Calculus on Manifolds

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Chapter 1

Theorem 0.1 (Heine-Borel Theorem). The closed interval [a, b] is compact.

Proof. If \mathscr{O} is an open cover of [a,b], let

 $A = \{x : a \le x \le b \text{ and } [a, x] \text{ is covered by some finite number of open sets in } \mathscr{O} \}.$

We know that $a \in A$ since we can choose any open set in \mathscr{O} containing a. A certainly has a least upper bound since A is bounded above by b. So, we will show that if some α is the least upper bound of A, then $\alpha \in A$ and $\alpha = b$.

Since $\alpha = \sup A$, for every $x \in A$, there exists an ε such that $\alpha - x < \varepsilon$. Since [a, x] is covered by some finite number of open sets, we can choose any open ε -neighborhood centered at α . Hence, we see that $[a, \alpha]$ is also covered by finitely many open sets. This shows $\alpha \in A$.

To show that $\alpha = b$, assume that $\alpha < b$. Since, we can find some x' between α and b, such that x' is contained in some open neighborhood around α , we see that $[a, \alpha]$ is covered by a single open set. Then certainly, $x' \in A$. But this contradicts that $\alpha = \sup A$. Hence, $\alpha = b$.

Definition 0.1. Let X and Y be metric spaces, with metrics d_X and d_Y , respectively. Then, we say that a function $f: X \to Y$ is **continuous at the point** $x_0 \in X$ if for each open set $U \subset Y$, $f(x_0) \in U$, there is an open set $V \subset X$, $x_0 \in V$ such that $f(V) \subset U$.

Theorem 0.2. If $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$, a function $f: A \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is continuous if and only if for every open set $U \subset \mathbf{R}^m$ there is some open set $V \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ such that $f^{-1}(U) = V \cap A$.

Proof. Suppose f is continuous. If $a \in f^{-1}(U)$, then $f(a) \in U$. Since U is open, there is some open ball $B \subset U$ such that $f(a) \in B$. And since, f is continuous at a, we know that $f(x) \in B$ provided we choose a sufficiently small open ball C such that $a \in C$. If we do this for each $a \in f^{-1}(U)$ and call their union V (also an open set), then clearly $f^{-1}(U) = V \cap A$.

1. [1-23] If $f: A \to \mathbf{R}^m$ and $a \in A$, show that $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = b$ if and only if $\lim_{x\to a} f_i(x) = b_i$ for i=1,...,m.

Solution: If $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = b$, then for every $\varepsilon > 0$, we can find a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < \|x - a\| < \delta \implies \|f(x) - b\| < \varepsilon.$$

Then we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} (f_i(x) - b_i)^2 < \varepsilon^2$$

$$\implies |f_i(x) - b_i| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for } i = 1, ..., m.$$

This implies that $\lim_{x\to a} f_i(x) = b_i$ for i = 1, ..., m.

Now, if $\lim_{x\to a} f_i(x) = b_i$ for i=1,...,m then for every $\varepsilon > 0$, we can find $\delta_1,...,\delta_m$ such that

$$0 < ||x - a|| < \delta_i \implies ||f_i(x) - b_i|| < \varepsilon \text{ for } i = 1, ..., m.$$

Then, for $\delta = \min \delta_i$, for i = 1, ..., m, we have,

$$0 < ||x - a|| < \delta \implies \sum_{i=1}^{m} ||f_i(x) - b_i||^2 < m\varepsilon^2$$
$$\implies ||f(x) - b|| < \sqrt{m}\varepsilon.$$

Hence, $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = b$

2. [1-24] Prove that $f: A \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is continuous if and only if each f_i is.

Solution: If $f: A \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is continuous then for all $a \in A$, $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$. But this means that for all $a \in A$, $\lim_{x\to a} f_i(x) = f_i(a)$. Hence, each $f_i(x)$ is continuous.

Similarly, converse follows from [1-23].

3. [1-25] Prove that a linear transformation $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is continuous.

Solution:

Proof. We need to show that $T: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is continuous at all $a \in \mathbf{R}^n$. That is, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ we can find a $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < ||x - a|| < \delta \implies ||T(x) - T(a)|| < \varepsilon$, where $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$. But we have,

$$||T(x) - T(a)|| = ||T(x - a)|| \le M||x - a||$$

for some $M \in \mathbf{R}$. So for any given $\varepsilon > 0$, we can choose $\delta = \varepsilon/M$. Then certainly, if $0 < ||x - a|| < \delta$, then

$$||T(x) - T(a)|| \le M||x - a|| < M\delta = \varepsilon.$$

So it follows that the linear transformation is continuous.

