1 Prove that for a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ the definition of differentiable at x given in class is equivalent to the usual definition that $\lim_{h\to 0} (f(x+h)-f(x))/h$ exists.

Proof. Suppose f is differentiable at x in the sense of the definition from class, i.e., there is a linear map $T: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$0 = \lim_{\substack{\|\Delta x\| \to 0 \\ \Delta x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}}} \frac{\|f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) - T(\Delta x)\|}{\|\Delta x\|} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|f(x + h) - f(x) - T(h)|}{|h|}.$$

Since $T: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is linear, there exists $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that T(y) = ay for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \left| \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} - a \right| = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|f(x+h) - f(x) - T(h)|}{|h|} = 0.$$

That is, f'(x) = a in the usual sense.

Suppose now that f is differentiable at x in the usual sense—say f'(x) = a. Define the linear map $T : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by T(y) = ay for all $y \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x) - T(h)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} - a = f'(x) - a = 0.$$

Taking the absolute value, this limit is still zero, so we obtain the desired limit. \Box

2 Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is the affine map $\vec{x} = A\vec{x} + \vec{b}$ where A an $m \times n$ matrix and $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Prove that f is differentiable everywhere and that df = A.

Proof. For any point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and nonzero $\Delta x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have

$$\frac{\|f(x+\Delta x)-f(x)-A\Delta x\|}{\|\Delta x\|}=\frac{\|A(x-\Delta x)+b-(Ax+b)-A\Delta x\|}{\|\Delta x\|}=\frac{\|0\|}{\|\Delta x\|}=0.$$

The limit as $\|\Delta x\| \to 0$ is hence zero, so indeed $\mathrm{d} f = A$.

3 Given an integer n the function $f_n: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is given in polar coordinates by $f_n(r, \theta) = r \sin(n\theta)$ for $r \neq 0$ and $f_n(0,0) = 0$. Define a surface

$$S_n = \{(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta, f_n(r,\theta)) : r \ge 0, \theta \in \mathbb{R}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3.$$

(i) Sketch S_2 .

(ii) Prove that every directional derivative of f_n exists at the origin and find it.

Proof. Let $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ nonzero be given by the polar coordinates $(r; \theta)$. Then the derivative of f_n at the origin in the direction of v is given by

$$D_v f(0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f_n(0 + hv) - f_n(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{hr \sin(n\theta) - 0}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} r \sin(n\theta) = r \sin(n\theta).$$

(iii) Use the definition in class to prove that f_2 is not differentiable at the origin.

Proof. Suppose $\Delta x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ nonzero is given in polar coordinates by $(r; \theta)$ and $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is a linear map. Then

$$\frac{f_2(0+\Delta x) - f_2(0) - T(\Delta x)}{\|\Delta x\|} = \frac{r\sin(2\theta) - 0 - rT(1;\theta)}{r} = \sin(2\theta) - T(1;\theta).$$

If we assume that f is differentiable at the origin with T = df, then we would have

$$0 = \lim_{\substack{\|\Delta x\| \to 0 \\ \Delta x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}}} \frac{\|f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) - T(\Delta x)\|}{\|\Delta x\|} = \|\sin(2\theta) - T(1;\theta)\|.$$

That is, $T(1;\theta) = \sin(2\theta)$ for all angles θ . In particular, the unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 are mapped to $T(e_1) = T(1;0) = 0$ and $T(e_2) = T(1;\pi) = 0$. It follows that T is the zero map. However, along $\theta = \pi/2$ we have $\sin \pi = 1 \neq 0 = T(1;\pi/2)$. This is a contradiction, so f must not be differentiable at the origin.

(iv) Express f_2 in terms of (x, y) coordinates.

Given a nonzero point $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, consider the triangle

$$r$$
 θ
 x

Applying trigonometric identities, we compute

$$f_2(x,y) = r\sin(2\theta) = r \cdot 2\sin\theta\cos\theta = 2r \cdot \frac{y}{r} \cdot \frac{x}{r} = \frac{2xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}.$$

(v) Do you think $\partial f_2/\partial x$ is continuous at the origin?

