## Chapter 9: Functions of Several Variables

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**Exercise 9.1.** If S is a nonempty subset of a vector space X, prove (as asserted in Section 9.1) that the span of S is a vector space.

Denote the span of S by span(S).

Proof.

- (1) Since  $S \neq \emptyset$ , there is  $\mathbf{z} \in S$ . So  $1\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z} \in \text{span}(S) \neq \emptyset$ . (In fact,  $\text{span}(S) \supseteq S$ .)
- (2) If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \text{span}(S)$ , then there exist elements  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n \in S$  and scalars  $a_1, \dots, a_m, b_1, \dots, b_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{x} = a_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + a_m \mathbf{x}_m,$$
  
$$\mathbf{y} = b_1 \mathbf{y}_1 + \dots + b_n \mathbf{y}_n.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = a_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + a_m \mathbf{x}_m + b_1 \mathbf{y}_1 + \dots + b_n \mathbf{y}_n$$

is a linear combination of the elements of S. For any scalar c,

$$c\mathbf{x} = (ca_1)\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + (ca_m)\mathbf{x}_m$$

is again linear combination of the elements of S.

(3) By (1)(2), span(S) is a vector space.

*Note.* Any subspace of X that contains S must also contain span(S).

**Exercise 9.2.** Prove (as asserted in Section 9.6) that BA is linear if A and B are linear transformations. Prove also that  $A^{-1}$  is linear and invertible if A is invertible.

*Proof.* Use the notation in Definitions 9.6.

(1) Show that BA is linear if A and B are linear transformations. Let X, Y, Z be vector spaces,  $A \in L(X, Y)$  and  $B \in L(Y, Z)$ .

(a) Given any  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$ .

$$(BA)(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = B(A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2))$$
  
=  $B(A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2)$  (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $B(A\mathbf{x}_1) + B(A\mathbf{x}_2)$  (B is a linear transformation)  
=  $(BA)\mathbf{x}_1 + (BA)\mathbf{x}_2$ .

(b) For any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and scalar c,

$$(BA)(c\mathbf{x}) = B(A(c\mathbf{x}))$$
  
=  $B(cA\mathbf{x})$  (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $cB(A\mathbf{x})$  (B is a linear transformation)  
=  $c(BA)\mathbf{x}$ .

By (a)(b),  $BA \in L(X, Z)$ .

- (2) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is linear if A is invertible.
  - (a) Given any  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in X$ . Since A is surjective, there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  such that

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_1$$
$$\mathbf{y}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_2.$$

So

$$A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_1 = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_1) = \mathbf{x}_1$$
  
 $A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_2 = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{x}_2$ 

(by Definitions 9.4). Hence

$$A^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2) = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$= A^{-1}(A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2)) \quad (A \text{ is a linear transformation})$$

$$= \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 \qquad (Definitions 9.4)$$

$$= A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_1 + A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_2.$$

(b) For any  $\mathbf{y} \in X$  and scalar c, there is a corresponding  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  such that  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$  since A is surjective. So  $A^{-1}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$  by Definition 9.4. Hence

$$A^{-1}(c\mathbf{y}) = A^{-1}(cA\mathbf{x})$$
  
=  $A^{-1}(A(c\mathbf{x}))$  (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $c\mathbf{x}$  (Definitions 9.4)  
=  $cA^{-1}\mathbf{y}$ .

By (a)(b),  $A^{-1} \in L(X)$ .

- (3) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is invertible if A is invertible. It suffices to show that  $A^{-1}$  is injective and surjective.
  - (a) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is injective. Given any  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in X$ . Since A is surjective, there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  such that

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_1$$
$$\mathbf{y}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_2.$$

Suppose  $A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_1 = A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_2$ . So  $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_1) = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_2)$ , or  $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_2$ , or  $\mathbf{y}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{y}_2$ .

(b) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is surjective. For any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ , there exists  $A\mathbf{x} \in X$  such that  $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$  by Definitions 9.4.

**Exercise 9.3.** Assume  $A \in L(X,Y)$  and  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  only when  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Prove that A is then 1-1.

*Proof.* Suppose  $A\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{y}$ . Since A is a linear transformation,  $A(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = A\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ . By assumption,  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ .  $\square$ 

Exercise 9.4. Prove (as asserted in Section 9.30) that null spaces and ranges of linear transformations are vector spaces.

*Proof.* Use the notation in Definitions 9.30. Suppose X, Y are vector spaces, and  $A \in L(X,Y)$ , as in Definition 9.6.

