

Chapter 4

Continuous Maps

4.1 Continuity

Definition 4.1. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be two metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$ and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. For a given $x_0 \in A$, we say that $b \in N$ is the limit of f at x_0 , written

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = b \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \rightarrow b \text{ as } x \rightarrow x_0,$$

if for every sequence $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x_0\}$ converging to x_0 , the sequence $\{f(x_k)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converges to b .

Proposition 4.2. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be two metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$ and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = b$ if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), b) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } 0 < d(x, x_0) < \delta \text{ and } x \in A.$$

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ” Assume the contrary that $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $\delta > 0$, there exists $x_\delta \in A$ with

$$0 < d(x_\delta, x_0) < \delta \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(f(x_\delta), b) \geq \varepsilon.$$

In particular, letting $\delta = \frac{1}{k}$, we can find $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x_0\}$ such that

$$0 < d(x_k, x_0) < \frac{1}{k} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(f(x_k), b) \geq \varepsilon.$$

Then $x_k \rightarrow x_0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ but $f(x_k) \not\rightarrow b$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, a contradiction.

“ \Leftarrow ” Let $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \setminus \{x_0\}$ be such that $x_k \rightarrow x_0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. By assumption,

$$\exists \delta = \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), b) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } 0 < d(x, x_0) < \delta \text{ and } x \in A.$$

Since $x_k \rightarrow x_0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, $\exists N > 0 \ni d(x_k, x_0) < \delta$ if $k \geq N$. Therefore,

$$\rho(f(x_k), b) < \varepsilon \quad \forall k \geq N$$

which suggests that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) = b$. □

Remark 4.3. Let $(M, d) = (N, \rho) = (\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$, $A = (a, b)$, and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x)$ for the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b} f(x)$, respectively, if the latter exist. Following this notation, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon \text{ if } 0 < x - a < \delta \text{ and } x \in (a, b),$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon \text{ if } 0 < b - x < \delta \text{ and } x \in (a, b).$$

Definition 4.4. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be two metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. For a given $x_0 \in A$, f is said to be continuous at x_0 if either $x_0 \in A \setminus A'$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$.

Example 4.5. The identity map $f : \begin{matrix} \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ x \mapsto x \end{matrix}$ is continuous at each point of \mathbb{R}^n .

Example 4.6. The function $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is continuous at each point of $(0, \infty)$.

Proposition 4.7. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be two metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. Then f is continuous at $x_0 \in A$ if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } x \in D(x_0, \delta) \cap A.$$

Proof. **Case 1:** If $x_0 \in A'$, then f is continuous at x_0 if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } x \in D(x_0, \delta) \cap A \setminus \{x_0\}.$$

Since $\rho(f(x_0), f(x_0)) = 0 < \varepsilon$, we find that the statement above is equivalent to that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \delta(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } x \in D(x_0, \delta) \cap A.$$

Case 2: Let $x_0 \in A \setminus A'$.

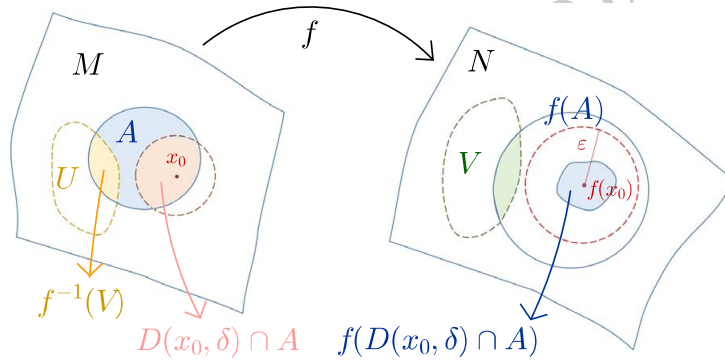
“ \Rightarrow ” then $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $D(x_0, \delta) \cap A = \{x_0\}$. Therefore, for this particular δ , we must have

$$\rho(f(x), f(x_0)) = 0 < \varepsilon \quad \text{whenever } x \in D(x_0, \delta) \cap A.$$

“ \Leftarrow ” We note that if $x_0 \in A \setminus A'$, f is defined to be continuous at x_0 . In other words, f is continuous at each isolated point. \square

Remark 4.8. We remark here that Proposition 4.7 suggests that f is continuous at $x_0 \in A$ if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni f(D(x_0, \delta) \cap A) \subseteq D(f(x_0), \varepsilon).$$



Remark 4.9. In general the number δ in Proposition 4.7 also depends on the function f . For a function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is continuous at $x_0 \in A$, let $\delta(f, x_0, \varepsilon)$ denote the largest $\delta > 0$ such that if $x \in D(x_0, \delta) \cap A$, then $\rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon$. In other words,

$$\delta(f, x_0, \varepsilon) = \sup \{ \delta > 0 \mid \rho(f(x), f(x_0)) < \varepsilon \text{ if } x \in D(x_0, \delta) \cap A \}.$$

This number provides another way for the understanding of the uniform continuity (in Section 4.5) and the equi-continuity (in Section 5.5). See Remark 4.51 and Remark 5.51 for further details.

Definition 4.10. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, and $A \subseteq M$. A map $f : A \rightarrow N$ is said to be continuous on the set $B \subseteq A$ if f is continuous at each point of B .

Theorem 4.11. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. Then the following assertions are equivalent:

1. f is continuous on A .
2. For each open set $\mathcal{V} \subseteq N$, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) \subseteq A$ is open relative to A ; that is, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) = \mathcal{U} \cap A$ for some \mathcal{U} open in M .
3. For each closed set $E \subseteq N$, $f^{-1}(E) \subseteq A$ is closed relative to A ; that is, $f^{-1}(E) = F \cap A$ for some F closed in M .

Proof. It should be clear that $2 \Leftrightarrow 3$ (left as an exercise); thus we show that $1 \Leftrightarrow 2$. Before proceeding, we recall that $B \subseteq f^{-1}(f(B))$ for all $B \subseteq A$ and $f(f^{-1}(B)) \subseteq B$ for all $B \subseteq N$.

“ $1 \Rightarrow 2$ ” Let $a \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$. Then $f(a) \in \mathcal{V}$. Since \mathcal{V} is open in (N, ρ) , $\exists \varepsilon_{f(a)} > 0$ such that $D(f(a), \varepsilon_{f(a)}) \subseteq \mathcal{V}$. By continuity of f (and Remark 4.8), there exists $\delta_a > 0$ such that

$$f(D(a, \delta_a) \cap A) \subseteq D(f(a), \varepsilon_{f(a)}).$$

Therefore, by Proposition 0.16, for each $a \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$, $\exists \delta_a > 0$ such that

$$D(a, \delta_a) \cap A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(D(a, \delta_a) \cap A)) \subseteq f^{-1}(D(f(a), \varepsilon_{f(a)})) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}). \quad (4.1.1)$$

Let $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{a \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})} D(a, \delta_a)$. Then \mathcal{U} is open (since it is the union of arbitrarily many open balls), and

- (a) $\mathcal{U} \supseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$ since \mathcal{U} contains every center of balls whose union forms \mathcal{U} ;
- (b) $\mathcal{U} \cap A \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$ by (4.1.1).

Therefore, $\mathcal{U} \cap A = f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$.

“ $2 \Rightarrow 1$ ” Let $a \in A$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Define $\mathcal{V} = D(f(a), \varepsilon)$. By assumption there exists \mathcal{U} open in (M, d) such that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) = \mathcal{U} \cap A$. Since $a \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$, $a \in \mathcal{U}$; thus by the openness of \mathcal{U} , $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $D(a, \delta) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Therefore, by Proposition 0.16 we have

$$f(D(a, \delta) \cap A) \subseteq f(\mathcal{U} \cap A) = f(f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})) \subseteq \mathcal{V} = D(f(a), \varepsilon)$$

which suggests that f is continuous at a for all $a \in A$; thus f is continuous on A . \square

Example 4.12. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be continuous. Then $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|f(x)\|_2 < 1\}$ is open since

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|f(x)\|_2 < 1\} = f^{-1}(D(0, 1)).$$

Remark 4.13. For a function f of two variable or more, it is important to distinguish the continuity of f and the continuity in each variable (by holding all other variables fixed). For example, let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if either } x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \text{ and } y \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Observe that $f(0, 0) = 1$, but f is not continuous at $(0, 0)$. In fact, for any $\delta > 0$, $f(x, y) = 0$ for infinitely many values of $(x, y) \in D((0, 0), \delta)$; that is, $|f(x, y) - f(0, 0)| = 1$ for such values. However if we consider the function $g(x) = f(x, 0) = 1$ or the function $h(y) = f(0, y) = 1$, then g, h are continuous. Note also that $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$ does not exist but $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(x, y)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 = 1$ and $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} (\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, y)) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} 1 = 1$.

4.2 Operations on Continuous Maps

Definition 4.14. Let (M, d) be a metric space, $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a (real) normed space, $A \subseteq M$, and $f, g : A \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ be maps, $h : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. The maps $f + g$, $f - g$ and hf , mapping from A to \mathcal{V} , are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} (f + g)(x) &= f(x) + g(x) & \forall x \in A, \\ (f - g)(x) &= f(x) - g(x) & \forall x \in A, \\ (hf)(x) &= h(x)f(x) & \forall x \in A. \end{aligned}$$

The map $\frac{f}{h} : A \setminus \{x \in A \mid h(x) = 0\} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is defined by

$$\left(\frac{f}{h}\right)(x) = \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} \quad \forall x \in A \setminus \{x \in A \mid h(x) = 0\}.$$

Proposition 4.15. Let (M, d) be a metric space, $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a (real) normed space, $A \subseteq M$, and $f, g : A \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ be maps, $h : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. Suppose that $x_0 \in A'$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = a$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = b$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} h(x) = c$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f + g)(x) = a + b,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f - g)(x) = a - b,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (hf)(x) = ca,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left(\frac{f}{h}\right) = \frac{a}{c} \quad \text{if } c \neq 0.$$

Corollary 4.16. *Let (M, d) be a metric space, $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a (real) normed space, $A \subseteq M$, and $f, g : A \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ be maps, $h : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. Suppose that f, g, h are continuous at $x_0 \in A$. Then the maps $f + g$, $f - g$ and hf are continuous at x_0 , and $\frac{f}{h}$ is continuous at x_0 if $h(x_0) \neq 0$.*

Corollary 4.17. *Let (M, d) be a metric space, $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$ be a (real) normed space, $A \subseteq M$, and $f, g : A \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ be continuous maps, $h : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then the maps $f + g$, $f - g$ and hf are continuous on A , and $\frac{f}{h}$ is continuous on $A \setminus \{x \in A \mid h(x) = 0\}$.*

Definition 4.18. Let (M, d) , (N, ρ) and (P, r) be metric space, $A \subseteq M$, $B \subseteq N$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$, $g : B \rightarrow P$ be maps such that $f(A) \subseteq B$. The composite function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow P$ is the map defined by

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) \quad \forall x \in A.$$

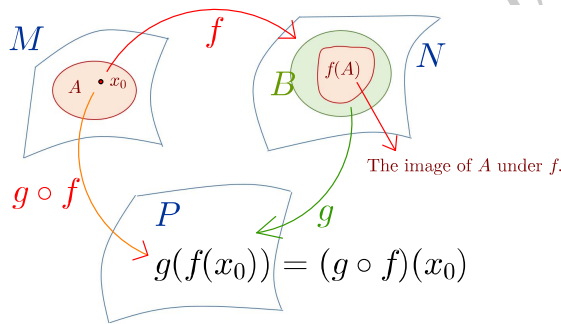


Figure 4.1: The composition of functions

Theorem 4.19. *Let (M, d) , (N, ρ) and (P, r) be metric space, $A \subseteq M$, $B \subseteq N$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$, $g : B \rightarrow P$ be maps such that $f(A) \subseteq B$. Suppose that f is continuous at x_0 , and g is continuous at $f(x_0)$. Then the composite function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow P$ is continuous at x_0 .*

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since g is continuous at $f(x_0)$, $\exists r > 0$ such that

$$g(D(f(x_0), r) \cap B) \subseteq D((g \circ f)(x_0), \varepsilon).$$

Since f is continuous at x_0 , $\exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$f(D(x_0, \delta) \cap A) \subseteq D(f(x_0), r).$$

Since $f(A) \subseteq B$, $f(D(x_0, \delta) \cap A) \subseteq D(f(x_0), r) \cap B$; thus

$$(g \circ f)(D(x_0, \delta) \cap A) \subseteq g(D(f(x_0), r) \cap B) \subseteq D((g \circ f)(x_0), \varepsilon). \quad \square$$

