

1. METRIC SPACES

Definition 1. A metric space (X, d) is a set X with a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with the properties

- (1) $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$.
- (2) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$.
- (3) $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Definition 2 (Limit of a Sequence I). Let (X, d) be a metric space and $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ a sequence. We say $x \in X$ is the limit of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$, written $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $N_\epsilon > 0$ such that for all $n > N_\epsilon$ $d(x_n, x) < \epsilon$.

If a sequence has a limit we call the sequence convergent.

Definition 3 (Limit of a Sequence II). Let (X, d) be a metric space and $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ a sequence. We say $x \in X$ is the limit of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$, written $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$.

Definition 4 (Open Balls). Let (X, d) be a metric space, $x \in X$, and $r > 0$. The open ball of radius r around x , denoted $B(x, r)$, is

$$B(x, r) := \{y \in X : d(x, y) < r\}$$

Definition 5 (Closed Balls). Let (X, d) be a metric space, $x \in X$, and $r > 0$. The closed ball of radius r around x , denoted $\overline{B}(x, r)$, is

$$\overline{B}(x, r) := \{y \in X : d(x, y) \leq r\}$$

Definition 6. Let (X, d) be a metric space and $U \subseteq X$. We say U is open if for all $x \in U$ there exists $r_x > 0$ such that $B(x, r_x) \subseteq U$.

Definition 7. Let (X, d) be a metric space and $F \subseteq X$. We say F is closed if F^c is open.

Definition 8 (Limit of a Sequence III). Let (X, d) be a metric space and $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$ a sequence. We say $x \in X$ is the limit of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$, written $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $N_\epsilon > 0$ such that for all $n > N_\epsilon$ $x_n \in B(x, \epsilon)$.

Theorem 1 (Properties of Open Sets). Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- (1) The sets \emptyset and X are open.
- (2) If $\{U_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a finite collection of open sets then $\bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i$ is open.
- (3) If $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is any collection of open sets then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ is open.

Theorem 2 (Properties of Closed Sets). Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- (1) The sets \emptyset and X are closed.

- (2) If $\{F_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a finite collection of closed sets then $\cup_{i=1}^n F_i$ is closed.
- (3) If $\{F_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is any collection of closed sets then $\cap_{\alpha \in I} F_\alpha$ is closed.

Definition 9 (Closure). Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. The closure of A , denoted \overline{A} , is

$$\overline{A} = \cap \{F : A \subseteq F, F \text{ closed}\}.$$

The closure of A is the smallest closed set containing A .

Theorem 3. Let (X, d) be a metric space. For all $x \in X$ and $r > 0$

$$\overline{B(x, r)} \subseteq \overline{B}(x, r).$$

Definition 10 (Interior). Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. The interior of A , denoted A° , is

$$A^\circ = \cup \{U : U \subseteq A, U \text{ open}\}.$$

The interior of A is the largest open set contained in A .

Theorem 4. Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$.

- (1) $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if for every $r > 0$ $B(x, r) \cap A \neq \emptyset$.
- (2) $x \in A^\circ$ if and only if there exists $r_x > 0$ such that $B(x, r) \subseteq A$.

Definition 11. Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. A point $x \in X$ is called a limit point of A if for every $r > 0$

$$B(x, r) \cap A \not\subseteq \{x\}.$$

A point $x \in A$ that is not a limit point is called an isolated point.

Theorem 5 (Sequential Definition of Closure). Let (X, d) be a metric space and $A \subseteq X$. $x \in \overline{A}$ if and only if there exists a sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq A$ with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$.

Definition 12 (Dense). Let (X, d) be a metric space. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is called dense if $\overline{A} = X$.

If A is dense then every point in X is the limit of a sequence in A .

Definition 13 (Nowhere Dense). Let (X, d) be a metric space. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is called nowhere dense if $\overline{A^\circ} = \emptyset$.

1.1. Cauchy Sequences and Completeness.

Definition 14 (Cauchy Sequence). Let (X, d) be a metric space. A sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is called a Cauchy sequence if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $N > 0$ such that for all $m, n > N$ $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$.

Theorem 6 (Convergent Sequences are Cauchy). *Let (X, d) be a metric space. If $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is convergent then $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence.*

Definition 15 (Complete). *A metric space (X, d) is called a complete metric space if every Cauchy sequence is convergent.*

Our basic example of a complete metric space is $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$.

