

Analysis Seminar (Shorter) Summary

Inverse and Implicit Function Theorems

Lemma. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n , $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be C^1 . If $Df(\mathbf{a})$ is non-singular then there exists $\alpha > 0$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| \geq \alpha |x_1 - x_2|$ for all x_1, x_2 in $C(\mathbf{a}, \varepsilon)$.

Inverse Function Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n and $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be C^r . If Df is non-singular then there is a neighborhood, U , about \mathbf{x} and a neighborhood, V , about $f(\mathbf{x})$ such that $f: U \rightarrow V$ is onto V . Then f^{-1} is C^r .

Implicit Function Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^{n+k} . Let $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be C^r . Write f as $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^k$ and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{R}^n$. Let $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \in A$ with $f(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = 0$ and $\det \partial f / \partial \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \neq 0$. Then, there exists a unique $g: \mathbf{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ such that $f(\mathbf{a}, g(\mathbf{a})) = 0$.

Integration Theory

Definition. The volume of Q is given by $v(Q) = (b_1 - a_1) \dots (b_n - a_n)$.

Definition. The lower and upper sums of a partition, P , where each R is a subrectangle of P are $L(f; P) = \sum_R m_{Rv}(R)$ and $U(f; P) = \sum_R M_{Rv}(R)$.

Definition. The upper and lower integrals and $\int_Q f = \sup\{L(f; P)\}$ and $\int_Q f = \inf\{U(f; P)\}$.

Definition. f is integrable over Q if $\int_Q f = \int_Q f$. We set $\int_Q f$ equal to this value.

Theorem. Let $Q \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ and $f: Q \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be bounded. Let D be the set of discontinuities of f on Q . Then, f is integrable over Q if and only if D has measure 0.

Definition. Let $S \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be bounded and $f: S \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be bounded. Let $f_S: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be defined by $f_S(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$ if $\mathbf{x} \in S$ and $f_S(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ elsewhere. We define $\int_S f$ by $\int_Q f_S$ where Q is any rectangle containing S .

Definition. Let S be bounded in \mathbf{R}^n . If the constant function 1 is integrable over S , we say S is rectifiable.

Theorem. S is rectifiable if and only if S is bounded and $\text{Bd } S$ has measure 0.

Theorem. Let $S \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be rectifiable. Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be bounded and discontinuous only on a set of measure 0. Then, $\int_S f$ exists.

Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be continuous. Choose a sequence, $\{C_n\}$ of compact rectifiable subsets of A whose union is A , such that $C_n \subset \text{Int } C_{n+1}$. f is integrable over A if and only if $\{\int_{C_n} |f|\}$ is bounded. Then, $\int_A f = \lim \int_{C_n} f$.

Partitions of Unity

Definition. If $\phi: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ the support of ϕ is the closure of $\{\mathbf{x} \mid \phi(\mathbf{x}) \neq 0\}$.

Theorem. Let A be a collection of sets in \mathbf{R}^n . Let A be their union. There exists $\{\phi_i\}$, $\phi_i: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ which fulfill the following conditions:

1. $\phi(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$ for all \mathbf{x} .
2. $S_i = \text{Support } \phi_i \subset A$ for all ϕ_i .
3. If $\mathbf{x} \in A$ then \mathbf{x} is contained in a finite number of S_i .
4. $\sum \phi_i(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in A$.
5. Each ϕ_i is C^∞ .
6. The S_i are compact.
7. Each S_i is contained in one element of A .

Definition. A set of functions fulfilling the first four conditions is called a partition of unity.

Theorem. Let $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be open. Let $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be continuous. Let $\{\phi_i\}$ be a partition of unity on A with compact supports. The integral $\int_A f$ exists if and only if $\sum (\int_A \phi_i |f|)$ converges. In this case, $\int_A f = \sum (\int_A \phi_i f)$.

Change of Variables Theorem

Definition. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n , $g: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be one-to-one and of class C^r , with $\det Dg(\mathbf{x}) \neq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in A$. Then, g is called a change of variables or a diffeomorphism.

Change of Variables Theorem. Let $g: A \rightarrow B$ be a diffeomorphism of open sets in \mathbf{R}^n .

Let $f: B \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be continuous. Then, f is integrable over B if and only if $(f \circ g)|\det Dg|$ is integrable over A . In that case, $\int_B f = \int_A (f \circ g)|\det Dg|$.