Corollary 4.20. *Let (M, d) , (N, ρ) and (P, r) be metric space, $A \subseteq M$, $B \subseteq N$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$, $g : B \rightarrow P$ be continuous maps such that $f(A) \subseteq B$. Then the composite function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow P$ is continuous on A .*

Alternative Proof of Corollary 4.20. Let \mathcal{W} be an open set in (P, r) . By Theorem 4.11, there exists \mathcal{V} open in (N, ρ) such that $g^{-1}(\mathcal{W}) = \mathcal{V} \cap B$. Since \mathcal{V} is open in (N, ρ) , by Theorem 4.11 again there exists \mathcal{U} open in (M, d) such that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) = \mathcal{U} \cap A$. Then

$$(g \circ f)^{-1}(\mathcal{W}) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(\mathcal{W})) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{V} \cap B) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}) \cap f^{-1}(B) = \mathcal{U} \cap A \cap f^{-1}(B),$$

while the fact that $f(A) \subseteq B$ further suggests that

$$(g \circ f)^{-1}(\mathcal{W}) = \mathcal{U} \cap A.$$

Therefore, by Theorem 4.11 we find that $(g \circ f)$ is continuous on A . □

4.3 Images of Compact Sets under Continuous Maps

Theorem 4.21. *Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a continuous map.*

1. *If $K \subseteq A$ is compact, then $f(K)$ is compact in (N, ρ) .*
2. *Moreover, if $(N, \rho) = (\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$, then there exist $x_0, x_1 \in K$ such that*

$$f(x_0) = \inf f(K) = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in K\} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_1) = \sup f(K) = \sup \{f(x) \mid x \in K\}.$$

Proof. 1. Let $\{\mathcal{V}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ be an open cover of $f(K)$. Since \mathcal{V}_α is open, by Theorem 4.11 there exists \mathcal{U}_α open in (M, d) such that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_\alpha) = \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap A$. Since $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{V}_\alpha$,

$$K \subseteq f^{-1}(f(K)) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_\alpha) = A \cap \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$$

which implies that $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is an open cover of K . Therefore,

$$\exists J \subseteq I, \#J < \infty \ni K \subseteq A \cap \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}_\alpha = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_\alpha);$$

thus $f(K) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} f(f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_\alpha)) \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{V}_\alpha$.

2. By 1, $f(K)$ is compact; thus sequentially compact. Corollary 3.5 then implies that $\inf f(K) \in f(K)$ and $\sup f(K) \in f(K)$. \square

Alternative Proof of Part 1. Let $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence in $f(K)$. Then there exists $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq K$ such that $y_n = f(x_n)$. Since K is sequentially compact, there exists a convergent subsequence $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ with limit $x \in K$. Let $y = f(x) \in f(K)$. By the continuity of f ,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \rho(y_{n_k}, y) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_{n_k}), f(x)) = 0$$

which implies that the sequence $\{y_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converges to $y \in f(K)$. Therefore, $f(K)$ is sequentially compact. \square

Corollary 4.22 (The Extreme Value Theorem (極値定理)). *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then f attains its maximum and minimum in $[a, b]$; that is, there are $x_0 \in [a, b]$ and $x_1 \in [a, b]$ such that*

$$f(x_0) = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in [a, b]\} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_1) = \sup \{f(x) \mid x \in [a, b]\}. \quad (4.3.1)$$

Proof. The Heine-Borel Theorem suggests that $[a, b]$ is a compact set in \mathbb{R} ; thus Theorem 4.21 implies that $f([a, b])$ must be compact in \mathbb{R} . By the Heine-Borel Theorem again $f([a, b])$ is closed and bounded, so

$$\inf f([a, b]) \in f([a, b]) \quad \text{and} \quad \sup f([a, b]) \in f([a, b])$$

which further imply (4.3.1). \square

Remark 4.23. If f attains its maximum (or minimum) on a set B , we use $\max \{f(x) \mid x \in B\}$ (or $\min \{f(x) \mid x \in B\}$) to denote $\sup \{f(x) \mid x \in B\}$ (or $\inf \{f(x) \mid x \in B\}$). Therefore, (4.3.1) can be rewritten as

$$f(x_0) = \min \{f(x) \mid x \in [a, b]\} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_1) = \max \{f(x) \mid x \in [a, b]\}.$$

Example 4.24. Two norms $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\!\| \cdot \|\!\|$ on a real vector space \mathcal{V} are called equivalent if there are positive constants C_1 and C_2 such that

$$C_1\|x\| \leq \|\!\|x\|\!\| \leq C_2\|x\| \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{V}.$$

We note that equivalent norms on a vector space \mathcal{V} induce the same topology; that is, if $\|\cdot\|$ and $\|\!\| \cdot \|\!\|$ are equivalent norms on \mathcal{V} , then \mathcal{U} is open in the normed space $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$ if and

only if \mathcal{U} is open in the normed space $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$. In fact, let \mathcal{U} be an open set in $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$. Then for any $x \in \mathcal{U}$, there exists $r > 0$ such that

$$D_{\|\cdot\|}(x, r) \equiv \{y \in \mathcal{V} \mid \|x - y\| < r\} \subseteq \mathcal{U}.$$

Let $\delta = C_1 r$. Then if $z \in D_{\|\cdot\|}(x, \delta) \equiv \{y \in \mathcal{V} \mid \|x - y\| < \delta\}$,

$$\|x - z\| \leq \frac{1}{C_1} \|x - z\| < \frac{1}{C_1} \cdot C_1 r = r$$

which implies that $D_{\|\cdot\|}(x, \delta) \subseteq D_{\|\cdot\|}(x, r) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Therefore, \mathcal{U} is open in $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$. Similarly, if \mathcal{U} is open in $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$, then the inequality $\|x\| \leq C_2 \|x\|$ suggests that \mathcal{U} is open in $(\mathcal{V}, \|\cdot\|)$.

Claim: Any two norms on \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent.

Proof of claim: It suffices to show that any norm $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^n is equivalent to the two-norm $\|\cdot\|_2$ (check). Let $\{e_k\}_{k=1}^n$ be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n ; that is,

$$e_k = (\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{(k-1) \text{ zeros}}, 1, 0, \dots, 0).$$

Every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written as $x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i$, and $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2}$. By the definition of norms and the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$\|x\| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \|e_i\| \leq \|x\|_2 \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \|e_i\|^2}; \quad (4.3.2)$$

thus letting $C_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \|e_i\|^2}$ we have $\|x\| \leq C_2 \|x\|_2$.

On the other hand, define $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \|x\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i \right\|.$$

Because of (4.3.2), f is continuous on \mathbb{R}^n . In fact, for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = \left| \|x\| - \|y\| \right| \leq \|x - y\| \leq C_2 \|x - y\|_2$$

which guarantees the continuity of f on \mathbb{R}^n . Let $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\|_2 = 1\}$. Then \mathbb{S}^{n-1} is a compact set in $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_2)$ (since it is closed and bounded); thus by Theorem 4.21 f attains

its minimum on \mathbb{S}^{n-1} at some point $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$. Moreover, $f(a) > 0$ (since if $f(a) = 0$, $a = 0 \notin \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$). Then for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\frac{x}{\|x\|_2} \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$; thus

$$f\left(\frac{x}{\|x\|_2}\right) \geq f(a).$$

The inequality above further implies that $f(a)\|x\|_2 \leq f(x) = \|x\|$; thus letting $C_1 = f(a)$ we have $C_1\|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|$.

Remark 4.25.

1. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = 0$. Then f is continuous. Note that $\{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is compact (\cdot : closed and bounded), but $f^{-1}(\{0\}) = \mathbb{R}$ is not compact.
2. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = x^2$. Then f is continuous. Note that $C = \{1\}$ is connected, but $f^{-1}(C) = \{1, -1\}$ is not connected.

Remark 4.26.

1. If K is not compact, then Theorem 4.21 is not true. Consider the following counter example: $K = (0, 1)$, $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. Then $f(K)$ is unbounded.
2. If f is not continuous, then Theorem 4.21 is not true either.

(a) Counter example 1: $f : K = [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Then $f(K)$ is unbounded $\Rightarrow \nexists x_1 \in K \ni f(x_1) = \sup f(K)$.

(b) Counter example 2: $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \neq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 1. \end{cases}$$

Then there is no $x_1 \in [0, 1]$ such that $f(x_1) = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} f(x) = 1$.

Example 4.27 (An example show that x_0, x_1 in Theorem 4.21 are not unique). Let $f : [-2, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = (x^2 - 1)^2$.

1. Critical point: $f'(x) = 2(x^2 - 1) \cdot 2x = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0, \pm 1$.

2. Comparison: $f(0) = 1$, $f(1) = f(-1) = 0$, $f(2) = f(-2) = 9$. Then

$$f(2) = f(-2) = \sup_{x \in [-2, 2]} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad f(1) = f(-1) = \inf_{x \in [-2, 2]} f(x).$$

Corollary 4.28. *Let (M, d) be a metric space, $K \subseteq M$ be a compact set, and $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then the set*

$$\{x \in K \mid f(x) \text{ is the maximum of } f \text{ on } K\}$$

is a non-empty compact set.

Proof. Let $M = \sup f(K)$. Then the set defined above is $f^{-1}(\{M\})$, and

1. $f^{-1}(\{M\})$ is non-empty by Theorem 4.21;
2. $f^{-1}(\{M\})$ is closed since $\{M\}$ is a closed set in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ and f is continuous on K .

Lemma 3.11 suggests that $f^{-1}(\{M\})$ is compact. □

4.4 Images of Connected and Path Connected Sets under Continuous Maps

Definition 4.29. Let (M, d) be a metric space. A subset $A \subseteq M$ is said to be **path connected** if for every $x, y \in A$, there exists a continuous map $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi(0) = x$ and $\varphi(1) = y$.

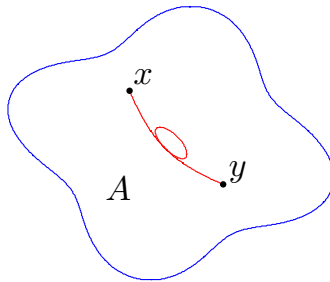


Figure 4.2: Path connected sets

Example 4.30. A set A in a vector space \mathcal{V} is called **convex** if for all $x, y \in A$, the line segment joining x and y , denoted by \overline{xy} , lies in A . Then a convex set in a normed space is path connected. In fact, for $x, y \in A$, define $\varphi(t) = ty + (1 - t)x$. Then

1. $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{xy} \subseteq A, \varphi(0) = x, \varphi(1) = y;$
2. $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow A$ is continuous.

$$\overline{xy} = \varphi([0, 1])$$

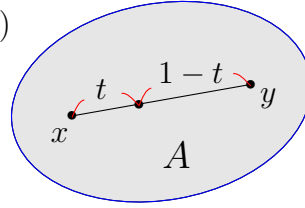


Figure 4.3: Convex sets

Example 4.31. A set S in a vector space \mathcal{V} is called **star-shaped** if there exists $p \in S$ such that for any $q \in S$, the line segment joining p and q lies in S . A star-shaped set in a normed space is path connected. In fact, for $x, y \in S$, define

$$\varphi(t) = \begin{cases} 2tp + (1 - 2t)x & \text{if } t \in [0, \frac{1}{2}], \\ (2t - 1)y + (2 - 2t)p & \text{if } t \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1]. \end{cases}$$

Then

1. $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow \overline{xp} \cup \overline{py} \subseteq S, \varphi(0) = x, \varphi(1) = y;$
2. $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow A$ is continuous.

Theorem 4.32. Let (M, d) be a metric space, and $A \subseteq M$. If A is path connected, then A is connected.

Proof. Assume the contrary that there are two open sets \mathcal{V}_1 and \mathcal{V}_2 such that

1. $A \cap \mathcal{V}_1 \cap \mathcal{V}_2 = \emptyset;$
2. $A \cap \mathcal{V}_1 \neq \emptyset;$
3. $A \cap \mathcal{V}_2 \neq \emptyset;$
4. $A \subseteq \mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2.$

Since A is path connected, for $x \in A \cap \mathcal{V}_1$ and $y \in A \cap \mathcal{V}_2$, there exists $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi(0) = x$ and $\varphi(1) = y$. By Theorem 4.11, there exist \mathcal{U}_1 and \mathcal{U}_2 open in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ such that $\varphi^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_1) = \mathcal{U}_1 \cap [0, 1]$ and $\varphi^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_2) = \mathcal{U}_2 \cap [0, 1]$. Therefore,

$$[0, 1] = \varphi^{-1}(A) \subseteq \varphi^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_1) \cup \varphi^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_2) \subseteq \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2.$$

Since $0 \in \mathcal{U}_1, 1 \in \mathcal{U}_2$, and $[0, 1] \cap \mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2 = \varphi^{-1}(A \cap \mathcal{V}_1 \cap \mathcal{V}_2) = \emptyset$, we conclude that $[0, 1]$ is disconnected, a contradiction. □

Example 4.33. Let $A = \left\{ \left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x} \right) \mid x \in (0, 1] \right\} \cup (\{0\} \times [-1, 1])$. Then A is connected in $(\mathbb{R}^2, \|\cdot\|_2)$, but A is not path connected.