Theorem 7. *For $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ ℓ_p is a complete metric space.*

1.2. Compactness.

Definition 16 (Compactness). *A metric space (X, d) is called (sequentially) compact if every sequence has a convergent subsequence.*

Definition 17. *Let (X, d) be a metric space. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is called compact if the induced metric space (A, d) is compact.*

Theorem 8. *Let (X, d) be a metric space. If $A \subseteq X$ is compact then A is closed.*

Theorem 9. *Let (X, d) be a compact metric space. If $A \subseteq X$ is closed then A is compact.*

Theorem 10 (Bolzano-Weierstraß). *The metric space $([a, b], |\cdot|)$ is compact.*

Theorem 11 (Nested Ball Theorem). *A metric space (X, d) is complete if and only if every sequence of closed balls $(\overline{B}(x_n, r_n))_{n=1}^{\infty}$ satisfying*

- (1) $\overline{B}(x_{n+1}, r_{n+1}) \subseteq \overline{B}(x_n, r_n)$.
- (2) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n = 0$.

has

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \overline{B}(x_n, r_n) \neq \emptyset.$$

Theorem 12 (Baire Category Theorem). *A complete metric space (X, d) cannot be written as a countable union of nowhere dense sets.*

1.3. Normed Linear Spaces.

Definition 18. *A set V is called a vector space if it is endowed with operations*

$$\begin{aligned} + &: V \times V \rightarrow V \\ \cdot &: \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V \end{aligned}$$

that satisfy

(1) for all $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$

$$\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}.$$

(2) for all $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$

$$\vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w}.$$

(3) there exists a unique $\vec{0} \in V$ such that for all $\vec{v} \in V$

$$\vec{0} + \vec{v} = \vec{v}.$$

(4) for every $\vec{v} \in V$ there exists a unique $-\vec{v} \in V$ such that

$$\vec{v} + -\vec{v} = \vec{0}.$$

(5) for all $\vec{v} \in V$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \vec{v}) = (\alpha\beta) \cdot \vec{v}.$$

(6) for all $\vec{v} \in V$

$$1 \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v}.$$

(7) for all $\vec{v} \in V$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$(\alpha + \beta) \cdot \vec{v} = \alpha \cdot \vec{v} + \beta \cdot \vec{v}.$$

(8) for all $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$ and all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\alpha \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = \alpha \cdot \vec{u} + \alpha \cdot \vec{v}.$$

In fact uniqueness of the elements $\vec{0}$ and $-\vec{v}$ can be proved and does not have to be part of the definition.

Definition 19 (Norm). *Let V be a vector space. A non-negative function $n : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a norm if it satisfies*

(1) $n(\vec{v}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$.

(2) $n(\alpha \cdot \vec{v}) = |\alpha|n(\vec{v})$.

(3) $n(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \leq n(\vec{u}) + n(\vec{v})$.

As with the definition of metric non-negativity is actually a consequence of properties 1 and 3 and need not be part of the definition. Norms are traditionally denoted $\|\cdot\|$.

Theorem 13. *Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. The function $d : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by*

$$d(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|$$

is a metric on V .

Theorem 14. For every $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ the space ℓ_p endowed with component-wise addition and scalar multiplication and

$$\|(x_n)\|_p := \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

is a normed vector space.

In the process of proving this we meet two important inequalities.

Definition 20. We call two number $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$ dual if

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

We also declare 1 and ∞ to be dual.

Theorem 15 (Hölder's Inequality). Let p and q be dual. If $(x_n) \in \ell_p$ and $(y_n) \in \ell_q$ then

$$\|(x_n y_n)\|_1 \leq \|(x_n)\|_p \|(y_n)\|_q.$$

If $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$ are dual then this is the same as

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n y_n| \leq \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |y_n|^q \right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

Theorem 16 (Minkowski's Inequality). For $1 \leq p \leq \infty$

$$\|(x_n + y_n)\|_p \leq \|(x_n)\|_p + \|(y_n)\|_p$$

Theorem 17. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. If $(\vec{u}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset V$ and $(\vec{v}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset V$ are convergent sequences then $(\vec{u}_n + \vec{v}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\vec{u}_n + \vec{v}_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \vec{u}_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \vec{v}_n.$$

Theorem 18. Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed vector space. If $(\beta_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ and $(\vec{u}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence in $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ then $(\beta_n \cdot \vec{u}_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent sequence in $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\beta_n \cdot \vec{u}_n) = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_n \right) \cdot \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \vec{u}_n \right).$$

2. RIEMANN INTEGRATION

Definition 21 (Partition). Let $[a, b]$ be a closed and bounded interval in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$. A finite sequence $(x_i)_{i=0}^n$ is called a partition of $[a, b]$ if

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b.$$

We will normally denote such partitions by π .