4. [1-29] If A is compact, prove that every continuous function $f:A\to \mathbf{R}$ takes on a maximum and a minimum value.

Solution:

Proof. Since A is compact and f is continuous, we know that the image of A under f is compact in \mathbf{R} . Hence, it follows from 3.1, that f takes on a maximum and a minimum value.

Lemma 0.3. A compact set in R has a maximum and a minimum value.

Proof. We know that a compact set is closed and bounded and in \mathbf{R} , a compact set is in the form [a,b]. And since $a,b \in [a,b]$, all we need to show is that a and b are infimum and supremum, respectively, of the given interval.

5. [1-30] Let $f:[a,b]\to \mathbf{R}$ be an increasing function. If $x_1,...,x_n\in[a,b]$ are distinct, show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} o(f, x_i) \le f(b) - f(a).$$

Solution: Let order be defined in $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ such that $x_1 < ... < x_n$, then since f is an increasing function, we get $f(x_1) \le ... \le f(x_n)$. We have

$$o(f, x_i) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \left(M(x_i, f, \delta) - m(x_i, f, \delta) \right)$$

where,

$$M(x_i, f, \delta) = \sup \{ f(x) : x \in [a, b] \text{ and } ||x - x_i|| < \delta \},$$

 $m(x_i, f, \delta) = \inf \{ f(x) : x \in [a, b] \text{ and } ||x - x_i|| < \delta \}.$

If we denote a δ -neighborhood of some $x_i \in [a, b]$ by $N_{\delta}(x_i)$, then since $\delta \to 0$, we can choose a sufficiently small $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} N_{\delta}(x_i) = \phi.$$

Then for all such δ we have,

$$f(x_{i+1}) \ge M(x_i, f, \delta) \ge f(x_{i-1})$$
, and $f(x_{i+1}) \ge m(x_i, f, \delta) \ge f(x_{i-1})$.

We simplify the given summation as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} o(f, x_i) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M(x_i, f, \delta) - m(x_i, f, \delta))$$

$$\leq \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_{i-1}))$$

$$= f(x_{n+1}) - f(x_0),$$

$$\leq f(b) - f(a).$$

where the last statement follows from the fact that the max and min f(x) can get is f(b) and f(a).

Chapter 2

1. [2-1] Prove that if $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$ is differentiable at $a \in \mathbf{R}^n$, then it is continuous at a.

Solution: If f is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$\lim_{h \to a} \frac{\|f(a+h) - f(a) - \lambda(h)\|}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

But this means that, for any given $\varepsilon_0 > 0$, we can find a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < ||h|| < \delta \implies \frac{||f(a+h) - f(a) - \lambda(h)||}{||h||} < \varepsilon_0$$

$$\implies ||f(a+h) - f(a) - \lambda(h)|| < \varepsilon_0 ||h||$$

$$\implies ||f(a+h) - f(a)|| < (\varepsilon_0 + M)||h||$$

for some $M \in \mathbf{R}$. So, when h = x - a for any given $\varepsilon > 0$, we can choose $0 < \delta < \varepsilon/(\varepsilon_0 + M)$. Then it follows that,

$$0 < \|x - a\| < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(a)\| < (\varepsilon_0 + M)\delta < \varepsilon.$$

Hence, f is continuous at a.

2. [2-2] A function $f: \mathbf{R}^2 \to \mathbf{R}$ is **independent of the second variable** if for each $x \in \mathbf{R}$ we have $f(x, y_1) = f(x, y_2)$ for all $y_1, y_2 \in \mathbf{R}$. Show that f is independent of the second variable if and only if there is a function $g: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ such that f(x, y) = g(x). What is f'(a, b) in terms of g'?

Solution: Define g(x) = f(x, 0). Then for all $y \in \mathbf{R}$, if f is independent of the second variable, we have f(x, y) = f(x, 0) = g(x).

Similarly, since g is independent of y, we have $g(x) = f(x,0) = f(x,y_1) = f(x,y_2)$.

Now let z = (h, k). Then, assuming that f is differentiable at (a, b), we have

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(a+h,b+k)-f(a,b)-Df(a,b)(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|} = 0$$
 or,
$$\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{\|g(a+h)-g(a)-Df(a,b)(h,k)\|}{|h|} = 0$$

Since $g: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$,

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{g(a+h) - g(a)}{|h|} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{Df(a,b)(h,k)}{|h|}$$
or, $g'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{Df(a,b)(h,k)}{|h|}$

Then we see that

$$Df(a,b)(h,k) = h \cdot g'(a)$$

satisfies the equation. Hence, f'(a, b) = g'(a).