To see this, we assume the contrary that A is path connected such that there is a continuous function $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi(0) = (x_0, y_0) \in \left\{ \left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x} \right) \mid x \in (0, 1] \right\}$ and $\varphi(1) = (0, 0) \in \{0\} \times [-1, 1]$. Let $t_0 = \inf \{t \in [0, 1] \mid \varphi(t) \in \{0\} \times [-1, 1]\}$. In other words, at $t = t_0$ the path touches $0 \times [-1, 1]$ for the “first time”. By the continuity of φ , $\varphi(t_0) \in \{0\} \times [-1, 1]$. Since $\varphi(0) \notin \{0\} \times [-1, 1]$, $\varphi([0, t_0)) \subseteq \left\{ \left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x} \right) \mid x \in (0, 1] \right\}$.

Suppose that $\varphi(t_0) = (0, \bar{y})$ for some $\bar{y} \in [-1, 1]$, and $\varphi(t) = \left(x(t), \sin \frac{1}{x(t)} \right)$ for $0 \leq t < t_0$. By the continuity of φ , there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $|t - t_0| < \delta$, $|\varphi(t) - \varphi(t_0)| < 1$. In particular,

$$x(t)^2 + \left(\sin \frac{1}{x(t)} - \bar{y} \right)^2 < 1 \quad \forall t \in (t_0 - \delta, t_0).$$

On the other hand, since φ is continuous, $x(t)$ is continuous on $[0, t_0)$; thus by the fact that $[0, t_0)$ is connected, $x([0, t_0))$ is connected. Therefore, $x([0, t_0)) = (0, \bar{x}]$ for some $\bar{x} > 0$. Since $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} x(t) = 0$, there exists $\{t_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \in [0, t_0)$ such that $t_n \rightarrow t_0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\left| \sin \frac{1}{x(t_n)} - \bar{y} \right| \geq 1$. For $n \gg 1$, $t_n \in (t_0 - \delta, t_0)$ but

$$x(t_n)^2 + \left(\sin \frac{1}{x(t_n)} - \bar{y} \right)^2 \geq 1,$$

a contradiction.

On the other hand, A is the closure of the connected set $B = \left\{ \left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x} \right) \mid x \in (0, 1] \right\}$ (the connectedness of B follows from the fact that the function $\psi(x) = \left(x, \sin \frac{1}{x} \right)$ is continuous on the connected set $(0, 1]$). Therefore, by Problem 9 of Exercise 8, $A = \bar{B}$ is connected.

Theorem 4.34. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a continuous map.

1. If $C \subseteq A$ is connected, then $f(C)$ is connected in (N, ρ) .
2. If $C \subseteq A$ is path connected, then $f(C)$ is path connected in (N, ρ) .

Proof. 1. Suppose that there are two open sets \mathcal{V}_1 and \mathcal{V}_2 in (N, ρ) such that

$$(a) f(C) \cap \mathcal{V}_1 \cap \mathcal{V}_2 = \emptyset; (b) f(C) \cap \mathcal{V}_1 \neq \emptyset; (c) f(C) \cap \mathcal{V}_2 \neq \emptyset; (d) f(C) \subseteq \mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2.$$

By Theorem 4.11, there are \mathcal{U}_1 and \mathcal{U}_2 open in (M, d) such that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_1) = \mathcal{U}_1 \cap A$ and $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_2) = \mathcal{U}_2 \cap A$. By (d),

$$C \subseteq f^{-1}(f(C)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_1) \cup f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_2) = (\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2) \cap A \subseteq \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2.$$

Moreover, by (a) we find that

$$\begin{aligned} C \cap \mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2 &= C \cap (\mathcal{U}_1 \cap A) \cap (\mathcal{U}_2 \cap A) = C \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_1) \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_2) \\ &\subseteq f^{-1}(f(C) \cap \mathcal{V}_1 \cap \mathcal{V}_2) = \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

which implies $C \cap \mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2 = \emptyset$. Finally, (b) implies that for some $x \in C$, $f(x) \in \mathcal{V}_1$. Therefore, $x \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{V}_1) = \mathcal{U}_1 \cap A$ which suggests that $x \in \mathcal{U}_1$; thus $C \cap \mathcal{U}_1 \neq \emptyset$. Similarly, $C \cap \mathcal{U}_2 \neq \emptyset$. Therefore, C is disconnected which is a contradiction.

2. Let $y_1, y_2 \in f(C)$. Then $\exists x_1, x_2 \in C$ such that $f(x_1) = y_1$ and $f(x_2) = y_2$. Since C is path connected, $\exists r : [0, 1] \rightarrow C$ such that r is continuous on $[0, 1]$ and $r(0) = x_1$ and $r(1) = x_2$. Let $\varphi : [0, 1] \rightarrow f(C)$ be defined by $\varphi = f \circ r$. By Corollary 4.20 φ is continuous on $[0, 1]$, and $\varphi(0) = y_1$ and $\varphi(1) = y_2$. \square

Corollary 4.35 (The Intermediate Value Theorem (中間値定理)). *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. If $f(a) \neq f(b)$, then for all d in between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = d$.*

Proof. The closed interval $[a, b]$ is connected by Theorem 3.38, so Theorem 4.34 implies that $f([a, b])$ must be connected in \mathbb{R} . By Theorem 3.38 again, if d is in between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then d belongs to $f([a, b])$. Therefore, for some $c \in (a, b)$ we have $f(c) = d$. \square

Example 4.36. Let $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be continuous. Then $\exists x_0 \in [0, 1] \ni f(x_0) = x_0$.

Proof. Let $g(x) = x - f(x)$. Then

1. $g(0) = 0$ or $g(1) = 0 \Rightarrow x_0 = 0$ or 1 .
2. $g(0) \neq 0$ or $g(1) \neq 0 \Rightarrow g(0) < 0$ and $g(1) > 0$. Since $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous,

$$\exists x_0 \in [0, 1] \ni g(x_0) = 0 \Rightarrow \exists x_0 \in (0, 1) \ni f(x_0) = x_0. \quad \square$$

Remark 4.37. Such an x_0 in Example 4.36 is called a fixed-point of f .

Example 4.38. Let $f : [1, 2] \rightarrow [0, 3]$ be continuous, and $f(1) = 0$ and $f(2) = 3$. Then $\exists x_0 \in [1, 2] \ni f(x_0) = x_0$.

Proof. Let $g(x) = x - f(x)$. Then $g : [1, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Moreover,

$$g(1) = 1 - f(1) = 1, \quad g(2) = 2 - f(2) = -1;$$

thus $\exists x_0 \in (1, 2) \ni g(x_0) = 0$. □

Example 4.39. Let p be a cubic polynomial; that is, $p(x) = a_3x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$ for some $a_0, a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a_3 \neq 0$. Then p has a real root x_0 (that is, $\exists x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $p(x_0) = 0$).

Proof. Note that p is obviously continuous and \mathbb{R} is connected. Write

$$p(x) = a_3x^3 \left(1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3x} + \frac{a_1}{a_3x^2} + \frac{a_0}{a_3x^3} \right).$$

Now $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{\alpha}{\beta x^n} = 0$ if $n > 0$ and $\beta \neq 0$, so

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \left(1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3x} + \frac{a_1}{a_3x^2} + \frac{a_0}{a_3x^3} \right) = 1.$$

Moreover,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} ax^3 = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } a > 0, \\ -\infty & \text{if } a < 0. \end{cases}$$

Suppose that $a > 0$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} ax^3 = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} ax^3 = -\infty \Rightarrow \exists x, y \in \mathbb{R} \ni p(x) < 0 < p(y)$. By Corollary 4.35 $\exists r \in \mathbb{R} \ni p(r) = 0$. The case that $a < 0$ is similar. □

4.5 Uniform Continuity (均匀連續)

Definition 4.40. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. For a set $B \subseteq A$, f is said to be **uniformly continuous on B** if for any two sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty, \{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq B$ with the property that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$, one has $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) = 0$.

Proposition 4.41. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. If f is uniformly continuous on A , then f is continuous on A .

Proof. Let $x_0 \in A \cap A'$, and $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ be a sequence such that $x_k \rightarrow x_0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Let $\{y_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be a constant sequence with value x_0 ; that is, $y_k = x_0$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\{y_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ and $d(x_k, y_k) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. By the uniform continuity of f on A ,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_k), f(x_0)) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_k), f(y_k)) = 0$$

which implies that f is continuous on x_0 . \square

Example 4.42. Let $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the Dirichlet function; that is,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}^c. \end{cases}$$

and $B = \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$. Then f is continuous **nowhere** in $[0, 1]$, but f is uniformly continuous on B . However, the proposition above guarantees that if f is uniformly continuous on A , then f must be continuous on A (Check why the proof of Proposition 4.41 does not go through if B is a proper subset of A).

Example 4.43. The function $f(x) = |x|$ is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. By the triangle inequality,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = ||x| - |y|| \leq |x - y|;$$

thus if $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ are sequences in \mathbb{R} and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n - y_n| = 0$, by the Sandwich lemma we must have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f(x_n) - f(y_n)| = 0$. \square

Example 4.44. The function $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is uniformly continuous on $[a, \infty)$ for all $a > 0$. However, it is not uniformly continuous on $(0, \infty)$.

Proof. Let $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be sequences in $[a, \infty)$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n - y_n| = 0$. Then

$$|f(x_n) - f(y_n)| = \left| \frac{1}{x_n} - \frac{1}{y_n} \right| = \frac{|x_n - y_n|}{|x_n y_n|} \leq \frac{|x_n - y_n|}{a^2} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

which implies that f is uniformly continuous on $[a, \infty)$ if $a > 0$. However, by choosing $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$ and $y_n = \frac{1}{2n}$, we find that

$$|x_n - y_n| = \frac{1}{2n} \quad \text{but} \quad |f(x_n) - f(y_n)| = n \geq 1;$$

thus f cannot be uniformly continuous on $(0, \infty)$. \square

Remark 4.45. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : B \subseteq A \rightarrow N$ be a map. Then the following four statements are equivalent:

- (1) f is **not** uniformly continuous on B .
- (2) $\exists \{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty, \{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq B \ni \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$ and $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) > 0$.
- (3) $\exists \{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty, \{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq B \ni \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) > 0$.
- (4) $\exists \varepsilon > 0 \ni \forall n > 0, \exists x_n, y_n \in B$ and $d(x_n, y_n) < \frac{1}{n} \ni \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \geq \varepsilon$.

Example 4.46. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2$. Then f is continuous in \mathbb{R} but not uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} . Let $\varepsilon = 1$, $x_n = n$, and $y_n = n + \frac{1}{2n}$,

$$|f(x_n) - f(y_n)| = |n^2 - (n + \frac{1}{2n})^2| = |n^2 - n^2 - 1 - \frac{1}{4n^2}| > 1 \quad \forall n > 0.$$

Example 4.47. The function $f(x) = \sin(x^2)$ is not uniform continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Proof. Let $\varepsilon = 1$, $x_n = 2n\sqrt{\pi} + \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{8n}$ and $y_n = 2n\sqrt{\pi} - \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{8n}$. Then

$$|\sin(x_n^2) - \sin(y_n^2)| = \left| \sin\left(4n^2\pi + \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{64n^2}\right) - \sin\left(4n^2\pi - \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{64n^2}\right) \right| = 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{64n^2};$$

thus if n is large enough, $|\sin(x_n^2) - \sin(y_n^2)| \geq 1$. \square

Example 4.48. The function $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$ is not uniformly continuous.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon = 1$, $x_n = (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^{-1}$ and $y_n = (2n\pi - \frac{\pi}{2})^{-1}$. Then

$$\left| \sin \frac{1}{x_n} - \sin \frac{1}{y_n} \right| = 2,$$

while $|x_n - y_n| = \frac{\pi}{4n^2\pi^2 - \frac{\pi^2}{4}} = \frac{1}{(4n^2 - \frac{1}{4})\pi} \leq \frac{1}{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

Theorem 4.49. Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. For a set $B \subseteq A$, f is uniformly continuous on B if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } d(x, y) < \delta \text{ and } x, y \in B.$$

Proof. “ \Leftarrow ” Suppose the contrary that f is not uniformly continuous on B . Then there are two sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in B such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0 \quad \text{but} \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) > 0.$$

Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n))$. Then by the definition of the limit and the limit superior (or Proposition 1.121) we conclude that there exist subsequences $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{y_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ such that

$$\rho(f(x_{n_k}), f(y_{n_k})) \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) - \varepsilon = \varepsilon > 0$$

while $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} d(x_{n_k}, y_{n_k}) = 0$, a contradiction.

