## 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  $(D_1 f)(x, y)$  and  $(D_2 f)(x, y)$  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.** Fix two real numbers a and b, 0 < a < b. Define a mapping  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  into  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by

$$f_1(s,t) = (b + a\cos s)\cos t$$
  
$$f_2(s,t) = (b + a\cos s)\sin t$$

$$f_3(s,t) = a \sin s$$
.

Describe the range K if  $\mathbf{f}$ . (It is a certain compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .)

(a) Show that there are exactly 4 points  $\mathbf{p} \in K$  such that

$$(\nabla f_1)(\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{p})) = \mathbf{0}.$$

Find these points.

(b) Determine the set of all  $\mathbf{q} \in K$  such that

$$(\nabla f_3)(\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{q})) = \mathbf{0}.$$

- (c) Show that one of the point **p** found in part (a) corresponds to a local maximum of  $f_1$ , one corresponds to a local minimum, and that the other two are neither (they are so-called "saddle points"). Which of the points **q** found in part (b) corresponds to maxima or minima?
- (d) Let  $\lambda$  be an irrational real number, and define  $\mathbf{g}(t) = \mathbf{f}(t, \lambda t)$ . Prove that  $\mathbf{g}$  is a one-to-one mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  onto a dense subset of K. Prove that

$$|\mathbf{g}'(t)|^2 = a^2 + \lambda^2 (b + a\cos t)^2.$$

Proof.

- (1) K is a torus, where
  - (a) s, t are angles which make a full circle (so that their values start and end at the same point).
  - (b) b is the distance from the center of the tube to the center of the torus.
  - (c) a is the radius of the tube.
- (2) Show that K is compact. Since sin and cos are periodic (with period  $2\pi$ ),  $K = \mathbf{f}([0, 2\pi]^2)$  is compact by the compactness of  $[0, 2\pi]^2$  and the continuity of  $\mathbf{f}$  (Theorem 4.14).

Proof of (a).

(1)

$$(\nabla f_1)(\mathbf{x}) = (D_1 f_1)(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_1 + (D_2 f_1)(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_2$$
  
=  $((D_1 f_1)(s, t), (D_2 f_1)(s, t))$   
=  $(-a \sin s \cos t, -(b + a \cos t) \sin t)$ 

So  $(\nabla f_1)(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$  if and only if

$$0 = -a \sin s \cos t,$$
  

$$0 = -(b + a \cos t) \sin t.$$

(2) Note that  $b+a\cos t>0$  for any b>a>0 and  $t\in\mathbb{R}^1$ . Hence  $(\nabla f_1)(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{0}$  if and only if  $\sin t=\sin s=0$ . Therefore,  $\mathbf{p}=(\pm(b\pm a),0,0)$ , or there are exactly 4 points  $\mathbf{p}=(b+a,0,0), (b-a,0,0), (-b-a,0,0)$ , or  $(-b+a,0,0)\in K$ .

Proof of (b).

(1)

$$(\nabla f_3)(\mathbf{x}) = (D_1 f_3)(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_1 + (D_2 f_3)(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_2$$
  
=  $((D_1 f_3)(s, t), (D_2 f_3)(s, t))$   
=  $(a \cos s, 0)$ 

So  $(\nabla f_1)(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$  if and only if  $\cos s = 0$  (since a > 0).

(2) Therefore,  $\mathbf{q} = (b\cos t, b\sin t, \pm a)$ .

Proof of (c).

- (1) Since  $-1 \le \cos s \le 1$  and  $-1 \le \cos t \le 1$ ,  $-b a \le f_1(s, t) \le b + a$ .
  - (a) (b+a,0,0) corresponds to a local maximum of  $f_1$ .
  - (b) (-b-a,0,0) corresponds to a local minimum of  $f_1$ .
  - (c) (b-a,0,0) and (-b+a,0,0) are saddle points by considering any open neighborhood of (s,t) at which  $\cos s = \pm 1$  and  $\cos t = \mp 1$ .
- (2) Since  $-1 \le \sin s \le 1, -a \le f_3(s, t) \le a$ .
  - (a)  $(b\cos t, b\sin t, a)$  corresponds to a local maximum of  $f_3$ .
  - (b)  $(b\cos t, b\sin t, -a)$  corresponds to a local minimum of  $f_3$ .

