#### 1 09-04-18

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

# 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

 $(n_{j})_{j=1}^{\infty} \text{ in } \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n_{j} < n_{j+1} \text{ } (j=1,2,\ldots).$   $Example : \text{ sequence } (x_{n})_{n=1}^{\infty} = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots, \frac{1}{100} \text{ , takes } n_{1} = 1, n_{2} = 3, n_{3} = 5, n_{4} = 100$   $\text{subsequence } (x_{n_{j}})_{j=1}^{\infty} = x_{n_{1}}, x_{n_{2}}, x_{n_{3}}, x_{n_{4}} = 1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{100}.$ 

**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  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } n > N, |x_n - \alpha| < \epsilon \text{ for } n > N.$ In this case we write,  $\lim_{n\to\infty}$  or  $x_n\to\alpha$   $(n\to\infty)$ 

#### Example 1.

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

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

**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  $y_n \to \beta \neq 0$ ,  $y_n \to 0$ eventually is not 0. Hence  $\frac{x_n}{u_n}$  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  $x_n \to \alpha(n \to \infty), \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ . Take  $J_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n_j > N_\theta$  for all  $y > J_0$ . Then  $|x_{n_j > N_\theta} - \alpha| < \epsilon$  for  $j > J_0$ .  $x_{n_j} \to \alpha(j \to \infty), (n_j)_{j=1}^\infty$  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  $(\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that }$ 

**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 16-04-18

### 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,  $\mathbb{R}^2 \Leftrightarrow \text{plane}$ , 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  $\forall k = 1, \dots, n, \ x_k^m \to a_k$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

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 :  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n$ ; 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

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 & = & 0 \\ x_1y_1 & = & -x_2y_2 \\ \frac{y_1}{y_2} & = & -\frac{x_2}{x_1} \\ then \ (x_1, x_2) = c \cdot (-y_2, y_1) \end{array}$$

pict:

**Example 3.**  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$   $(\Rightarrow) \ 0 = \|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$ , then  $x_1^2 = 0 \ (\forall i = 1, \dots, n)$  and finally  $x_1 = 0$ .

**Notes 1.** ||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  $||x - y|| = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$  as distance between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ . ||P - Q|| is distance between P and Q.

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

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

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

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

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

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

"="  $\Rightarrow a\mathbf{y} = b\mathbf{x} \text{ for some } a, b \in \mathbb{R}.$ :: We may assume  $\mathbf{x} \neq \emptyset$ ,  $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}.$ 

$$0 \le ||t\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}|| = (t\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})(t\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = t^2 ||\mathbf{x}||^2 + 2t(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) + ||\mathbf{y}||^2$$
$$D/4 \le 0$$

**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.  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n, R > 0$ 

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

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

**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.  $\{E_{\lambda}\lambda \in A\}$ ; a collection of open sets  $\Rightarrow$  union  $\lambda \in AE_{\lambda}$  is also open
- 3.  $\{E_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda=1}^{N}$ , a finite collection of open sets  $\Rightarrow$  irisan  $_{lamda=1}^{N}E_{\lambda}$  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  $E \subset \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{0},R)$  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.  $\overline{\mathbf{B}}(A,R)$  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  $P_m \to A$   $(m \to \infty)$ 

$$f(P_m) \to f(A) \ (m \to \infty)$$

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  $[a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \le x \le b\}$ . Suppose that  $f(a) \le f(b)$ . Then,  $\forall \gamma$  with  $f(a) \le \gamma \le f(b)$ ,  $\exists c \in [a,b]$  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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#### REPORT 1

- 1.  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed if and only if E contains any accumulation point of E
- 2.  $\overline{\mathbf{B}}(A, R)$  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,  $\forall e \in B(x, R), \exists y \neq x \text{ with } y \in e \cap E$ .  $y \in e \cap E \Rightarrow y \notin E^c$  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  $y \in B(x, \epsilon/2)$ ,

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

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,  $\overline{B}(A,R)=\{x\in\mathbb{R}^n|\|x-A\|\leq R\}$ Then  $\forall x\in\overline{B}(A,R)$  we can find

$$||x - A|| \le R$$

$$-R \le |x - A| \le R.$$
(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 <u>continuous function</u> on  $[a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \le x \le b\}$ 

**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  $f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$  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.

$$\therefore f(a+h) = f(a) + h \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = f(a) + h f'(a). \text{ Because } h \to 0 \text{ then } f(a+h) \to f(a).$$

**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.

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

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

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

$$\frac{f(c_1+h)-f(c_1)}{h} \le 0, h < 0. \quad \text{for } h \to 0, \quad f'(c_1) \le 0$$
$$\frac{f(c_1+h)-f(c_1)}{h} \ge 0, h > 0. \quad \text{for } h \to 0, \quad f'(c_1) \ge 0$$

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

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

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

$$\therefore$$
 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)

$$\begin{aligned} &1\mathrm{D}: f\prime(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}. \\ &2\mathrm{D}: f_x(a,b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h,b) - f(a,b)}{h}. \\ &f_y(a,b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a,b+h) - f(a,b)}{h}. \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 11.** f is <u>partially differentiable at P(a,b)</u> if  $f_x(a,b), f_y(a,b)$  exist. And f is <u>partially differentiable on D</u> 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  $\frac{d(g \circ f)}{dx}$ . 
$$\frac{d(g \circ f)}{dx} = \frac{dg}{dy} \cdot \frac{df}{dx}$$
$$= (3(f(x))^2 + 2)(2x)$$
$$= (3x^2 + 2)(2x)$$
$$= (3x^4 + 2)(2x)$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$\frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

$$= (e^y)(1) + (xe^y)(2t+1)$$

$$= e^{t^2+t} + te^{t^2+t}(2t+1)$$

$$= e^{t^2+t} + (2t^2+t)e^{t^2+t}$$

$$= (2t^2+t+1)e^{t^2+t}$$

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  $Jac(f)$ .

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

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

$$\begin{split} J(g \circ f) &= J(g)(f) \ J(f) \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2u & 0 \\ 0 & 3v^2 \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4y^2 & x^52y \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2(x^2y) & 0 \\ 0 & 3(x^5y^2)^2 \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4y^2 & 2x^5y \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2x^2y & 0 \\ 0 & 3x^{10}y^4 \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4y^2 & 2x^5y \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 4x^3y^2 & 2x^4y \\ 15x^{14}y^6 & 6x^{15}y^5 \end{array} \right) \\ Jac(f) &= \det \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 2xy & x^2 \\ 5x^4y^2 & 2x^5y \end{array} \right) \\ &= (2xy)(2x^5y) - (5x^4y^2)(x^2) \\ &= 4x^6y^2 - 5x^6y^2 \\ &= -x^6y^2 \end{split}$$

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).

$$J(g \circ f) = J(g)(f) J(f)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2x & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2r \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2r \cos^2 \theta & -2r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2r \cos^2 \theta & -r^2 \sin 2\theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Jac(f) = det \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= r \cos^2 \theta - (-r \sin^2 \theta)$$

$$= r (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)$$

$$= r$$