“ \Rightarrow ” Suppose the contrary that there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $\delta = \frac{1}{n} > 0$, there exist two points x_n and $y_n \in B$ such that

$$d(x_n, y_n) < \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{but} \quad \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) \geq \varepsilon.$$

These points form two sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in B such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$, while the limit of $\rho(f(x_n), f(y_n))$, if exists, does not converges to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. As a consequence, f is not uniformly continuous on B , a contradiction. \square

Remark 4.50. The theorem above provides another way (the blue color part) of defining the uniform continuity of a function over a subset of its domain. Moreover, according to this alternative definition, if $f : A \rightarrow N$ is uniformly continuous on $B \subseteq A$, then

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \forall b \in M, f(D(b, \frac{\delta}{2}) \cap B) \subseteq D(c, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \text{ for some } c \in N;$$

that is, the diameter of the image, under f , of subsets of B whose diameter is not greater than δ is not greater than ε (在 B 中直徑不超過 δ 的子集合被函數 f 映過去之後，在對應域中的直徑不會超過 ε) .

Remark 4.51. In terms of the number $\delta(f, x, \varepsilon)$ defined in Remark 4.9, the uniform continuity of a function $f : A \rightarrow N$ is equivalent to that

$$\delta_f(\varepsilon) \equiv \inf_{x \in A} \delta(f, x, \varepsilon) > 0 \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0.$$

The function $\delta_f(\cdot)$ is the inverse of the modulus of continuity of (a uniform continuous) function f .

Theorem 4.52. *Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be a map. If $K \subseteq A$ is compact and f is continuous on K , then f is uniformly continuous on K .*

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since f is continuous on K ,

$$\forall a \in K, \exists \delta = \delta(a) > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(a)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ whenever } x \in D(a, \delta) \cap A.$$

Then $\left\{ D(a, \frac{\delta(a)}{2}) \right\}_{a \in K}$ is an open cover of K ; thus

$$\exists \{a_1, \dots, a_N\} \subseteq K \ni K \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^N D(a_i, \frac{\delta_i}{2}),$$

where $\delta_i = \delta(a_i)$. Let $\delta = \frac{1}{2} \min\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_N\}$. Then $\delta > 0$, and if $x_1, x_2 \in K$ and $d(x_1, x_2) < \delta$, there must be $j = 1, \dots, N$ such that $x_1, x_2 \in B(a_j, \delta_j)$. In fact, since $x_1 \in D(a_j, \frac{\delta_j}{2})$ for some $j = 1, \dots, N$, then

$$d(x_2, a_j) \leq d(x_1, x_2) + d(x_1, a_j) < \delta + \frac{\delta_j}{2} < \delta_j.$$

Therefore, $x_1, x_2 \in D(a_j, \delta_j) \cap A$ for some $j = 1, \dots, N$; thus

$$\rho(f(x_1), f(x_2)) \leq \rho(f(x_1), f(a_j)) + \rho(f(x_2), f(a_j)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \quad \square$$

Alternative proof. Assume the contrary that f is not uniformly continuous on K . Then ((3) of Remark 4.45 implies that) there are sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in K such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0 \quad \text{but} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) > 0.$$

Since K is (sequentially) compact, there exist convergent subsequences $\{x_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{y_{n_k}\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ with limits $x, y \in K$. On the other hand, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$, we must have $x = y$; thus by the continuity of f (on K),

$$0 = \rho(f(x), f(x)) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_{n_k}), f(y_{n_k})) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho(f(x_n), f(y_n)) > 0,$$

a contradiction. □

Lemma 4.53. *Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be uniformly continuous. If $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ is a Cauchy sequence, so is $\{f(x_k)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$.*

Proof. Let $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ be a Cauchy sequence in (M, d) , and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $f : A \rightarrow N$ is uniformly continuous,

$$\exists \delta > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } d(x, y) < \delta \text{ and } x, y \in A.$$

For this particular δ , $\exists N > 0 \ni d(x_k, x_\ell) < \delta$ if $k, \ell \geq N$. Therefore,

$$\rho(f(x_k), f(x_\ell)) < \varepsilon \text{ if } k, \ell \geq N. \quad \square$$

Corollary 4.54. *Let (M, d) and (N, ρ) be metric spaces, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow N$ be uniformly continuous. If N is complete, then f has a unique extension to a continuous function on \bar{A} ; that is, $\exists g : \bar{A} \rightarrow N$ such that*

- (1) g is uniformly continuous on \bar{A} ;
- (2) $g(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in A$;
- (3) if $h : \bar{A} \rightarrow N$ is a continuous map satisfying (1) and (2), then $h = g$.

Proof. Let $x \in \bar{A} \setminus A$. Then $\exists \{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ such that $x_k \rightarrow x$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Since $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy, by Lemma 4.53 $\{f(x_k)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (N, ρ) ; thus is convergent. Moreover, if $\{z_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ is another sequence converging to x , we must have $d(x_k, z_k) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$; thus $\rho(f(x_k), f(z_k)) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, so the limit of $\{f(x_k)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{f(z_k)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ must be the same.

Define $g : \bar{A} \rightarrow N$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in A, \\ \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) & \text{if } x \in \bar{A} \setminus A, \text{ and } \{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A \text{ converging to } x \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty. \end{cases}$$

Then the argument above shows that g is well-defined, and (2), (3) hold.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $f : A \rightarrow N$ is uniformly continuous,

$$\exists \delta > 0 \ni \rho(f(x), f(y)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \text{ whenever } d(x, y) < 2\delta \text{ and } x, y \in A.$$

Suppose that $x, y \in \bar{A}$ such that $d(x, y) < \delta$. Let $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}, \{y_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ be sequences converging to x and y , respectively. Then $\exists N > 0$ such that

$$d(x_k, x) < \frac{\delta}{2}, d(y_k, y) < \frac{\delta}{2} \text{ and } \rho(f(x_k), g(x)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}, \rho(f(y_k), g(y)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \quad \forall k \geq N.$$

In particular, due to the triangle inequality,

$$d(x_N, y_N) \leq d(x_N, x) + d(x, y) + d(y, y_N) < \frac{\delta}{2} + \delta + \frac{\delta}{2} = 2\delta;$$

thus $\rho(f(x_N), f(y_N)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$. As a consequence,

$$\rho(g(x), g(y)) \leq \rho(g(x), f(x_N)) + \rho(f(x_N), f(y_N)) + \rho(f(y_N), f(y)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon. \quad \square$$

4.6 Differentiation of Functions of One Variable

Definition 4.55. A function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be differentiable at x_0 if there exists a number m such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0) - m(x - x_0)}{x - x_0} = 0.$$

The (unique) number m is usually denoted by $f'(x_0)$, and is called the derivative of f at x_0 .

Remark 4.56. The derivative of f at x_0 can be computed by

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}.$$

Remark 4.57. By the definition of the limit of functions, $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $x_0 \in (a, b)$ if and only if there exists $m \in \mathbb{R}$, denoted by $f'(x_0)$, such that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni |f(x) - f(x_0) - f'(x_0)(x - x_0)| \leq \varepsilon |x - x_0| \text{ if } |x - x_0| < \delta.$$

Definition 4.58. A function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be differentiable (on (a, b)) if f is differentiable at each $x_0 \in (a, b)$.

Proposition 4.59. Suppose that a function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at x_0 . Then f is continuous at x_0 .

Proof. For $x \neq x_0$, $f(x) - f(x_0) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \cdot (x - x_0)$; thus Proposition 4.15 implies that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) - f(x_0)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (x - x_0) = f'(x_0) \cdot 0 = 0. \quad \square$$

Theorem 4.60. Suppose that functions $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable at x_0 , and $k \in \mathbb{R}$ is a constant. Then

1. $(kf)'(x_0) = kf'(x_0)$.
2. $(f \pm g)'(x_0) = f'(x_0) \pm g'(x_0)$.
3. $(fg)'(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + f(x_0)g'(x_0)$.
4. $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x_0) = \frac{f'(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)}{g(x_0)^2}$ if $g(x_0) \neq 0$.

Theorem 4.61 (Chain Rule). *Suppose that a function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at x_0 , and $g : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $y_0 = f(x_0) \in (c, d)$. Then $g \circ f$ is differentiable at x_0 , and*

$$(g \circ f)'(x_0) = g'(f(x_0))f'(x_0).$$

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at x_0 and $g : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $y_0 = f(x_0)$,

$$\exists \delta_1 > 0 \ni |f(x) - f(x_0) - f'(x_0)(x - x_0)| \leq \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |g'(y_0)|)} \right\} |x - x_0| \text{ if } |x - x_0| < \delta_1$$

and

$$\exists \delta_2 > 0 \ni |g(y) - g(y_0) - g'(y_0)(y - y_0)| \leq \frac{\varepsilon|y - y_0|}{2(1 + |f'(x_0)|)} \text{ if } |y - y_0| < \delta_2.$$

Moreover, by Proposition 4.59 f is continuous at x_0 ; thus

$$\exists \delta_3 > 0 \ni |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \delta_2 \text{ if } |x - x_0| < \delta_3 \text{ and } x \in (a, b).$$

Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_3\}$, and denote $f(x)$ by y . Then if $|x - x_0| < \delta$, we have $|y - y_0| < \delta_2$ and

$$\begin{aligned} |(g \circ f)(x) - (g \circ f)(x_0) - g'(y_0)f'(x_0)(x - x_0)| &= |g(y) - g(y_0) - g'(y_0)f'(x_0)(x - x_0)| \\ &= |g(y) - g(y_0) - g'(y_0)(y - y_0) + g'(y_0)(f(x) - f(x_0) - f'(x_0)(x - x_0))| \\ &\leq \frac{\varepsilon|f(x) - f(x_0)|}{2(1 + |f'(x_0)|)} + |g'(y_0)| \frac{\varepsilon|x - x_0|}{2(1 + |g'(y_0)|)} \\ &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1 + |f'(x_0)|)} (|x - x_0| + |f'(x_0)||x - x_0|) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}|x - x_0| = \varepsilon|x - x_0|. \end{aligned}$$

By Remark 4.57, $g \circ f$ is differentiable at x_0 with derivative $g'(f(x_0))f'(x_0)$. □

Proposition 4.62. *If $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $x_0 \in (a, b)$ and f attains a local minimum or maximum at x_0 , then $f'(x_0) = 0$.*

Proof. W.L.O.G. we assume that f attains its local minimum at x_0 . Then $f(x) - f(x_0) \geq 0$ for all $x \in I$, where I is an open interval containing x_0 . Therefore,

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \leq 0$$

and

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \geq 0.$$

As a consequence, $f'(x_0) = 0$. □

Theorem 4.63 (Rolle). *Suppose that a function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, and is differentiable on (a, b) . If $f(a) = f(b)$, then $\exists c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.*

Proof. By the Extreme Value Theorem, there exists x_0 and x_1 in $[a, b]$ such that

$$f(x_0) = \min f([a, b]) \quad \text{and} \quad f(x_1) = \max f([a, b]).$$

Case 1. $f(x_0) = f(x_1)$, then f is constant on $[a, b]$; thus $f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

Case 2. One of $f(x_0)$ and $f(x_1)$ is different from $f(a)$. W.L.O.G. we may assume that $f(x_0) \neq f(a)$. Then $x_0 \in (a, b)$, and f attains its global minimum at x_0 . By Proposition

$$4.62, f'(x_0) = 0. \quad \square$$

Theorem 4.64 (Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem). *Suppose that functions $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous, and $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable. If $g(a) \neq g(b)$ and $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that*

$$\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}.$$

Proof. Consider the function

$$h(x) \equiv (f(x) - f(a))(g(b) - g(a)) - (f(b) - f(a))(g(x) - g(a)).$$

Then $h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, and is differentiable on (a, b) . Moreover, $h(b) = h(a) = 0$. By Rolle's theorem, there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that

$$h'(c) = f'(c)(g(b) - g(a)) - (f(b) - f(a))g'(c) = 0. \quad \square$$

Corollary 4.65 (Mean Value Theorem). *Suppose that a function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, and $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable. Then there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that*

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

Proof. Apply the Cauchy Mean Value Theorem for the case that $g(x) = x$. □

Corollary 4.66. *Suppose that a function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. Then f is constant.*

Proof. Let $x \in (a, b)$ be given. By Mean Value Theorem, there exists $c \in (a, x)$ such that

$$f(x) - f(a) = f'(c)(x - a) = 0.$$

Therefore, $f(x) = f(a)$; thus for all $x \in (a, b)$, $f(x) = f(a)$. Now by continuity, $f(b) = \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(a)$. □

Corollary 4.67 (L'Hôpital's rule). *Let $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable functions. Suppose that for some $x_0 \in (a, b)$, $f(x_0) = g(x_0) = 0$, $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \neq x_0$, and the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists. Then the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ also exists, and*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

Proof. We first note that $g(x) \neq g(x_0)$ for all $x \neq x_0$ since if not, the Mean Value Theorem implies that the existence of c in between x and x_0 such that $g'(c) = 0$ which contradicts to the condition that $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \neq x_0$. By Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem, for all $x \in (a, b)$ and $x \neq x_0$, there exists $\xi = \xi(x)$ in between x and x_0 such that

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{g(x) - g(x_0)} = \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)}$$

Since $\xi \rightarrow x_0$ as $x \rightarrow x_0$, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{\xi \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}. \quad \square$$

Theorem 4.68 (Taylor). *Suppose that for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be $(k + 1)$ -times differentiable and $c \in (a, b)$. Then for all $x \in (a, b)$, there exists d in between c and x such that*

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{f^{(j)}(c)}{j!} (x - c)^j + \frac{f^{(k+1)}(d)}{(k+1)!} (x - c)^{(k+1)},$$

where $f^{(j)}$ denotes the j -th derivative of f .

