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We will learn about : Basics of functions of several variables. In this lecture:

1.1 A sequence in the Euclidean space and its application

Using these notation :

- \mathbb{N} : set of natural number ($\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$)
- \mathbb{Z} : set of integers ($\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$)
- \mathbb{Q} : set of rational number ($\mathbb{Q} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \frac{2}{3}, \dots\}$)
- \mathbb{R} : set of real number
- \mathbb{C} : set of complex number

Definition 1. A sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is an assignment of (real) number $x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ to natural number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ($x_n \in \mathbb{R}$).

Example : $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$. $x_1 = 1, x_2 = \frac{1}{2}, \dots$

Definition 2. A subsequence of a sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence $(y_j)_{j=1}^{\infty}$ defined by $y_j = x_{n_j}$ for some sequence $(n_j)_{j=1}^{\infty}$ in \mathbb{N} such that $n_j < n_{j+1}$ ($j = 1, 2, \dots$).

Example : sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{100}$, takes $n_1 = 1, n_2 = 3, n_3 = 5, n_4 = 100$

subsequence $(x_{n_j})_{j=1}^{\infty} = x_{n_1}, x_{n_2}, x_{n_3}, x_{n_4} = 1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{100}$.

Definition 3. Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a sequence converges to $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ if for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > N$, $|x_n - \alpha| < \epsilon$.

In the mathematical symbol $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > N$, $|x_n - \alpha| < \epsilon$ for $n > N$.

In this case we write, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ or $x_n \rightarrow \alpha$ ($n \rightarrow \infty$)

Example 1.

Theorem 1. $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}, (y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is sequence. Suppose $x_n \rightarrow \alpha$ and $y_n \rightarrow \beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

1. $x_n \pm y_n \rightarrow \alpha \pm \beta$, ($n \rightarrow \infty$)
2. $x_n \cdot y_n \rightarrow \alpha \cdot \beta$, ($n \rightarrow \infty$)
3. if $\beta \neq 0$, $\frac{x_n}{y_n} \rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$, ($n \rightarrow \infty$)

Remark 1. On 3, $\frac{x_n}{y_n}$ is not defined for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ because $y_n = 0$ possibly for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. But, since $y_n \rightarrow \beta \neq 0$, y_n eventually is not 0. Hence $\frac{x_n}{y_n}$ is defined eventually.

Theorem 2. $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ a sequence. If $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, any subsequence of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.
 \therefore Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a subsequence. Because $x_n \rightarrow \alpha$ ($n \rightarrow \infty$), $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$. Take $J_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n_j > N_\theta$ for all $j > J_0$. Then $|x_{n_j} - \alpha| < \epsilon$ for $j > J_0$. $x_{n_j} \rightarrow \alpha$ ($j \rightarrow \infty$), $(n_j)_{j=1}^{\infty}$ also a sequence, $n_j \in \mathbb{N}, n_j < n_{j+1}$.

Completeness Axiom. Let $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be a monotonically increasing (decreasing) sequence (i.e. $x_n \leq x_{n+1}, n \in \mathbb{N}$). Suppose that there is an $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x_n \leq M$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$) ($x_n \geq M$). Then, $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges ($\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x_n \rightarrow \alpha$)

Theorem 3. Bolzano-Weirstrass. $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ a sequence in \mathbb{R} . Suppose $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is bounded in the sense that $|x_n| \leq M, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ contains a convergent subsequence.
 x_n is a peak of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ if $x_n > x_m$ for $m > n$.

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2.1 n-dimensional space

$\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) | x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$.

Takes $n = 2$, $\mathbb{R}^2 \Leftrightarrow$ plane, we have $P(a, b)$.

For $n = 3$, we have $P(a, b, c)$.

Definition 4. $P_m = (x_1^m, \dots, x_n^m) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\{P_m\}_{m=1}^\infty$: a sequence in \mathbb{R}^n .
 $\{P_m\}$ converges to $A = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, if $\forall k = 1, \dots, n$, $x_k^m \rightarrow a_k$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Definition 5. Inner product and norm.

$\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We can define :

$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n$; **inner product**

$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$; **norm**

Example 2. $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}$ is perpendicular to \mathbf{y}

Takes $n = 0$ then

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 &= 0 \\ x_1 y_1 &= -x_2 y_2 \\ \frac{y_1}{y_2} &= -\frac{x_2}{x_1} \\ \text{then } (x_1, x_2) &= c \cdot (-y_2, y_1) \end{aligned}$$

pict :

Example 3. $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

$(\Rightarrow) 0 = \|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2$, then $x_i^2 = 0$ ($\forall i = 1, \dots, n$) and finally $x_i = 0$.

