

4/06/2014

Therefore,

$$|1-L| < \frac{1}{4}, \quad |L| > \frac{3}{4}$$

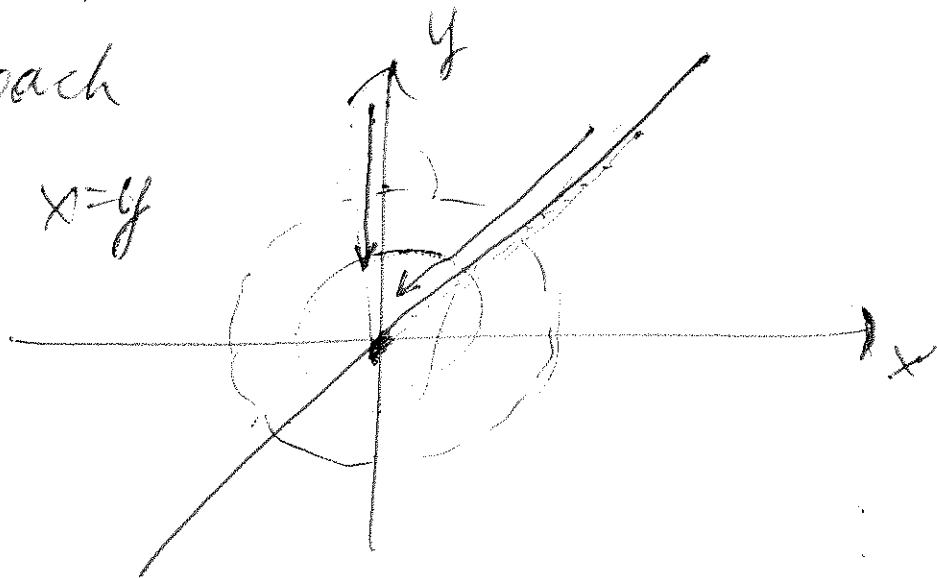
We have $|L| < \frac{1}{4}, \quad |L| > \frac{3}{4}$,

impossible.

Hence \lim does not exist. \square

Intuitively, we are approaching the origin first along the y -axis ($x=0$).

Then we approach along the line $x=y$.



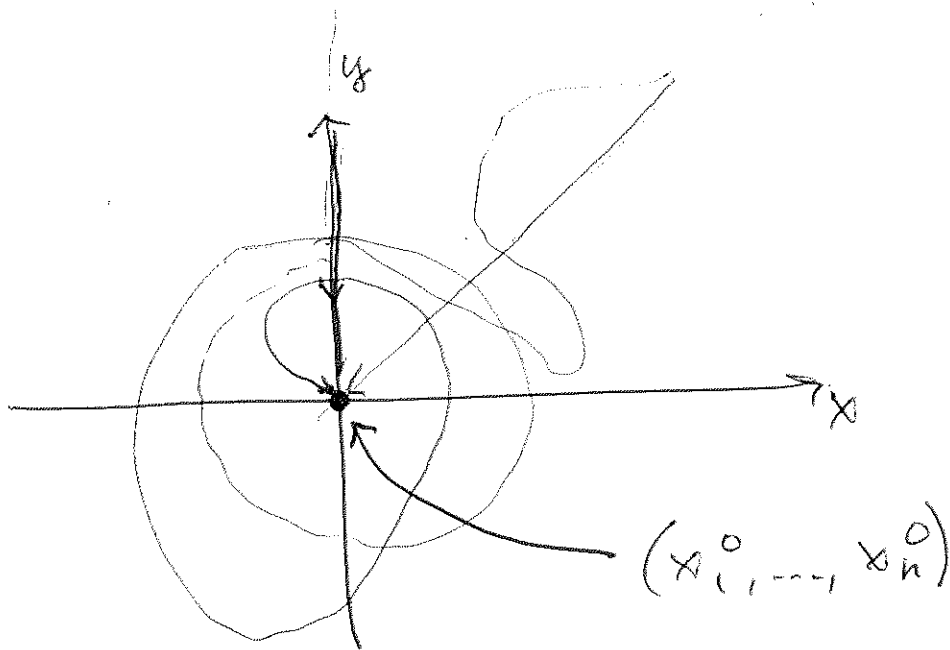
Limits of vector-functions.