Proof of (d).

(1)

$$\mathbf{g}(t) = \mathbf{f}(t, \lambda t) = ((b + a\cos t)\cos(\lambda t), (b + a\cos t)\sin(\lambda t), a\sin t).$$

(2) Show that **g** is a one-to-one mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^1$ . It suffices to show that  $\mathbf{g}(t) = \mathbf{g}(s)$  implies t = s.

(a) By g(t) = g(s),

$$(b + a\cos t)\cos(\lambda t) = (b + a\cos s)\cos(\lambda s),\tag{I}$$

$$(b + a\cos t)\sin(\lambda t) = (b + a\cos s)\sin(\lambda s),\tag{II}$$

$$a\sin t = a\sin s. \tag{III}$$

(I) and (II) imply that  $\cos t = \cos s$  (since b>a>0). (III) implies that  $\sin t = \sin s$ . Hence

$$t = s + 2n\pi$$

for some integer n.

(b) Again, (I) and (II) imply that

$$cos(\lambda t) = cos(\lambda s)$$
 and  $sin(\lambda t) = sin(\lambda s)$ .

Hence

$$\lambda t = \lambda s + 2m\pi$$

for some integer m. By assumption that  $t=s+2n\pi$ , we have  $m=n\lambda$ . Since  $\lambda$  is irrational, m=n=0. Therefore t=s holds.

(3) Show that  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbb{R}^1)$  is dense in K. Note that  $\mathbf{f}([0,2\pi]^2) = K$ . Use the notations  $\{x\}$  in Exercise 4.16. It suffices to show that the set

$$\left\{ \left( 2\pi \left\{ \frac{t}{2\pi} \right\}, 2\pi \left\{ \frac{\lambda t}{2\pi} \right\} \right) : t \in \mathbb{R}^1 \right\}$$

is dense in  $[0, 2\pi]^2$  (Exercise 4.4), or to show that

$$\left\{ \left( \{t\}, \{\lambda t\} \right) : t \in \mathbb{R}^1 \right\}$$

is dense in  $[0,1]^2$ , which is the conclusion of Exercise 4.25(b).

(4) Show that  $|\mathbf{g}'(t)|^2 = a^2 + \lambda^2 (b + a \cos t)^2$ . By

$$\mathbf{g}'(t) = (-a\sin t\cos(\lambda t) - \lambda(b + a\cos t)\sin(\lambda t),$$
$$-a\sin t\sin(\lambda t) + \lambda(b + a\cos t)\cos(\lambda t),$$
$$a\cos t),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathbf{g}'(t) \right|^2 &= \mathbf{g}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{g}'(t) \\ &= (-a \sin t \cos(\lambda t) - \lambda (b + a \cos t) \sin(\lambda t))^2 \\ &\quad + (-a \sin t \sin(\lambda t) + \lambda (b + a \cos t) \cos(\lambda t))^2 + (a \cos t)^2 \\ &= \underbrace{a^2 \sin^2 t \cos^2(\lambda t) + a^2 \cos^2 t}_{=a^2} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\lambda^2 (b + a \cos t)^2 \sin^2(\lambda t) + \lambda^2 (b + a \cos t)^2 \cos^2(\lambda t)}_{=\lambda^2 (b + a \cos t)^2} \\ &\quad + 2a\lambda \sin t \cos(\lambda t) \lambda (b + a \cos t) \sin(\lambda t) \\ &\quad - 2a\lambda \sin t \sin(\lambda t) \lambda (b + a \cos t) \cos(\lambda t) \\ &= a^2 + \lambda^2 (b + a \cos t)^2. \end{aligned}$$

**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

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

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  $(D_2f)(x,y)$  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

$$\begin{split} &\lim_{x \to t} \frac{\gamma_1(t)^3(2\gamma_1(t)\gamma_1'(t) + 2\gamma_2(t)\gamma_2'(t))}{(\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2)^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \to t} \frac{\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^3 \left(2\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\gamma_1'(t) + 2\frac{\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t)}{x - t}\gamma_2'(t)\right)}{\left(\left(\frac{\gamma_1(x) - \gamma_1(t)}{x - t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_2(x) - \gamma_2(t)}{x - t}\right)^2\right)^2} \\ &= \frac{\gamma_1'(t)^3 \cdot (2\gamma_1'(t)\gamma_1'(t) + 2\gamma_2'(t)\gamma_2'(t))}{(\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{2\gamma_1'(t)^3}{\gamma_1'(t)^2 + \gamma_2'(t)^2}. \end{split}$$