Notes 1. $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ is the distance between $\mathbf{0} = (0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

For notation, we will use $P, Q \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as points and $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as vectors.

We also use $\|x - y\| = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \cdots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$ as distance between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} .

$\|P - Q\|$ is distance between P and Q .

$$\mathbf{x} \pm \mathbf{y} = (x_1 \pm y_1, \dots, x_n \pm y_n)$$

$$P = (p_1, \dots, p_n), Q = (q_1, \dots, q_n), \text{ then } P + Q = (p_1 + q_1, \dots, p_n + q_n)$$

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha \mathbf{x} = (\alpha x_1, \dots, \alpha x_n), \alpha P = (\alpha p_1, \dots, \alpha p_n)$$

$$\{P_m\}_{m=1}^\infty : \text{a sequence in } \mathbb{R}^n, P_m \rightarrow A \Leftrightarrow \|P_m - A\| \rightarrow 0$$

Theorem 4. Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. For any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

"=" $\Rightarrow a\mathbf{y} = b\mathbf{x}$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

\therefore We may assume $\mathbf{x} \neq \emptyset, \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$0 \leq \|t\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = (t\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot (t\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = t^2 \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2t(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$$

$$D/4 \leq 0$$

Theorem 5. Bolzano=Weierstrass. Let $(P_m)_{m=1}^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a sequence. Suppose that $(P_m)_{m=1}^\infty$ is bounded. In the sense that $\|P_m\| \leq M$ ($m \in \mathbb{N}$) for some $M \geq 0$. Then $(P_m)_{m=1}^\infty$ contains a convergent subsequence.

Definition 6. Ball. $A \in \mathbb{R}^n, R > 0$

$$\mathbf{B}(A, R) = \{P \in \mathbb{R}^n | \|P - A\| < R\}; \text{ open ball of center } A \text{ with radius } R$$

$$\overline{\mathbf{B}}(A, R) = \{P \in \mathbb{R}^n | \|P - A\| \leq R\}; \text{ closed ball}$$

Definition 7. 1. $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be **an open set** if $E = \emptyset$ or $\forall A \in E, \exists R > 0$ such that $\mathbf{B}(A, R) \subset E$.

2. $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be **a closed set** if $E^c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ E is an open set.

E : open, then neighbor in any point

Definition 8. Accumulation point. $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$; a set. $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called **an accumulation point** of E if $\forall R > 0, (\mathbf{B}(A, R) - \{A\}) \cap E \neq \emptyset$.

Notes 2. $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if and only if E contains any accumulation point of E . **Homework report, prove this**

Notes 3. 1. Both \emptyset and \mathbb{R}^n are open and closed

2. $\{E_\lambda \mid \lambda \in A\}$; a collection of open sets \Rightarrow union $\bigcup_{\lambda \in A} E_\lambda$ is also open

3. $\{E_\lambda\}_{\lambda=1}^N$, a finite collection of open sets \Rightarrow $\bigcup_{\lambda=1}^N E_\lambda$ is also open.

4. **Rephrase of Bolzano Weierstrass theorem.** $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$; a **bounded closed set** $\Leftrightarrow E$ is a closed set such that $E \subset B(0, R)$ for some $R > 0$. E ; a bounded closed set then any sequence of E contains a convergent subsequence whose limit is in E .

Definition 9. A bounded closed set in \mathbb{R}^n is called **compact**.

Example 4. $\overline{B}(A, R)$ is compact. **Report! prove this**

2.2 Continuity and differentiability of a function

2.2.1 Continuity

E : a set in \mathbb{R}^n and f : is a function of E (real valued function).

i.e. f is an assignment a (real) number to a point in E .

Definition 10. 1. f is **continuous at** $A \in E$ if $\forall (P_m)_{m=1}^\infty \subset E$: sequence with $P_m \rightarrow A$ ($m \rightarrow \infty$)

$$f(P_m) \rightarrow f(A) \quad (m \rightarrow \infty)$$

2. f is **continuous on** E if f is continuous at any point of E .

2.2.2 Basic of continuous function on an interval in \mathbb{R}

Theorem 6. Intermediate value theorem. f : function on a closed interval $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$. Suppose that $f(a) \leq f(b)$. Then, $\forall \gamma$ with $f(a) \leq \gamma \leq f(b)$, $\exists c \in [a, b]$ with $f(c) = \gamma$.

Theorem 7. Extreme value theorem. f is a continuous function on a closed interval $[a, b]$. Then, f attains a maximum and a minimum on $[a, b]$.