- (1) Show that  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  is a vector space in X.
  - (a) Note that  $\mathbf{0} \in X$ . Since  $A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{N}(A) \neq \emptyset$ .
  - (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ . Then

$$\begin{split} A(\mathbf{x}_1+\mathbf{x}_2) &= A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2 & \quad (A \text{ is a linear transformation}) \\ &= \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} & \quad (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{N}(A)) \\ &= \mathbf{0}. \end{split}$$

So  $\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ .

(c) Suppose  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$  and c is a scalar. Then

$$A(c\mathbf{x}) = cA\mathbf{x}$$
 (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $c\mathbf{0}$  ( $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ )  
=  $\mathbf{0}$ .

So  $c\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ .

By (a)(b)(c),  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  is a vector space.

- (2) Show that  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is a vector space in Y.
  - (a) Note that  $\mathbf{0} \in X$ . So  $A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{R}(A) \neq \emptyset$ .
  - (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ . Then there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  such that  $A\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{y}_1$  and  $A\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{y}_2$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2$$
  
=  $A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2)$  (A is a linear transformation).

So  $\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathscr{R}(A)$ .

(c) Suppose  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}(A)$  and c is a scalar. Then there exists  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ . Hence

$$c\mathbf{y} = cA\mathbf{x}$$
  
=  $A(c\mathbf{x})$  (A is a linear transformation).

So  $c\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ .

By (a)(b)(c),  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is a vector space.

**Exercise 9.5.** Prove that to every  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^1)$  corresponds a unique  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ . Prove also that  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}|$ . (Hint: Under certain conditions, equality holds in the Schwarz inequality.)

Proof.

- (1) Recall that  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (Definitions 9.1). Given any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , write  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  as  $\mathbf{x} = \sum x_i \mathbf{e}_i$ .
- (2) Show that y exists. Since A is a linear transformation,

$$A\mathbf{x} = A\left(\sum x_j \mathbf{e}_j\right)$$

$$= \sum x_j A \mathbf{e}_j$$

$$= (x_1, \dots, x_n) \cdot (A \mathbf{e}_1, \dots, A \mathbf{e}_n)$$

$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot \sum (A \mathbf{e}_j) \mathbf{e}_j.$$

Define  $\mathbf{y} = \sum (A\mathbf{e}_i)\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  so that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ .

(3) Show that **y** is unique. Suppose there exists some  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z}$ . So

$$0 = A\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{x}$$
$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z}$$
$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z})$$

for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . In particular, take  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to get

$$0 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}) \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}) = |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}|^2$$

or y - z = 0 or y = z.

(4) Show that  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}|$ . By the Schwarz inequality (Theorem 1.37(d)),

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

as  $|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$ . Take the sup over all  $|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$  to get

$$||A|| \leq |\mathbf{y}|.$$

If  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}| = 0$ . If  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then the equality holds when  $\mathbf{x} = \frac{\mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . (Here  $|\mathbf{x}| = 1$ .)

**Exercise 9.6.** If f(0,0) = 0 and

$$f(x,y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$
 if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ ,

prove that  $(D_1f)(x,y)$  and  $(D_2f)(x,y)$  exist at every point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , although f is not continuous at (0,0).

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{y(y^2 - x^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

Write

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f((x,y) + t(1,0)) - f(x,y)}{t}$$
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x+t,y) - f(x,y)}{t}.$$

If (x, y) = (0, 0),

$$(D_1 f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0 - 0}{t} = 0.$$

If  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ ,

$$(D_1 f)(x, y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x + t, y) - f(x, y)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{(x + t)y}{(x + t)^2 + y^2} - \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{y(y^2 - x^2) - txy}{((x + t)^2 + y^2)(x^2 + y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{y(y^2 - x^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

(2) Show that

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{x(x^2 - y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

Similar to (1).

(3) Show that f is not continuous at (0,0). Note that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f\left(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^2}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f\left(\frac{1}{n},0\right) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{0}{\frac{1}{n^2}+0} = \lim_{n\to\infty} 0 = 0.$$

Hence the limit  $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$  does not exist.

**Exercise 9.7.** Suppose that f is a real-valued function defined in an open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , and that the partial derivatives  $D_1 f, \ldots, D_n f$  are bounded in E. Prove that f is continuous in E. (Hint: Proceed as in the proof of Theorem 9.21.)

Proof.