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  $\mathbf{u} = \left(\frac{1}{64}, \frac{\sqrt{4095}}{64}\right)$ .  $\square$ 

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

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

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

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

$$4x^4y^2 < (x^4 + y^2)^2$$
.

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  $|x^2| + |y^2| + |2x^2y| + |x^2| \to 0$  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

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

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

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

If  $\sin \theta = 0$ , then

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

(6) Since  $g_{\theta}''(0) > 0$  and  $g_{\theta}'(0) = 0$ ,  $g_{\theta}$  has a strict local minimum at t = 0. As  $\theta$  is fixed, f is restricted to some line through (0,0). Hence, such restriction of f has a strict local minimum at t = 0.

Proof of (c). Since  $f(x, x^2) = -x^4 \le 0 = f(0, 0)$  in any open neighborhood of (0, 0), f(0, 0) = 0 cannot be a local minimum for f.  $\square$ 

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

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

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.

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$f'(t) = \begin{cases} 1 + 4t \sin \frac{1}{t} - 2\cos \frac{1}{t} & \text{if } t \neq 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } t = 0. \end{cases}$$

It suffices to show that f'(0) = 1. In fact,

$$f'(0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t + 2t^2 \sin\frac{1}{t} - 0}{t - 0} = \lim_{t \to 0} \left( 1 + 2t \sin\frac{1}{t} \right) = 1$$

(since  $\sin \frac{1}{t}$  is bounded and  $2t \to 0$  as  $t \to 0$ ).

*Note.* f'(t) is not continuous at t = 0.

(2) Show that f' is bounded in (-1,1).

$$|f'(t)| \le 1 + 4|t| \left| \sin \frac{1}{t} \right| + 2 \left| \cos \frac{1}{t} \right| \le 1 + 4 + 2 = 7$$

if  $t \neq 0$ . Hence f' is bounded by 7 in (-1, 1).

(3) Show that f is not one-to-one in any neighborhood of 0. Take

$$x_n = \frac{1}{2n\pi}$$
 and  $y_n = \frac{1}{2n\pi + \pi}$ 

for n = 1, 2, 3, ... So that

$$f'(x_n) = -1 < 0$$
 and  $f'(y_n) = 3 > 0$ .

Since f'(t) is continuous if  $t \neq 0$ , there exists  $\xi_n \in (y_n, x_n)$  such that  $f'(\xi_n) = 0$  (Theorem 4.23). Then Theorem 5.11 implies that f has a local maximum at  $\xi_n$ , that is, f is not one-to-one in the interval  $[y_n, x_n]$  (by applying Theorem 4.23 again). Since  $x_n \to 0$  and  $y_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ , f is not one-to-one in 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  $\mathbf{f}$ ?
- (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 f' is continuous and

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

- (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)

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

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. Show that the system of equations

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

can 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.

Proof (Brute-force).

(1) Denote

$$3x + y - z + u^2 = 0 (I)$$

$$x - y + 2z + u = 0 \tag{II}$$

$$2x + 2y - 3z + 2u = 0 (III)$$

So (I) - 3(II) implies that

$$4y + u(u - 3) = 7z, (IV)$$

and (III) - 2(II) implies that

$$4y = 7z. (V)$$

By (IV)(V), we have u(u-3)=0. Hence u=0 or u=3 in any case.