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1. $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if and only if E contains any accumulation point of E
2. $\overline{B}(A, R)$ is compact.

Proof :

1. (\Rightarrow) if E is closed then E contains all of its accumulation point. Let x accumulation point of E , $x \in E$ and E is closed then E^c is open .

Let $x \in E^c$ and $R > 0 \Rightarrow \forall x \in E^c, \exists B(x, R)$ such that $\forall y \in B(x, R) \Rightarrow y \in E^c$.

Suppose x is accumulation point of E that is not in E .

Then, $\forall e \in B(x, R), \exists y \neq x$ with $y \in e \cap E$.

$y \in e \cap E \Rightarrow y \notin E^c$ contradiction.

(\Leftarrow) E contains all of its accumulation point then E is closed.

Suppose E contains all of its accumulation point. Suppose E^c is not open.

$\exists x \in E^c$ such that $\forall e \in B(x, R), R > 0, \exists y \in e$ that also in E .

Its contradict the premise, because x is accumulation point.

2. Suppose $x \notin \overline{B}(A, R) \Rightarrow \|x - A\| > R$.
So let $\|x - A\| - R = \epsilon > 0$.
Consider $y \in B(x, \epsilon/2)$,

$$\begin{aligned}\|y - A\| &\geq \|x - A\| - \|y - x\| \\ \|y - A\| &\geq R + \epsilon - (\epsilon/2) \\ \|y - A\| &\geq R + (\epsilon/2) \\ \|y - A\| &> R\end{aligned}$$

shows that $y \in \overline{B}(A, R)$. Hence $B(x, \epsilon/2)$ subset of $\overline{B}(A, R)^c$.

Because $\overline{B}(A, R)^c$ hence $\overline{B}(A, R)$ is closed.

By definition, $\overline{B}(A, R) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x - A\| \leq R\}$

Then $\forall x \in \overline{B}(A, R)$ we can find

$$\begin{aligned}\|x - A\| &\leq R \\ -R &\leq \|x - A\| \leq R.\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

shows that $\overline{B}(A, R)$ is bounded.

Because closed and bounded, $\overline{B}(A, R)$ is compact.

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f is continuous function on $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \leq x \leq b\}$

Theorem 8. Intermediate Value Theorem. Suppose $f(a) \leq f(b)$ then $\forall \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ with $f(a) \leq \gamma \leq f(b)$, $\exists c$ in $[a, b]$ such that $f(c) = \gamma$.

Theorem 9. Extreme value theorem. f attains a maximum and a minimum on $[a, b]$.

3.1 Differentiable function on intervals

f : function defined around $x = a \in \mathbb{R}$.

f is differentiable at $x = a$ if the limit $f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$ exist.

f : function on $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a < x < b\}$

f is differentiable on (a, b) if f is differentiable at any point of (a, b) .

Properties : if f is differentiable at $x = a$ then f is continuous at $x = a$.

$\because f(a+h) = f(a) + h \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = f(a) + hf'(a)$. Because $h \rightarrow 0$ then $f(a+h) \rightarrow f(a)$.

Theorem 10. Rolle's theorem. f : continue on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) . If $f(a) = f(b)$ then $\exists c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.

\because if f is a constant function, $f'(x) = 0, \forall x \in (a, b)$. Suppose that f is not a constant function, by extreme value theorem, f attain max at $x = c_1$ and min at $x = c_2$ with $c_1 \neq c_2$.

(Otherwise max = $f(c_1) = f(c_2) = \min$)

$\forall x \in [a, b], f(c_2) \leq \min \leq f(x) \leq \max \leq f(a)$. We may assume $c_1 \in (a, b)$.

(Otherwise, consider $-f$ instead f ; $(-f)'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-f(a+h) - (-f(a))}{h} = -f'(a)$)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(c_1+h) - f(c_1)}{h} &\leq 0, h < 0. \quad \text{for } h \rightarrow 0, \quad f'(c_1) \leq 0 \\ \frac{f(c_1+h) - f(c_1)}{h} &\geq 0, h > 0. \quad \text{for } h \rightarrow 0, \quad f'(c_1) \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Then, we can conclude that $f'(c_1) = 0$

Theorem 11. Meanvalue theorem. f : continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) .

$\exists c \in (a, b)$ such that $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(c)$.

\because consider $F(x) = f(x) - f(a) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$ and apply the Rolle's theorem.

3.2 Basic of function of several variables

$D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a domain $\Leftrightarrow D$ is open. Any two points of D are connected by a polygonal arc in D . We can consider a ball $\mathbf{B}(P, R)$.

