leq 4$ , we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| = |x^2 - y^2| = |x+y||x-y| \leq 4|x-y|$ . Thus,  $f$  is Lipschitz on  $[0, 2]$ .

(ii) Apparently,  $2|x-y| \leq |f(x) - f(y)| \leq 4|x-y|$  by above. As  $f([1, 2]) = [1, 4]$ ,  $\forall x, y \in [1, 4]$ ,  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ , we have:

$$|f^{-1}(x) - f^{-1}(y)| = |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{y}| = \left| \frac{x-y}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x-y|$$

$\Rightarrow$  so  $f^{-1}$  is Lipschitz on  $[1, 4]$ .

$\Rightarrow f$  is bi-Lipschitz on  $[1, 2]$ .

(iii) Let  $x = ky, k \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $\frac{|f(x) - f(y)|}{|x - y|} = \frac{|k^2y^2 - y^2|}{|ky - y|} = \left| \frac{k^2 - 1}{k - 1} \right| |y|$ , which is unbounded on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Therefore, the Lipschitz constant does not exist and  $f$  is not Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}$

## 4 May 25

### 4.1 Basic Set Theory(1.1)

Review and summary of some definitions and theorems:

**Definition 4.1.1 (Countable)** *An infinite set  $A$  is countable if its elements can be listed in the form  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  with every element appearing at a specific place in the list; otherwise, the set is uncountable*

**Definition 4.1.2 (Open)**  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open if,  $\forall x \in A, \exists B(x, r) \subset A$  where  $r > 0$ .

**Definition 4.1.3 (Closed)**  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed if, whenever  $\{x_k\} \in A, x_k \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $x \in A$ .

**Definition 4.1.4 (Closure)**  $\bar{A}$  is the intersection of all the closed sets containing a set  $A$ .

**Definition 4.1.5 (Interior)**  $\text{int}(A)$  is the union of all open sets contained in  $A$ .

Definition 4.1.4 and 4.1.5 shows that The closure of  $A$  is thought of as the **smallest closed set** containing  $A$ , and the interior as the **largest open set** contained in  $A$ .

**Definition 4.1.6 (Boundary)**  $\partial A = \bar{A} \setminus \text{int}(A)$

**Theorem 4.1.1**  $x \in \partial A \Leftrightarrow \forall r > 0, B(x, r) \cap A \neq \emptyset, B(x, r) \cap A^C \neq \emptyset$

**Definition 4.1.7 (Dense)** Set  $B$  is a dense in  $A$  if  $A \subset \bar{B}$ , that is, if there are points of  $B$  arbitrarily close to each point of  $A$ .

**Definition 4.1.8 (Compact)**  $A$  is compact if any collection of open sets that covers  $A$  has a finite subcollection which also covers  $A$ .

**Theorem 4.1.2** A compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is both closed and bounded.

**Theorem 4.1.3** The intersection of any collection of compact sets is compact.

**Definition 4.1.9 (Connected)**  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is connected if there not exists open sets  $U$  and  $V$  s.t.  $A \subset U \cup V$  with disjoint and nonempty  $A \cap U$  and  $A \cap V$ .

**Definition 4.1.10 (Connected Component)** Connected component of  $x$  is the largest connected subset of  $A$  containing a point  $x$ .

**Definition 4.1.11 (Disconnect)** The set  $A$  is totally disconnected if the connected component of each point consists of just that point.

The definition of *disconnect* also can be as:  $\exists$  open sets  $U$  and  $V$  s.t.  $x \in U, y \in V$  and  $A \subset U \cup V$ .

**Definition 4.1.12 (Borel Set)** Borel Sets is the smallest collection of subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the following properties:

1. Every open set and every closed set is a Borel set.
2. The union of every finite or countable collection of Borel sets is a Borel set, and the intersection of every finite or countable collection of Borel sets is a Borel set.

In short, Any set that can be constructed using a sequence of countable unions or intersections starting with the open sets or closed sets will certainly be Borel.



## 4.2 Functions and Limits(1.2)

**Definition 4.2.1 (Congruence)** The transformation  $S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is congruence or isometry if it preserves distances i.e. if  $|S(x) - S(y)| = |x - y|$  for  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Special cases include *translations*, which are of the form  $S(x) = x + a$  and have the effect of shifting points parallel to the vector  $a$ , *rotations* which have a centre  $a$  such that  $|S(x) - a| = |x - a|$  for all  $x$  (for convenience, we also regard the identity transformation given by  $I(x) = x$  as a rotation) and *reflections*, which maps points to their mirror images in some  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional plane. A congruence that may be achieved by a combination of a rotation and a translation, that is, does not involve reflection, is called a *rigid motion* or *direct congruence*. A transformation  $S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a *similarity* of ratio or scale  $c > 0$  if  $|S(x) - S(y)| = c|x - y|$  for all  $x, y$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . A similarity transforms sets into geometrically similar ones with all lengths multiplied by the factor  $c$ .

**Definition 4.2.2 (Linear Transformation)** A transformation  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is linear if  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$  and  $T(\lambda x) = \lambda T(x), \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

Such a linear transformation is *non-singular* if  $T(x) = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$ . If  $S : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is of the form  $S(x) = T(x) + a$ , where  $T$  is a non-singular linear transformation and  $a$  is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $S$  is called an *affine transformation* or an *affinity*. An affinity may be thought of as a shearing transformation; its contracting or expanding effect need not be the same in every direction. However, if  $T$  is orthonormal, then  $S$  is a congruence, and if  $T$  is a scalar multiple of an orthonormal transformation, then  $T$  is a similarity.