3. [2-4] Let g be a continuous real-valued function on the unit circle $x \in \mathbf{R}^2 : ||x|| = 1$ such that g(0,1) =

g(1,0) = 0 and g(-x) = -g(x). Define $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \|x\| \cdot g\left(\frac{x}{\|x\|}\right) & x \neq 0, \\ 0 & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

(a) If $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined by h(t) = f(tx), show that h is differentiable.

Solution: We need to show that for every $a \in \mathbf{R}$, there exists a $\lambda : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ such that

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \frac{h(a+t) - h(a) - \lambda(t)}{t} = 0. \tag{1}$$

We see that, when $tx \neq 0$,

$$h(t) = f(tx) = \begin{cases} -|t| \cdot ||x|| \cdot g(\hat{x}) = tf(x) & t < 0, \\ |t| \cdot ||x|| \cdot g(\hat{x}) = tf(x) & t > 0. \end{cases}$$

Then h is differentiable when the following limit exists for any $a \in \mathbf{R}$:

$$\lim_{a \to 0} \frac{h(t+a) - h(t)}{a}.$$

But we have,

$$\lim_{a \to 0} \frac{h(t+a) - h(t)}{a} = \lim_{a \to 0} \frac{(t+a)f(x) - tf(x)}{a}$$
$$= f(x).$$

The limit always exists and is equal to the derivative of h at t.

(b) Show that f is not differentiable at (0,0) unless g=0.

Solution:

4. [2-8] Let $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}^2$. Prove that f is differentiable at $a \in \mathbf{R}$ if and only if f_1 and f_2 are, and that in this case

$$f'(a) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1'(a) \\ f_2'(a) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Solution: If $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}^2$ is differentiable at a, then for some linear transformation $\lambda: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}^2$,

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

So, for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |h| < \delta \implies ||f(a+h) - f(a)|| < |h|\varepsilon.$$

But this means that each f_1 and f_2 satisfies $||f_i(a+h) - f_i(a)|| < |h|\varepsilon$. So each f_i is differentiable. The converse follows similarly.

Then,

$$\frac{\|f(a+h) - f(a) - \lambda(h)\|}{|h|} = \left\| \left(\frac{f_1(a+h) - f(a) - \lambda_1(h)}{h} \right) \right\|$$

Taking limits on both sides, we see that each of the component of the right hand side must approach to 0. We also have $f'_i(a) = \lambda_i(h)/|h|$. Hence the required expression for f'(a) follows.

$$|h|f'(a) = \lambda(h) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1(h) \\ \lambda_2(h) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} |h|f_1'(a) \\ |h|f_2'(a) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Theorem 0.4. Corollary from the book

If $f, g: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ are differentiable at a,

$$D(f+g)(a) = Df(a) + Dg(a)$$

$$D(f \cdot g)(a) = g(a)Df(a) + f(a)Dg(a)$$

If, moreover, $g(a) \neq 0$, then

$$D(f/g)(a) = \frac{g(a)Df(a) - f(a)Dg(a)}{[g(a)]^2}$$

Proof. The first one is done in the text. So we'll do the second and the third one. So, using the notations from the text, since $f \cdot g = p \circ (f, g)$,

$$D(f.g)(a) = Dp(f(a), g(a)) \circ D(f, g)(a)$$
$$= Dp(f(a), g(a))(Df(a), Dg(a))$$
$$= g(a)Df(a) + f(a)Dg(a)$$

The third relation follows from the above product rule and 0.5.

Lemma 0.5. If $q: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}, g: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is defined by $q(x) = \frac{1}{q}(x)$, then

$$Dq(a) = -\frac{Dg(a)}{[g(a)]^2}.$$

Proof. We have, $q(x) \cdot g(x) = 1$. Then, D(1) = q(x)Dg(x) + g(x)Dq(x). Substituting q(x) = 1/g(x) gives the required result.

5. [2-12] A function $f: \mathbf{R}^n \times \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}^p$ is **bilinear** if for $x, x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{R}^n$, $y, y_1, y_2 \in \mathbf{R}^m$, and $a \in \mathbf{R}$ we have

$$f(ax, y) = af(x, y) = f(x, ay),$$

$$f(x_1 + x_2, y) = f(x_1, y) + f(x_2, y),$$

$$f(x, y_1 + y_2) = f(x, y_1) + f(x, y_2).$$

(a) Prove that if f is bilinear, then

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|} = 0$$

Solution: Let $h = \alpha_1 e_1 + ... + \alpha_n e_n$ and $k = \beta_1 e_1 + ... + \beta_m e_m$. Since f is bilinear, we can write f(h, k) as

$$f(h,k) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \alpha_i \beta_j f(e_i, e_j).$$