Note : From now on, we discuss with \mathbb{R}^2 for simplicity.

3.2.1 The partial derivative at $P(a, b)$

$$1D : f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

$$2D : f_x(a, b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

$$f_y(a, b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a, b+h) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

Definition 11. f is partially differentiable at $P(a, b)$ if $f_x(a, b), f_y(a, b)$ exist. And f is partially differentiable on D if f is partially differentiable at any point on D .

3.2.2 Landau symbol

O : big o and o : small o describe the behavior of function.

REPORT (Afifah Maya Iknaningrum / 1715011053)

Using chain rule, calculate the derivatives

1. Let $y = f(x) = x^2$, $z = g(y) = y^3 + 2y$. Calculate $\frac{d(g \circ f)}{dx}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d(g \circ f)}{dx} &= \frac{dg}{dy} \cdot \frac{df}{dx} \\ &= (3(f(x))^2 + 2)(2x) \\ &= (3(x^2)^2 + 2)(2x) \\ &= (3x^4 + 2)(2x) \\ &= 6x^5 + 4x\end{aligned}$$

2. Let $y = f(x) = x^3 + 2x$, $z = g(y) = y^2 + 3y$. Calculate $\frac{d(g \circ f)}{dx}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d(g \circ f)}{dx} &= \frac{dg}{dy} \cdot \frac{df}{dx} \\ &= (2(f(x)) + 3)(3x^2 + 2) \\ &= (2(x^3 + 2x) + 3)(3x^2 + 2) \\ &= (2x^3 + 4x + 3)(3x^2 + 2) \\ &= 6x^5 + 4x^3 + 12x^3 + 8x + 9x^2 + 6 \\ &= 6x^5 + 16x^3 + 9x^2 + 8x + 6\end{aligned}$$

3. Let $\gamma(t) = (t^2, t^3 + t)$, $z = f(x, y) = x^3y$. Calculate $\frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{dt}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{dt} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= (3x^2y)(2t) + (x^3)(3t^2 + 1) \\ &= (3(t^2)^2(t^3 + t))(2t) + ((t^2)^3)(3t^2 + 1) \\ &= 6t^5(t^3 + t) + t^6(3t^2 + 1) \\ &= 6t^8 + 6t^6 + 3t^8 + t^6 \\ &= 9t^8 + 7t^6\end{aligned}$$

4. Let $\gamma(t) = (t, t^2 + t)$, $z = f(x, y) = xe^y$. Calculate $\frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{dt}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{dt} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= (e^y)(1) + (xe^y)(2t + 1) \\ &= e^{t^2+t} + te^{t^2+t}(2t + 1) \\ &= e^{t^2+t} + (2t^2 + t)e^{t^2+t} \\ &= (2t^2 + t + 1)e^{t^2+t}\end{aligned}$$

5. Let $(u, v) = f(x, y) = (ax + by, cx + dy)$, $(z, w) = g(u, v) = (pu + qv, ru + sv)$. Calculate $J(g \circ f)$ and $Jac(f)$.

$$\begin{aligned}J(g \circ f) &= J(g)(f) J(f) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} ap + cq & bp + dq \\ ar + cs & br + ds \end{pmatrix} \\ Jac(f) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc\end{aligned}$$

6. Let $(u, v) = f(x, y) = (x^y, x^5 y^2)$, $(z, w) = g(u, v) = (u^2, v^3)$. Calculate $J(g \circ f)$ and $Jac(f)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 J(g \circ f) &= J(g)(f) J(f) \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2u & 0 \\ 0 & 3v^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4 y^2 & x^5 2y \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2(x^2 y) & 0 \\ 0 & 3(x^5 y^2)^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4 y^2 & 2x^5 y \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2x^2 y & 0 \\ 0 & 3x^{10} y^4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4 y^2 & 2x^5 y \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 4x^3 y^2 & 2x^4 y \\ 15x^{14} y^6 & 6x^{15} y^5 \end{pmatrix} \\
 Jac(f) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4 y^2 & 2x^5 y \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= (2xy)(2x^5 y) - (5x^4 y^2)(x^2) \\
 &= 4x^6 y^2 - 5x^6 y^2 \\
 &= -x^6 y^2
 \end{aligned}$$

7. Let $(x, y) = f(r, \theta) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$, $(z, w) = g(x, y) = (x^2, y)$. Calculate $J(g \circ f)$ and $Jac(f)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 J(g \circ f) &= J(g)(f) J(f) \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2x & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2r \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2r \cos^2 \theta & -2r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 2r \cos^2 \theta & -r^2 \sin 2\theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \\
 Jac(f) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= r \cos^2 \theta - (-r \sin^2 \theta) \\
 &= r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) \\
 &= r
 \end{aligned}$$