No.

We compute

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{2xy}{(x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}} = \frac{2y^3}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}}.$$

Along the y-axis, this gives

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x}\Big|_{x=0} = \frac{2y^3}{(y^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{2y^3}{|y|^3} = \frac{2y}{|y|}.$$

For y > 0 this is 2 and for y < 0 this is -2, so

$$\lim_{y \to 0^+} \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} = 2 \neq -2 = \lim_{y \to 0^-} \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x}.$$

Hence, $\partial f_2/\partial x$ is not continuous at the origin.

4 Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\partial f/\partial y = 0$ everywhere. Prove that there is $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that f(x,y) = g(x).

Proof. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$ define the function $f_x : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by $f_x(y) = f(x, y)$. Then f_x is differentiable everywhere with $f'_x(y) = \partial f/\partial y = 0$. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with a < b. The mean value theorem tells us there is some point $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f_x(a) - f_x(b) = f'_x(c)(a - b)$. But $f'_x(c) = 0$ implies $f_x(a) = f_x(b)$, hence f_x is constant on \mathbb{R} . We now define $g(x) = f_x(0)$, and it follows that f(x, y) = g(x) for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Deduce that if df = 0 everywhere on \mathbb{R}^2 then f is constant.

Proof. Assuming df = 0, then the Jacobian matrix

$$J_f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

is zero. In particular, both partial derivatives of f are zero everywhere. By the previous part, there are functions $g_1, g_2 : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x, y) = g_1(x) = g_2(y)$. Then for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ we have

$$f(x,y) = q_1(x) = f(x,0) = q_2(0) = f(0,0),$$

hence f is constant.

What happens if the *domain* of f is only $\{(x,y): x \neq 0\}$?

In this case, f is constant on both the open left and right half-planes, though their respective values may differ.

5 Using the definition of derivative given in class prove that $f = (f_1, f_2) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^2$ is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ iff f_1 and f_2 are differentiable at a.

Proof. Suppose f is differentiable at a and let $df_a = T = (T_1, T_2) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^2$ be the derivative. We consider the max norm $||(x, y)|| = \max\{|x|, |y|\}$ on \mathbb{R}^2 . Then

$$0 = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - T(h)\|}{|h|}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\max\{f_1(x+h) - f(x) - T_1(h), f_2(x+h) - f_2(x) - T_2(h)\}}{|h|}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \max\left\{\frac{|f_1(x+h) - f_1(x) - T_1(h)|}{|h|}, \frac{|f_2(x+h) - f_2(x) - T_2(h)|}{|h|}\right\}.$$

Since this is an upper bound for both limits, it follows that

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|f_1(x+h) - f_1(x) - T_1(h)|}{|h|} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|f_2(x+h) - f_2(x) - T_2(h)|}{|h|} = 0.$$

Hence, both f_1 and f_2 are differentiable at a with $(df_i)_a = T_i$.

Suppose now that f_1 and f_2 are differentiable at a with derivatives $(df_i)_a = T_i : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. Define the linear map $T = (T_1, T_2) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^2$. Then

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - T(h)\|}{|h|}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \max \left\{ \frac{|f_1(x+h) - f_1(x) - T_1(h)|}{|h|}, \frac{|f_2(x+h) - f_2(x) - T_2(h)|}{|h|} \right\}$$

$$\leq \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|f_1(x+h) - f_1(x) - T_1(h)|}{|h|} + \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|f_2(x+h) - f_2(x) - T_2(h)|}{|h|}$$

$$= 0$$

Hence, f is differentiable at a with $df_a = ((df_1)_a, (df_2)_a)$.

6 The function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2} & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Prove that f is smooth at the origin.