Let $\alpha = \max\{|\alpha_i| : i = 1, ..., n\}$ and $\beta = \max\{|\beta_i| : i = 1, ..., m\}$. Then $\alpha \leq ||h||$ and $\beta \leq ||k||$. Also let $M = \max\{||f(e_i, e_j)|| : i = 1, ..., n \text{ and } j = 1, ..., m\}$. So we have,

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|} \le \lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{|mn\alpha\beta M|}{\|(h,k)\|}$$
$$\le \lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{mnM\|h\|\|k\|}{\|(h,k)\|}$$

Now,

$$||h|||k|| \le \begin{cases} ||h||^2 & \text{if } ||k|| \le ||h||, \\ ||k||^2 & \text{if } ||h|| \le ||k||. \end{cases}$$

Hence $||h|||k|| \le ||h||^2 + ||k||^2$ and since, $||(h,k)|| = \sqrt{||h||^2 + ||k||^2}$ we have

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to 0}\frac{\|f(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|}\leq \lim_{(h,k)\to 0}\frac{mnM(\|h\|^2+\|k\|^2)}{\sqrt{\|h\|^2+\|k\|^2}}=\lim_{(h,k)\to 0}mnM\sqrt{\|h\|^2+\|k\|^2}=0.$$

(b) Prove that Df(a,b)(x,y) = f(a,y) + f(x,b).

Solution: Here, for $a, h \in \mathbf{R}^n$ and $b, k \in \mathbf{R}^m$,

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(a+h,b+k) - f(a,b) - \lambda(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|}$$

$$\leq \lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|} + \lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(a,b) + f(a,k) + f(h,b) - f(a,b) - \lambda(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|}$$

Then certainly, $\lambda(h, k) = f(a, k) + f(h, b)$ implies,

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to 0} \frac{\|f(a+h,b+k) - f(a,b) - \lambda(h,k)\|}{\|(h,k)\|} = 0.$$

Hence, Df(a, b)(x, y) = f(a, y) + f(x, b).

(c) When $p: \mathbf{R}^2 \to \mathbf{R}$ is defined by $p(x, y) = x \cdot y$, then

$$Dp(a,b)(x,y) = bx + ay.$$

Show that the above formula is a special case of b.

Solution: It's clear that p is a bilinear function. Hence the derivative of p at (a, b) is given by,

$$Dp(a,b)(x,y) = p(a,y) + p(x,b)$$
$$= ay + bx.$$

6. [2-13] Define $IP : \mathbf{R}^n \times \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ by $IP(x,y) = \langle x,y \rangle$.

(a) Find D(IP)(a,b) and (IP)'(a,b).

Solution: Since inner product is a bilinear function, we have

$$D(IP)(a,b)(x,y) = IP(a,y) + IP(x,b) = \langle a,y \rangle + \langle x,b \rangle.$$

And since $\langle a, y \rangle + \langle x, b \rangle = a_1 y_1 + ... + a_n y_n + b_1 x_1 + ... + b_n x_n$, we have

$$(IP)'(a,b) = (b_1,...,b_n,a_1,...,a_n) = (b,a).$$

(b) If $f, g: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}^n$ are differentiable and $h: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is defined by $h(t) = \langle f(t), g(t) \rangle$, show that

$$h'(a) = \langle f'(a)^T, g(a) \rangle + \langle f(a), g'(a)^T \rangle.$$

Solution: Here, we can write h as $h = (IP) \circ (f, g)$. Then

$$h'(a) = (IP)'(f(a), g(a)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} f'(a) \\ g'(a) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= (g(a), f(a)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} f'(a) \\ g'(a) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i(a) \cdot f'_i(a) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(a) \cdot g'_i(a)$$
$$= \langle f'(a)^T, g(a) \rangle + \langle f(a), g'(a)^T \rangle.$$

(c) If $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}^n$ is differentiable function and ||f(t)|| = 1 for all t, show that $\langle f'(t)^T, f(t) \rangle = 0$.

Solution: Define $h: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ by $h = \langle f(t), f(t) \rangle$. Then

$$h(t) = ||f(t)||^2 = 1$$

From b, we have

$$h'(t) = 2\langle f'(t)^T, f(t) \rangle.$$

Since h(t) = 1, we have h'(t) = 0 and the required result follows.

(d) Exhibit a differentiable function $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ such that the function ||f|| defined by ||f||(t) = ||f(t)|| is not differentiable.

Solution: f(t) = t is differentiable. ||f||(t) = ||f(t)|| = |t| is not differentiable.