- (1) Since  $D_j f$  is bounded in E, there is a real number  $M_j$  such that  $|D_j f| \le M_j$  in E. Take  $M = \max_{1 \le j \le n} M_j$  so that  $|D_j f| \le M$  in E for all  $1 \le j \le n$ .
- (2) Fix  $\mathbf{x} \in E$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since E is open, there is an open neighborhood

$$B(\mathbf{x}; r) = {\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h} \in E : |\mathbf{h}| < r} \subseteq E$$

with

$$0 < r < \frac{\varepsilon}{n(M+1)}.$$

(3) Write  $\mathbf{h} = \sum h_j \mathbf{e}_j$ ,  $|\mathbf{h}| < r$ , put  $\mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{0}$ , and  $\mathbf{v}_k = h_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \cdots + h_k \mathbf{e}_k$  for  $1 \le k \le n$ . Then

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} [f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_j) - f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_{j-1})].$$

Since  $|\mathbf{v}_k| < r$  for  $1 \le k \le n$  and since  $B(\mathbf{x}; r)$  is convex, the open interval with end points  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_{j-1}$  and  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_j$  lie in  $B(\mathbf{x}; r)$ . Since  $\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{v}_{j-1} - h_j \mathbf{e}_j$ , the mean value theorem (Theorem 5.10) show that

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_j) - f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_{j-1}) = h_j(D_j f)(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_{j-1} + \theta_j h_j \mathbf{e}_j)$$

for some  $\theta_i \in (0,1)$ .

(4) Note that  $|h_j| \leq |\mathbf{h}| < r < \frac{\varepsilon}{n(M+1)}$ . Hence

$$|f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x})| \le \sum_{j=1}^{n} |f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_j) - f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_{j-1})|$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} |h_j| |(D_j f)(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}_{j-1} + \theta_j h_j \mathbf{e}_j)|$$

$$\le \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\varepsilon}{n(M+1)} \cdot M$$

$$< \varepsilon$$

as  $|\mathbf{h}| < r < \frac{\varepsilon}{n(M+1)}$ . Hence f is continuous at all  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ .

**Exercise 9.8.** Suppose that f is a differentiable real function in an open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , and that f has a local maximum at a point  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ . Prove that  $f'(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ .

Proof (Theorem 5.8).

(1) Apply Theorem 5.8 to each  $D_j f$  for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Since f has a local maximum at a point  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , there is an open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{x}; r)$  of  $\mathbf{x}$  in E such that

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \le f(\mathbf{x})$$

for all  $\mathbf{y} \in B(\mathbf{x}; r)$ . Therefore,

$$f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{e}_j) \le f(\mathbf{x})$$

for all |t| < r and  $1 \le j \le n$ , or  $t \mapsto f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{e}_j)$  has a local maximum at a point  $t = 0 \in (-r, r)$ .

(2) Since f is a differentiable in E, each partial derivatives  $D_j f$  exist (Theorem 9.21). Hence Theorem 5.8 implies that  $(D_j f)(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for all  $1 \le j \le n$ . So

$$f'(\mathbf{x}) = [(D_1 f)(\mathbf{x}) \cdots (D_k f)(\mathbf{x})] = [0 \cdots 0] = 0$$

(as the zero matrix).

**Exercise 9.9.** If **f** is a differentiable mapping of a connected open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , and if  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , prove that **f** is a constant in E.

Proof.

- (1) Show that  $\mathbf{f}$  is locally constant. Given any  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ . Since E is open, there exists an open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{x};r)$  of  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $B(\mathbf{x};r) \subseteq E$  and r > 0. Corollary to Theorem 9.19 implies that  $\mathbf{f}$  is a constant on  $B(\mathbf{x};r)$ , that is,  $\mathbf{f}$  is locally constant.
- (2) Show that **f** is constant if **f** is locally constant in a connected set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Might assume that  $E \neq \emptyset$ . (Otherwise there is nothing to do.) Take some  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E$ .
  - (a) Let

$$U = \{ \mathbf{y} \in E : \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) \}.$$

- (b) U is open since  $\mathbf{f}$  is locally constant (by (1)). (Take any  $\mathbf{y} \in U$ . Since  $\mathbf{f}$  is locally constant, there is an open neighborhood  $B(\mathbf{y}) \subseteq E$  of  $\mathbf{y}$  such that  $f(\mathbf{z}) = f(\mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  whenever  $\mathbf{z} \in B(\mathbf{y})$ . So that  $B(\mathbf{y}) \subseteq U$ , or U is open.)
- (c) Besides, since  $\mathbf{f}$  is continuous (Remarks 9.13(c)), the set U is closed. (The proof is the same as Proof (Definition 2.18(d)) in Exercise 4.3.)
- (d) So U is open and closed. Write  $E = U \cup (E U)$ . Here U and E U are both open and closed. Hence  $U \cap \overline{E U} = U \cap (E U) = \emptyset$  and  $\overline{U} \cap (E U) = U \cap (E U) = \emptyset$ . Note that  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U \neq \emptyset$ . By the connectedness of E,  $E U = \emptyset$ , or E = U, or  $\mathbf{f}$  is constant on E.