(2) Show that (I)(II)(III) can be solve for x,y,u in terms of z. (V) implies that  $y = \frac{7z}{4}$ . Hence

$$(x, y, u) = \left(-\frac{z}{4}, \frac{7z}{4}, 0\right), \left(-\frac{z}{4} - 3, \frac{7z}{4}, 3\right).$$

(3) Show that (I)(II)(III) can be solve for x, z, u in terms of y.

$$(x, z, u) = \left(-\frac{y}{7}, \frac{4y}{7}, 0\right), \left(-\frac{y}{7} - 3, \frac{4y}{7}, 3\right).$$

(4) Show that (I)(II)(III) can be solve for y, z, u in terms of x.

$$(y, z, u) = (-7x, -4x, 0), (-7x - 21, -4x - 12, 3).$$

(5) Show that (I)(II)(III) can not be solve for x, y, z in terms of u. Actually,

$$(x, y, z) = (-t - u, 7t, 4t)$$

for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ .

Proof (The implicit function theorem).

(1) Define **f** be a  $\mathscr{C}'$ -mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^{3+1}$  into  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by

$$\mathbf{f}(x, y, z, u) = (3x + y - z + u^2, x - y + 2z + u, 2x + 2y - 3z + 2u).$$

Note that  $\mathbf{f}(0,0,0,0) = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{f}(-3,0,0,3) = \mathbf{0}$ .

(2) Since

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

f' is continuous,

$$[\mathbf{f}'(0,0,0,0)] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

and

$$[\mathbf{f}'(-3,0,0,3)] = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & -1 & 6 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(3) The submatrix

$$[\mathbf{f}'(0,0,0,0)]_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is invertiable since its determinant is  $3 \neq 0$ . By the implicit function theorem (Theorem 9.28), the system can be solved for y, z, u in terms of x. Similar arguments to  $[\mathbf{f}'(0,0,0,0)]_y$ ,  $[\mathbf{f}'(0,0,0,0)]_z$ ,  $[\mathbf{f}'(-3,0,0,3)]_y$ , and  $[\mathbf{f}'(-3,0,0,3)]_z$ .

(4) Note that  $[\mathbf{f}'(0,0,0,0)]_u$  and  $[\mathbf{f}'(-3,0,0,3)]_u$  are not invertible, we cannot apply the implicit function theorem (Theorem 9.28). We need to show by brute-force in this case.

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

Implicit function theorem (for n=m=1). Let f(x,y) be a  $\mathscr{C}'$ -mapping of an open set  $E\subseteq\mathbb{R}^2$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , such that f(a,b)=0 for some point  $(a,b)\in E$ . Assume that

$$D_1 f(a,b) \neq 0.$$

Then there exist open sets  $U \subseteq E$  and  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$ , with  $(a,b) \in U$  and  $b \in W$ , having the following property:

To every  $y \in W$  corresponds a unique x such that

$$(x,y) \in U$$
 and  $f(x,y) = 0$ .

If this x is defined to be g(y), then g is a  $\mathscr{C}'$ -mapping of W into  $\mathbb{R}^1$ , g(b)=a,

$$f(g(y), y) = 0 \qquad (y \in W),$$

and

$$g'(b) = -\frac{D_2 f(a, b)}{D_1 f(a, b)}.$$

Proof.

(1) In the notations of Exercise 4.6, define the graph of f by the set

$$S = \{(x, y) \in E : f(x, y) = 0\}.$$

- (2) Consider the graph S. As  $D_1 f(a,b) \neq 0$  and  $f(x,y) \in \mathscr{C}'$ , there are an open neighborhood  $U \subseteq E$  of (a,b) and an open neighborhood W of b such that  $x \mapsto f(x,y)$  is strictly monotonic whenever  $y \in W$ . "Graphically" by the monotony of f(x,y), for any fixed y there is a unique x such that f(x,y) = 0.
- (3) "Graphically" the tangent line passing through (a, b) is

$$D_1 f(a,b)(x-a) + D_2 f(a,b)(y-b) = 0.$$

Thus 
$$g'(b) = -\frac{D_2 f(a,b)}{D_1 f(a,b)}$$
 if  $D_1 f(a,b) \neq 0$ .

**Exercise 9.21.** Define f in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by

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

- (a) Find the four points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  at which the gradient of f is zero. Show that f has exactly one local maximum and one local minimum in  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .
- (b) Let S be the set of all  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  at which f(x,y) = 0. Find those points of S that have no neighborhoods in which the equation f(x,y) = 0 can be solved for y in terms of x (or for x in terms of y). Describe S as precisely as you can.

Proof of (a).