Consider $f: \underset{\mathbb{R}^n}{\Omega} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$.

We study

$$\lim_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0)} f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Intuition. If this limit exists, ^{and equals} $L \in \mathbb{R}^m$,
that means that as (x_1, \dots, x_n) approach
 (x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0) , the values $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
approach $L \in \mathbb{R}^m$.



However I approach (x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0) ,
if the limit exists, it must be the same.

Ex. The limit

$$\lim_{\substack{(x,y,z) \\ \rightarrow (0,0,0)}} \frac{xy + y^2 + zx}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

Approach the origin along the z-axis. Then $x, y = 0$ and

$$\frac{xy + y^2 + zx}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 0 \text{ on the z-axis.}$$

Hence the function approach 0.

But! Let us approach along $x = y = z$. Then along this line,

$$\frac{xy + y^2 + zx}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = \frac{x^2 + x^2 + x^2}{x^2 + x^2 + x^2} = 1$$

The function approaches 1.

Thus, the limit does not exist.

Ex. The limit

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 y}{x^4 + y^2}$$

does not exist.

Why? First, approach along

$y=0$. Then $\frac{x^2 y}{x^4 + y^2}$ approaches 0.

Approach along $x=y$. Then

$$\frac{x^2 y}{x^4 + y^2} = \frac{x^3}{x^4 + x^2}$$

Approach along $y=x^2$. Then

$$\frac{x^2 y}{x^4 + y^2} = \frac{x^4}{x^4 + x^4} = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0.$$

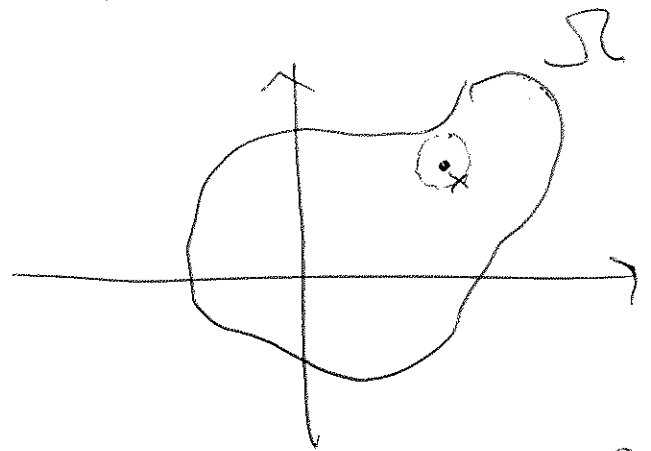
Thus, \lim does not exist.

Derivatives of vector functions.

Def. Suppose $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. We say Ω is open if for every $x \in \Omega$, there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. if $|y - x| < \delta$, then $y \in \Omega$.

Def. Assume

$$f: \underbrace{\Omega}_{\mathbb{R}^n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$



with Ω open. We can write f as $f = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m)$ with

$$f_i: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, m.$$

The Jacobian matrix of f is

$$J_f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$\frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_k}$ is the derivative of f_j with respect to x_k when we consider the other x_i 's constants.

Ex. $f(x, y) = \left(\overbrace{x^2 + xy}^{f_1}, \overbrace{x + y^3}^{f_2} \right)$

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} = 2x + y, \quad \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} = x.$$

$$J_f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x + y & x \\ 1 & 3y^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Def. The determinant of the Jacobian matrix is called the Jacobian of f .

Here $\det J_f(x, y) = (2x + y) \cdot 3y^2 - x.$

Inverse function theorem.

$$f: \underbrace{\Omega}_{\mathbb{R}^n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m.$$

Does f have an inverse?