Note. The only subsets of a connected set E which are both open and closed are E and  $\varnothing$ .

**Exercise 9.10.** If f is a real function defined in a convex open set  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , such that  $(D_1 f)(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , prove that  $f(\mathbf{x})$  depends only on  $x_2, \ldots, x_n$ . Show that the convexity of E can be replaced by a weaker condition, but that some condition is required. For example, if n = 2 and E is shaped like

a horseshoe, the statement may be false.

Proof.

(1) It suffices to show that

$$f(a, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f(b, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

whenever  $\mathbf{x} = (a, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in E$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (b, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in E$  if  $(D_1 f)(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  in the convex open set E.

(2) Might assume that a < b. Since  $g: t \mapsto f(t, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is a real continuous function on [a, b] (by the openness of E) and differentiable in (a, b) (by the existence of  $D_1 f$ ),

$$g(b) - g(a) = (b - a)g'(\xi)$$

for some  $\xi \in (a, b)$ . Note that

$$g'(\xi) = (D_1 f)(\xi, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0$$

by assumption. g(b) = g(a) or  $f(a, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = f(b, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ .

(3) (2) shows that the convexity of E can be replaced by a weaker condition that  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex in the first coordinate, say E is open and

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{y} = (\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in E$$

whenever  $\mathbf{x} = (a, x_2, ..., x_n) \in E$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = (b, x_2, ..., x_n) \in E$ , and  $0 < \lambda < 1$ .

(4) Show that the convexity of E or some weaker condition is required. Define  $f(x,y) = \operatorname{sgn}(x)$  on  $E = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \neq 0\}$ . E is open and  $(D_1f)(x,y) = 0$  in E. Note that f(1989,0) = 1 and f(-64,0) = -1, and thus f(x,y) does not depend only on y = 0.

**Exercise 9.11.** If f and g are differentiable real functions in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , prove that

$$\nabla(fg) = f\nabla g + g\nabla f$$

and that

$$\nabla\left(\frac{1}{f}\right) = -\frac{1}{f^2}\nabla f$$

whenever  $f \neq 0$ .

Proof. Recall Example 9.18:

$$(\nabla(f))(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_i f)(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_i.$$

(1) Show that  $\nabla(fg) = f\nabla g + g\nabla f$ . For any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$(\nabla(fg))(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_i(fg))(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (g(D_if) + f(D_ig))(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i \qquad (\text{Theorem 5.3(b)})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} [g(\mathbf{x})(D_if)(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{x})(D_ig)(\mathbf{x})] \mathbf{e}_i$$

$$= g(\mathbf{x}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_if)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i + f(\mathbf{x}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_ig)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i$$

$$= g(\mathbf{x})(\nabla f)(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{x})(\nabla g)(\mathbf{x})$$

$$= (f\nabla g + g\nabla f)(\mathbf{x}).$$

(2) Show that

$$\nabla\left(\frac{1}{f}\right) = -\frac{1}{f^2}\nabla f$$

whenever  $f \neq 0$ . Note that  $\nabla(1) = 0$  since

$$\nabla(1)(\mathbf{x}) = \sum (D_i 1)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i = \sum (0)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i = \sum 0\mathbf{e}_i = 0.$$

Hence as  $f \neq 0$ , we have

$$0 = \nabla(1)$$

$$= \nabla \left( f \frac{1}{f} \right) \qquad (f \neq 0)$$

$$= f \nabla \left( \frac{1}{f} \right) + \frac{1}{f} \nabla f \qquad ((1)),$$

or 
$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{f}\right) = -\frac{1}{f^2} \nabla f$$
.

Exercise 9.12. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 9.13.** Suppose  $\mathbf{f}$  is a differentiable mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  into  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $|\mathbf{f}(t)| = 1$  for every t. Prove that  $\mathbf{f}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}(t) = 0$ . Interpret this result geometrically.

Proof.

