Exercise 9.16 Show that the continuity of \mathbf{f}' at the point \mathbf{a} is needed in the inverse function theorem, even in the case n = 1: If

$$f(t) = t + 2t^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$$

for $t \neq 0$ and f(0) = 0, then f'(0) = 1, f' is bounded in (-1, 1), but f is not one-to-one in any neighborhood of 0.

For $h \neq 0$, we find

$$\frac{f(h) - f(0)}{h - 0} = \frac{h + 2h^2 \sin(1/h)}{h} = 1 + 2h \sin(1/h).$$

And since $|2h\sin(1/h)| \le 2|h|$, then taking the limit as $h \to 0$ gives us f'(0) = 1. Additionally, for nonzero $t \in (-1, 1)$ we have

$$|f'(t)| = |1 - 2\cos(1/t) + 4t\sin(1/t)|$$

$$\leq 1 + 2|\cos(1/t)| + 4|t||\sin(1/t)|$$

$$\leq 1 + 2 + 4$$

$$= 7.$$

However, f is not injective in any neighborhood of 0. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given and choose $N = \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} : 1/(2\pi n) < \varepsilon\}$. Then

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2\pi N}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi N} + 2\left(\frac{1}{2\pi N}\right)^2 \sin(2\pi N) = \frac{1}{\pi N},$$

and

$$f'\left(\frac{1}{2\pi N}\right) = 1 - 2\cos(2\pi N) + 4(2\pi N)\sin(2\pi N) = -1.$$

Since the derivative of f at the point $1/(2\pi N)$ is continuous, then there is some open neighborhood of this point, on which f is strictly decreasing. In particular, this means we can find some point $c \in (0, 1/(2\pi N))$ with $f(c) > 1/(\pi N) > 0$. Then, by the continuity of f on (0, c), there is some point $d \in (0, c)$ such that $f(d) = 1/(\pi N)$. So there are two distinct points, namely $1/(2\pi N)$ and d, inside $(-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ which have the same value under f. Therefore, f is not injective on any neighborhood of 0.

Exercise 9.17 Let $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2)$ be the mapping of \mathbb{R}^2 into \mathbb{R}^2 given by

$$f_1(x,y) = e^x \cos y,$$
 $f_2(x,y) = e^x \sin y.$

(a) What is the range of **f**?

Claim. $f(\mathbb{R}^2) = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}.$

Proof. For each $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we always have $e^x > 0$. On the other hand, we never have $\cos y = 0$ and $\sin y = 0$, simultaneously. That is, $\mathbf{f}(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ so $\mathbf{f}(\mathbb{R}^2) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$.

Any point $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$, has a polar representation in terms of magnitude r > 0 and angle $\theta \in (-\pi, \pi]$ to the positive x-axis, so that $(x, y) = r(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$. Then $(\log r, \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and we find

$$\mathbf{f}(\log r, \theta) = (e^{\log r} \cos \theta, e^{\log r} \sin \theta) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) = (x, y).$$

Hence, the image of **f** is precisely $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$.

(b) Show that the Jacobian of \mathbf{f} is not zero at any point of \mathbb{R}^2 . Thus every point of \mathbb{R}^2 has a neighborhood in which \mathbf{f} is one-to-one. Nevertheless, \mathbf{f} is not one-to-one on \mathbb{R}^2 .

Proof. The Jacobian of **f** at $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is given by

$$[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)] = \begin{bmatrix} (D_1 f_1)(x,y) & (D_2 f_1)(x,y) \\ (D_1 f_2)(x,y) & (D_2 f_2)(x,y) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^x \cos y & -e^x \sin y \\ e^x \sin y & e^x \cos y \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= e^x \begin{bmatrix} \cos y & -\sin y \\ \sin y & \cos y \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then $\det[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)] = e^x(\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y) = e^x \neq 0$. So $\mathbf{f}'(x,y)$ is invertible, and the inverse function theorem implies the existence of an open neighborhood of (x,y) on which \mathbf{f} is injective.

However, consider the points $(0,0), (0,2\pi) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. We have

$$\mathbf{f}(0,0) = (e^0 \cos 0, e^0 \sin 0) = (1,0)$$

and

$$\mathbf{f}(0, 2\pi) = (e^0 \cos 2\pi, e^0 \sin 2\pi) = (1, 0).$$

Hence, \mathbf{f} is not injective.

