

Multivariable Calculus

Note Title

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Lecture - 1 :

- The space \mathbb{R}^n
- Convergence in \mathbb{R}^n

1.

Why do Analysis?

$$\text{(a) } \sum_{\substack{\text{Sum} \\ i=1}}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij}$$

What about

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} ?$$

Consider the "matrix"

$$(a_{ij}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Row-sum} = 1 + 0 + 0 + \dots = 1$$

$$\text{Column-sum} = 0 + 0 + 0 + \dots = 0$$

(b) Integral:

$$V = \iint f(x, y) dx dy$$

$$\text{Is } \int \left(\int f(x, y) dx \right) dy =$$

$$\int \left(\int f(x, y) dy \right) dx ?$$

Consider

$$f(x, y) = e^{-xy} - xy e^{-xy}$$

and

$$\iint_{x=0}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^{\infty} \left(\int_0^1 f(x, y) dy \right) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} y e^{-xy} \Big|_0^1 dx = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = 1 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^{\infty} f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_0^1 x e^{-xy} \Big|_0^{\infty} dy = 0 \end{aligned}$$

(c) limit of a function.

Is $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \lim_{y \rightarrow b} f(x, y) =$

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow b} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x, y) ?$$

Consider

$$f(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) = 1$

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

(d) Partial Derivatives.

Is

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} ?$$

Consider

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy^3}{x^2+y^2}, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(0,0)}{\partial x \partial y} = 1$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(0,0)}{\partial y \partial x} = 0$$

(e) Differentiability:

$$f(x,y) = \left(e^{xy}, \sin(x^2+y^2), xy \right)$$

Is f differentiable?

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

What does it mean to say that
 f is differentiable?

Analysis is the foundation of Calculus.



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Review of analysis in \mathbb{R}

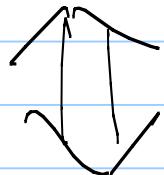
- $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot, | \cdot |)$ is an ordered field.
- Lub property holds in \mathbb{R}
(also known as completeness property)
 - Convergence of sequences.

- Monotone Convergence property

$$(x) \uparrow : x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n \leq \dots$$

$$(x_n) \downarrow : x_1 \geq x_2 \geq \dots \geq x_n \dots$$

- Bounded + Monotone = Convergence



Cauchy criterion holds in \mathbb{R}
(\mathbb{R} is complete)

(x_n) is Cauchy \Rightarrow (x_n) is convergent

Cauchy: $|x_n - x_m| \rightarrow 0$ as $m, n \rightarrow \infty$

Formally: For $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists p \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$m, n \geq p \implies |x_n - x_m| < \epsilon$$



- Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem

- A bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence.



- A bounded infinite subset of \mathbb{R} has a limit point.

What is a limit point?

Limit Point: $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $A \subset \mathbb{R}$

a is a limit point if for any $\epsilon > 0$

$$(a-\epsilon, a+\epsilon) \cap A \setminus \{a\} \neq \emptyset$$



$(a-\epsilon, a+\epsilon) \cap A$ contains infinitely many elements of A .



$$\exists (x_n) \subset A \setminus \{a\} \text{ s.t } x_n \rightarrow a$$

• Heine-Borel theorem

Closed + Bounded = Compact

- Compact: $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ is compact if

$$(x_n) \subset A \text{ then } \exists (x_{n_k}) \subset (x_n)$$

s.t. $x_{n_k} \rightarrow x$ in \mathbb{R} and $x \in A$

Q. Can these results be generalised
to \mathbb{R}^n ?

3. The Euclidean Space \mathbb{R}^n

$$\mathbb{R}^n := \underbrace{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R}}_{n \text{ times}}$$

$$= \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$\bullet \quad x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$x + y := (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$

$$\bullet \quad \alpha x := (\alpha x_1, \dots, \alpha x_n), \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

- $(\mathbb{R}^n, +, \circ)$ is a vector space
over \mathbb{R} .

- Absolute value: $(\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$

$$|x| := \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

- Fundamental properties:

(i) $|x| \geq 0$ and $|x|=0 \Leftrightarrow x=0$

(ii) $|\alpha x| = |\alpha| |x|$, $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}$

(iii) $|x+y| \leq |x| + |y|$, $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

- Norm: $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$

$$\|x\| := \left(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Fundamental properties.

(i) $\|x\| \geq 0$ and $\|x\|=0 \Leftrightarrow x=0$

(ii) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$, $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

(iii) $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$, $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$\|x\| \rightarrow$ Euclidean norm

Distance:

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$$
$$= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

is the Euclidean distance between x and y .

- Inner product / dot product.