Proof. Let $g(x) = f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{f^{(j)}(c)}{j!} (x-c)^j$, and $h(x) = (x-c)^{k+1}$. Then for $1 \leq j \leq k$,

$$g^{(j)}(c) = h^{(j)}(c) = 0;$$

thus by the Cauchy mean value theorem (Theorem 4.64), there exists ξ_1 in between x and c , ξ_2 in between ξ_1 and c , \dots , ξ_{k+1} in between ξ_k and c such that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g(x)}{h(x)} &= \frac{g(x) - g(c)}{h(x) - h(c)} = \frac{g'(\xi_1)}{h'(\xi_1)} = \frac{g'(\xi_1) - g'(c)}{h'(\xi_1) - h'(c)} = \frac{g''(\xi_2)}{h''(\xi_2)} = \dots \\ &= \frac{g^{(k)}(\xi_k)}{h^{(k)}(\xi_k)} = \frac{g^{(k)}(\xi_k) - g^{(k)}(c)}{h^{(k)}(\xi_k) - h^{(k)}(c)} = \frac{g^{(k+1)}(\xi_{k+1})}{h^{(k+1)}(\xi_{k+1})} = \frac{f^{(k+1)}(\xi_{k+1})}{(k+1)!}. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $d = \xi_{k+1}$ we conclude the theorem. \square

Example 4.69. A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **Lipschitz continuous** if $\exists M > 0$ such that

$$|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| \leq M|x_1 - x_2| \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in [a, b].$$

If the derivative of a differentiable function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded; that is, $\exists M > 0 \ni |f'(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then the Mean Value Theorem implies that f is Lipschitz continuous. **A Lipschitz continuous function must be uniformly continuous.**

Definition 4.70. A function $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **increasing** **decreasing** **strictly increasing** **strictly decreasing** (on (a, b))

if $f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$ if $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$. f is said to be **monotone** if f is either increasing or decreasing on (a, b) , and **strictly monotone** if f is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

Theorem 4.71. Suppose that $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable.

1. f is increasing on (a, b) if and only if $f'(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.
2. f is decreasing on (a, b) if and only if $f'(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.
3. If $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is strictly increasing.

4. If $f'(x) < 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is strictly decreasing.

Theorem 4.72 (Inverse Function Theorem). Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable, and f' be sign-definite; that is, $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ or $f'(x) < 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. Then $f : (a, b) \rightarrow f((a, b))$ is a bijection, and f^{-1} , the inverse function of f , is differentiable on $f((a, b))$, and

$$(f^{-1})'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)} \quad \forall x \in (a, b). \quad (4.6.1)$$

Proof. W.L.O.G. we assume that $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. By Theorem 4.71 f is strictly increasing; thus f^{-1} exists.

Claim: $f^{-1} : f((a, b)) \rightarrow (a, b)$ is continuous.

Proof of claim: Let $y_0 = f(x_0) \in f((a, b))$, and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Then $f((x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon)) = (f(x_0 - \varepsilon), f(x_0 + \varepsilon))$ since f is continuous on (a, b) and $(x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon)$ is connected. Let $\delta = \min\{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - \varepsilon), f(x_0 + \varepsilon) - f(x_0)\}$. Then $\delta > 0$, and

$$(y_0 - \delta, y_0 + \delta) = (f(x_0) - \delta, f(x_0) + \delta) \subseteq f((x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon));$$

thus by the injectivity of f ,

$$f^{-1}((y_0 - \delta, y_0 + \delta)) \subseteq f^{-1}(f((x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon))) = (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) = (f^{-1}(y_0) - \varepsilon, f^{-1}(y_0) + \varepsilon).$$

The inclusion above implies that f^{-1} is continuous at y_0 .

Writing $y = f(x)$ and $x = f^{-1}(y)$. Then if $y_0 = f(x_0) \in f((a, b))$,

$$\frac{f^{-1}(y) - f^{-1}(y_0)}{y - y_0} = \frac{x - x_0}{f(x) - f(x_0)}.$$

Since f^{-1} is continuous on $f((a, b))$, $x \rightarrow x_0$ as $y \rightarrow y_0$; thus

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow y_0} \frac{f^{-1}(y) - f^{-1}(y_0)}{y - y_0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{x - x_0}{f(x) - f(x_0)} = \frac{1}{f'(x_0)}$$

which implies that f^{-1} is differentiable at y_0 . □

4.7 Integration of Functions of One Variable

Definition 4.73. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded subset. A collection \mathcal{P} of finitely many points $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is called a **partition** of A if $\inf A = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = \sup A$. The **mesh size** of the partition \mathcal{P} , denoted by $\|\mathcal{P}\|$, is defined by

$$\|\mathcal{P}\| = \max \{x_k - x_{k-1} \mid k = 1, \dots, n\}.$$

Definition 4.74. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded subset, and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function. For any partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of A , the **upper sum** and the **lower sum** of f with respect to the partition \mathcal{P} , denoted by $U(f, \mathcal{P})$ and $L(f, \mathcal{P})$ respectively, are numbers defined by

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sup_{x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} \bar{f}(x)(x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k),$$

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{k=1}^n \inf_{x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} \bar{f}(x)(x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k),$$

where \bar{f} is an extension of f given by

$$\bar{f}(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in A, \\ 0 & x \notin A. \end{cases} \quad (4.7.1)$$

The two numbers

$$\int_A \bar{f}(x) dx \equiv \inf \{U(f, \mathcal{P}) \mid \mathcal{P} \text{ is a partition of } A\},$$

and

$$\int_A f(x) dx \equiv \sup \{L(f, \mathcal{P}) \mid \mathcal{P} \text{ is a partition of } A\}$$

are called the **upper integral** and **lower integral** of f over A , respectively. The function f is said to be **Riemann (Darboux) integrable** (over A) if $\int_A \bar{f}(x) dx = \int_A f(x) dx$, and in this case, we express the upper and lower integral as $\int_A f(x) dx$, called the **integral** of f over A . The upper integral, the lower integral, and the integral of f over $[a, b]$ sometimes are also denoted by $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, and $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.

Example 4.75. $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ and $\int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx$ are not always the same. For example, define $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \setminus \mathbb{Q}, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q}. \end{cases}$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{0 = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = 1\}$ be any partition on $[0, 1]$. Then for any $k =$

$0, 1, \dots, n-1$, $\sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f(x) = 1$ and $\inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f(x) = 0$; thus

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f(x)(x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (x_k - x_{k-1}) \\ &= (x_1 - x_0) + (x_2 - x_1) + \dots + (x_n - x_{n-1}) = x_n - x_0 = 1 - 0 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{i=1}^n 0(x_i - x_{i-1}) = 0.$$

As a consequence,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 f(x) dx &= \inf \{U(f, \mathcal{P}) \mid \mathcal{P} \text{ is a partition on } [0, 1]\} = 1, \\ \int_0^1 f(x) dx &= \sup \{L(f, \mathcal{P}) \mid \mathcal{P} \text{ is a partition on } [0, 1]\} = 0; \end{aligned}$$

hence f is not Riemann integrable over $[0, 1]$.

Example 4.76. Suppose $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable and $f \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$. Reason: Since $f \geq 0$ on $[a, b] \Rightarrow \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f(x) \geq 0$ for $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$. Therefore, $U(f, \mathcal{P}) \geq 0$ for all partition \mathcal{P} on $[a, b]$, so

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \inf \{U(f, \mathcal{P}) \mid \mathcal{P} \text{ is a partition on } [a, b]\} \geq 0.$$

Definition 4.77. A partition \mathcal{P}' of a bounded set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is said to be a **refinement** of another partition \mathcal{P} if $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{P}'$.

Proposition 4.78. Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded subset, and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function. If \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{P}' are partitions of A and \mathcal{P}' is a refinement of \mathcal{P} , then

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq L(f, \mathcal{P}') \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}') \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}).$$

Proof. Let \bar{f} be the extension of f given by (4.7.1). Suppose that $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, $\mathcal{P}' = \{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_m\}$, and $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{P}'$. For any fixed $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$, either $\mathcal{P}' \cap (x_k, x_{k+1}) = \emptyset$ or $\mathcal{P}' \cap (x_k, x_{k+1}) \neq \emptyset$.

1. If $\mathcal{P}' \cap (x_k, x_{k+1}) = \emptyset$, then $x_k = y_\ell$ and $x_{k+1} = y_{\ell+1}$ for some ℓ . Therefore,

$$\sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) = \sup_{x \in [y_\ell, y_{\ell+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+1} - y_\ell).$$

2. If $\mathcal{P}' \cap (x_k, x_{k+1}) = \{y_{\ell+1}, y_{\ell+2}, \dots, y_{\ell+p}\}$, then $x_k = y_\ell$ and $x_{k+1} = y_{\ell+p+1}$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{p+1} \sup_{x \in [y_{\ell+i-1}, y_{\ell+i}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+i} - y_{\ell+i-1}) &= \sup_{x \in [y_\ell, y_{\ell+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+1} - y_\ell) \\ &+ \sup_{x \in [y_{\ell+1}, y_{\ell+2}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+2} - y_{\ell+1}) + \dots + \sup_{x \in [y_{\ell+p}, y_{\ell+p+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+p+1} - y_{\ell+p}) \\ &\leq \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+1} - y_\ell) + \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+2} - y_{\ell+1}) + \dots \\ &+ \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+p+1} - y_{\ell+p}) = \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k). \end{aligned}$$

In either case,

$$\sum_{[y_{\ell-1}, y_\ell] \subseteq [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \sup_{x \in [y_{\ell-1}, y_\ell]} \bar{f}(x)(y_\ell - y_{\ell-1}) \leq \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k).$$

As a consequence,

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}') &= \sum_{\ell=0}^{m-1} \sup_{x \in [y_\ell, y_{\ell+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_{\ell+1} - y_\ell) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{[y_{\ell-1}, y_\ell] \subseteq [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(y_\ell - y_{\ell-1}) \\ &\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) = U(f, \mathcal{P}). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq L(f, \mathcal{P}')$; thus the fact that $L(f, \mathcal{P}') \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}')$ concludes the proposition. \square

Corollary 4.79. *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function bounded by M ; that is, $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $a \leq x \leq b$. Then for all partitions \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 of $[a, b]$,*

$$-M(b-a) \leq L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) \leq M(b-a).$$

Proof. It suffices to show that $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx$. By the definition of infimum and supremum, for any given $\varepsilon > 0$, \exists partitions $\bar{\mathcal{P}}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}$ such that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < L(f, \bar{\mathcal{P}}) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq U(f, \tilde{\mathcal{P}}) < \int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \bar{\mathcal{P}} \cup \tilde{\mathcal{P}}$. Then \mathcal{P} is a refinement of both $\bar{\mathcal{P}}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}$; thus

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < L(f, \bar{\mathcal{P}}) \leq L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \tilde{\mathcal{P}}) < \int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ is given arbitrarily, we must have $\int_a^b f(x)dx \leq \int_a^{\bar{b}} f(x)dx$. \square

Proposition 4.80 (Riemann's condition). *Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded set, and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function. Then f is Riemann integrable over A if and only if*

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \text{ a partition } \mathcal{P} \text{ of } A \ni U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) < \varepsilon.$$

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ” **Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given.** Since f is integrable over A ,

$$\inf_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } A} U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sup_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } A} L(f, \mathcal{P}) = \int_A f(x)dx;$$

thus **there exist \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2** , partitions of A , such that

$$\int_A f(x)dx - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) \leq \int_A f(x)dx \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) < \int_A f(x)dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. Then \mathcal{P} is a refinement of \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 ; thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A f(x)dx - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) &\leq L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq \int_A f(x)dx \\ &\leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) < \int_A f(x)dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

which implies that $U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) < \varepsilon$.