(c) Put $\mathbf{a} = (0, \pi/3)$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})$, let \mathbf{g} be the continuous inverse of \mathbf{f} , defined in a neighborhood of \mathbf{b} , such that $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a}$, Find an explicit formula for \mathbf{g} , compute $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})$ and $\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b})$, and verify the formula (52).

We will consider the restriction of \mathbf{f} to the open set $U = \mathbb{R} \times (0, \pi)$, which contains \mathbf{a} . We show that $\mathbf{f}|_U$ is an injection. Suppose $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \in U$ such that $\mathbf{f}(x_1, y_1) = \mathbf{f}(x_2, y_2)$. Then in particular $|\mathbf{f}(x_1, y_1)| = |\mathbf{f}(x_2, y_2)|$, so

$$\sqrt{(e^{x_1}\cos y_1)^2 + (e^{x_1}\sin y_1)^2} = \sqrt{(e^{x_2}\cos y_2)^2 + (e^{x_2}\sin y_2)^2}$$

$$\sqrt{e^{2x_1}(\cos^2 y_1 + \sin^2 y_1)} = \sqrt{e^{2x_2}(\cos^2 y_2 + \sin^2 y_2)}$$

$$\sqrt{e^{2x_1}} = \sqrt{e^{2x_2}}$$

$$e^{x_1} = e^{x_2}.$$

So $x_1 = x_2$, which gives us $\cos y_1 = \cos y_2$. And since $y_1, y_2 \in (0, \pi)$, then in fact $y_1 = y_2$. Then the inverse of $\mathbf{f}|_U$ is given by

$$\mathbf{g}(x,y) = (g_1, g_2)(x,y) = (\log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \arctan(y/x)).$$

We now calculate the derivatives of \mathbf{f} and \mathbf{g} at \mathbf{a} . First, using the expression for the Jacobian of \mathbf{f} from (b), we find

$$[\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})] = e^0 \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\pi/3) & -\sin(\pi/3) \\ \sin(\pi/3) & \cos(\pi/3) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Next

$$[\mathbf{g}'(x,y)] = \begin{bmatrix} (D_1g_1)(x,y) & (D_2g_1)(x,y) \\ (D_1g_2)(x,y) & (D_2g_2)(x,y) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} & \frac{y}{x^2+y^2} \\ \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} & \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{x^2+y^2} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -y & x \end{bmatrix},$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b})] &= [\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}))] \\ &= [\mathbf{g}'(1/2, \sqrt{3}/2)] \\ &= \frac{1}{(1/2)^2 + (\sqrt{3}/2)^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{3} \\ -\sqrt{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

which is precisely the inverse of [f'(a)] = [f'(g'(b))].

(d) What are the images under **f** of lines parallel to the coordinate axes?

We write $\mathbf{f}(x,y) = e^x(\cos y, \sin y)$. A choice of $y \in \mathbb{R}$ gives a point $(\cos y, \sin y)$ on the unit circle in \mathbb{R}^2 centered at the origin. And a choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ gives a radius $e^x \in (0, +\infty)$. Which means that the point (x,y) is the point with magnitude e^x and angle y to the positive x-axis. So for a fixed x, the line parallel to the y-axis has the image of a circle centered at the origin with radius e^x . And for a fixed $y \in \mathbb{R}$, the image of the line parallel to the x-axis has the image of a ray starting at (but not including) the origin with angle y.

Exercise 9.19 Show that the system of equations

$$3x + y - z + u2 = 0$$
$$x - y + 2z + u = 0$$
$$2x + 2y - 3z + 2u = 0$$

can be solved for x, y, u in terms of z; for x, z, u in terms of y; for y, z, u in terms of x; but not for x, y, z in terms of u.