(1) Write  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$  as a vector-valued function. By Remarks 5.16,  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable if and only if each  $f_1, f_2, f_3$  is differentiable. So  $\mathbf{f}' = (f'_1, f'_2, f_3)'$ . Hence

$$|\mathbf{f}(t)| = 1 \text{ for every } t$$

$$\iff \mathbf{f}(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}(t) = 1$$

$$\iff f_1(t)^2 + f_2(t)^2 + f_3(t)^2 = 1$$

$$\iff 2f_1(t)f_1'(t) + 2f_2(t)f_2'(t) + 2f_3(t)f_3'(t) = 0$$

$$\iff f_1(t)f_1'(t) + f_2(t)f_2'(t) + f_3(t)f_3'(t) = 0$$

$$\iff (f_1(t), f_2(t), f_3(t)) \cdot (f_1'(t), f_2'(t), f_3'(t)) = 0$$

$$\iff \mathbf{f}(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}'(t) = \mathbf{f}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}(t) = 0.$$

(2) The vector  $\mathbf{f}'(t)$  is called the **tangent vector** (or **velocity vector**) of  $\mathbf{f}$  at t. Geometrically, given any mapping  $\mathbf{f}$  lying on the sphere  $S^2$ , its tangent vector at t is lying on the tangent plane of  $S^2$  at t.

**Exercise 9.14.** Define f(0,0) = 0 and

$$f(x,y) = \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}$$
 if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ .

- (a) Prove that  $D_1f$  and  $D_2f$  are bounded functions in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . (Hence f is continuous.)
- (b) Let **u** be any unit vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Show that the directional derivative  $(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0)$  exists, and that its absolute value is at most 1.
- (c) Let  $\gamma$  be a differentiable mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  into  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (in other words,  $\gamma$  is a differentiable curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ), with  $\gamma(t) = (0,0)$  and  $\gamma'(t) \neq (0,0)$  for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ . Put  $g(t) = f(\gamma(t))$  and prove that g is differentiable for every  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ . If  $\gamma \in \mathscr{C}'$ , prove that  $g \in \mathscr{C}'$ .
- (d) In spite of this, prove that f is not differentiable at (0,0).

Proof of (a).

(1) Show that

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{x^2 (x^2 + 3y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

If (x, y) = (0, 0),

$$(D_1 f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t - 0}{t} = 1.$$

If  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ ,

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x+t,y) - f(x,y)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{(x+t)^3}{(x+t)^2 + y^2} - \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{x^2 (x^2 + 3y^2) + tx(2x^2 + 3y^2) + t^2(x^2 + y^2)}{((x+t)^2 + y^2)(x^2 + y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{x^2 (x^2 + 3y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

(Or differentiate directly.)

(2) Show that  $(D_1 f)(x, y)$  is bounded. It suffices to show that  $(D_1 f)(x, y)$  is bounded if  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Write  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$  in the polar coordinates. (Here r > 0.) Hence

$$(D_1 f)(x, y) = \frac{x^2(x^2 + 3y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \cos^2 \theta (\cos^2 \theta + 3\sin^2 \theta)$$

is bounded by  $1 \cdot (1+3) = 4$ .

(3) Show that

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{-2x^3y}{(x^2+y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

If (x, y) = (0, 0),

$$(D_2 f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0-0}{t} = 0.$$

If  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ ,

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x,y+t) - f(x,y)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{x^3}{x^2 + (y+t)^2} - \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{-2x^3y - tx^3}{(x^2 + (y+t)^2)(x^2 + y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{-2x^3y}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

(Or differentiate directly.)

- (4) Show that  $(D_2 f)(x, y)$  is bounded. Similar to (2).
- (5) Show that f is continuous. Apply Exercise 9.7 to (2)(4).

Proof of (b).

(1) Write  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2)$ . The formula

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = (D_1f)(0,0)u_1 + (D_2f)(0,0)u_2 = u_1$$

might be false since we don't know if f is differentiable or not. Actually, we will show that  $(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = u_1^3 \neq u_1$ .

(2)

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tu_1, tu_2) - f(0,0)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{t^3 u_1^3}{t^2 u_1^2 + t^2 u_2^2} - 0}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} u_1^3 \qquad (|\mathbf{u}| = 1)$$

$$= u_1^3.$$

Also  $|(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0)| = |u_1|^3 \le 1$  since  $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$ .

Proof of (c).