Manifolds

Theorem. There is a unique function, V , that assigns to every k -tuple of elements in \mathbf{R}^n a non-negative number such that (1) If $h: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ is an isometry then $V(h(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, h(\mathbf{x}_n)) = V(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$, and (2) If $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbf{R}^k \times \mathbf{0}^{n-k} \subset \mathbf{R}^n$, so that $\mathbf{y}_i = [\mathbf{z}_i \ \mathbf{0}]$ then $V(\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_k) = |\det [\mathbf{z}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{z}_k]|$. In addition, $V(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) = 0$ if and only if $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$ are dependent. Notice that V is defined by $V = (\det X^T X)^{1/2}$ where $X = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{x}_k]$. We call this volume. Also, $V(X) = (\sum_{[I]} (\det X_I)^2)^{1/2}$ where $[I]$ is the set of all ascending k -tuples from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Definition. Let $k > 0$. Let $M \subset \mathbf{R}^n$. Suppose that for any $\mathbf{p} \in M$ there exists V containing \mathbf{p} such that V is open in M and there exists an open set $U \subset \mathbf{R}^k$ and a one-to-one and onto $\alpha: U \rightarrow V$ such that (1) α is C^r , (2) $\alpha^{-1}: V \rightarrow U$ is continuous, and (3) $D\alpha$ has rank k everywhere on U . Then we call α a coordinate patch and M is a k -manifold without boundary.

Theorem. Let M be a k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n of class C^r . Let $\alpha_0: U_0 \rightarrow V_0$, $\alpha_1: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ be coordinate patches on M with $W = V_0 \cap V_1 \neq \emptyset$. Let $W_i = \alpha_i^{-1}(W)$. Then $\alpha_1^{-1} \circ \alpha_0: W_0 \rightarrow W_1$ is C^r and $D(\alpha_1^{-1} \circ \alpha_0)$ is non-singular.

Definition. Let M be a k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $\mathbf{p} \in M$. If there is a coordinate patch, $\alpha: U \rightarrow V$ on M about \mathbf{p} that is open in \mathbf{R}^k then \mathbf{p} is an interior point. If there is no such coordinate patch, then \mathbf{p} is a boundary point. The set of all boundary points is ∂M .

Scalar Functions on Manifolds.

Definition. Let M be a k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $f: M \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$. Suppose $\text{Support}(f) \subset V$ and $\alpha: U \rightarrow V$ is a coordinate patch. Then, we define $\int_M f = \int_U (f \circ \alpha) V(D\alpha)$.

Definition. Let M be a k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n and $f: M \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$. Let V be a collection of coordinate patches on M . Choose a partition of unity on \mathbf{R}^n dominated by V (by extending each $V \in V$ to an open set in \mathbf{R}^n). Since M is compact, all but finitely many ϕ_i vanish at any point of M . Then, $\int_M f = \sum \int_M \phi_i f$.

Tensors, Transformations, and Differential Forms

Definition. $f: V^k \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is a tensor if f is multi-linear (linear in the i^{th} coordinate, when all other coordinates are fixed, for all i). The set of all k -tensors on V is $L^k(V)$.

Theorem. There is a unique $\phi_I: V^k \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ such that for all $J = (j_1, \dots, j_k)$, $\phi_I(a_{j_1}, \dots, a_{j_k}) = 1$ if $I = J$, 0 if $I \neq J$. $\{\phi_I\}$ is a basis for $L^k(V)$ (which is a vector space).

Definition. Let f be a k -tensor and g an l -tensor over the same vector space. The tensor product is defined by $f \otimes g (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{k+l}) = f(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k) g(\mathbf{v}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{k+l})$.

Theorem. If ϕ_I is a k -tensor with $I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$, then $\phi_I = \phi_{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \phi_{i_k}$, where ϕ_{ij} is a 1-tensor.

Definition. A k -tensor on V is alternating if $f(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{i-1}, \mathbf{v}_{i+1}, \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_{i+2}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n) = -f(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n)$. The set of all alternating k -tensors is $A^k(V)$.

Theorem. Let V be a vector space with basis $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n\}$. Let $I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$ be an ascending k -tuple. There exists a unique k -tensor, Ψ_I , on V , such that for all ascending k -tuples, J , $\Psi_I(\mathbf{a}_{j_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{j_k}) = 1$ if $I = J$ and 0 otherwise. These tensors form a basis for $A^k(V)$.