- 7. [2-14] Let $E_i, i = 1, ..., k$ be Euclidean spaces of various dimensions. A function $f: E_1 \times ... \times E_k \to \mathbf{R}^p$ is called **multilinear** if for each choice of $x_j \in E_j, j \neq i$ the function $g: E_i \to \mathbf{R}^p$ defined by $g(x) = f(x_1, ..., x_{i-1}, x, x_{i+1}, ..., x_k)$ is a linear transformation.
 - (a) If f is multilinear and $i \neq j$, show that for $h = (h_1, ..., h_k)$, with $h_l \in E_l$, we have

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|f(a_1, ..., h_i, ..., h_j, ..., a_k)\|}{\|h\|} = 0$$

Solution: Define $g: E_i \times E_j \to \mathbf{R}^p$ by $g(x,y) = f(a_1,...,x,...,y,...a_k)$. Then we see that g is bilinear since

$$\begin{split} g(x_1+x_2,y) &= f(a_1,...,x_1+x_2,...,y,...,a_k) \\ &= f(a_1,...,x_1,...,y,...,a_k) + f(a_1,...,x_2,...,y,...,a_k) \\ &= g(x_1,y) + g(x_2,y) \end{split}$$

and similarly,

$$\begin{split} g(kx,y) &= f(a_1,...,kx,...,y,...,a_k) \\ &= kf(a_1,...,x,...,y,...,a_k) = kg(x,y). \end{split}$$

(b) Prove that

$$Df(a_1,...,a_k)(x_1,...,x_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k f(a_1,...,a_{i-1},x_i,a_{i+1},...,a_k).$$

Solution:

8. [2-24] Define $f: \mathbf{R}^2 \to \mathbf{R}$ by

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

(a) Show that $D_2 f(x,0) = x$ for all x and $D_1 f(0,y) = -y$ for all y.

Solution: Here,

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

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{xh \frac{x^2 - h^2}{x^2 + h^2} - 0}{h}$$

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

$$= x.$$

Similarly, $D_2 f(0, y) = -y$.

(b) Show that $D_{1,2}f(0,0) \neq D_{2,1}f(0,0)$.

Solution: We have,

$$D_{1,2}f(0,0) = D_2(D_1)(f(0,0))$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{D_1(0,h) - D_1(0,0)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{-h}{h} = -1.$$

Similarly, we get $D_{2,1}f(0,0) = 1$.

9. [1-25] Define $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ by

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

Show that f is a C^{∞} function and $f^{(i)}(0) = 0$ for all i.

Solution: We know that,

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

exists and equals $\frac{2}{x^3}e^{x^{-2}}$ when $x \neq 0$. The first derivative is given by

$$f'(x) = \frac{2}{x^3}f(x).$$

The subsequent derivatives $f^n(x)$ can be then found by the quotient rule, which guarantees that there won't be more zeroes in the denominator of the derivatives except x = 0. Hence if the first derivative is continuous at x = 0, the derivatives of all order exist. Now, we'll prove the existence of derivative at x = 0. So when x = 0,

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

Then by L'Hospital rule we have,

$$f'(0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{-1/h^2}{(2/h^3)f(h)} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{-h}{2f(h)} = 0.$$

The derivative clearly exists at x = 0. To show the continuity, we observe that,

$$\lim_{x \to 0} f'(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2}{x^3} e^{-x^{-2}} = 0 = f'(0)$$

follows from the L'Hospital rule.

10. [2-26] Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-(x-1)^{-2}} \cdot e^{-(x+1)^{-2}} & x \in (-1,1), \\ 0 & x \notin (-1,1). \end{cases}$$

(a) Show that $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is a C^{∞} function which is positive on (-1,1) and 0 elsewhere.

Solution:

11. [2-28 d] F(x,y) = f(x,g(x),h(x,y))

Solution: Define the functions k and \bar{q} by

$$k(x,y) = x,$$

$$\bar{g}(x,y) = g(x).$$

Then $F(x,y)=f(k(x,y),\bar{g}(x,y),h(x,y)).$ We also have,

$$D_1 k(x, y) = 1,$$
 $D_2 k(x, y) = 0,$
 $D_1 \bar{g}(x, y) = g'(x),$ $D_2 \bar{g}(x, y) = 0.$

Hence by theorem 2-9, letting a = (x, g(x), h(x, y)),

$$D_1 F(x,y) = D_1 f(a) \cdot D_1 k(x,y) + D_2 f(a) \cdot D_1 \bar{g}(x,y) + D_3 f(a) \cdot D_1 h(x,y)$$

$$= D_1 f(a) + D_2 f(a) \cdot g'(x) + D_3 f(a) \cdot D_1 h(x,y)$$

$$D_2 F(x,y) = D_1 f(a) \cdot D_2 k(x,y) + D_2 f(a) \cdot D_2 \bar{g}(x,y) + D_3 f(a) \cdot D_2 h(x,y)$$

$$= D_3 f(a) \cdot D_2 h(x,y).$$

12. [2-29] Let $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$. For $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$, the limit

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(a+tx) - f(a)}{t},$$

if it exists, is denoted $D_x f(a)$, and is called the **directional** derivarive of f at a, in the direction x.