(1) Given any  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ .

$$g'(t) = \lim_{x \to t} \frac{g(x) - g(t)}{x - t} = \lim_{x \to t} \frac{f(\gamma(x)) - f(\gamma(t))}{x - t}.$$

Write  $\gamma(t) = (\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t)).$ 

(2) Suppose that  $\gamma(t) \neq (0,0)$ . Since  $\gamma$  is differentiable,  $\gamma$  is continuous. So there exists an open neighborhood  $B(t) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$  of t such that  $\gamma(x) \neq (0,0)$  whenever  $x \in B(t)$ . Hence

$$g'(t) = \lim_{x \to t} \frac{\frac{\gamma_1(x)^3}{\gamma_1(x)^2 + \gamma_2(x)^2} - \frac{\gamma_1(t)^3}{\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2}}{x - t}$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\gamma_1(t)^3}{\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{3\gamma_1(t)^2 \gamma_1'(t)}{\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2} - \frac{\gamma_1(t)^3 (2\gamma_1(t)\gamma_1'(t) + 2\gamma_2(t)\gamma_2'(t))}{(\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2)^2}.$$

exists since  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are differentiable

(3) Suppose that  $\gamma(t) = (0,0)$  and thus  $\gamma'(t) \neq (0,0)$ . So

$$g'(t) = \lim_{x \to t} \frac{f(\gamma(x))}{x - t}$$

Note that  $\gamma(x) \neq (0,0)$  in some open neighborhood of t since

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to t \\ \gamma(x) = (0,0)}} \frac{\gamma(x) - \gamma(t)}{x - t} = (0,0),$$

contrary to the assumption that  $\gamma'(t) \neq (0,0)$ . Note that  $\gamma_1(t) = \gamma_2(t) = 0$ . So

$$g'(t) = \lim_{x \to t} \frac{f(\gamma(x))}{x - t}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to t} \frac{\gamma_1(x)^3}{\gamma_1(x)^2 + \gamma_2(x)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x - t}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to t} \frac{(\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t))^3}{(\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t))^2 + (\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t))^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x - t}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to t} \frac{\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^3}{\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t)}{x - t}\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{\gamma'_1(t)^3}{\gamma'_1(t)^2 + \gamma'_2(t)^2}$$

since  $\gamma'(t) \neq (0,0)$ .

(4) By (2)(3), g'(t) exists and

$$g'(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{3\gamma_1(t)^2\gamma_1'(t)}{\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2} - \frac{\gamma_1(t)^3(2\gamma_1(t)\gamma_1'(t) + 2\gamma_2(t)\gamma_2'(t))}{(\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2)^2} & \text{if } \gamma(t) \neq (0,0), \\ \frac{\gamma_1'(t)^3}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2} & \text{if } \gamma(t) = (0,0). \end{cases}$$

(5) Now suppose  $\gamma \in \mathscr{C}'$ . To show  $g' \in \mathscr{C}'$ , it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{x \to t} g'(x) = g'(t)$$

if  $\gamma(t)=(0,0)$  since g'(t) is always continuous if  $\gamma(t)\neq(0,0)$ . Here all  $\gamma_1,\gamma_2,\gamma_1',\gamma_2'$  are continuous and  $\gamma_1(t)^2+\gamma_2(t)^2\neq0$  by assumption. So

$$\lim_{x \to t} \frac{3\gamma_1(x)^2 \gamma_1'(x)}{\gamma_1(x)^2 + \gamma_2(x)^2}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to t} \frac{3\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^2 \gamma_1'(x)}{\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t)}{x - t}\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{3\gamma_1'(t)^2 \cdot \gamma_1'(t)}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2}$$

$$= \frac{3\gamma_1'(t)^3}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2}$$

and similarly

$$\lim_{x \to t} \frac{\gamma_1(t)^3 (2\gamma_1(t)\gamma_1'(t) + 2\gamma_2(t)\gamma_2'(t))}{(\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2)^2}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to t} \frac{\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^3 \left(2\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\gamma_1'(t) + 2\frac{\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t)}{x - t}\gamma_2'(t)\right)}{\left(\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t)}{x - t}\right)^2\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{\gamma_1'(t)^3 \cdot (2\gamma_1'(t)\gamma_1'(t) + 2\gamma_2'(t)\gamma_2'(t))}{(\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{2\gamma_1'(t)^3}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2}.$$

Hence

$$\lim_{x \to t} g'(x) = \frac{3\gamma_1'(t)^3}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2} - \frac{2\gamma_1'(t)^3}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2} = g'(t).$$

*Proof of (d).* (Reductio ad absurdum) If f were differentiable, then

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = (D_1f)(0,0)u_1 + (D_2f)(0,0)u_2 = u_1$$

(Formula (40) in Chapter 9), contrary to (b) if we take  $\mathbf{u} = \left(\frac{1}{64}, \frac{\sqrt{4095}}{64}\right)$ .

**Exercise 9.15.** Define f(0,0) = 0, and put

$$f(x,y) = x^{2} + y^{2} - 2x^{2}y - \frac{4x^{6}y^{2}}{(x^{4} + y^{2})^{2}}$$

if  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ .

(a) Prove, for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , that

$$4x^4y^2 \le (x^4 + y^2)^2.$$

Conclude that f is continuous.

(b) For  $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ ,  $-\infty < t < \infty$ , define

$$g_{\theta}(t) = f(t\cos\theta, t\sin\theta).$$

Show that  $g_{\theta}(0) = 0$ ,  $g'_{\theta}(0) = 0$ ,  $g''_{\theta}(0) = 2$ . Each  $g_{\theta}$  has therefore a strict local minimum at t = 0. In other words, the restriction of f to each line through (0,0) has a strict local minimum at (0,0).

(c) Show that (0,0) is nevertheless not a local minimum for f, since  $f(x,x^2) = -x^4$ .

Proof of (a).

(1) Since  $t^2 \ge 0$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ ,

$$(x^4 + y^2)^2 - 4x^4y^2 = (x^4 - y^2)^2 \ge 0.$$

Hence  $4x^4y^2 \le (x^4 + y^2)^2$ .

(2) f(x,y) is continuous at  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ . Besides,

$$|f(x,y)| = \left| x^2 + y^2 - 2x^2y - \frac{4x^6y^2}{(x^4 + y^2)^2} \right|$$

$$\leq |x^2| + |y^2| + |2x^2y| + |x^2| \left| \frac{4x^4y^2}{(x^4 + y^2)^2} \right|$$

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

Hence  $\left|x^2\right|+\left|y^2\right|+\left|2x^2y\right|+\left|x^2\right|\to 0$  as  $(x,y)\to (0,0),$  or

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} |f(x,y)| = 0 = f(0,0),$$

or  $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = f(0,0)$ , or f(x,y) is continuous at (0,0).

Proof of (b).

(1) 
$$g_{\theta}(t) = \begin{cases} t^2 - 2t^3 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \frac{4t^4 \cos^6 \theta \sin^2 \theta}{(t^2 \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^2} & \text{if } t \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0. \end{cases}$$

(Note that  $\frac{4t^4\cos^6\theta\sin^2\theta}{(t^2\cos^4\theta+\sin^2\theta)^2}$  is undefined as t=0 and  $\sin\theta=0$ .)

- (2)  $g_{\theta}(0) = 0$  by definition.
- (3) Show that  $g'_{\theta}(0) = 0$  for any  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ . If  $\sin \theta \neq 0$   $(\theta \neq 0, \pi, 2\pi)$ , then

$$\begin{split} g_{\theta}'(0) &= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t^2 - 2t^3 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \frac{4t^4 \cos^6 \theta \sin^2 \theta}{(t^2 \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^2} - 0}{t} \\ &= \lim_{t \to 0} t - 2t^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \frac{4t^3 \cos^6 \theta \sin^2 \theta}{(t^2 \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^2} \\ &= 0. \end{split}$$

If  $\sin \theta = 0$ , then

$$g'_{\theta}(0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t^2 - 0}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} t = 0.$$

(4) Combine (3) and a direct calculation for the case  $t \neq 0$ , we have

$$g_{\theta}'(t) = \begin{cases} 2t - 6t^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \frac{16t^3 \cos^6 \theta \sin^4 \theta}{(t^2 \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^3} & \text{if } t \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0. \end{cases}$$

(5) Show that  $g_{\theta}''(0) = 2$  for any  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ . If  $\sin \theta \neq 0$   $(\theta \neq 0, \pi, 2\pi)$ , then

$$g_{\theta}''(0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{2t - 6t^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \frac{16t^3 \cos^6 \theta \sin^4 \theta}{(t^2 \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^3} - 0}{t}$$
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} t - 6t \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \frac{16t^2 \cos^6 \theta \sin^4 \theta}{(t^2 \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^3}$$
$$= 2.$$

If  $\sin \theta = 0$ , then

$$g_{\theta}''(0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{2t - 0}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} 2 = 2.$$

Proof of (c).

- (1)
- (2)

## Exercise 9.16. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**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?
- (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  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
- (c) Put  $\mathbf{a} = (0, \frac{\pi}{3})$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})$ , 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

$$\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = \{\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}))\}^{-1}.$$

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

Proof of (a).

- (1) The range of **f** is  $\mathbb{R}^2 \{(0,0)\}.$
- (2) If  $(a, b) \neq (0, 0)$ , then  $\mathbf{f} : (\log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}, \operatorname{atan2}(b, a)) \mapsto (a, b)$  where

$$\operatorname{atan2}(b,a) = \begin{cases} \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) & \text{if } a > 0, \\ \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) + \pi & \text{if } a < 0 \text{ and } b \ge 0, \\ \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) - \pi & \text{if } a < 0 \text{ and } b < 0, \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } a = 0 \text{ and } b > 0, \\ -\frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } a = 0 \text{ and } b < 0. \end{cases}$$

(Or apply Theorem 8.7(d).)