Definition 22 (Refinement). Let $[a, b]$ be a closed and bounded interval in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ and $\pi = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$ and $\pi' = (y_i)_{i=0}^m$ be two partitions of $[a, b]$. We say π' is a refinement of π , written $\pi \leq \pi'$, if

$$\{x_0, \dots, x_n\} \subseteq \{y_0, \dots, y_m\}.$$

Definition 23 (Sample). Let $[a, b]$ be a closed and bounded interval in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ and $\pi = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$ a partition of $[a, b]$. A sample associated to π is a finite sequence $\sigma = \{\xi_i\}_{i=1}^n$ such that $x_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq x_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Definition 24 (Riemann Sum). Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\pi = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$ be a partition of $[a, b]$, and $\sigma = (\xi_i)_{i=1}^n$ be a sample associated to π . The Riemann sum for f over π with sample σ , denoted $S(f, \pi, \sigma)$, is given by

$$S(f, \pi, \sigma) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\xi_i)(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

Definition 25 (Riemann Integral). Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We call f Riemann integrable if there exists $I \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a partition π such that for every partition $\pi' \geq \pi$ and every sample σ associated to π' we have

$$|S(f, \pi', \sigma) - I| < \epsilon.$$

I is called the integral of f over $[a, b]$ and denoted $\int_a^b f$ or $\int_a^b f(x)dx$.

That the integral is unique follows from the fact that the space of partitions is actually a lattice. For every pair of partitions π and π' we have

$$\pi \vee \pi' = \text{lub}\{\pi, \pi'\} = \pi \cup \pi'$$

$$\pi \wedge \pi' = \text{glb}\{\pi, \pi'\} = \pi \cap \pi'$$

Theorem 19. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable then f is bounded.

Definition 26 (Upper and Lower Riemann Sums). Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\pi = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. The upper Riemann sum for f over π , denoted $\overline{S}(f, \pi)$, is given by

$$\overline{S}(f, \pi) = \sup_{\sigma} S(f, \pi, \sigma)$$

and the lower Riemann sum for f over π , denoted $\underline{S}(f, \pi)$, is given by

$$\underline{S}(f, \pi) = \inf_{\sigma} S(f, \pi, \sigma)$$

Clearly

$$-\infty \leq \underline{S}(f, \pi) \leq \overline{S}(f, \pi) \leq \infty.$$

If $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ then

$$m(b-a) \leq \underline{S}(f, \pi) \leq \overline{S}(f, \pi) \leq M(b-a).$$

Theorem 20 (Monotonicity). *Let π and π' be partitions of $[a, b]$ with $\pi \leq \pi'$ then for any $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$*

$$\underline{S}(f, \pi) \leq \underline{S}(f, \pi') \leq \overline{S}(f, \pi') \leq \overline{S}(f, \pi).$$

Theorem 21. *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The function f is Riemann integrable if and only if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a partition π of $[a, b]$ such that*

$$\overline{S}(f, \pi) - \underline{S}(f, \pi) < \epsilon.$$

Theorem 22. *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If π_n is a sequence of partition of $[a, b]$ such that*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\overline{S}(f, \pi_n) - \underline{S}(f, \pi_n)) = 0$$

and σ_n is any sample associated to π_n then

$$\int_a^b f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, \pi_n, \sigma_n).$$

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2.1. Continuous Functions.

Definition 27 (Continuity). *A function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called continuous at x if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $|x - y| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$. We say f is continuous if it is continuous at all x .*

This is really just a special case of a more general definition for metric spaces.

Definition 28 (Continuity in Metric Spaces). *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called continuous at $x \in X$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $d_X(x, y) < \delta$ then $d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$. We say f is continuous if it is continuous at all $x \in X$.*

We can rewrite this definition using open balls.

Definition 29 (Continuity in Metric Spaces). *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called continuous at $x \in X$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that*

$$f(B(x, \delta)) \subseteq B(f(x), \epsilon).$$

Finally this can be rewritten in terms of open sets. This particular definition generalizes to topological spaces.