“ \Leftarrow ” We note that for any partition \mathcal{P} of A ,

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq \int_A f(x)dx \leq \int_A f(x)dx \leq U(f, \mathcal{P});$$

so we have that for all partition \mathcal{P} of A ,

$$\int_A f(x)dx - \int_A f(x)dx < U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}).$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. By choosing \mathcal{P} so that $U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) < \varepsilon$, we conclude that

$$\int_A f(x)dx - \int_A f(x)dx < \varepsilon.$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ is given arbitrarily, $\int_A f(x)dx = \int_A f(x)dx$; thus f is Riemann integrable over A . \square

Proposition 4.81. *Suppose that $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are Riemann integrable, and $k \in \mathbb{R}$. Then*

1. kf is Riemann integrable, and $\int_a^b (kf)(x)dx = k \int_a^b f(x)dx$.
2. $f \pm g$ are Riemann integrable, and $\int_a^b (f \pm g)(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx \pm \int_a^b g(x)dx$.
3. If $f \leq g$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x)dx \leq \int_a^b g(x)dx$.
4. If f is also Riemann integrable over $[b, c]$, then f is Riemann integrable over $[a, c]$, and

$$\int_a^c f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_b^c f(x)dx. \quad (4.7.2)$$

5. The function $|f|$ is also Riemann integrable, and $\left| \int_a^b f(x)dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)|dx$.

Proof. 1. Case 1. $k \geq 0$. We note that

$$\inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (kf)(x) = k \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (kf)(x) = k \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(kf, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (kf)(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n k \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}) = kL(f, \mathcal{P}). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $U(kf, \mathcal{P}) = kU(f, \mathcal{P})$ for every partition \mathcal{P} . So

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (kf)(x)dx &= \sup_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } [a, b]} L(kf, \mathcal{P}) = k \sup_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } [a, b]} L(f, \mathcal{P}) \\ &= k \int_a^b f(x)dx = k \int_a^b f(x)dx. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $\int_a^b (kf)(x)dx = k \int_a^b f(x)dx$. Hence kf is integrable and

$$\int_a^b (kf)(x)dx = \int_a^b (kf)(x)dx = k \int_a^b f(x)dx = k \int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

Case 2. $k < 0$. We have

$$\inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (kf)(x) = k \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (kf)(x) = k \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x).$$

Then $L(kf, \mathcal{P}) = kU(f, \mathcal{P})$ and $U(kf, \mathcal{P}) = kL(f, \mathcal{P})$; thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (kf)(x) dx &= \sup_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } [a, b]} L(kf, \mathcal{P}) = \sup_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } [a, b]} kU(f, \mathcal{P}) \\ &= k \inf_{\mathcal{P}: \text{Partition of } [a, b]} U(f, \mathcal{P}) = k \int_a^b f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $\int_a^b (kf)(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$. Hence kf is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$ and

$$\int_a^b (kf)(x) dx = \int_a^b (kf)(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

2. We prove the case of summation. For any partition \mathcal{P} , we have

$$\begin{aligned} L(f + g, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (f + g)(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^n \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}) + \sum_{i=1}^n \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} g(x)(x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &= L(f, \mathcal{P}) + L(g, \mathcal{P}). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $U(f + g, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) + U(g, \mathcal{P})$. Therefore,

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) + L(g, \mathcal{P}) \leq L(f + g, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f + g, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) + U(g, \mathcal{P}). \quad (4.7.3)$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. By Proposition 4.80, $\exists \mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2$ partitions of $[a, b]$ such that

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad U(g, \mathcal{P}_2) - L(g, \mathcal{P}_2) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. By (4.7.3),

$$\begin{aligned} U(f + g, \mathcal{P}) - L(f + g, \mathcal{P}) &\leq (U(f, \mathcal{P}) + U(g, \mathcal{P})) - (L(f, \mathcal{P}) + L(g, \mathcal{P})) \\ &= (U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P})) + (U(g, \mathcal{P}) - L(g, \mathcal{P})) \\ &\leq (U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1)) + (U(g, \mathcal{P}_2) - L(g, \mathcal{P}_2)) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

By Proposition 4.80, $f + g$ is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$.

To see $\int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx$, we note that by Proposition 4.78,

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) &\leq L(f, \mathcal{P}) + U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) < L(f, \mathcal{P}) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &\leq \int_a^b f(x)dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

and similarly, $U(g, \mathcal{P}) < \int_a^b g(x)dx + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Therefore, by (4.7.3),

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx &= \int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx \leq U(f + g, \mathcal{P}) \\ &\leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) + U(g, \mathcal{P}) < \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx + \varepsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (4.7.4)$$

On the other hand,

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) > U(f, \mathcal{P}) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \geq \int_a^b f(x)dx - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

and

$$L(g, \mathcal{P}) > U(g, \mathcal{P}) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \geq \int_a^b g(x)dx - \frac{\varepsilon}{2};$$

hence by (4.7.3),

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx &= \int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx \geq L(f + g, \mathcal{P}) \geq L(f, \mathcal{P}) + L(g, \mathcal{P}) \\ &> \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx - \varepsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (4.7.5)$$

By (4.7.4) and (4.7.5),

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx - \varepsilon < \int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx < \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx + \varepsilon.$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, $\int_a^b (f + g)(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx$.

3. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. Define

$$m_i(f) = \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad m_i(g) = \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} g(x).$$

Since $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, $m_i(f) \leq m_i(g)$. As a consequence, for any partition \mathcal{P} ,

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(f)(x_i - x_{i-1}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(g)(x_i - x_{i-1}) = L(g, \mathcal{P});$$

thus taking the infimum over all partition \mathcal{P} ,

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(g, \mathcal{P}) = \int_a^b g(x)dx = \int_a^b g(x)dx.$$

4. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since f is Riemann integrable of $[a, b]$ and $[b, c]$, there exist a partition \mathcal{P}_1 over $[a, b]$ and a partition \mathcal{P}_2 of $[b, c]$ such that

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_2) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. Then \mathcal{P} is a partition of $[a, c]$ such that

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) = U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) + U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_2) < \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, Proposition 4.80 implies that f is Riemann integrable over $[a, c]$.

Now we show that $\int_a^c f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_b^c f(x)dx$. To simplify the notation, we let

$$A = \int_a^c f(x)dx, \quad B = \int_a^b f(x)dx, \quad C = \int_b^c f(x)dx.$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Then \exists partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[a, c]$ such that

$$A \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) < A + \varepsilon.$$

Let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \cup \{b\}$. Then \mathcal{P}' is a refinement of \mathcal{P} . Moreover,

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}') = U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) + U(f, \mathcal{P}_2),$$

where $\mathcal{P}_1 = \mathcal{P}' \cap [a, b]$ and $\mathcal{P}_2 = \mathcal{P}' \cap [b, c]$ are partitions of $[a, b]$ and $[b, c]$ whose union is \mathcal{P} . Therefore,

$$B + C \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) + U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) = U(f, \mathcal{P}') \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) < A + \varepsilon.$$

On the other hand, \exists partition \mathcal{P}_1 of $[a, b]$ and partition \mathcal{P}_2 of $[b, c]$ such that

$$B \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) < B + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad C \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) < C + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. Then \mathcal{P} is a partition of $[a, c]$. Therefore,

$$A \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) = U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) + U(f, \mathcal{P}_2) < B + C + \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $B + C < A + \varepsilon$ and $A < B + C + \varepsilon$; thus $A = B + C$.

5. Note that for any interval $[\alpha, \beta]$,

$$\sup_{x \in [\alpha, \beta]} |f(x)| - \inf_{x \in [\alpha, \beta]} |f(x)| \leq \sup_{x \in [\alpha, \beta]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [\alpha, \beta]} f(x); \quad (\text{Check!})$$

thus for any partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$,

$$U(|f|, \mathcal{P}) - L(|f|, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}).$$

Therefore, Proposition 4.80 implies that $|f|$ is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. Moreover, since $-|f(x)| \leq f(x) \leq |f(x)|$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, by 3 we have

$$-\int_a^b |f(x)| dx \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx. \quad \square$$

Remark 4.82. The proof of 4 in Proposition 4.81 in fact also shows that if $a < b < c$, then

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx.$$

Similar proof also implies that

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx.$$

Remark 4.83. If $a < b$, we let the number $\int_b^a f(x) dx$ denote the number $-\int_a^b f(x) dx$. Then (4.7.2) holds for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Example 4.84. Let $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}, \\ -1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}^c. \end{cases}$$

Then $f(x)$ is not Riemann integrable over $[0, 1]$ since $U(f, P) = 1$ and $L(f, P) = -1$. However $|f(x)| \equiv 1$, thus $|f|$ is Riemann integrable. In other words, if $|f|$ is integrable, we cannot know whether f is integrable or not.

Theorem 4.85. *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then f is Riemann integrable.*

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Theorem 4.52 implies that

$$\exists \delta > 0 \ni |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)} \text{ whenever } |x - y| < \delta \text{ and } x, y \in [a, b].$$

Let \mathcal{P} be a partition with mesh size less than δ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\sup_{x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(x) \right) (x_k - x_{k-1}) \\ &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)} (x_n - x_0) < \varepsilon; \end{aligned}$$

thus by Proposition 4.80 f is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. \square

Corollary 4.86. *If $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and f is bounded on $[a, b]$, then f is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$.*

Proof. Let $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $f : [a + \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}, b - \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, by Theorem 4.85 f is Riemann integrable; thus

$$\exists \mathcal{P}' : \text{partition of } [a + \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}, b - \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}] \ni U(f, \mathcal{P}') - L(f, \mathcal{P}') < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}' \cup \{a, b\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) &< \left(\sup_{x \in [a, a + \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [a, a + \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}]} f(x) \right) \frac{\varepsilon}{8M} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \left(\sup_{x \in [b - \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}, b]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [b - \frac{\varepsilon}{8M}, b]} f(x) \right) \frac{\varepsilon}{8M} \\ &\leq 2M \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{8M} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + 2M \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{8M} = \varepsilon; \end{aligned}$$

thus Proposition 4.80 implies that f is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. \square

Corollary 4.87. *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and is continuous at all but finitely many points of $[a, b]$, then f is Riemann integrable.*

Proof. Let $\{c_1, \dots, c_N\}$ be the collection of all discontinuities of f in (a, b) such that $c_1 < c_2 < \dots < c_N$. Let $a = c_0$ and $b = c_{N+1}$. Then for all $k = 0, 1, \dots, N$, $f : (c_k, c_{k+1})$ is continuous and $f : [c_k, c_{k+1}]$ is bounded; thus f is Riemann integrable by Corollary 4.87. Finally, 4 of Proposition 4.81 implies that f is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. \square

Theorem 4.88. *Any increasing or decreasing function on $[a, b]$ is Riemann integrable.*

Proof. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a monotone function, and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. W.L.O.G. we may assume that $f(b) \neq f(a)$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$ with mesh size

less than $\frac{\varepsilon}{|f(b) - f(a)|}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\sup_{x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(x) \right) (x_k - x_{k-1}) \\ &< \sum_{k=1}^n |f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})| \frac{\varepsilon}{|f(b) - f(a)|} = |f(b) - f(a)| \frac{\varepsilon}{|f(b) - f(a)|} = \varepsilon; \end{aligned}$$

thus Proposition 4.80 implies that f is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. \square

Definition 4.89. A continuous function $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called an **anti-derivative** (反導函數) of $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ if F is differentiable on (a, b) and $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

Theorem 4.90 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (微積分基本定理)). *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then f has an anti-derivative F , and*

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Moreover, if G is any other anti-derivative of f , we also have $\int_a^b f(x) dx = G(b) - G(a)$.