(the inverse of f is $f^{-1}: f(\Omega) \rightarrow \Omega$ such that $f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$ for all $x \in \Omega$).

$$f(x) = x^2, \\ f: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \\ f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt{x}.$$

Theorem (Inv. Func. Thm.)

Assume $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ has all $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ continuous for $i=1, \dots, m, j=1, \dots, n$.

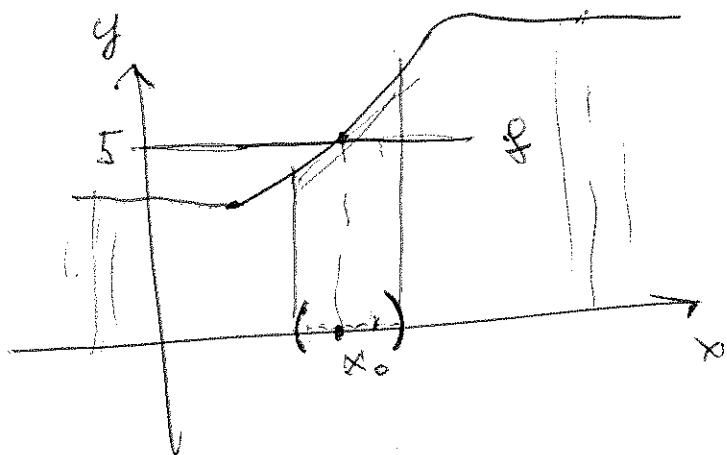
Assume the Jacobian

$$\det J_f(x_0) \neq 0$$

for some $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then there exists an open set Ω s.t. $x_0 \in \Omega$ and $f: \Omega \rightarrow f(\Omega)$ has a continuous inverse.

Also,

$$J_{f^{-1}}(f(x_0)) = J_f^{-1}(x_0).$$



Ex. $f(x, y) = (x^3 - 2xy^2, x + y)$,

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Take $(x_0, y_0) = (1, -1)$.

Is f invertible near (x_0, y_0) ?

Can we find an open $\Omega \ni (x_0, y_0)$ s.t.

f is invertible in Ω .

$$J_f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 3x^2 - 2y^2 & -4xy \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3x^2 - 2y^2 & -4xy \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$J_f(1, -1) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det J_f(1, -1) = -3 \neq 0.$$

Thus, f is invertible near $(1, -1)$.

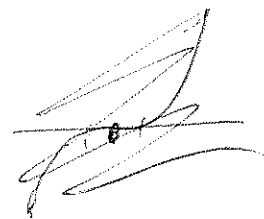
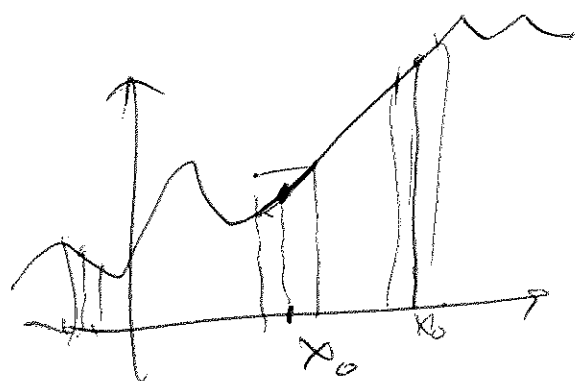
Ex: $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, $f(x, y) = (x^{26} - y^{26}, xy)$.

Invertible near every $(x, y) \neq 0$.
(locally invertible).