Theorem 23. *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous at $x \in X$ if and only if for every open set $U \subseteq Y$ with $f(x) \in U$ there is an open set $V \subseteq X$ with $x \in V$ such that $f(V) \subset U$. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if for all open sets $U \subseteq Y$ the pre-image $f^{-1}(U) \subseteq X$ is open.*

Theorem 24 (Sequential Definition of Continuity). *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous at $x \in X$ if and only if for every convergent sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq X$*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n).$$

The definition of continuity allows us to pick different δ at each $x \in X$. If the same $\delta > 0$ works for all $x \in X$ then we have a stronger property.

Definition 30 (Uniform Continuity). *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called uniformly continuous if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $d_X(x, y) < \delta$ then $d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \epsilon$.*

Theorem 25 (Extreme Value Theorem). *If (X, d) is a compact metric space and $f : (X, d) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ is continuous then there exists $x \in X$ such that $f(y) \leq f(x)$ for all $y \in X$. Similarly there exists $x \in X$ such that $f(y) \geq f(x)$ for all $y \in X$.*

Theorem 26. *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. If (X, d_X) is compact and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous then f is uniformly continuous.*

Definition 31 (Finite Product Spaces). *Let (X_i, d_i) be a metric space for $i = 1, \dots, n$. The Cartesian product*

$$\prod_{i=1}^n X_i = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in X_i\}$$

can be made into a metric space by defining

$$d((x_i)_{i=1}^n, (y_i)_{i=1}^n) = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x_i, y_i).$$

There are a number of uniformly equivalent metrics for the finite product space. We could have used either

$$d((x_i)_{i=1}^n, (y_i)_{i=1}^n) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} d_i(x_i, y_i)$$

$$d((x_i)_{i=1}^n, (y_i)_{i=1}^n) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x_i, y_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Definition 32 (Countably Infinite Product Spaces). *Let (X_i, d_i) be a metric space for $i \in \mathbb{N}$. The Cartesian product*

$$\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i = \{(x_i)_{i=1}^{\infty} : x_i \in X_i\}$$

can be made into a metric space by defining

$$d((x_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}, (y_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\hat{d}_i(x_i, y_i)}{2^n}$$

where $\hat{d}_i(x, y) = \min\{d_i(x, y), 1\}$.

Definition 33 (Projections). *Let I be an index set and let $j \in I$. The projection from $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ to X_j , denoted π_j , is given by*

$$\pi_j((x_i)_{i \in I}) = x_j.$$

Theorem 27 (Projections and Sequences). *Let (X_i, d_i) be a metric space for $i \in I$ with I countable. A sequence $(z_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq \prod_{i \in I} X_i$ has*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z$$

in the product space if and only if for all $i \in I$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi_i(z_n) = \pi_i(z)$$

in (X_i, d_i) .

Theorem 28 (Projections and Continuity). *Let (X_i, d_i) be a metric space for $i \in I$ with I countable and let (Y, d_Y) be a metric space. A function $f : (Y, d_Y) \rightarrow ()$*

Theorem 29 (Composition of Continuous Functions). *Let (X, d_x) , (Y, d_Y) , and (Z, d_Z) be metric spaces. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous at $x \in X$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous at $f(x) \in Y$ then $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$ is continuous at $x \in X$.*

Theorem 30 (Addition of Continuous Functions). *Let (X, d_x) be a metric space and $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ a normed vector space. If $f : X \rightarrow V$ and $g : X \rightarrow V$ are continuous at $x \in X$ then $f + g : X \rightarrow V$ given by*

$$(f + g)(y) := f(y) + g(y)$$

is continuous at $x \in X$.

Theorem 31 (Product of Continuous Functions). *Let (X, d_x) be a metric space. If $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous at $x \in X$ then $f \cdot g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by*

$$(f \cdot g)(y) := f(y) \cdot g(y)$$

is continuous at $x \in X$.

Theorem 32 (Division of Continuous Functions). *Let (X, d_x) be a metric space. If $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous at $x \in X$ and $g(x) \neq 0$ then $f/g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by*

$$(f/g)(y) := \frac{f(y)}{g(y)}$$

is continuous at $x \in X$.