1. Let D be a domain in \mathbb{R}^2 and F a C^2 -function in D . Let $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ be a smooth path in D . Since F is of class C^2 around a point $P(a, b)$, we can use the fact that $F_{xy}(a, b) = F_{yx}(a, b)$ such that it is shown

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d^2}{dt^2} F(x(t), y(t)) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} F(x, y) \right) \\
 &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dF}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dF}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \\
 &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(F_x \frac{dx}{dt} \right) + \frac{d}{dt} \left(F_y \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{d}{dt} (F_x) \frac{dx}{dt} + F_x \frac{d}{dt} \frac{dx}{dt} \right) + \left(\frac{d}{dt} (F_y) \frac{dy}{dt} + F_y \frac{d}{dt} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \\
 &= \left(\frac{dF_x}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dF_x}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \frac{dx}{dt} + F_x \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + \left(\frac{dF_y}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dF_y}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \frac{dy}{dt} + F_y \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \\
 &= F_{xx} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + F_{xy} \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dx}{dt} + F_x \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + F_{yx} \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{dy}{dt} + F_{yy} \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + F_y \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \\
 &= F_{xx} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + 2F_{xy} \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dx}{dt} + F_{yy} \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + F_x \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} + F_y \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. Let F be a C^2 -function around a point $P(a, b)$ satisfying $F_y(a, b) \neq 0$. When a C^2 -function $y = \phi(x)$ around $x = a$ satisfies $b = \phi(a)$ and $F(x, \phi(x)) = 0$ around $x = a$. We can get

$$\begin{aligned}
 F(x, y) &= 0 \\
 \frac{d}{dx} F(x, y) &= F_x + F_y(y') = 0 \\
 \Leftrightarrow y' &= -\frac{F_x}{F_y}
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

such that

$$y'' = \frac{F_{xx}F_y - F_x F_{xy}y'}{F_y^2}$$

taking total derivative of equation (1), we get

$$y'' = - \left[\frac{(F_{xx} + F_{xy}(y'))F_y - F_x(F_{yx} + F_{yy}(y'))}{F_y^2} \right]$$

substitusing $y = \phi(x)$ at (a, b) we obtain

$$\phi''(x) = - \frac{F_{xx}(a, b)F_y^2(a, b) - 2F_{xy}(a, b)F_x(a, b)F_y(a, b) + F_{yy}(a, b)F_x^2(a, b)}{F_y^3(a, b)}$$

3. Let

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_1 &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2; 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 2\} \\
 D_2 &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2; 1 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 1 + x^2\}
 \end{aligned}$$

We can calculate the following integral

•

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \int_{D_1} xy^2 \, dx dy &= \int_0^2 \int_0^1 xy^2 \, dx dy \\
 &= \int_0^2 y^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) [x]_0^1 dy \\
 &= \int_0^2 y^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) dy \\
 &= \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) [y^3]_0^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{6} (2^3 - 0) = \frac{4}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

•

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \int_{D_1} (x+y)^2 \, dx dy &= \int \int_{D_1} x^2 + 2xy + y^2 \, dx dy \\
 &= \int_0^2 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) [x^3]_0^1 + (2) \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) [x^2]_0^1 y + y^2 [x]_0^1 \, dy \\
 &= \int_0^2 \frac{1}{3} + y + y^2 \, dy \\
 &= \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) [y]_0^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) [y^2]_0^2 + \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) [y^3]_0^2 \\
 &= \frac{2}{3} + 2 + \frac{8}{3} = \frac{16}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

•

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \int_{D_2} (x^2 + y)^2 \, dx dy &= \int_1^2 \int_0^{1+x^2} x^4 + 2x^2 y + y^2 \, dy dx \\
 &= \int_1^2 x^4 [y]_0^{1+x^2} + 2x^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) [y^2]_0^{1+x^2} + \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) [y^3]_0^{1+x^2} \, dx \\
 &= \int_1^2 \frac{1}{3} + 2x^2 + 4x^4 + \frac{7}{3} x^6 \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{14}{3} + \frac{124}{5} + \frac{127}{3} = \frac{309}{5}
 \end{aligned}$$

4. Suppose D is a bounded domain with smooth boundary. Using Green theorem, the line integral

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{\partial D} -y \, dx + x \, dy &= \int_D \frac{dx}{dx} - \frac{-y}{dy} dA \\
 &= \int_D 2 \, dA
 \end{aligned}$$

such that it is equal to two times of area D .