Proof. Consider the ring of Laurent polynomials $\mathbb{R}[x, x^{-1}]$. We claim that for all $n \geq 0$ there exists a Laurent polynomial $p_n(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x, x^{-1}]$ such that

$$f^{(n)}(x) = p_n(x)e^{-1/x^2},$$

where the derivative is take away from the origin. We will prove this by induction on n. The base case is immediate since $f^{(0)}(x) = f(x) = 1e^{-1/x^2}$. Assuming the result holds for derivatives less than n, we find

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f^{(n-1)}(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} p_{n-1}(x) e^{-1/x^2} = (p'_{n-1}(x) + p_{n-1}(x) \cdot 2x^{-3}) e^{-1/x^2}.$$

Since the ring $\mathbb{R}[x, x^{-1}]$ is closed under taking derivatives, we have

$$p_n(x) = p'_{n-1}(x) + p_{n-1}(x) \cdot 2x^{-3} \in \mathbb{R}[x, x^{-1}].$$

This completes the induction.

Next, we claim that for any Laurent polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x, x^{-1}]$,

$$\lim_{h \to 0} p(h)e^{-1/h^2} = 0.$$

One can check that $e^{1/h^2} < e^{1/|h|}$ for all nonzero |h| < 1. Additionally, $|p(h)| \le p(|h|)$ by applying the triangle inequality to each term in the polynomial. So for $p(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x, x^{-1}]$ and nonzero |h| < 1 we have

$$|p(h)e^{-1/h^2}| = |p(h)|e^{-1/h^2} \le p(|h|)e^{-1/|h|}.$$

Taking the limit as $h \to 0$, we write

$$\lim_{h \to 0} |p(h)e^{-1/h^2}| \le \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{p(|h|)}{e^{1/|h|}} = \lim_{y \to \infty} \frac{p(1/y)}{e^y}.$$

Note that $p(1/y) = p(y^{-1}) \in \mathbb{R}[y, y^{-1}]$ is still a (Laurent) polynomial. Since the exponential function is faster than any polynomial function, we conclude that this limit is zero.

In particular, this proves

$$\lim_{x \to 0} f^{(n)}(x) = p_n(x)e^{-1/x^2} = 0.$$

We now prove $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ by induction on n. Since $f^{(0)}(0) = f(0) = 0$, the base case holds. Assume the result holds for derivatives less than n. Then the n-derivative of f at the origin is given by

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f^{(n-1)}(0+h) - f^{(n-1)}(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f^{(n-1)}(h)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{p_{n-1}(h)}{h} e^{-1/h^2}.$$

Since $x^{-1}p_{n-1}(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x,x^{-1}]$, we have seen that this limit is zero, so indeed $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$. \square

7 The function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ is given by $f(x,y) = (e^x + e^y - 2, x^5 - y^5 + x)$. Show that there is $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta > 0$ such that for all a, b with $|a| < \varepsilon$ and $|b| < \varepsilon$ there are unique x, y with $x^2 + y^2 < \delta$ and f(x,y) = (a,b).

Proof. Note that $f = (f_1, f_2)$ is smooth with f(0) = 0. The Jacobian of f at zero is

$$J_f(0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \bigg|_{0} = \begin{bmatrix} e^x & e^y \\ 5x^4 + 1 & -5y^4 \end{bmatrix} \bigg|_{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This matrix is full rank, so $(df)_0$ invertible. By the inverse function theorem, there are open neighborhoods $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ of the origin such that $f|_U : U \to V$ is a homeomorphism.

Considering \mathbb{R}^2 with the Euclidean norm $\|\cdot\|_2$, we choose an open ball $B_{\delta}(0;\|\cdot\|_2)$ around the origin contained in U. Since f_U is an open map, the image $f(B_{\delta}(0;\|\cdot\|_2)) \subseteq V$ is an open neighborhood of the origin. Considering \mathbb{R}^2 with the max/sup norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$, we choose an open ball $B_{\varepsilon}(0;\|\cdot\|_{\infty}) \subseteq f(B_{\delta}(0;\|\cdot\|_2))$.

Hence, f induces a bijection $f^{-1}(B_{\varepsilon}(0; \|\cdot\|_{\infty})) \to B_{\varepsilon}(0; \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$, the domain of which is contained in $B_{\delta}(0; \|\cdot\|_{2})$. Taking $\delta' = \delta^{2}$ gives us the desired $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta' > 0$.