Definition. We define a linear transformation $A: L^k(V) \rightarrow L^k(V)$ by $Af = \sum_{\sigma} (\text{sgn } \sigma) f^{\sigma}$.

If f is an alternating k -tensor and g is an alternating l -tensor on V , we define the wedge product, an alternating $k+l$ tensor on V , by $f \wedge g = A(f \otimes g) / k! l!$.

Note. $\Psi_I = A\phi_I = \phi_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_{i_k}$. $\Psi_I(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k) = \det X_I$.

Theorem. The wedge product is associative, homogeneous, and distributive. In addition, $g \wedge f = (-1)^{kl} f \wedge g$. The wedge product is preserved under the pullback: $T^*(f \wedge g) = (T^*f) \wedge (T^*g)$.

Definition. Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$. A tangent vector to \mathbf{R}^n at \mathbf{x} is $(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v})$, where $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{R}^n$. We define: $(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ and $c(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{x}; c\mathbf{v})$. The set of all tangent vectors to \mathbf{R}^n at \mathbf{x} is called the tangent space to \mathbf{R}^n at \mathbf{x} , or $T_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{R}^n)$.

Definition. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^k or \mathbf{H}^k , $\alpha: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be of class C^r . Let $\mathbf{x} \in A$ and $\mathbf{p} = \alpha(\mathbf{x})$. We define $\alpha_*: T_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{R}^k) \rightarrow T_{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{R}^n)$ by $\alpha_*(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{p}; D\alpha(\mathbf{x}) * \mathbf{v})$. This is the transformation induced by α and a push-forward.

Lemma. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^k or \mathbf{H}^k . Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$ be C^r . Let B be open in \mathbf{R}^m or \mathbf{H}^m , with $\alpha(A) \subset B$. Let $\beta: B \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be C^r . Then, $(\beta \circ \alpha)_* = \beta_* \circ \alpha_*$.

Definition. Let M be a k -manifold of class C^r in \mathbf{R}^n . If $\mathbf{p} \in M$, choose a coordinate patch $\alpha: U \rightarrow V$ about \mathbf{p} . Let $\mathbf{x} \in U$ such that $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{p}$. Then we define the tangent space to M at \mathbf{p} by $T_{\mathbf{p}}(M) = \alpha_*(T_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{R}^k)) = \{\alpha_*(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}) \mid \mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{R}^k\}$.

Definition. Let $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be open. A tangent vector field in A is a continuous function $F: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n \times \mathbf{R}^n$ such that $F(\mathbf{x}) \in T_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{R}^n)$. Thus, we may write $F(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}; f(\mathbf{x}))$ where $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$.

Definition. Let $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be open. A k -tensor field in A is $\omega: \mathbf{x} \rightarrow L^k(T_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{R}^n))$; in other words, ω assigns a k -tensor defined on $T_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{R}^n)$ to each $\mathbf{x} \in A$. Notice that $\omega(\mathbf{x})((\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}_k))$ must be continuous as a function of $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$. If $\omega(\mathbf{x})$ is an alternating k -tensor for all \mathbf{x} , we call ω a differential form of order k on A .

Definition. The elementary 1-forms on \mathbf{R}^n are given by $\phi_i(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{e}_j) = 1$ if $i = j$, 0 otherwise. The elementary k -forms on \mathbf{R}^n are given by $\psi_I(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_{i_1}(\mathbf{x}) \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_{i_k}(\mathbf{x})$, where $I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$ is an ascending k -tuple.

Note. If ω is a k -form on A , we may write $\omega(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{|I|} b_I(\mathbf{x}) \psi_I(\mathbf{x})$, where the b_I are scalar functions and are called the components of ω .

Definition. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n . If $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is C^r , f is called a scalar field in A and a differential form of order 0.

Note. $\omega(\mathbf{x}) \wedge f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) \omega(\mathbf{x})$.

Definition. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n and $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be C^{∞} . The, $d(f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v})) = Df(\mathbf{x}) \bullet \mathbf{v}$. We call this the differential of f .

Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n and $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be C^∞ . Then, $df = (D_1f)dx_1 + \dots + (D_nf)dx_n$.