(1)

$$(\nabla f)(x,y) = ((D_1 f)(x,y), (D_2 f)(x,y)) = (6x(x-1), 6y(y+1)).$$
  
So  $(\nabla f)(x,y) = 0$  if and only if  $(x,y) = (0,0), (0,-1), (1,0), (1,-1).$ 

- (2)  $x \mapsto 2x^3 3x^2$  have one local maximum at x = 0 and one local minimum at x = 1.  $y \mapsto 2y^3 + 3y^2$  have one local maximum at y = -1 and one local minimum at y = 0.
- (3) Hence  $f:(x,y)\mapsto to(2x^3-3x^2)+(2y^3+3y^2)$  have one local maximum at (x,y)=(0,-1) and one local minimum at (x,y)=(1,0). Other two points (0,0) and (1,-1) are saddle points.

Proof of (b).

(1) By definition,

$$S = \{f(x,y) = 0\}$$

$$= \{(x+y)(2x^2 - 2xy - 3x + 2y^2 + 3y) = 0\}$$

$$= \{x+y=0\} \cup \{2x^2 - 2xy - 3x + 2y^2 + 3y = 0\},$$

which is a union of a line  $L = \{x + y = 0\}$  and an ellipse  $E = \{2x^2 - 2xy - 3x + 2y^2 + 3y = 0\}$ . The intersection of  $L \cap E$  is  $\{(0,0), (1,-1)\}$ , and it suggested that f(x,y) = 0 cannot be solved for y in terms of x (or for x in terms of y) on  $L \cap E = \{(0,0), (1,-1)\}$ .

- (2) By (1) in the proof of (a) and the implicit function theorem (Theorem 9.28), f(x,y) = 0 can be solved for y in terms of x (or for x in terms of y) whenever  $(D_2 f)(x,y) \neq 0$  (or  $(D_1 f)(x,y) \neq 0$ ).
- (3) Show that f(x,y) = 0 cannot be solved for y in terms of x if  $(D_2 f)(x,y) = 0$ .  $(D_2 f)(x,y) = 0$  if and only if

$$(x,y) \in T = \left\{ (0,0), \left(\frac{3}{2},0\right), (1,-1), \left(-\frac{1}{2},-1\right) \right\}.$$

Solve y to get

$$y = -x$$

$$y = \frac{1}{4} \left( 2x - 3 + \sqrt{-3(2x+1)(2x-3)} \right)$$

$$y = \frac{1}{4} \left( 2x - 3 - \sqrt{-3(2x+1)(2x-3)} \right)$$

In any case, y can not be uniquely determined by x for any  $(x,y) \in T$ . ("Graphically" we can see the set S to get the conclusion. Explicitly, we can take the limit to each expression (as  $(s,t) \to (x,y) \in T$ ), and observe that not all limits are equal.)

(4) Show that f(x,y) = 0 cannot be solved for x in terms of y if  $(D_1f)(x,y) = 0$ .  $(D_1f)(x,y) = 0$  if and only if

$$(x,y) \in T = \left\{ (0,0), \left(0, -\frac{3}{2}\right), (1,-1), \left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right) \right\}.$$

Similar to (3), x can not be uniquely determined by y for any  $(x, y) \in T$ .

## Supplement (Second-derivative test for extrema).

(1) (Theorem 13.11 in Tom M. Apostol, Mathematical Analysis, 2nd edition). Let f be a real-valued function with continuous second-order partial derivatives at a stationary point  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Let

$$A = (D_{11}f)(\mathbf{a}), \qquad B = (D_{12}f)(\mathbf{a}), \qquad C = (D_{22}f)(\mathbf{a}),$$

and let

$$\Delta = \det \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} = AC - B^2.$$

Then we have:

- (a) If  $\Delta > 0$  and A > 0, f has a local minimum at **a**.
- (b) If  $\Delta > 0$  and A < 0, f has a local maximum at **a**.
- (c) If  $\Delta < 0$ , f has a saddle point at **a**.
- (2) We can give another proof of (a) by the second-derivative test for extrema.

Exercise 9.22. Given a similar discussion for

$$f(x,y) = 2x^3 + 6xy^2 - 3x^2 + 3y^2.$$

Outline.