**Definition 4.2.3 (Hölder Function)** A function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is called a Hölder function of exponent  $\alpha$  if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y|^\alpha \quad (x, y \in X)$$

for some constant  $c \geq 0$ .

**Definition 4.2.4 (Lipschitz Function)** The function  $f$  is called Lipschitz if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y| \quad (x, y \in X)$$

and bi-Lipschitz if

$$c_1|x - y| \leq |f(x) - f(y)| \leq c_2|x - y| \quad (x, y \in X)$$

for  $0 < c_1 \leq c_2 < \infty$ , in which case both  $f$  and  $f^{-1} : f(X) \rightarrow X$  are Lipschitz functions.

**Definition 4.2.5 (Lower Limit)**

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) \equiv \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} (\inf\{f(x) : 0 < x < r\})$$

**Note:**  $\inf\{f(x) : 0 < x < r\}$  is either  $-\infty$  for all positive  $r$  or else increases as  $r$  decreases,  $\liminf_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  always exists.

**Definition 4.2.6 (Upper Limit)**

$$\overline{\lim}_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) \equiv \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} (\sup\{f(x) : 0 < x < r\})$$

**Note:** The lower and upper limits exist as real numbers or  $-\infty$  or  $\infty$  for every function  $f$  and are indicative of the variation of  $f$  for  $x$  close to 0, shown in Figure 1.

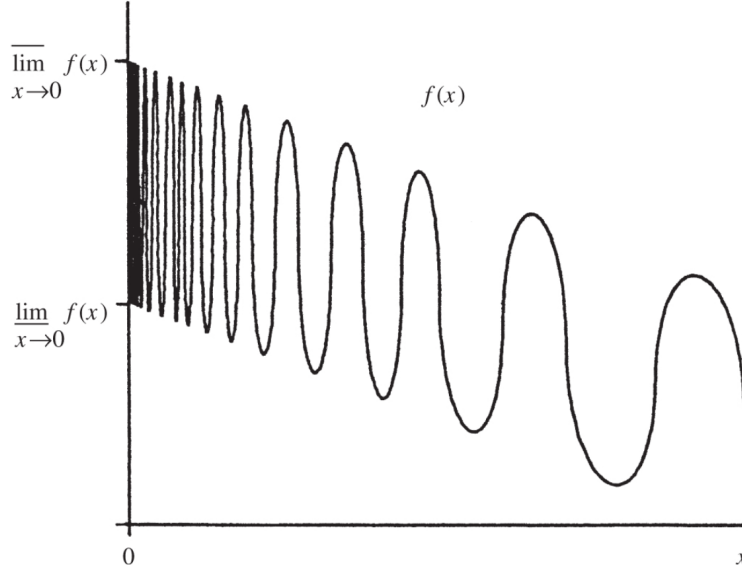


Figure 1: The upper and lower limits of a function.

We write  $f(x) \sim g(x)$  to mean that  $f(x)/g(x) \rightarrow 1$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ .

**Theorem 4.2.1 (Lipschitz functions are continuous)**

*Proof:* Assume that the function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a Lipschitz function s.t.  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y|$  ( $x, y \in X$ ) for some constant  $c \geq 0$ . Then,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{c}$ , and we have  $\forall x, y \in X, |x - y| < \delta \Rightarrow |x - y| < \frac{\epsilon}{c} \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| \leq c|x - y| \leq c \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{c} = \epsilon \Rightarrow$  Lipschitz functions are continuous.

**Definition 4.2.7 (Homeomorphism)** If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a continuous bijection with continuous inverse  $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ , then  $f$  is called a homeomorphism, and  $X$  and  $Y$  are termed homeomorphic sets.

**Corollary 4.2.1** Congruences, similarities and affine transformations on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are examples of homeomorphisms.

**Definition 4.2.8 (Differentiable)** If  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , we say that  $f$  is differentiable at  $x$  and has derivative given by the linear mapping  $f'(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(x+h) - f(x) - f'(x)h|}{|h|} = 0.$$

**Definition 4.2.9 (Pointwise Convergence)** For a sequence of functions:  $f_k : X \rightarrow Y$  where  $X$  and  $Y$  are subsets of Euclidean spaces.  $f_k$  converge pointwise to a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  if  $f_k(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Definition 4.2.10 (Uniform Convergence)** For a sequence of functions:  $f_k : X \rightarrow Y$  where  $X$  and  $Y$  are subsets of Euclidean spaces.  $f_k$  converge uniformly to a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  if  $\sup_{x \in X} |f_k(x) - f(x)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Note:** Uniform convergence is a stronger property than pointwise convergence i.e. Uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence, but not the other way around

**Definition 4.2.11 (Another Definition of Pointwise Convergence)** For each  $x \in D$ ,  $\forall \delta > 0$ ,  $\exists k_{x,\delta} > 0$ , s.t. whenever  $k > k_{x,\delta}$ ,  $|f_k(x) - f(x)| < \delta$ .

**Definition 4.2.12 (Another Definition of Uniform Convergence)**  $\forall \delta > 0$ ,  $\exists k_\delta > 0$  s.t. whenever  $k > k_\delta$ ,  $|f_k(x) - f(x)| < \delta$ .

**Note:** the main difference between pointwise and uniform convergence is that pointwise convergence is for each  $x$  in the domain, whereas uniform convergence is for all  $x$  in domain. And this is also the reason why sup shown in the definition in the textbook.

**Theorem 4.2.2** If the functions  $f_k$  are continuous and converge uniformly to  $f$ , then  $f$  is continuous.

**Theorem 4.2.3 (Logarithms)** Apparently,  $a^c = b^{c \log a / \log b}$