Definition. Let $\omega \in \Omega^k(A)$, $j > 0$. Let $\omega = \sum_{[I]} f_I dx_I$. We define $d\omega = \sum_{[I]} df_I \wedge dx_I$.

Theorem. Let $d: \Omega^k(A) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(A)$.

- d is linear ($d(a\omega + b\eta) = a(d\omega) + b(d\eta)$).
- $d(\omega \wedge \eta) = d\omega \wedge \eta + (-1)^k \omega \wedge d\eta$, where ω is a k -form and η is any form.
- $d(d\omega) = 0$ for all forms.

Definition. A form, ω , is closed if $d\omega = 0$.

Definition. A form, ω , is exact if $\omega = d\theta$ for some $k-1$ form θ .

Definition. Let B be open in \mathbf{R}^n and $\alpha(A) \subset B$. A dual transformation of forms (pullback) is given by $(\alpha^*f)(\mathbf{x}) = f(\alpha(\mathbf{x}))$ if f is a 0 form, and $((\alpha^*\omega)(\mathbf{x}))(\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k) = \omega(\alpha(\mathbf{x}))(\alpha_*(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}_1), \dots, \alpha_*(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{v}_k))$.

Proposition. Let ω, η , and θ be forms, with ω and η having the same order. Then:

- $\alpha^*(a\omega + b\eta) = a\alpha^*(\omega) + b\alpha^*(\eta)$ [linear]
- $\alpha^*(\omega \wedge \theta) = \alpha^*(\omega) \wedge \alpha^*(\theta)$
- $(\beta \circ \alpha)^* = \alpha^* \circ \beta^*$
- $\alpha^*(d\omega) = d(\alpha^*\omega)$.

Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^k . Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ be C^∞ . Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^k$ and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ with $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$. If $I = (i_1, \dots, i_l)$ is an ascending l -tuple from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ then $\alpha^*(dy_I) = \sum_{[J]} \det(\partial\alpha_I / \partial x_J) dx_J$.

Integrating over a Manifold.

Note. $\int_A f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n = \int_A f$, for $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$.

Theorem. Let $\omega = f dz_I$. Then, $\int_{Y\alpha} \omega = \int_A \alpha^*\omega = \int_A (f \circ \alpha) \det(\partial\alpha_I/\partial x)$.

Definition. Let M be a k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $\alpha_0: U_0 \rightarrow V_0$ and $\alpha_1: U_1 \rightarrow V_1$ be coordinate patches on M . If $V_0 \cap V_1$ is non-empty, then α_0 and α_1 overlap. If α_0 and α_1 overlap and $\alpha_1^{-1} \circ \alpha_0$ is orientation-preserving, then α_0 and α_1 overlap positively. If α_0 and α_1 overlap and $\alpha_1^{-1} \circ \alpha_0$ is not orientation-preserving, then α_0 and α_1 overlap negatively. If we may cover M by coordinate patches that overlap positively or not at all, we call M orientable.

Definition. Let M be a compact oriented k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let ω be a k -form defined in an open set of \mathbf{R}^n containing M . Let $C = M \cap \text{Support } \omega$; note that C is compact.

Suppose there is a coordinate patch $\alpha: U \rightarrow V$ on M belonging to the orientation of M with $C \subset V$. Assume U is bounded. We define the integral of ω over M as $\int_M \omega = \int_{\text{Int } U} \alpha^*(\omega)$.

Definition. Let M be a compact oriented k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let ω be a k -form defined in an open set of \mathbf{R}^n containing M . Cover M by coordinate patches belonging to the orientation of M ; choose a partition of unity on M dominated by these coordinate patches. We define $\int_M \omega = \sum (\int_M \phi_i \omega)$.

Definition. A 0-manifold is a finite collection of points, $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ in \mathbf{R}^n . We define an orientation on such a manifold by a function $\varepsilon: \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$. $\int_M f = \sum \varepsilon(\mathbf{x}_i)f(\mathbf{x}_i)$.

Definition. Let M be an oriented 1-manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . We define the orientation of ∂M by $\varepsilon(\mathbf{p}) = -1$ if there exists $\alpha: U \rightarrow V$, about \mathbf{p} , with $U \subset \mathbf{H}^k$ and $\varepsilon(\mathbf{p}) = 1$ otherwise.