- (a) Find the two points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  at which the gradient of f is zero. Show that f has one saddle point and one local minimum in  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .
- (b) Let S be the set of all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  at which f(x, y) = 0. Find those points of S that have no neighborhoods in which the equation f(x, y) = 0 can be solved for y in terms of x (or for x in terms of y). Describe S as precisely as you can.

Proof of (a).

(1)

$$(\nabla f)(x,y) = ((D_1 f)(x,y), (D_2 f)(x,y)) = (6(x^2 + y^2 - x), 6y(2x + 1)).$$

So  $(\nabla f)(x, y) = 0$  if and only if (x, y) = (0, 0) or (1, 0).

(2) Show that f has one saddle point at (x,y) = (0,0). Since  $f(x,x) = 8x^3$ ,  $f(x,x) \le 0 = f(0,0)$  if x < 0 and  $f(x,x) \ge 0 = f(0,0)$  if x > 0. Hence (x,y) is not a local maximum or a local minimum for f.

(3) Show that f has one local minimum at (x,y) = (1,0). Write

$$f(x,y) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 + (6x+3)y^2.$$

Note that  $2x^3 - 3x^2 \ge -1$  and  $(6x+3)y^2 \ge 0$  in some open neighborhood  $B\left((1,0); \frac{1}{64}\right)$  of (1,0). Therefore f has one local minimum at (x,y) = (1,0).

Proof of (b).

(1) S is a folium of Descartes with a double point at the origin and asymptote  $x + \frac{1}{2} = 0$ .

whenever  $(D_2 f)(x, y) \neq 0$  (or  $(D_1 f)(x, y) \neq 0$ ).

(3) Show that f(x,y) = 0 cannot be solved for y in terms of x if  $(D_2 f)(x,y) = 0$ .  $(D_2 f)(x,y) = 0$  if and only if

$$(x,y) \in T = \left\{ (0,0), \left(\frac{3}{2},0\right) \right\}.$$

Solve y to get

$$y = \sqrt{\frac{-x^2(2x-3)}{3(2x+1)}}$$
$$y = -\sqrt{\frac{-x^2(2x-3)}{3(2x+1)}}$$

In any case, y can not be uniquely determined by x for any  $(x,y) \in T$ . ("Graphically" we can see the set S to get the conclusion. Explicitly, we can take the limit to each expression (as  $(s,t) \to (x,y) \in T$ ), and observe that two limits are different.)

(4) Show that f(x,y) = 0 cannot be solved for x in terms of y if  $(D_1f)(x,y) = 0$ .  $(D_1f)(x,y) = 0$  if and only if

$$(x,y) \in T = \left\{ (0,0), \pm \sqrt{-\frac{3}{4} + \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}} \right\}.$$

Similar to (3), x can not be uniquely determined by y for any  $(x,y) \in T$ . That is,

$$x = g(y)$$

$$= \frac{1 - 4y^2}{2} \left\{ 2\sqrt{16y^6 + 24y^4 - 3y^2} - 12y^2 + 1 \right\}^{-\frac{1}{3}}$$

$$+ \left\{ 2\sqrt{16y^6 + 24y^4 - 3y^2} - 12y^2 + 1 \right\}^{\frac{1}{3}} + 1.$$

So as  $y \neq 0$ , x = g(y) = g(-y). The expression x = g(y) is not unique.

**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,  $(D_1f)(0,1,-1) \neq 0$ , 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  $(D_2g)(1,-1)$ .

Proof.

(1) Note that f(0,1,-1) = 0. Since

$$[\nabla f((x, y_1, y_2))]_{(x, y_1, y_2) = (0, 1, -1)} = [(2xy_1 + e^x, x^2, 1)]_{(x, y_1, y_2) = (0, 1, -1)}$$
$$= (1, 0, 1),$$

 $A_x = (1)$  and  $A_y = (0,1)$ . By the implicit function theorem (Theorem 9.28), there exists a  $\mathscr{C}'$  function in some open neighborhood of (1,-1) such that g(1,-1)=0 and  $f(g(y_1,y_2),y_1,y_2)=0$ .

(2) Besides,  $g'(1,-1) = -(A_x)^{-1}A_y = (0,-1)$  implies that  $(D_1g)(1,-1) = 0$  and  $(D_2g)(1,-1) = -1$ .