2.2. Connectedness.

Definition 34 (Connected). *A metric space (X, d) is called disconnected if there are two non-empty open sets U and V with $U \cap V = \emptyset$ and $U \cup V = X$. A metric space (X, d) is called connected if it is not disconnected.*

Definition 35 (Path Connected). *A metric space (X, d) is called path connected if for any two points $x, y \in X$ there is a continuous function $p : ([0, 1], |\cdot|) \rightarrow (X, d)$ such that $p(0) = x$ and $p(1) = y$. If p can always be chosen to be one-to-one then (X, d) is called arc connected.*

Theorem 33. *If the metric space (X, d) is path connected then (X, d) is connected.*

Theorem 34. *Any interval in $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ is path connected and these are the only connected subsets of $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$.*

Theorem 35. *Let (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) be metric spaces. If (X, d_X) is connected then $(f(X), d_Y)$ is connected.*

Theorem 36 (Intermediate Value Theorem). *If $f : ([a, b], |\cdot|) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$ is continuous and c lies between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ then there exists $x \in [a, b]$ such that $f(x) = c$.*

Theorem 37. *The function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable if and only if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exist continuous functions $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ such that*

$$\int_a^b h - \int_a^b g < \epsilon.$$

Definition 36 (Riemann-Stieltjes Sum). *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function, $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\pi = (x_i)_{i=0}^n$ be a partition of $[a, b]$, and $\sigma = (\xi_i)_{i=1}^n$ be a sample associated to π . The Riemann-Stieltjes sum for f over π with sample σ and distribution g , denoted $S_g(f, \pi, \sigma)$, is given by*

$$S_g(f, \pi, \sigma) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\xi_i)(g(x_i) - g(x_{i-1}))$$

Definition 37 (Riemann-Stieltjes Integral). *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function and $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We call f Riemann-Stieltjes integrable with respect to distribution g if there exists $I \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a partition π such that for every partition $\pi' \geq \pi$ and every sample σ associated to π' we have*

$$|S_g(f, \pi', \sigma) - I| < \epsilon.$$

I is called the Riemann Stieltjes integral of f over $[a, b]$ with respect to the distribution g and denoted $\int_a^b f dg$ or $\int_a^b f(x) dg(x)$.

Theorem 38. *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function. If $f, h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are Riemann-Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ with respect to distribution g and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ then $\alpha f + \beta h$ is Riemann-Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ and*

$$\int_a^b (\alpha f + \beta h) dg = \alpha \int_a^b f dg + \beta \int_a^b h dg.$$

Theorem 39. *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ and $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ then*

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f \leq M(b-a)$$

Theorem 40. *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann-Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ with respect to distribution g and $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ then*

$$m(g(b) - g(a)) \leq \int_a^b f dg \leq M(g(b) - g(a))$$

Theorem 41 (Monotonicity of the Riemann Integral). *If $f, h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ and $f(x) \leq h(x)$ then*

$$\int_a^b f \leq \int_a^b h.$$

Theorem 42 (Monotonicity of the Darboux-Stieltjes Integral). *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function. If $f, h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are Riemann-Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ with respect to distribution g and $f(x) \leq h(x)$ then*

$$\int_a^b f dg \leq \int_a^b h dg.$$

Theorem 43. *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann-Stieltjes integrable on $[a, b]$ with respect to distribution g then*

$$\left| \int_a^b f dg \right| \leq \int_a^b |f| dg.$$

Theorem 44. *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ then*

$$\left| \int_a^b f \right| \leq \int_a^b |f|.$$

Theorem 45 (Mean Value Theorem for Riemann Integrals). *Let $h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-negative function and $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then there exists $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that*

$$\int_a^b f \cdot h = f(\xi) \int_a^b h.$$

Theorem 46 (Mean Value Theorem for Darboux-Stieltjes Integrals). *Let $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-decreasing function, $h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a non-negative function, and $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then there exists $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that*

$$\int_a^b f \cdot h dg = f(\xi) \int_a^b h dg.$$

Theorem 47. *If $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$ then $f \cdot g$ is Riemann integrable over $[a, b]$. Furthermore*

$$\left(\int_a^b f \cdot g \right)^2 \leq \int_a^b f^2 \cdot \int_a^b g^2.$$

Theorem 48. Let $a < c < b$ and let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The function f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ if and only if f is integrable on $[a, c]$ and $[c, b]$. Furthermore in this case

$$\int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f.$$

If we define

$$\int_a^b f = - \int_b^a f$$

for $b < a$ then we can make sense of

$$\int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f$$

without assumptions on the relative positions of a , b , and c .