(3) If (a,b) = (0,0), then for any  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  we have  $f_1(x,y)^2 + f_2(x,y)^2 = e^{2x} \neq 0$ . So that there is no (x,y) such that  $\mathbf{f}: (x,y) \mapsto (0,0)$ .

Proof of (b).

(1)

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

So

$$J_{\mathbf{f}}(x,y) = \det \mathbf{f}'(x,y) = e^{2x} \neq 0.$$

- (2) Since  $J_{\mathbf{f}}(x,y) \neq 0$ ,  $\mathbf{f}'(x,y)$  is invertible (Theorem 9.36). So the inverse function theorem (Theorem 9.24) implies that there exists an open neighborhood B(x,y) of (x,y) such that  $\mathbf{f}$  is injective on B(x,y).
- (3) Note that

$$\mathbf{f}(0,0) = \mathbf{f}(0,2\pi) = (1,0).$$

So that  $\mathbf{f}$  is not injective on the whole  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . (Injectivity of  $\mathbf{f}$  is a local property.)

Proof of (c).

- (1) If  $\mathbf{a} = \left(0, \frac{\pi}{3}\right)$ , then  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}) = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$ .
- (2) Similar to (2) in the proof of (a), define  $\mathbf{g}: E \to \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$\mathbf{g}(x,y) = \left(\log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)\right).$$

where E is some open neighborhood of the point  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  described in (b). So  $\mathbf{g}$  is a continuous inverse of  $\mathbf{f}$ .

(3) Since

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

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

(4) Since

$$[\mathbf{g}'(x,y)] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} & \frac{y}{x^2+y^2} \\ \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} & \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} \end{bmatrix},$$
$$[\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b})] = \left[ \mathbf{g}'\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) \right] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Here we can see  $[\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})][\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b})] = [\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b})][\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})] = 1$ .

(5)

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y})] &= [\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))] \\ &= [\mathbf{g}'(e^x \cos y, e^x \sin y)] \\ &= \left[\frac{e^x \cos y}{e^{2x}} \cdot \frac{e^x \sin y}{e^{2x}}\right] \\ &= \left[\frac{e^{-x} \cos y}{e^{2x}} \cdot \frac{e^{-x} \sin y}{e^{2x}}\right] \\ &= \left[\frac{e^{-x} \cos y}{-e^{-x} \sin y} \cdot \frac{e^{-x} \cos y}{e^{-x} \cos y}\right], \end{aligned}$$

and

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

Note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{-x}\cos y & e^{-x}\sin y \\ -e^{-x}\sin y & e^{-x}\cos y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^x\cos y & -e^x\sin y \\ e^x\sin y & e^x\cos y \end{bmatrix} = 1.$$

Therefore

$$\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = \{\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}))\}^{-1}$$

on  $\mathbf{g}(E)$ .

Proof of (d).

(1) The case  $L_r = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = r\}$  parallel to y-axis where  $r \in \mathbb{R}^1$  is constant. The image under  $\mathbf{f}$  is

$$\mathbf{f}(L_r) = \{ (e^r \cos y, e^r \sin y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y \in \mathbb{R}^1 \}$$
  
= \{ (s, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : s^2 + t^2 = (e^r)^2 \},

a circle which is centered at the origin  $(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with radius  $e^r > 0$ .

(2) The case  $L_{\theta} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = \theta\}$  parallel to x-axis where  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^1$  is constant. The image under **f** is

$$\mathbf{f}(L_{\theta}) = \{ (e^x \cos \theta, e^x \sin \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in \mathbb{R}^1 \}$$
$$= \{ (y \cos \theta, y \sin \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y > 0 \},$$

which is a ray from the origin (0,0) (not included) to the infinity passing through a point  $(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$  in the unit circle.

Exercise 9.18. ...

Proof.

(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.19
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.20
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.21
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.22
Proof.
(1)
(2)

F
Exercise 9.23
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.24
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.25
Exercise 9.25  Proof.
Proof.
Proof. (1)
Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2) □
Proof. (1) (2) □ Exercise 9.26
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.26  Proof.
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.26  Proof. (1)
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.26  Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.26  Proof. (1) (2)

(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.28
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.29
Proof.
(1)
(2)
F
Exercise 9.30
Proof.
(1)
(2)
E . 0.91
Exercise 9.31
Proof.
(1)
(2)