(a) Show that $D_{e_i}f(a) = D_if(a)$.

Solution: Here,

$$D_{e_i} f(a) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f((a_1, ..., a_i, ..., a_n) + (0, ..., t, ..., 0)) - f(a_1, ..., a_i, ..., a_n)}{t}$$
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(a_1, ..., a_i + t, ..., a_n) - f(a_1, ..., a_i, ..., a_n)}{t} = D_i f(a).$$

(b) Show that $D_{tx}f(a) = tD_xf(a)$.

Solution: Since $th \to 0$ as $h \to 0$, for $t, h \in \mathbf{R}$, we have

$$D_{tx}f(a) = t \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+thx) - f(a)}{th} = tD_x f(a).$$

(c) If f is differentiable at a, show that $D_x f(a) = Df(a)(x)$, and therefore $D_{x+y} f(a) = D_x f(a) + D_y f(a)$.

Solution: Here

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

and if $y \in \mathbf{R}^n$, $ty \to 0$ as $t \to 0$. So for $y \neq 0$,

$$= ||x|| \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(a+ty) - f(a)}{||ty||}$$

$$= \frac{||x||}{||y||} D_y f(a)$$

$$= t \cdot D_{x/t} f(a) = D_x f(a).$$

Since Df(a) is linear, the remaining results immediately follow.

13. [2-30] Let f be defined as in (3). Show that $D_x f(0,0)$ exists for all x, but if $g \neq 0$, then $D_{x+y} f(0,0) = D_x f(0,0) + D_y f(0,0)$ is not true for all x and y.

In the referred exercise: $f: \mathbf{R}^2 \to \mathbf{R}$ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} ||x|| \cdot g\left(\frac{x}{||x||}\right) & x \neq 0, \\ 0 & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

where g is a continuous real-valued function on a unit circle centered at origin in \mathbf{R}^2 such that g(0,1) = g(1,0) = 0 and g(-x) = -g(x).

Solution: For $x \in \mathbf{R}^2$,

$$D_x f(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tx) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{tf(x)}{t} = f(x)$$

exists. But

$$D_{x+y}f(0,0) = f(x+y) = ||x+y|| \cdot g\left(\frac{x+y}{||x+y||}\right)$$

, and in order for the above equation to be equal to

$$D_x f(0,0) + D_y f(0,0) = f(x) + f(y) = ||x|| \cdot g\left(\frac{x}{||x||}\right) + ||y|| \cdot g\left(\frac{y}{||y||}\right).$$

- 14. [2-32]
 - (a) Let $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & x \neq 0, \\ 0 & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Show that f is differentiable at 0 but f' is not continuous at 0.

Solution: At x = 0,

$$Df(0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} h \sin \frac{1}{h} = 0.$$

But,

$$f'(x) = 2x \sin \frac{1}{x} - \cos \frac{1}{x}$$

doesn't exist at x = 0, and hence f' is not continuous.

(b) Let $f: \mathbf{R}^2 \to \mathbf{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} (x^2 + y^2) \sin \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & (x,y) \neq 0, \\ 0 & (x,y) = 0. \end{cases}$$

Show that f is differentiable at (0,0) but $D_i f$ is not continuous at (0,0).

Solution: If $h = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, define $g : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ as g(h) = f(x, y). Then by (a), g(h) = f(x, y) is differentiable at (0, 0) but not continuous at that point.

15. [2-33.5] If $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is defined by $f(x) = x^n$, find Df(x).

