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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 $\frac{x_n}{y_n}$ 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)

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2.1 n-dimensional space

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

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 :

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

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

pict :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Theorem 3. 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 4. 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. $A \in \mathbb{R}^n, R > 0$

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

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

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 $\lambda \in A E_\lambda$ is also open

3. $\{E_\lambda\}_{\lambda=1}^N$, a finite collection of open sets \Rightarrow irisan $\bigcap_{\lambda=1}^N E_\lambda$ 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 $E \subset \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{0}, R)$ 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 $P_m \rightarrow A$ ($m \rightarrow \infty$)

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

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 5. Intermediate value theorem. f : function on a closed interval $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \leq x \leq b\}$. 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 6. Extreme value theorem. f is a continuous function

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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.