Use Inv. F.T.:

$$J_f(x, y)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 26x^{25} & -26y^{25} \\ y & x \end{pmatrix}$$



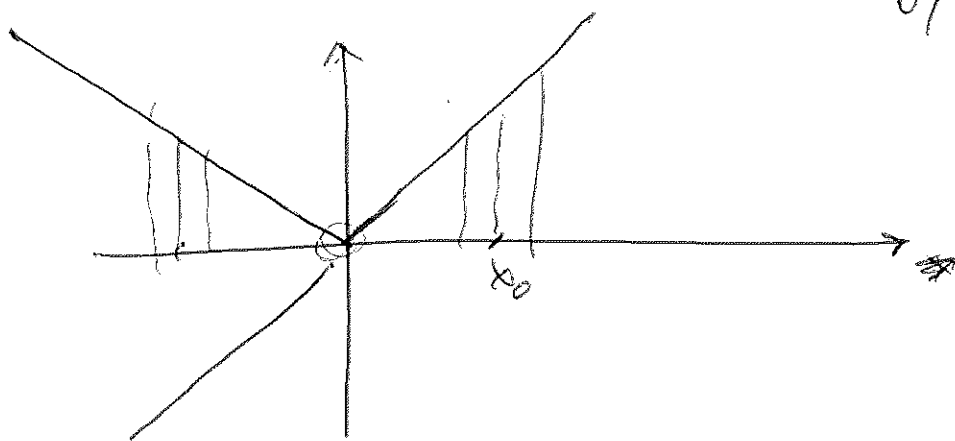
$$\det J_f(x, y) = 26x^{26} + 26y^{26} \neq 0$$

as long as $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$.

Is f globally invertible?

(i.e., does it have an inverse on all of \mathbb{R}^2 ?)

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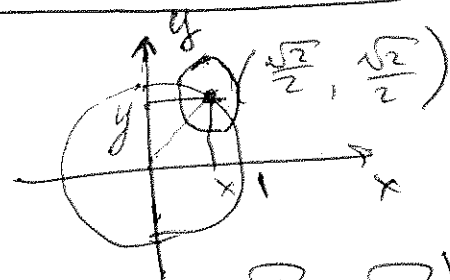


f is NOT globally invertible because
 $f(1, 1) = f(-1, -1) = (0, 1)$.

Implicit func. thm.

Consider $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

We can solve this for y near $(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2})$



$$y = \pm \sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

Theorem. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$ be an open set. Let $F: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function with continuous derivatives. Assume

$(x_0, y_0) \in \Omega$ and $\det J_F(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$.

\uparrow
 \mathbb{R}^n \uparrow
 \mathbb{R}^m

and $F(x_0, y_0) = 0$

Then there are open sets $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ s.t. $x_0 \in U$, $y_0 \in V$, and there is a unique

Function $f: U \rightarrow V$ s.t.

$$F(x, f(x)) = 0, \quad x \in U.$$

Basically, " $y = f(x)$ ".

Example.

Can we solve

$$\begin{cases} xu + yv^2 = 0, \\ xv^3 + y^2u^5 = 0. \end{cases}$$

for u, v near $x=1, y=-1, u=1, v=-1$?

take $F = (F_1, F_2): \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$F_1(x, y, u, v) = xu + yv^2,$$

$$F_2(x, y, u, v) = xv^3 + y^2u^5.$$

$$F(1, -1, 1, -1) = 0,$$

$$J_F(x, y, u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} x & 2vy \\ 6u^5y^2 & 3xv^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$J_F(1, -1, 1, -1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \det J_F(1, -1, 1, -1) = -9 \neq 0.$$

Now, the implicit func. theorem
tells us that we can solve for
 u, v ($u = f_1(x, y)$, $v = f_2(x, y)$)

in some neighbourhood of $x=1, y=-1$,

$$u=1, v=-1.$$

Here, $\xi \in (0, x)$ or $(x, 0)$.

Take $x=1$. Then

$$e = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} + \frac{e^\xi}{(n+1)!} \cdot 1^{n+1},$$

$\xi \in (0, 1)$. Thus, $e^\xi \in (1, e)$.

We know $e \leq 3$. Therefore,

$$e^\xi < 3.$$

This means the error term

$$\frac{e^\xi}{(n+1)!} < \frac{3}{(n+1)!}.$$

We want this to be

$$< 0.000005.$$

Take $n=9$. This will be enough.