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, y \rangle &:= x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n \\ &= x \cdot y\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Then } \|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

Angle between Vectors:

$$-1 \leq \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|} \leq 1$$

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unique $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ s.t

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|}, \quad x \neq 0, y \neq 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\langle x, y \rangle = \|x\| \|y\| \cos \theta}$$

Orthogonality:

$\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ then $x \perp y$.

4.

Convergence in \mathbb{R}^n

A function $N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, k \mapsto x_k$

is called a sequence, written as

(x_k) , $(x_k)_{k=1}^\infty$, $\{x_k\}$, $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$

Remark:

Each term x_k of (x_k)
is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , ie

$$x_k = (x_{1,k}, x_{2,k}, \dots, x_{n,k}) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

• Convergence:

Let $(x_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $x_k \rightarrow x$ if.

Informal: $\|x_k - x\| \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$

Formal: For $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists p \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t

$$k \geq p \implies \|x_k - x\| < \epsilon$$

Same old defn!!!

$$\begin{array}{c} x_k = (x_{1,k}, x_{2,k}, \dots, x_{n,k}) \\ \downarrow \quad \leftarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \\ x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \end{array}$$

In fact, $|x_j - x_{j,k}| \leq \|x - x_k\| \rightarrow 0$

Theorem: Let $(x_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Then $x_k \rightarrow x \iff x_{j,k} \rightarrow x_j$

as $k \rightarrow \infty$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Spl. Case: $x_k = (x_k, y_k) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Then $x_k \rightarrow x = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$\iff x_k \rightarrow x$ and $y_k \rightarrow y$.

Proof

$$|x_{j,k} - x_j| \leq \|x_k - x\| \rightarrow 0$$

$$\|x_k - x\| \leq |x_{1,k} - x_1| + \dots + |x_{n,k} - x_n|$$

↓

0

↓

0

$$\Rightarrow \|x_k - x\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

□

Moral: Convergence of sequences in \mathbb{R}^n
is essentially the same as that in \mathbb{R} .

Example: $x_n = ((-1)^n, \frac{1}{n})$, $y_n = (n \sin \frac{1}{n}, e^n)$

• Completeness of \mathbb{R}^n

Obviously, Lub. Prop., MC Prop. have no analogues in \mathbb{R}^n .

Cauchy's criterion is amenable to generalization in \mathbb{R}^n .

- Cauchy sequences: $(x_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

Informal:

$$\|x_k - x_p\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k, p \rightarrow \infty$$

Formal: For $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$[k, p \geq m \implies \|x_k - x_p\| < \epsilon]$$

Same old defn. !!!

Fact: $(x_k) = ((x_k, y_k)) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is Cauchy
 $\iff (x_k)$ and (y_k) are Cauchy.

Theorem: \mathbb{R}^n is complete ie

$(x_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ converges in $\mathbb{R}^n \iff$

(x_k) is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof: (x_k) converges $\Rightarrow (x_k)$ Cauchy.

Suppose (x_k) is Cauchy. $\Rightarrow (x_{j,k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is

Cauchy for each $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$\Rightarrow x_{j,k} \rightarrow x_j$ for some $x_j \in \mathbb{R}$

because \mathbb{R} is complete.

$\Rightarrow x_k \rightarrow x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. \square

Theorem (Bolzano - Weierstrass)

If $(x_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is bounded (ie $\|x_k\| \leq \text{constant}$)

then (x_k) has a convergent

subsequence.

Proof. Sbl. Case: $x_k = (x_k, y_k) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

($\cancel{x_k}$) bdd $\Rightarrow (x_k)$ and (y_k) are bdd.

By B-W in \mathbb{R} , $\exists (x_{k_p}) \subset (x_k)$

SL $x_{k_p} \rightarrow x$ as $p \rightarrow \infty$.

Again by B-W, $\exists (y_{k_{p_m}}) \subset (y_k)$

SL $y_{k_{p_m}} \rightarrow y$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$

$\Rightarrow (x_{k_{p_m}}, y_{k_{p_m}}) \rightarrow (x, y)$

$x_{k_{p_m}}$ gives a subsequence of (x_k) .

□

- A bounded infinite subset of \mathbb{R}^n has a limit point.

Remark: Bolzano - Weierstrass does not hold in infinite dimension.

• Theorem (Heine-Borel):

Closed + bounded = Compact

Proof:

$A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ Compact $\Rightarrow A$ is closed
and bounded (Why?)

Suppose A is closed and bdd.

Let $(x_k) \subset A \xrightarrow{\text{B-W}} \exists (x_{k_b}) \subset (x_k)$

such that $x_{k_b} \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Since A is closed, $x \in A$

$\Rightarrow A$ is compact. \square

— End —