Stokes Theorem. Let M be an oriented k manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let ∂M have the induced orientation. Let ω be a $k-1$ form on an open set containing M . Then, $\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$.

Lebesgue Measure

Definition. A σ -algebra, or a Borel field, is an algebra of sets that is closed under countable union (and therefore countable intersection). A Borel set is the smallest σ -algebra that contains the closed and open intervals.

Definition. The outer measure of a set $E \subset \mathbf{R}$ is $m^*E = \inf_{E \subset \cup I_n} \sum l(I_n)$ (where $l(I)$ is the length of the interval), so that $\{I_n\}$ is a set of intervals that covers E .

Proposition. Let $\{A_n\}$ be any countable collection of sets. Then, $m^*(\cup A_n) \leq \sum m^*A_n$. (This is called countable subadditivity.)

Proposition. Given any set A and $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an open set O such that $A \subset O$ and $m^*O \leq m^*A + \varepsilon$. There is a $G \in G_\delta$ such that $A \subset G$ and $m^*A = m^*G$.

Definition. E is measurable if, for all A , $m^*A = m^*(A \cap E) + m^*(A \cap E^C)$.

Lemma. If $m^*E = 0$, E is measurable.

Theorem. The measurable sets form an algebra.

Lemma. Let A be any set. Let E_1, \dots, E_n be a finite sequence of disjoint measurable sets. Then, $m^*(A \cap (\cup E_i)) = \sum m^*(A \cap E_i)$.

Lemma. (a, ∞) is measurable.

Theorem. Every Borel set is measurable.

Proposition. Let $\{E_i\}$ be an infinite, decreasing (ie. $E_{i+1} \subset E_i$) sequence of measurable sets. Let $mE_1 < \infty$. Then, $m(\cap E_i) = \lim mE_n$.

Proposition. Let E be a set. The following are equivalent:

- i. E is measurable.
- ii. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists an open set $O \supset E$ with $m^*(O - E) < \varepsilon$.
- iii. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a closed set $F \subset E$ with $m^*(E - F) < \varepsilon$.
- iv. There is a $G \in G_\delta$ with $E \subset G$ such that $m^*(G - E) = 0$.
- v. There is an $F \in F_\sigma$ with $F \subset E$ such that $m^*(E - F) = 0$.
- vi. (If $m^*E < \infty$, then) If $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a *finite* union $U = \cup I_i$ such that $m^*((U - E) \cup (E - U)) < \varepsilon$.

Proposition. Let f be any function. Let $a \in \mathbf{R}$. The following are equivalent:

- i. $\{x \mid f(x) > a\}$ is measurable.
- ii. $\{x \mid f(x) < a\}$ is measurable.
- iii. $\{x \mid f(x) \leq a\}$ is measurable.
- iv. $\{x \mid f(x) \geq a\}$ is measurable.

Definition. A function is measurable if its domain is measurable and the conditions above hold.

Theorem. Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence of measurable functions defined on the same domain. Then the functions $\sup\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$, $\inf\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$, $\sup_n f_n$, $\inf_n f_n$, $\limsup f_n$, and $\liminf f_n$ are also measurable.

Theorem. If f is measurable and $f = g$ almost everywhere, then g is measurable.

Littlewood's Three Principles. Every measurable set is nearly a union of intervals. Every measurable function is nearly continuous. Every convergent sequence of measurable functions is nearly uniformly convergent.

Lebesgue Integration

Definition. A simple function, φ , is defined by $\varphi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \chi_{E_i}(x)$, where χ_{E_i} is the characteristic function of E_i (1 on E_i , 0 elsewhere).

Note. φ is simple if and only if it is measurable and takes on a finite number of values.

Definition. Let $\varphi = \sum a_i \chi_{E_i}$. We define $\int \varphi = \sum a_i mE_i$.

Definition. If f is bounded and measurable on a set E of finite measure, we define $\int_E f = \inf_{\psi \geq f} \int_E \psi = \sup_{\varphi \leq f} \int_E \varphi$.

Proposition. If f and g are bounded, measurable functions defined on a set E of finite measure, then:

- $\int_E (af + bg) = a \int_E f + b \int_E g$.
- If $g \leq f$ almost everywhere, then $\int_E g \leq \int_E f$.
- If $A \leq f(x) \leq B$ almost everywhere, then $A(mE) \leq \int_E f \leq B(mE)$.
- If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and A, B have finite measure, $\int_{A \cup B} f = \int_A f + \int_B f$.