Thus,

$$e = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{9!} + R_9(e), \text{ where}$$

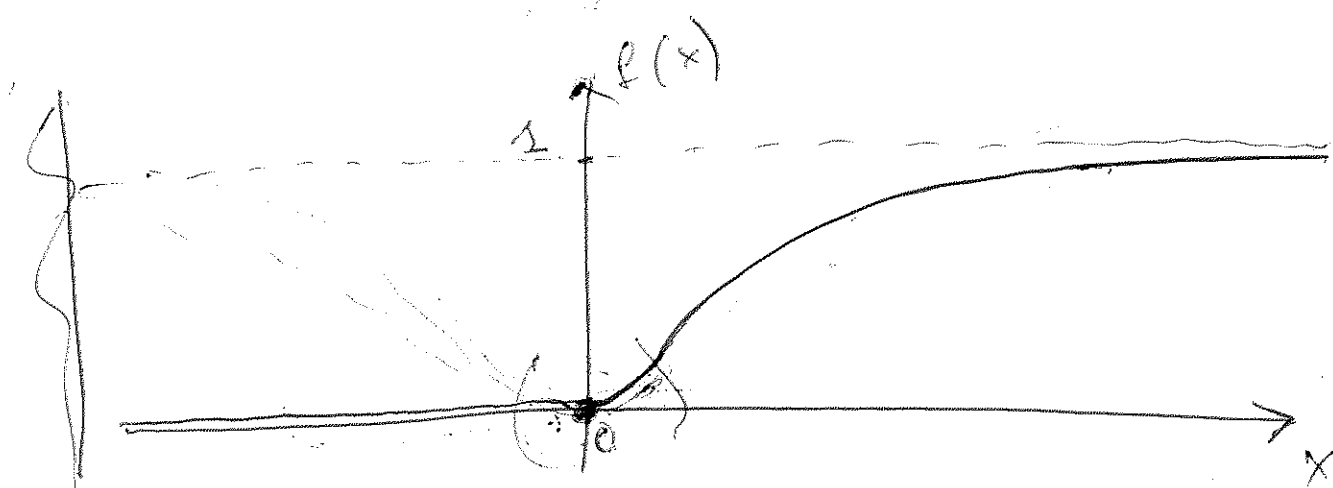
$|R_9(e)| < 0.000005$. Also, we know $R_9(e) > 0$. Thus,

$$e \in \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{91}, 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{91} + 0.000005 \right)$$

That does it.

Example.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}, & x > 0, \\ 0, & x \leq 0. \end{cases}$$



Clearly, f is diff when $x \neq 0$.

Also, we can verify that f is infinitely differentiable at 0 .

We can use Taylor's theorem to write f as a series about $x=0$.

$$f(x) \neq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n \text{ when } x > 0.$$

But! $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ for all n . Thus, the series

is not a "good" representation for f .

Note. $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$

For this, $P_0 = P_1 = 1, P_2 = P_3 = -\frac{x^2}{2!}, \dots$

Therefore, $R_0 = R_1, R_2 = R_3, \dots$

Vector Functions.

Notation. Suppose $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad y = (y_1, \dots, y_n).$$

$$|x| = \|x\| = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

Theorem. If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

1) $|(x, y)| \leq |x| |y|$

2) $|x+y| \leq |x| + |y|.$

Proof. 1) If $x, y = 0$, then this is obvious.

Assume $x \neq 0, y \neq 0$.

Observation: If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$a^2 - 2|a||b| + b^2 \geq 0 \Rightarrow |ab| \leq \frac{1}{2}(a^2 + b^2)$$

Now take $a = \frac{|x_i|}{|x|}$ and $b = \frac{|y_i|}{|y|}$

for some $i = 1, \dots, m$. Then

$$\frac{|x_i y_i|}{|x| |y|} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{|x_i|^2}{|x|^2} + \frac{|y_i|^2}{|y|^2} \right)$$

Now sum these ineqs. for $i = 1, \dots, m$.

Obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^m \frac{|x_i y_i|}{|x| |y|}} &\leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{|x_i|^2}{|x|^2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{|y_i|^2}{|y|^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{|x|^2} \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^m |x_i|^2 \right)}_{=|x|^2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{|y|^2} \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^m |y_i|^2 \right)}_{=|y|^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = \underline{\underline{1}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\sum_{i=1}^m |x_i y_i| \leq |x| |y|$. Also,

by the triangle ineq. in \mathbb{R} , $\left| \sum_{i=1}^m x_i y_i \right| \leq \sum_{i=1}^m |x_i y_i|$.

Thus, $\underline{|x||y|} \geq \underline{\left| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right|} = \underline{|(x, y)|}$.

2) Note that $|x+y|^2 = (x+y, x+y)$
 $= (x, x) + (x, y) + (y, x) + (y, y)$
 $= |x|^2 + 2(x, y) + |y|^2$
 $\leq |x|^2 + 2|(x, y)| + |y|^2$
 $\leq |x|^2 + 2|x||y| + |y|^2$
 $= (|x| + |y|)^2$. Thus,

$$|x+y|^2 \leq (|x| + |y|)^2, \text{ take } \sqrt{\quad}$$

□

- Notes.
- 1) $|x| = 0 \iff x = 0$.
 - 2) $(x, 0) = 0$ for all x .
 - 3) $(x, y) = 0 \not\iff x = 0$ or $y = 0$.

Vector functions

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad f: \bigcap_{\mathbb{R}^n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m.$$

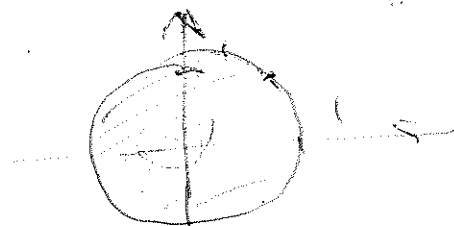
Example. $f(x_1, x_2) = (\sqrt{1-x_1^2-x_2^2}, x_1+x_2).$

$$n = m = 2.$$

Domain of f is

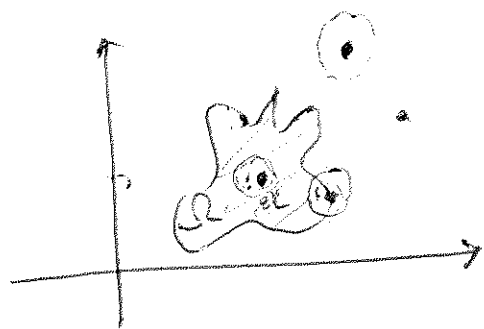
$$\Omega = \{ (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 \leq 1 \}.$$

$$f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2.$$



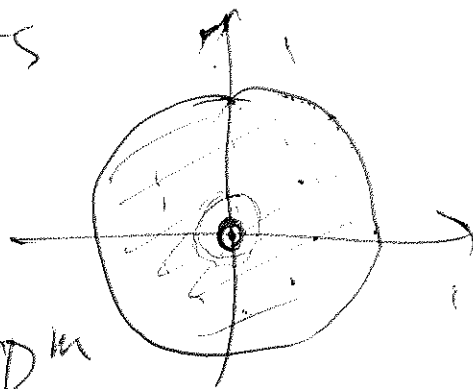
Def. Suppose Ω is a subset of \mathbb{R}^n . The point a is a limit point of Ω if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $y \in \Omega$ s.t. $0 < |y - a| < \varepsilon$.