Proof. Define $F(x) = \int_a^x f(y) dy$, where the integral of f over $[a, x]$ is well-defined because of continuity of f on $[a, x]$. We first show that F is differentiable on (a, b) .

Let $x_0 \in (a, b)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since $[a, b]$ is compact,

$$\exists \delta_1 > 0 \ni |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ whenever } |x - y| < \delta_1 \text{ and } x, y \in [a, b].$$

Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, x_0 - a, b - x_0\}$. By 4 of Proposition 4.81, if $x, x_0 \in (a, b)$,

$$\int_{x_0}^x f(y) dy = \int_a^x f(y) dy - \int_a^{x_0} f(y) dy = F(x) - F(x_0);$$

thus if $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f(x_0) \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x f(y) dx - f(x_0) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x (f(y) - f(x_0)) dy \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{\min\{x_0, x\}}^{\max\{x_0, x\}} |f(y) - f(x_0)| dy \leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{\min\{x_0, x\}}^{\max\{x_0, x\}} \frac{\varepsilon}{2} dy < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f(x_0)$ for all $x_0 \in (a, b)$, so $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

Next we show that F is continuous at $x = a$ and $x = b$. This is simply because of the boundedness of f on $[a, b]$ which implies that

$$\limsup_{x \rightarrow a^+} |F(x) - F(a)| = \limsup_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left| \int_a^x f(t) dt \right| \leq \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)| \cdot \limsup_{x \rightarrow a^+} \int_a^x 1 dt = 0$$

and

$$\limsup_{x \rightarrow b^-} |F(x) - F(b)| = \limsup_{x \rightarrow b^-} \left| \int_x^b f(t) dt \right| \leq \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)| \cdot \limsup_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b 1 dt = 0.$$

Therefore, F is an anti-derivative of f .

Now suppose that G is another anti-derivative of f . Then $(G - F)'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. By Corollary 4.66, $(G - F)(x) = (G - F)(a)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$; thus $G(b) - G(a) = F(b) - F(a)$. \square

Example 4.91. If f is only integrable but not continuous, then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

is not necessarily differentiable. For example, consider

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, \\ x - 1 & \text{if } 1 \leq x \leq 2. \end{cases}$$

so F is continuous on $[0, 2]$ but not differentiable at $x = 1$.

Theorem 4.92. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. If f' is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a)$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. Since $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, by the Mean Value Theorem there exists $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ with the property that $x_k < \xi_{k+1} < x_{k+1}$ for all $k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ such that

$$f'(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) = f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k) \quad \forall k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f'(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f'(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f'(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k).$$

Since $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f'(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)) = f(b) - f(a)$, the inequality above implies that

$$L(f', \mathcal{P}) \leq f(b) - f(a) \leq U(f', \mathcal{P}) \text{ for all partitions } \mathcal{P} \text{ of } [a, b];$$

thus by the definition of the upper and the lower integrals,

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx \leq f(b) - f(a) \leq \bar{\int}_a^b f'(x) dx.$$

We then conclude the theorem by the identity

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = \bar{\int}_a^b f'(x) dx = \int_a^b f'(x) dx$$

since f' is Riemann integrable. \square

Definition 4.93. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of a bounded set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A collection of points $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ is called a **sample set** for the partition \mathcal{P} if $\xi_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ for all $k = 1, \dots, n$.

Let $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function with extension \bar{f} given by (4.7.1). A **Riemann sum** of f for the partition $\mathcal{P} = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b\}$ of A is a sum which takes the form

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\xi_k)(x_{k+1} - x_k),$$

where the set $\Xi = \{\xi_0, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_{n-1}\}$ is a sample set for \mathcal{P} .

Theorem 4.94 (Darboux). *Let $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function with extension \bar{f} given by (4.7.1). Then f is Riemann integrable over A if and only if there exists $I \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for every given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if \mathcal{P} is a partition of A satisfying $\|\mathcal{P}\| < \delta$, then any Riemann sum of f for the partition \mathcal{P} lies in the interval $(I - \varepsilon, I + \varepsilon)$. In other words, f is Riemann integrable over A if and only if for every given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that there exists $I \in \mathbb{R}$ such that*

$$\left| \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) - I \right| < \varepsilon \quad (4.7.6)$$

whenever $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition of A satisfying $\|\mathcal{P}\| < \delta$ and $\{\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_N\}$ is a sample set for \mathcal{P} .

Proof. “ \Leftarrow ” Suppose the right-hand side statement is true. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Then there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if \mathcal{P} is a partition of A satisfying $\|\mathcal{P}\| < \delta$, then for all sets of sample points $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ with respect to \mathcal{P} , we must have

$$\left| \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) - I \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of A with $\|\mathcal{P}\| < \delta$. Choose sets of sample points $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ and $\{\eta_1, \dots, \eta_n\}$ with respect to \mathcal{P} such that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad & \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x) - \frac{\varepsilon}{4(x_n - x_0)} < \bar{f}(\xi_{k+1}) \leq \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x); \\ \text{(b)} \quad & \inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x) + \frac{\varepsilon}{4(x_n - x_0)} > \bar{f}(\eta_{k+1}) \geq \inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x). \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) < \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left[\bar{f}(\xi_{k+1}) + \frac{\varepsilon}{4(x_n - x_0)} \right] (x_{k+1} - x_k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{\varepsilon}{4(x_n - x_0)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (x_{k+1} - x_k) < I + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} = I + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} L(f, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) > \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left[\bar{f}(\eta_{k+1}) - \frac{\varepsilon}{4(x_n - x_0)} \right] (x_{k+1} - x_k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\eta_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) - \frac{\varepsilon}{4(x_n - x_0)} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (x_{k+1} - x_k) > I - \frac{\varepsilon}{4} - \frac{\varepsilon}{4} = I - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence, $I - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) < I + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$; thus $U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) < \varepsilon$.

“ \Rightarrow ” Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given, and $I = \int_A \bar{f}(x) dx$. Since f is Riemann integrable over A , there exists a partition $\mathcal{P}_1 = \{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_m\}$ of A such that $U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Define

$$\delta = \min \left\{ |y_1 - y_0|, |y_2 - y_1|, \dots, |y_m - y_{m-1}|, \frac{\varepsilon}{4m(\sup f(A) - \inf f(A) + 1)} \right\}.$$

If $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition of A with $\|\mathcal{P}\| < \delta$, then at most $2m$ intervals of the form $[x_k, x_{k+1}]$ contains one of these y_j 's, and each such interval $[x_k, x_{k+1}]$ can only contain one of these y_j 's. Let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \cup \mathcal{P}_1$.

Claim: $U(f, \mathcal{P}) - U(f, \mathcal{P}') < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

Proof of claim: We note that

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n-1 \text{ with} \\ \mathcal{P}_1 \cap [x_k, x_{k+1}] = \emptyset}} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) + \sum_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n-1 \text{ with} \\ \mathcal{P}_1 \cap [x_k, x_{k+1}] \neq \emptyset}} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}') &= \sum_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n-1 \text{ with} \\ \mathcal{P}_1 \cap [x_k, x_{k+1}] = \emptyset}} \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - x_k) \\ &\quad + \sum_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n-1 \text{ with} \\ \mathcal{P}_1 \cap [x_k, x_{k+1}] = y_j}} \left[\sup_{x \in [x_k, y_j]} \bar{f}(x)(y_j - x_k) + \sup_{x \in [y_j, x_{k+1}]} \bar{f}(x)(x_{k+1} - y_j) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \mathcal{P}) - U(f, \mathcal{P}') &\leq (\sup f(A) - \inf f(A)) \sum_{\substack{0 \leq k \leq n-1 \text{ with} \\ \mathcal{P}_1 \cap [x_k, x_{k+1}] \neq \emptyset}} (x_{k+1} - x_k) \\ &< 2m(\sup f(A) - \inf f(A))\delta \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, the inequality $U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_1) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ implies that

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - I < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

As a consequence,

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) - I \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) - I + U(f, \mathcal{P}_1) - U(f, \mathcal{P}') < \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, for any sample set $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\}$ with respect to \mathcal{P} ,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}) < I + \varepsilon.$$

Similar argument can be used to show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \bar{f}(\xi_{k+1})(x_{k+1} - x_k) \geq L(f, \mathcal{P}) > I - \varepsilon;$$

thus (4.7.6) is established. \square

Theorem 4.95 (Change of Variable Formula). *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a one-to-one continuously differentiable function, and $f : g([a, b]) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be Riemann integrable. Then $(f \circ g)g'$ is also Riemann integrable, and*

$$\int_{g([a,b])} f(y) dy = \int_a^b f(g(x))|g'(x)| dx.$$

Proof. We only prove the case that f is continuous on $g([a, b])$, and the general case is covered by Theorem 8.65 (which will be proved in detail).

W.L.O.G. we can assume that $g'(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ so that $g([a, b]) = [g(a), g(b)]$. Let F be an anti-derivative of f . Then F is differentiable, and the chain rule implies that

$$\frac{d}{dx}(F \circ g)(x) = (F' \circ g)(x)g'(x) = (f \circ g)(x)g'(x).$$

Therefore, the fundamental theorem of Calculus implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{g([a,b])} f(y)dy &= \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(y)dy = F(g(b)) - F(g(a)) = \int_a^b \frac{d}{dx}(F \circ g)(x)dx \\ &= \int_a^b (f \circ g)(x)g'(x)dx. \end{aligned}$$

□

4.8 Exercises

§4.1 Continuity

Started from this section, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ \mathbb{R}^n always denotes the normed space $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_2)$.

Problem 4.1. Use whatever methods you know to find the following limits:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1 + \sin 2x)^{\frac{1}{x}};$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (\sqrt{1 + x + x^2} - \sqrt{1 - x + x^2});$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2 - x)^{\sec \frac{\pi x}{2}};$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} \right);$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \left(e^{-1} - \left(\frac{x}{x+1} \right)^x \right);$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a^x - 1}{x(a-1)} \right)^{\frac{1}{x}},$ where $a > 0$ and $a \neq 1$.

Problem 4.2. Complete the following.

- Find a function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, y)$$

exist but are not equal.

2. Find a function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that the two limits above exist and are equal but f is not continuous.
3. Find a function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that is continuous on every line through the origin but is not continuous.

Problem 4.3. Complete the following.

1. Show that the projection map $f : \begin{matrix} \mathbb{R}^2 & \rightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y) & \mapsto & x \end{matrix}$ is continuous.
2. Show that if $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is open, then $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in \mathcal{U}\}$ is open.
3. Give an example of a continuous function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and an open set $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(\mathcal{U})$ is not open.

Problem 4.4. Show that $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, where $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, is continuous if and only if for every $B \subseteq A$,

$$f(\text{cl}(B) \cap A) \subseteq \text{cl}(f(B)).$$

Problem 4.5. Let $\|\cdot\|$ be a norm on \mathbb{R}^n , and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = \|x\|$. Show that f is continuous on $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|_2)$.

Hint: Show that $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq C\|x - y\|_2$ for some fixed constant $C > 0$.

Problem 4.6. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ satisfy $T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

1. Show that $T(rx) = rT(x)$ for all $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
2. Suppose that T is continuous on \mathbb{R}^n . Show that T is linear; that is, $T(cx + y) = cT(x) + T(y)$ for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
3. Suppose that T is continuous at some point x_0 in \mathbb{R}^n . Show that T is continuous on \mathbb{R}^n .
4. Suppose that T is bounded on some open subset of \mathbb{R}^n . Show that T is continuous on \mathbb{R}^n .
5. Suppose that T is bounded from above (or below) on some open subset of \mathbb{R}^n . Show that T is continuous on \mathbb{R}^n .

6. Construct a $T : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is discontinuous at every point of \mathbb{R} , but $T(x + y) = T(x) + T(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

Problem 4.7. Let (M, d) be a metric space, $A \subseteq M$, and $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. For $a \in A'$, define

$$\begin{aligned}\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) &= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in D(a, r) \cap A \setminus \{a\}\}, \\ \limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) &= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \sup \{f(x) \mid x \in D(a, r) \cap A \setminus \{a\}\}.\end{aligned}$$

Complete the following.

1. Show that both $\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exist (which may be $\pm\infty$), and

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x).$$

Furthermore, there exist sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty, \{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq A \setminus \{a\}$ such that $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ and $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ both converge to a , and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(y_n) = \limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x).$$

2. Let $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq A \setminus \{a\}$ be a convergent sequence with limit a . Show that

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(y_n) \leq \limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x).$$

3. Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \ell$ if and only if

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \ell.$$

4. Show that $\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \ell \in \mathbb{R}$ if and only if the following two conditions hold:

- (a) for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $\ell - \varepsilon < f(x)$ for all $x \in D(a, \delta) \cap A \setminus \{a\}$;
 (b) for all $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta > 0$, there exists $x \in D(a, \delta) \cap A \setminus \{a\}$ such that $f(x) < \ell + \varepsilon$.