Definition. If f is non-negative and measurable on any measurable set E , we define $\int_E f = \sup_{h \leq f} \int_E h$ where h is bounded, measurable, and non-zero only on a set of finite measure. f is integrable over the measurable set E if $\int_E f < \infty$.

Definition. Let f be any function. Define $f^+(x) = \max\{f(x), 0\}$ and $f^-(x) = -\min\{f(x), 0\} = \max\{-f(x), 0\}$.

Definition. Let f be measurable. f is integrable over E if f^+ and f^- are integrable. Then, $\int_E f = \int_E f^+ - \int_E f^-$.

Proposition. The following properties hold for the general Lebesgue integral:

- $\int_E (af + bg) = a \int_E f + b \int_E g$.
- If $g \leq f$ almost everywhere, then $\int_E g \leq \int_E f$.
- If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and A, B have finite measure, $\int_{A \cup B} f = \int_A f + \int_B f$.

Bounded Convergence Theorem. Let $\langle f_n \rangle$ be a sequence of measurable functions defined on a set E of finite measure. Suppose there is some real number M such that $|f_n(x)| \leq M$ for all n, x . If $f(x) = \lim f_n(x)$ almost everywhere in E , then $\int_E f = \lim \int_E f_n$.

Fatou's Lemma. Let $\langle f_n \rangle$ be a sequence of non-negative, measurable functions with $\lim f_n(x) = f(x)$ almost everywhere on a measurable set E . Then, $\int_E f \leq \liminf \int_E f_n$.

Monotone Convergence Theorem. Let $\langle f_n \rangle$ be an increasing sequence of non-negative, measurable functions with $f(x) = \lim f_n(x)$ almost everywhere. Then, $\int f = \lim \int f_n$.

Lebesgue Convergence Theorem. Let g be integrable over E and $\langle f_n \rangle$ a sequence of measurable functions with $|f_n| \leq g$ everywhere on E . Let $\lim f_n(x) = f(x)$ almost everywhere on E . Then, $\int_E f = \lim \int_E f_n$.

Theorem. Let $\langle g_n \rangle$ be a sequence of measurable functions over E that converge almost everywhere to an integrable function g . Let $\langle f_n \rangle$ be a sequence of measurable functions with $|f_n| \leq g_n$ and $\lim f_n(x) = f(x)$ almost everywhere. If $\int_E g = \lim \int_E g_n$ then $\int_E f = \lim \int_E f_n$.

Definition. A sequence $\langle f_n \rangle$ converges to f in measure if, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that, for all $n > N$, $m\{x \mid |f(x) - f_n(x)| \geq \epsilon\} < \epsilon$.

Proposition. Suppose $\langle f_n \rangle$ converges to f in measure and all the f_n are measurable. Then there is a subsequence $\langle f_{n_k} \rangle$ that converges to f almost everywhere.

Corollary. Let $\langle f_n \rangle$ be a sequence of measurable functions defined on a set E of finite measure. Then f_n converges to f in measure if and only if every subsequence of $\langle f_n \rangle$ has in turn a subsequence that converges to f almost everywhere.

Proposition. The convergence theorems stated above hold if “convergence almost everywhere” is replaced by “convergence in measure.”

L^p Spaces

Definition. $f \in L^p$ if $\int_{[0,1]} |f|^p < \infty$.

Definition. $\|f\|_p = (\int_{[0,1]} |f|^p)^{1/p}$.

Note. If we consider functions equivalent when they are equal almost everywhere, then L^p is a normed linear space.

Definition. $f \in L^\infty$ if f is bounded almost everywhere and measurable. $\|f\|_\infty = \text{ess sup } |f(x)| = \inf \{M \mid m\{t \mid f(t) > M\} = 0\}$.

Applications to Vector Calculus

Definition. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a scalar field. We define the gradient of f by $(\text{grad } f)(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}; D_1f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + D_nf(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_n)$. Let $G(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}; g(\mathbf{x}))$ be a vector field on A , with $g(\mathbf{x}) = g_1(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + g_n(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_n$. We define the divergence of G by $(\text{div } G) = D_1g_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + D_ng_n(\mathbf{x})$.

Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^n . Then we have the following vector space isomorphisms:

α_0 : Scalar fields in $A \rightarrow \Omega^0(A)$.

α_1 : Vector fields in $A \rightarrow \Omega^1(A)$

β_{n-1} : Vector fields in $A \rightarrow \Omega^{n-1}(A)$

β_n : Scalar field in $A \rightarrow \Omega^n(A)$

so that $d \circ \alpha_0 = \alpha_1 \circ \text{grad}$ and $d \circ \beta_{n-1} = \beta_n \circ \text{div}$.

Proof. $\alpha_0(f) = f$

$\alpha_1(F) = \sum f_i dx_i$

$\beta_{n-1}(G) = \sum (-1)^{i-1} g_i dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_{i-1} \wedge dx_{i+1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$

$\beta_n(h) = h dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$

Definition. Let $A \subset \mathbf{R}^3$ be open. Let $F(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}; \sum f_i(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i)$ be a vector field in A . We define the vector field, curl F , by $(\text{curl } F)(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x}; (D_2f_3 - D_3f_2)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_1 + (D_3f_1 - D_1f_3)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_2 + (D_1f_2 - D_2f_1)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_3)$.

Theorem. Let A be open in \mathbf{R}^3 . Then, in addition to the isomorphisms in the previous theorem, we find that $d \circ \alpha_1 = \beta_2 \circ \text{curl}$.

Definition. Let M be a 1-manifold. The unit tangent vector at $\mathbf{p} \in M$ is given by $T(\mathbf{p}) = (\mathbf{p}; D\alpha(t)/\|D\alpha(t_0)\|)$ where $\alpha(t_0) = \mathbf{p}$.

Definition. So that we may have outward-pointing unit tangent vectors, we define the left-half-line, $\mathbf{L} = \{x \mid x \leq 0\}$ and allow coordinate patches $\alpha: \mathbf{L} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$.

Definition. Let M be an $n-1$ manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $\mathbf{p} \in M$. Let $(\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{n})$ be a tangent vector to \mathbf{R}^n that is orthogonal to the tangent space to M at \mathbf{p} . Let $\|\mathbf{n}\| = 1$. If \mathbf{n} is always pointing the “same” direction, this is called a normal vector field to M and defines an orientation.

Definition. Let M be an n -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . The natural orientation of M is the set of all coordinate patches $\alpha: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ with $\det D\alpha > 0$.

Theorem. Let $k > 1$. If M is an oriented k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n with ∂M non-empty, then ∂M is orientable.

Definition. Let M be an orientable k -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n , with ∂M non-empty. Given an orientation of M , the induced orientation of ∂M is defined by the orientation of the restricted coordinate patch if k is even and the opposite orientation if k is odd.

Note. The induced orientation of an $n-1$ manifold that is the boundary of a naturally oriented n -manifold always points outward from the manifold.

Theorem. Let M be a compact, oriented $n-1$ manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let \mathbf{N} be the unit normal field (corresponding to the induced orientation). Let \mathbf{G} be a vector field on an open set containing M , so that $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{y}) = (y; \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y})) = (y; \sum g_i(\mathbf{y}) \mathbf{e}_i)$. Let $\omega = \sum (-1)^{i-1} g_i dy_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy_{i-1} \wedge dy_{i+1} \wedge \dots \wedge dy_n$. Then, $\int_M \omega = \int_M \langle \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{N} \rangle dV$.

Theorem. Let M be an n -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let $\omega = h dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$. Then, $\int_M \omega = \int_M h dV$.

Divergence Theorem. Let M be a compact, oriented n -manifold in \mathbf{R}^n . Let \mathbf{N} be the unit normal field. If \mathbf{G} is a vector field, then $\int_M (\text{div } \mathbf{G}) dV = \int_{\partial M} \langle \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{N} \rangle dV$.

Classical Stokes Theorem. Let M be a compact, oriented 2-manifold in \mathbf{R}^3 . Let \mathbf{N} be the unit normal field. Let \mathbf{F} be a C^∞ function. Then, if $\partial M = \emptyset$, then $\int_M \langle \text{curl } \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{N} \rangle dV = 0$. Otherwise, $\int_M \langle \text{curl } \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{N} \rangle dV = \int_{\partial M} \langle \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T} \rangle dV$, where \mathbf{T} is the unit tangent field to ∂M with the induced orientation.