Ex. 1) If $\Omega = B_1(0)$
 $= \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |x| < 1 \},$

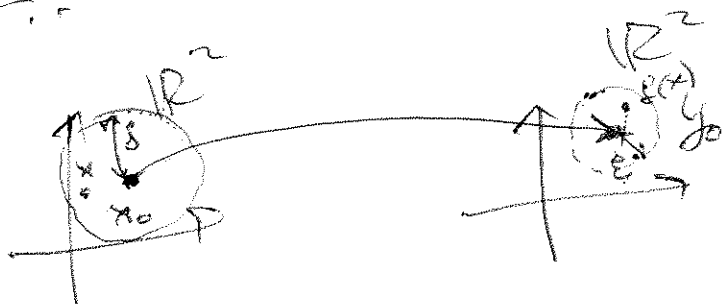


then the set of limit points of Ω is
 $\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |x| \leq 1 \}.$

2) $\Omega = B_1(0) \setminus \{(0,0)\}$. Then the set of limit points is the same:



Def. Let $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function (here, $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$). Let x_0 be a limit point of Ω and $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = y_0$ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ s.t. $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$, and $x \in \Omega$, then $|f(x) - y_0| < \varepsilon$.



Def. f is continuous at x_0 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$.

Remark. Every $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ can be written as $(f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_m)$, where $f_i: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for all $i = 1, \dots, m$.

Fact. $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous
if and only if f_1, \dots, f_m are all
continuous.

Example. $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

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

Question: does $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$ exist?

If so, what is it?

I claim the limit exists.

Let's prove it.

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. We want to find $\delta > 0$
s.t. if $0 < |(x,y) - (0,0)| < \delta$, then

$$\left| \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} - L \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for some } L.$$

$$\text{Now, } |(x,y) - (0,0)| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \delta.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} (|x| - |y|)^2 &\geq 0 \Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 - 2|xy| \geq 0 \\ &\Rightarrow \underbrace{x^2 + y^2}_{> 0} \geq 2|xy|. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\left| \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} \right| = \frac{|xy|}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} \leq \frac{\frac{1}{2}(x^2+y^2)}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} < \frac{\delta}{2}$$

Thus, if we set $\delta = 2\varepsilon$, then

$|(x,y) - (0,0)| < \delta$ will imply

$$|f(x,y) - 0| = \left| \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} \right| < \varepsilon.$$

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

2) $f(x,y) = \frac{xy^2}{x^2+y^2}$, find $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y)$.

Claim: $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy^2}{x^2+y^2} = 0$. Why?

Note that $|f(x,y)| = \frac{|x|y^2}{x^2+y^2} \leq |x|$.

If $0 < |(x,y) - (0,0)| < \delta$, then $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$.

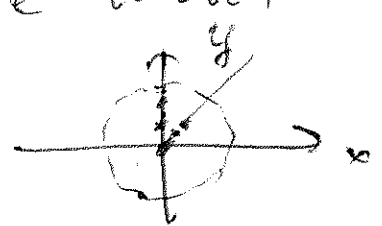
$$|f(x,y) - 0| = |f(x,y)| \leq |x| \leq \sqrt{x^2+y^2} < \delta.$$

Now take $\varepsilon = \delta$. If $|(x, y) - (0, 0)| < \delta$, then $|f(x, y)| < \delta = \varepsilon$.

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

Example. Does $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{x^2 + xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ exist?

If it existed, for all (x, y) s.t. $0 < |(x, y) - (0, 0)| < \delta$, we would have $|\frac{x^2 + xy}{x^2 + y^2} - L| < \varepsilon$.



Take $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{4}$. Take $x = 0$ and $y \neq 0$. Then

$$\left| \frac{x^2 + xy}{x^2 + y^2} - L \right| = |0 - L| < \frac{1}{4}, \quad |L| < \frac{1}{4}.$$

However, ~~if~~ take x, y s.t. $x = y$. No matter how close (x, y) is to $(0, 0)$, we then have $\left| \frac{x^2 + xy}{x^2 + y^2} - L \right| = \left| \frac{2x^2}{2x^2} - L \right| = |1 - L| < \frac{1}{4}$.