Formulate a similar criterion for limsup and for the case that $\ell = \pm\infty$.

5. Compute the liminf and limsup of the following functions at any point of \mathbb{R} .

$$(a) \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}^c, \\ \frac{1}{p} & \text{if } x = \frac{q}{p} \text{ with } (p, q) = 1, q > 0, p \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

$$(b) f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}, \\ -x & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q}^c. \end{cases}$$

Problem 4.8. Let (M, d) be a metric space, and $A \subseteq M$. A function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called lower semi-continuous at $a \in A$ if $\liminf_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \geq f(a)$, and is called upper semi-continuous at $a \in A$ if $\limsup_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq f(a)$, and is called lower/upper semi-continuous on A if f is lower/upper semi-continuous at a for all $a \in A$.

1. Show that if $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is lower semi-continuous on A , then $f^{-1}((-\infty, r])$ is closed relative to A . Also show that if $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is upper semi-continuous on A , then $f^{-1}([r, \infty))$ is closed relative to A .
2. Show that f is lower semi-continuous at a if and only if for all convergent sequences $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq A$ and $\{r_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $f(x_n) \leq r_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n\right) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n.$$

3. Let $\{f_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ be a family of lower semi-continuous functions on A . Prove that $f(x) = \sup_{\alpha \in I} f_\alpha(x)$ is lower semi-continuous on A .
4. Let $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given. Define

$$f^*(x) = \limsup_{y \rightarrow x} f(y) \quad \text{and} \quad f_*(x) = \liminf_{y \rightarrow x} f(y).$$

Show that f^* is upper semi-continuous and f_* is lower semi-continuous, and $f_*(x) \leq f(x) \leq f^*(x)$ for all $x \in A$. Moreover, if g is a lower semi-continuous function on A such that $g(x) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in A$, then $g \leq f_*$.

§4.2 Operations on Continuous Maps

Problem 4.9.

Problem 4.10.

§4.3 Images of Compact Sets under Continuous Maps

Problem 4.11. Complete the following.

1. Show that if $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous, and $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is bounded, then $f(B)$ is bounded.

2. If $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is compact, is $f^{-1}(K)$ necessarily compact?

3. If $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is connected, is $f^{-1}(C)$ necessarily connected?

Problem 4.12. Consider a compact set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be continuous and one-to-one. Show that the inverse function $f^{-1} : f(K) \rightarrow K$ is continuous. How about if K is not compact but connected?

Problem 4.13. Let (M, d) be a metric space, $K \subseteq M$ be compact, and $f : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be lower semi-continuous (see Problem 4.8 for the definition). Show that f attains its minimum on K .

§4.4 Images of Connected and Path Connected Sets under Continuous Maps

Problem 4.14. Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open connected set, where $n > 1$. If a, b and c are any three points in \mathcal{D} , show that there is a path in \mathcal{D} which connects a and b without passing through c . In particular, this shows that \mathcal{D} is path connected and \mathcal{D} is not homeomorphic to any subset of \mathbb{R} .

Problem 4.15.

§4.5 Uniform Continuity

Problem 4.16. Check if the following functions are uniformly continuous.

1. $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \sin \log x$.
2. $f : (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}$.
3. $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$.
4. $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \cos(x^2)$.
5. $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \cos^3 x$.
6. $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x \sin x$.

Problem 4.17. Find all positive numbers a and b such that the function $f(x) = \frac{\sin(x^a)}{1+x^b}$ is uniformly continuous on $[0, \infty)$.

Problem 4.18. Find all positive numbers a and b such that the function $f(x, y) = |x|^a|y|^b$ is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R}^2 .

Problem 4.19. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be continuous, and $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = b$ exists for some $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Show that f is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R}^n .

Problem 4.20. Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is uniformly continuous. Show that there exists $a > 0$ and $b > 0$ such that $\|f(x)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} \leq a\|x\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} + b$.

Problem 4.21. Let $f(x) = \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}$ be a rational function define on \mathbb{R} , where p and q are two polynomials. Show that f is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} if and only if the degree of q is not more than the degree of p plus 1.

Problem 4.22. Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous periodic function; that is, $\exists p > 0$ such that $f(x + p) = f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ (and f is continuous). Show that f is uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Problem 4.23. Let $(a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an open interval, and $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function. Show that the following three statements are equivalent.

1. f is uniformly continuous on (a, b) .
2. f is continuous on (a, b) , and both limits $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x)$ exist.
3. For all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $\left| \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} \right| > N$.

Problem 4.24. Suppose that $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Hölder continuous with exponent α ; that is, there exist $M > 0$ and $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ such that

$$|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| \leq M|x_1 - x_2|^\alpha \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in [a, b].$$

Show that f is uniformly continuous on $[a, b]$. Show that $f : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is Hölder continuous with exponent $\frac{1}{2}$.

Problem 4.25. A function $f : A \times B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, where $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$, is said to be separately continuous if for each $x_0 \in A$, the map $g(y) = f(x_0, y)$ is continuous and for

$y_0 \in B$, $h(x) = f(x, y_0)$ is continuous. f is said to be continuous on A uniformly with respect to B if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni \|f(x, y) - f(x_0, y)\|_2 < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } \|x - x_0\|_2 < \delta \text{ and } y \in B.$$

Show that if f is separately continuous and is continuous on A uniformly with respect to B , then f is continuous on $A \times B$.

Problem 4.26. Let (M, d) be a metric space, $A \subseteq M$, and $f, g : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be uniformly continuous on A . Show that if f and g are bounded, then fg is uniformly continuous on A . Does the conclusion still hold if f or g is not bounded?

§4.6 Differentiation of Functions of One Variable

Problem 4.27. Show that $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $x_0 \in (a, b)$ if and only if there exists $m \in \mathbb{R}$, denoted by $f'(x_0)$, such that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni |f(x) - f(x_0) - f'(x_0)(x - x_0)| \leq \varepsilon|x - x_0| \text{ whenever } |x - x_0| < \delta.$$

Problem 4.28. Suppose that $f, g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable, and $f \geq 0$. Find $\frac{d}{dx} f(x)g(x)$.

Problem 4.29. Suppose α and β are real numbers, $\beta > 0$ and $f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^\alpha \sin(x^{-\beta}) & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Prove the following statements.

1. f is continuous if and only if $\alpha > 0$.
2. $f'(0)$ exists if and only if $\alpha > 1$.
3. f' is bounded if and only if $\alpha \geq 1 + \beta$.
4. f' is continuous if and only if $\alpha > 1 + \beta$.
5. $f''(0)$ exists if and only if $\alpha > 2 + \beta$.
6. f'' is bounded if and only if $\alpha \geq 2 + 2\beta$.
7. f'' is continuous if and only if $\alpha > 2 + 2\beta$.

Problem 4.30 (The inverse statement of the chain rule). Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and $g : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at $y_0 = f(x_0) \in (c, d)$. Show that if $(g \circ f)$ is differentiable at x_0 and $g'(y_0) \neq 0$, then f is differentiable at x_0 .

Problem 4.31. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a polynomial, and f has a double root at a and b . Show that $f'(x)$ has at least three roots in $[a, b]$.

Problem 4.32. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. Assume that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $0 \leq f'(x) \leq f(x)$. Show that $g(x) = e^{-x}f(x)$ is decreasing. If f vanishes at some point, conclude that f is zero.

Problem 4.33. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be twice differentiable. Suppose that $f(x+h) - f(x) = hf'(x+\theta h)$ for all $x, h \in \mathbb{R}$, where θ is independent of h . Show that f is a quadratic polynomial.

Problem 4.34. Let f be a differentiable function defined on some interval I of \mathbb{R} . Prove that f' maps connected subsets of I into connected set; that is, f' has the intermediate value property.

Problem 4.35. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a polynomial, and f has a double root at a and b . Show that $f'(x)$ has at least three roots in $[a, b]$.

Problem 4.36. Let $f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function such that $x^2 + f(x)^2 = 1$ for all $|x| \leq 1$. Define $C = \{x \mid |x| \leq 1, f \text{ is continuous at } x\}$. Show that C contains at least 2 points and $C \cap (-1, 1)$ is an open set. Hence if f is continuous at more than 2 points, it is continuous at uncountably many points.

Problem 4.37. Let $f, g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable functions. Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0$, $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists. Show that the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ also exists, and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

Problem 4.38. Let $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable functions. Show that if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} g(x) = \infty$, $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, and the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

exists and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}. \quad (\star)$$

Hint: Let $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ and $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Choose $c \in (a, b)$ such that

$$\left| \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} - L \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \forall a < x < c.$$

Then for $a < x < c$, the Cauchy mean value theorem implies that for some $\xi \in (x, c)$ such that

$$\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{g(x) - g(c)} = \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)}.$$

Show that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $a + \delta < c$ and

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{g(x) - g(c)} - \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \forall x \in (a, a + \delta)$$

and then conclude (\star) .

Problem 4.39. Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be k -times differentiable, and $c \in (a, b)$. Let $h_k : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$h_k(x) = f(x) - \sum_{j=0}^k \frac{f^{(j)}(c)}{j!} (x - c)^j.$$

Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{h_k(x)}{(x - c)^k} = 0$.

Problem 4.40. Two metric spaces (M, d) and (N, ρ) are called **homeomorphic** if there exists a continuous map $f : M \rightarrow N$, called a **homeomorphism** between M and N , such that f is one-to-one and onto, and its inverse f^{-1} is also continuous. Homeomorphic metric spaces have the same topological properties. In the following problems, (M, d) and (N, ρ) are two metric spaces.

1. Suppose that M is compact, and $f : M \rightarrow N$ is one-to-one and onto. Show that f is a homeomorphism between M and N .
2. Suppose that f is a homeomorphism between M and N . Show that the restriction of f to any subset $A \subseteq M$ establishes a homeomorphism between A and $f(A)$.
3. Determine which of the following pairs of metric spaces is homeomorphic.

- (a) $M = (a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $N = \mathbb{R}$.
- (b) M is an open ball in \mathbb{R}^n and $N = \mathbb{R}^n$.
- (c) $M = \mathbb{R}$ and $N = \mathbb{R}^n$.
- (d) $M = [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ and $N = [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.
- (e) $M = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ and $N = [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.
- (f) $M = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ and $N = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + xy + y^2 = 1\}$.
- (g) $M = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $N = \mathbb{R}^3$.
4. Let $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an interval and $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a one-to-one continuous function. Show that f must be strictly monotonic in I and f is a homeomorphism between I and $f(I)$.
- If $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ for $n > 1$ and $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is continuous and one-to-one, can we still assert that f is homeomorphism between I and $f(I)$?

§4.7 Integration of Functions of One Variable

Problem 4.41. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function, and \mathcal{P}_n denote the division of $[a, b]$ into 2^n equal sub-intervals. Show that f is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$ if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U(f, \mathcal{P}_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(f, \mathcal{P}_n).$$

Problem 4.42. Let $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be functions, where g is continuous, and f be non-negative, bounded, Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. Show that

1. fg is Riemann integrable.
2. $\exists x_0 \in (a, b)$ such that

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(x_0) \int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

Problem 4.43. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable and assume that f' is Riemann integrable. Prove that $\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a)$.

Hint: Use the Mean Value Theorem.

Problem 4.44. Suppose that $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable, $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, and $\varphi : [m, M] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Show that $\varphi \circ f$ is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$.

Problem 4.45 (True or False). Determine whether the following statements are true or false. If it is true, prove it. Otherwise, give a counter-example.

1. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, ax^n) = 0$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(0, y) = 0$. Then $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = 0$.
2. There exists a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is continuous only at three points of \mathbb{R} .
3. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then f is continuous on \mathbb{R} if and only if its graph $\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is closed in \mathbb{R}^2 .
4. Let I_1 and I_2 be open intervals in \mathbb{R} . Then $f : I_1 \rightarrow I_2$ is a diffeomorphism if and only if f is differentiable and $f'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in I_1$.
5. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. If f^2 is Riemann integrable, then f is Riemann integrable.
6. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. If f is Riemann integrable, then $\sqrt[3]{f}$ is Riemann integrable.
7. Let $f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$ be defined on $(0, 1]$. Then no matter how we define $f(0)$, f is always Riemann integrable on $[0, 1]$.