Solution: Here

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

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(x+h)^n - x^n}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(x+h-x)((x+h)^{n-1} + x(x+h)^{n-2} + \dots + x^{n-1})}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \left[(x+h)^{n-1} + x(x+h)^{n-2} + \dots + x^{n-1} \right]$$

$$= nx^{n-1}.$$

16. [2-34] A function $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is **homogenous** of degree m if $f(tx) = t^m f(x)$ for all x. If f is also differentiable, show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i D_i f(x) = m f(x).$$

Solution: Let a function $g: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ be defined by $g(t) = f(tx) = t^m f(x)$. Then

$$mt^{m-1}f(x) = g'(t) = f'(tx).$$

So when t=1,

$$mf(x) = g'(1) = f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i D_i f(x).$$

17. [2-36] Let $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ be an open set and $f: A \to \mathbf{R}^n$ a continuously differentiable 1-1 function such that $\det f'(x) \neq 0$ for all x. Show that f(A) is an open set and $f^{-1}: f(A) \to A$ is differentiable. Show also that f(B) is open for any open set in A.

Solution: The inverse function theorem: Suppose $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$ is a continuously differentiable in an open set containing a, and det $f'(a) \neq 0$. Then there is an open set V containing a and an open set W containing f(a) such that $f: V \to W$ has a continuous inverse $f^{-1}: W \to V$ which is differentiable.

Then since $f: A \to \mathbf{R}^n$ is continuously differentiable in the open set A with det $f'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in A$ there exists open sets $V_x \subset A$ for every $x \in A$ with $W_x \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ such that each $f: V_x \to W_x$ has continuous and differentiable inverse $f^{-1}: W_x \to V_x$. We note that $A \subset \bigcup_{x \in A} V_x$ and since each

 $V_x \subset A$, we have $A = \bigcup_{x \in A} V_x$. Also since f is 1-1 and invertible on each W_x , $f(V_x) = W_x$. Hence,

$$f(A) = f\left(\bigcup_{x \in A} V_x\right) = \bigcup_{x \in A} W_x$$

which is open. Similarly

$$f^{-1}(W_x) = V_x = A.$$

And since f^{-1} is continuous, every open subset B of A has an open subset $f(B) \subset f(A)$.

Chapter 3

1. [3-1] Let $f:[0,1]\times[0,1]\to \mathbf{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le \frac{1}{2}, \\ 1 & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le x \le 1. \end{cases}$$

Show that f is integrable and $\int_{[0,1]\times[0,1]}f=\frac{1}{2}.$

Solution: For subrectangles $S_1 = \left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ and $S_2 = \left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]$, $m_{S_1} = M_{S_1} = 0$ and $m_{S_2} = M_{S_2} = 1$. Then $L(f, P) = \sum_{k=1}^{2} m_{S_k} \cdot v(S_k) = 0 \cdot v(S_1) + 1 \cdot v(S_2) = v(S_2)$. Similarly, $U(f, P) = v(S_2)$. And hence, the integration of f on $[0, 1] \times [0, 1] = v(S_2) = 1/2$.

2. Let $f: A \to \mathbf{R}$ be integrable and let g = f except at finitely many points. Show that g is integrable and $\int_A f = \int_A g$.

Solution: Let P be a partition of A such that the function f differs from g at finitely many points contained in the closed subrectangles $S_1, S_2, ..., S_n$ where each subrectangle has a side $\varepsilon > 0$. Then

$$(U(f,P) - L(f,P)) - (U(g,P) - L(g,P))$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (M_f(S_k) - m_f(S_k)) \cdot v(S_k) - \sum_{k=1}^{n} (M_g(S_k) - m_g(S_k)) \cdot v(S_k)$$

since the f and g only differ in S_i . Also, the volume of each S_i is given by some $\varepsilon' > 0$. Since ε' is arbitrary, we see that

$$(U(f,P) - L(f,P)) - (U(g,P) - L(g,P)) < p\varepsilon'$$
or,
$$\int_{A} f - (U(g,P) - L(g,P)) < p\varepsilon'$$

for some $p \in \mathbf{R}$. Also since f is integrable, $(U(g, P) - L(g, P)) < \varepsilon' \cdot \varepsilon''$ for another arbitrary $\varepsilon'' > 0$.

3. [3-8] Prove that $[a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n]$ does not have content 0 if $a_i \leq b_i$ for each i.

Solution: The given rectangle is compact in \mathbb{R}^n . Let $\{U_1, \ldots, U_m\}$ be the finite cover of $[a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n]$ by closed rectangles where we assume that each $U_j \subset [a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n]$. And let P_i be the sequence $t_{i,0}, t_{i,1}, \ldots, t_{i,k}$ where $a_i = t_{i,0} < t_{i,1} < \ldots < t_{i,k} = b_i$. Then the partition $P = (P_1, \ldots, P_n)$ divides the rectangle into k^n subrectangles. If we let $a_i = t_{i,0} < t_{i,1} < \ldots < t_{i,k} = b_i$ be all the corners of all U_j , then each U_j is the union of finite subrectangles in P. And hence, each $v(U_j)$ is the sum of volume of certain subrectangles of the partition. Also since each subrectangle lies in at least one U_j ,

sum of volume of all the closed covers U_i \geq sum of volumes of each subrectangles $=v([a_1,b_1]\times\cdots\times[a_n,b_n])$

4. [3-9]

Show that an unbounded set cannot have content 0.