Define the functions

$$f_1(x, y, z, u) = 3x + y - z + u^2,$$

$$f_2(x, y, z, u) = x - y + 2z + u,$$

$$f_3(x, y, z, u) = 2x + 2y - 3z + 2u,$$

and $F = (f_1, f_2, f_3) : \mathbb{R}^{3+1} \to \mathbb{R}^3$. We see F is continuously differentiable, as its partial derivatives exist and are continuous, and that F(0) = 0. In particular,

$$[F'(x,y,z,u)] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 & 2u \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Define the matrix B_z to be the Jacobian of F at 0 excluding the 'z' row, i.e.,

$$B_z = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$\det B_z = 3 \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 3(-2-2) - (2-2) = -12,$$

so B_z is invertible. Then by the implicit function theorem with n=3 and m=1, there exist open neighborhoods $0 \in V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{3+1}$ and $0 \in W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$, such that to each $z \in W$ there corresponds a unique $(x,y,u) \in V$ such that F(x,y,z,u)=0. The map $z \mapsto (x,y,u)$ is precisely the solving of the system of equations for x,y,u in terms of z. Repeating this process for y and x, we find

$$\det B_y = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 3(4+3) + (2-2) = 21$$

and

$$\det B_x = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - (-1) \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 1(4+3) + (-2-2) = 3.$$

Hence, we can use any one of x, y, z to express the remaining values. Taking u as as constant, we solve the linear system of equations.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 & u^2 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & u \\ 2 & 2 & -3 & 2u \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & -7 & u^2 - 3u \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & u \\ 0 & 4 & -7 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 4 & -7 & u^2 - 3u \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & u \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -u^2 + 3u \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, -u(u-3)=0, so u must be 0 or 3. hence, the possible solution space over is a 2-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 , meaning we cannot solve for x, y, z as a function of u.

Exercise 9.20 Take n = m = 1 in the implicit function theorem, and interpret the theorem (as well as its proof) graphically.

Suppose $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is open and $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ is a C^1 function. The graph of f is the set of points $\{(x,y,f(x,y)):(x,y)\in U\}$, which defines a 2-dimensional surface in \mathbb{R}^3 . Suppose there is a point $(a,b)\in U$ such that f(a,b)=0 and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b)=(D_1f)(a,b)\neq 0$. These condition on (a,b) ensure f is not constantly zero around (a,b), so that the set of zeros of f, which is the intersection of the graph of f and the xy-plane, is locally a curve around the point (a,b). Additionally, we can deduce that the tangent line to this curve at (a,b) is not parallel to the x-axis, and we will be able to select a small neighborhood around (a,b) where this curve can be injectively projected onto the y-axis.

The implicit function theorem states that, in some neighborhood $V \subseteq U$ of (a, b), this curve can be represented by a C^1 function $g: W \to \mathbb{R}$, where the open set $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is the projection V onto the y-axis. The graph of g is the set of points $\{(g(y), y): y \in W\}$, which defines a curve in \mathbb{R}^2 , and is precisely the set of zeros of f inside V. Geometrically, we can think of g as the local inverse of the projection from the set of zeros of f to the g-axis.

Exercise 9.23 Define f in \mathbb{R}^3 by

$$f(x, y_1, y_2) = x^2 y_1 + e^x + y_2.$$

Show that f(0,1,-1) - 0, $(D_1 f)(0,1,-1) \neq 0$, and that there exists therefore a differentiable function g in some neighborhood of (1,-1) in \mathbb{R}^2 , such that g(1,-1) = 0 and

$$f(g(y_1, y_2), y_1, y_2) = 0.$$

Find $(D_1g)(1,-1)$ and $(D_2g)(1,-1)$.

Evaluating f at (0, 1, -1), we find

$$f(0,1,-1) = (0)^{2}(1) + e^{0} + (-1) = 0 + 1 - 1 = 0.$$

The first partial derivative of f is given by $D_1 f = 2xy_1 + e^x$, so

$$(D_1 f)(0, 1, -1) = 2(0)(1) + e^0 = 0 + 1 = 1.$$

Then the implicit function theorem tells us that such a function g exists. The Jacobian of f at (0,1,-1) is given by

$$[f'(0,1,-1)] = \begin{bmatrix} A_{\mathbf{x}} & A_{\mathbf{y}} \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$A_{\mathbf{x}} = [D_1 f(0, 1, -1)] = [1]$$

and

$$A_{\mathbf{v}} = \begin{bmatrix} D_2 f(0, 1, -1) & D_3 f(0, 1, -1) \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have $D_2 f = x^2$ and $D_3 f = 1$, so $A_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then the implicit function theorem tells us that

$$[g'(1,-1)] = -(A_{\mathbf{x}})^{-1}A_{\mathbf{y}} = -[1] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So $(D_1g)(1,-1) = 0$ and $(D_2g)(1,-1) = -1$.