**Exercise 9.24.** For  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ , define  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2)$  by

$$f_1(x,y) = \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}, \qquad f_2(x,y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Compute the rank of f'(x,y), and find the range of f.

Proof.

(1)

$$[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4xy^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} & \frac{4x^2y}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \\ \frac{-y(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} & \frac{x(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

(2) Show that  $\operatorname{rank}([\mathbf{f}'(x,y)]) \neq 2$ . It is equivalent to show that  $\det[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)] = 0$ . Actually,

$$\det[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)] = \frac{4xy^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \cdot \frac{x(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} - \frac{4x^2y}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \cdot \frac{-y(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} = 0.$$

(3) Show that  $rank([\mathbf{f}'(x,y)]) \neq 0$ .

$$[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)] \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4xy^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} & \frac{4x^2y}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \\ \frac{-y(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} & \frac{x(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4xy^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \\ \frac{-y(x^2-y^2)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\neq \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0, 0)\}.$ 

- (4) Since the rank of  $\mathbf{f}'$  is the dimension of the subspace  $\mathscr{R}(\mathbf{f}')$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , rank( $[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)]$ ) = 0, 1, 2. By (2)(3), rank( $[\mathbf{f}'(x,y)]$ ) = 1.
- (5) Show that the range of  $\mathbf{f}$  is an ellipse

$$E = \{(s, t) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : s^2 + 4t^2 = 1\}.$$

- (a) Clearly,  $(f_1(x, y), f_2(x, y)) \in E$ .
- (b) Conversely, for any  $(s, t) \in E$  write

$$s = \cos \theta$$
 and  $t = \frac{1}{2}\sin \theta$ 

for some unique  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$  (Theorem 8.7(d)). By the tangent half-angle formula,

$$s = \cos \theta = \frac{1 - \tan^2 \frac{\theta}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{\theta}{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad t = \frac{1}{2} \sin \theta = \frac{\tan \frac{\theta}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{\theta}{2}}.$$

Thus, there exists a point  $(1, \tan \frac{\theta}{2}) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  such that

$$f: \left(1, \tan \frac{\theta}{2}\right) \mapsto (s, t) \in E.$$

(c) Or we can do a linear projection from a given point P=(1,0), say for any  $\lambda\in\mathbb{R}^1$  we define a line through P with slope  $-\lambda$  meeting E in a further point

$$Q_{\lambda} = \left(\frac{\lambda^2 - 1}{\lambda^2 + 1}, \frac{\lambda}{\lambda^2 + 1}\right).$$

Might define  $Q_{\infty} = P$ . Graphically and informally,

$${Q_{\lambda}: \lambda \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R} \cup {\infty}} = E.$$

Therefore, f(1,0) = P and  $f(\lambda,1) \in E - \{P\}$ .

By (a)(b), the range of  $\mathbf{f}$  is exactly the same as an ellipse E.

## Exercise 9.25. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

## Exercise 9.26. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 9.27.** Put f(0,0) = 0, and

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

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

- (a) f,  $D_1 f$ ,  $D_2 f$  are continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
- (b)  $D_{12}f$  and  $D_{21}f$  exist at every point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and are continuous except at (0,0).
- (c)  $(D_{12}f)(0,0) = 1$ , and  $(D_{21}f)(0,0) = -1$ .

Proof of (a).

- (1) Show that f is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - (a) Clearly, f(x,y) is continuous if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ . So it suffices to show that

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

(b) Write  $x=r\cos\theta$  and  $y=r\sin\theta$  in the polar coordinates. (Here r>0.) Hence

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{xy(x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}$$
$$= \lim_{r\to 0} r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta (\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta)$$
$$= 0$$

since  $\cos \theta \sin \theta (\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta)$  is bounded by 2.