Definition 38 (Mesh). If $\pi = (x_i)_{i=1}^n$ is a partition of $[a, b]$ then the mesh of π , denoted $\mu(\pi)$, is

$$\mu(\pi) = \max\{x_i - x_{i-1} : i = 1, \dots, n\}.$$

Theorem 49 (Monotone Functions are Integrable). If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotone (i.e. non-increasing or non-decreasing) function then f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$. Moreover, if $(\pi_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is any sequence of partitions of $[a, b]$ with $\mu(\pi_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and if $(\sigma_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is any sequence of samples with σ_n associated to π_n then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, \pi_n, \sigma_n) = \int_a^b f.$$

Theorem 50 (Continuous Functions are Integrable). If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function then f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$. Moreover, if $(\pi_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is any sequence of partitions of $[a, b]$ with $\mu(\pi_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and if $(\sigma_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is any sequence of samples with σ_n associated to π_n then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, \pi_n, \sigma_n) = \int_a^b f.$$

Theorem 51. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded and let D denote the set of discontinuities of f . If for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a finite collection of intervals, $\{(u_i, v_i)\}_{i=1}^m$, with $D \subseteq \cup_{i=1}^m (u_i, v_i)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^m (v_i - u_i) < \epsilon$ then f is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$.

Definition 39. Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that f is differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ if

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \quad \text{exists.}$$

We write

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

Theorem 52. Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The function f is differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ if and only if there exists a function $\phi : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that is continuous at x such that

$$f(y) = f(x) + (y - x)\phi(y)$$

for $y \in (a, b)$. In this case $f'(x) = \phi(x)$.

Theorem 53. Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If f is differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ then f is continuous at x .

Theorem 54. Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The function f is differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ if and only if there exists a linear function $L : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

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

2.3. Differential Calculus.

Theorem 55 (Linearity of the Derivative). If $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ then $\alpha f + \beta g$ is differentiable at x and

$$(\alpha f + \beta g)'(x) = \alpha f'(x) + \beta g'(x).$$

Theorem 56 (Product Rule for Differentiation). If $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ then $f \cdot g$ is differentiable at x and

$$(f \cdot g)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x).$$

Theorem 57 (Chain Rule for Differentiation). Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, g : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $f((a, b)) \subseteq (c, d)$. If f is differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ and g is differentiable at $f(x) \in (c, d)$ then $g \circ f$ is differentiable at x and

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

Definition 40 (Local Maximum). Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say f has a local maximum at $c \in (a, b)$ if there is an open set U with $c \in U \subset (a, b)$ such that $f(x) \leq f(c)$ for all $x \in U$.

Definition 41 (Local Minimum). Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say f has a local minimum at $c \in (a, b)$ if there is an open set U with $c \in U \subset (a, b)$ such that $f(x) \geq f(c)$ for all $x \in U$.

Theorem 58. If $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has a local maximum or local minimum at $c \in (a, b)$ and f is differentiable at c then $f'(c) = 0$.

Theorem 59 (Rolle's Lemma). *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, f is differentiable for all $x \in (a, b)$, and $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ then there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.*

Theorem 60 (Mean Value Theorem). *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and f is differentiable for all $x \in (a, b)$ then there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that*

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

or equivalently

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a).$$

Theorem 61. *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and f be differentiable on (a, b) .*

- (1) *if $f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ the f is constant.*
- (2) *if $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ the f is increasing.*
- (3) *if $f'(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ the f is non-decreasing.*
- (4) *if $f'(x) < 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ the f is decreasing.*
- (5) *if $f'(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ the f is non-increasing.*

constant.

2.4. Fundamental Theorems of Calculus.

Definition 42. *Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We call $F : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a primitive or anti-derivative of f if $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.*

Theorem 62. *Let $f : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and F be an antiderivative. If f is integrable on $[a, b] \subset (c, d)$ then*

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

Theorem 63. *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable and $c \in [a, b]$ then the function $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by*

$$F(x) = \int_c^x f$$

is continuous. If f is continuous at $x \in (a, b)$ then F is differentiable at x and $F'(x) = f(x)$.

2.5. Integral Calculus.

Theorem 64 (Integration by Parts). *Let $f, g : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with primitives F, G . If f, g are integrable on $[a, b]$ then*

$$\int_a^b F \cdot g = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b f \cdot G.$$

Theorem 65 (Substitution Rule). *Let $\phi : (c, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. If ϕ' is integrable on $[\alpha, \beta]$ and f is continuous on $\phi([\alpha, \beta])$ then*

$$\int_{\phi(\alpha)}^{\phi(\beta)} f(x) dx = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(\phi(y))\phi'(y) dy.$$