Give an example of a closed set of measure 0 which does not have content 0.

Solution:

- (a) Unbounded sets cannot have finite cover and hence do not have content 0.
- (b) \mathbb{Z} has measure 0 but not content 0.

5. [3-10]

- (a) If C is a set of content 0, show that the boundary of C has content 0.
- (b) Give an example of a bounded set C of measure 0 such that the boundary of C does not have measure 0.

Solution:

- (a) Let A be the set of content 0. Then for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a finite cover $\{U_1, \ldots, U_n\}$ of A by closed intervals such that $\sum_{i=1}^n v(U_i) < \varepsilon$. Also since $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n U_i$, where each U_i are closed, boundary of A are also contained in the finite union and the same U_i suffices to conclude that the boundary of A has content 0.
- (b) $A = \{x \in [0,1] : x \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ has measure 0. But the boundary of A is all of [0,1] which doesn't have measure 0.
- 6. [3-11] Let A be the set of Problem 1-18. If $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (b_i a_i) < 1$, show that the boundary of A does not have measure 0.
 - [1-18] If $A \subset [0,1]$ is the union of open intervals (a_i,b_i) such that each rational number in [0,1] is contained in some (a_i,b_i) , show that boundary A = [0,1] A.

Solution: Since each (a_i, b_i) contains a rational number, the collection $\mathscr O$ of (a_i, b_i) is countable. Now, assume that the boundary of A doesn't not have measure zero. Then there exists a countable cover of the boundary by closed rectangles U_i such that $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} v(U_i) < \varepsilon$ for every $\varepsilon > 0$ Then there is a countable collection of closed rectangles V_j that cover all of [0,1] such that $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v(V_j) < 1$. But, we know that $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v(V_j)$ should be at least 1-0=1. Hence, we have a contradiction.

7. [3-12] Let $f:[a,b] \to \mathbf{R}$ be an increasing function. Show that $\{x:f \text{ is discontinuous at } x\}$ has measure 0.

Hint: Use Problem 1-30 to show that $\{x: o(f,x) > 1/n\}$ is finite, for each integer n.

Solution: Let $B = \{x : f \text{ is discontinuous at } x\}$. Then we know that

$$\sum_{x \in B} o(f, x) < f(b) - f(a).$$

Let A_n be the set $\{x: o(f,x) > 1/n\}$ for each n. Then for an increasing function

$$f(b) - f(a) > \sum_{x \in A_n} o(f, x) > \sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{n}.$$

However, since f(b) - f(a) is finite (f([a,b])) is bounded and closed), there should be finitely many $x \in A_n$ for each n.

8. [3-13]

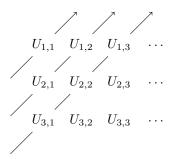
- (a) Show that the collection of all rectangles $[a_1, b_1] \times ... \times [a_n, b_n]$ with all a_i and b_i rational can be arranged in a sequence.
- (b) If $A \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ is any set and \mathscr{O} is an open cover of A, show that there is a sequence U_1, U_2, U_3, \ldots of members of \mathscr{O} which also cover A.

Hint: For each $x \in A$ there is a rectangle $B = [a_1, b_1] \times ... \times [a_n, b_n]$ with all a_i and b_i rational such that $x \in B \subset U$ for some $U \in A$.

Solution:

(a) We will prove this by induction. For base case, we will show that $[a_1, b_1] \times [a_2, b_2]$ is countable if each a_i and b_i are rational.

We know that rational numbers are countable. Let the rational numbers between a_1 and b_1 be arranged in the sequence $a_{1,1}, a_{1,2}, a_{1,3}, \ldots$ Then let each intervals $[a_{1,i}, a_{1,i+1}] \subset [a_1, b_1]$ be denoted V_i . We do the same for $[a_2, b_2]$ to get the sequence of countable intervals W_j . Now let $U_{i,j}$ denote $V_i \times W_j$ for each V_i and W_j . It is clear that each corners of $U_{i,j}$ have rational coordinates. Then we can see that



all the $U_{i,j}$ can be arranged in a sequence.

Now, assuming that we can do the same for $[a_1, b_1] \times ... \times [a_n, b_n]$, we get a sequence of closed rectangles $V_i \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ with each a_i and b_i rational. We can also get the sequence of intervals W_j