- (2) Show that  $D_1 f$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - (a)  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$  implies that

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \frac{x^4 y + 4x^2 y^3 - y^5}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

Besides,

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

In summary,

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \\ \frac{x^4 y + 4x^2 y^3 - y^5}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

(b) Clearly,  $(D_1 f)(x, y)$  is continuous if  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . So it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (D_1 f)(x,y) = (D_1 f)(0,0) = 0.$$

(c) Similar to (1)(b). Write  $x = r\cos\theta$  and  $y = r\sin\theta$  in the polar coordinates. (Here r > 0.) Hence

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (D_1 f)(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^4 y + 4x^2 y^3 - y^5}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$
$$= \lim_{r\to 0} r(\cos^4 \theta \sin \theta + 4\cos^2 \theta \sin^3 \theta - \sin^5 \theta)$$
$$= 0$$

since  $\cos^4 \theta \sin \theta + 4 \cos^2 \theta \sin^3 \theta - \sin^5 \theta$  is bounded by 6.

(3) Similar to (2). Show that  $D_2f$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

(a)  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$  implies that

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \frac{x^5 - 4x^3y^2 - xy^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

Besides.

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

In summary,

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \\ \frac{x^5 - 4x^3y^2 - xy^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

(b) Clearly,  $(D_2 f)(x, y)$  is continuous if  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . So it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (D_2f)(x,y) = (D_2f)(0,0) = 0.$$

(c) Similar to (1)(b). Write  $x = r\cos\theta$  and  $y = r\sin\theta$  in the polar coordinates. (Here r > 0.) Hence

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (D_2 f)(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^5 - 4x^3 y^2 - xy^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$
$$= \lim_{r\to 0} r(\cos^5 \theta - 4\cos^3 \theta \sin^2 \theta - \cos \theta \sin^4 \theta)$$
$$= 0$$

since  $\cos^5 \theta - 4\cos^3 \theta \sin^2 \theta - \cos \theta \sin^4 \theta$  is bounded by 6.

Proof of (b).

- (1) Show that  $D_{12}f$  exists at every point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - (a)  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$  implies that

$$(D_{12}f)(x,y) = (D_1D_2f)(x,y) = \frac{x^6 + 9x^4y^2 - 9x^2y^4 - y^6}{(x^2 + y^2)^3}.$$

(b) Besides,

$$(D_{12}f)(0,0) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(D_2f)(x,0) - (D_2f)(0,0)}{x - 0}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x}{x}$$
$$= 1.$$

In summary,

$$(D_{12}f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \\ \frac{x^6 + 9x^4y^2 - 9x^2y^4 - y^6}{(x^2 + y^2)^3} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

- (2) Show that  $D_{12}f$  is continuous except at (0,0).
  - (a) Clearly,  $(D_{12}f)(x,y)$  is continuous if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ . So it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (D_{12}f)(x,y)$$

does not exist.

(b) Take

$$\mathbf{p}_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, 0\right)$$
 and  $\mathbf{q}_n = \left(0, \frac{1}{n}\right)$ 

for n = 1, 2, 3, ... So  $\lim \mathbf{p}_n = \lim \mathbf{q}_n = \mathbf{0}$ ,

$$\lim(D_{12}f)(\mathbf{p}_n) = 1$$
 and  $\lim(D_{12}f)(\mathbf{q}_n) = -1$ .

Hence  $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)}(D_{12}f)(x,y)$  does not exist.

- (3) Show that  $D_{21}f$  exists at every point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Similar to (1).
  - (a)  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$  implies that

$$(D_{21}f)(x,y) = (D_2D_1f)(x,y) = \frac{x^6 + 9x^4y^2 - 9x^2y^4 - y^6}{(x^2 + y^2)^3},$$

which is the same as  $(D_{12}f)(x,y)$ .

(b) Besides,

$$(D_{21}f)(0,0) = \lim_{y \to 0} \frac{(D_1f)(0,y) - (D_1f)(0,0)}{y - 0}$$
$$= \lim_{y \to 0} \frac{-y}{y}$$
$$= -1.$$

In summary,

$$(D_{21}f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \\ \frac{x^6 + 9x^4y^2 - 9x^2y^4 - y^6}{(x^2 + y^2)^3} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

(4) Show that  $D_{21}f$  is continuous except at (0,0). Exactly the same as (2) since  $(D_{21}f)(x,y) = (D_{12}f)(x,y)$  if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ .

<i>Proof of (c).</i> See $(2)(4)$ in the proof of (b). $\square$
Exercise 9.28
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.29
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.30
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.31
Proof.
(1)
(2)