

hw 5

Problem A: Let $F : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by

$$F(x, y, z) = (\exp(x^2 + 2y^2), \sin(z^2 - y^2) \cdot (x^2 + 2z^2), (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^9).$$

Explain why F is differentiable, and then prove why $DF(x, y, z)$ always has zero determinant. You may not actually compute any derivatives in your solution.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad F_1(x, y, z) = \exp(x^2 + 2y^2)$$

$$\text{let } g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ and } f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x \mapsto e^x \quad (x, y, z) \mapsto x^2 + 2y^2$$

$$g \text{ is exponential, in } C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) ; f \text{ is polynomial, in } C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3) \\ \text{So } F_1 = g \circ f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3)$$

(note: f is C^r and g is $C^r \Rightarrow g \circ f$ is C^r , by applying chain rule and product rule recursively.)

$$\textcircled{2} \quad F_2(x, y, z) = (\sin(z^2 - y^2)) (x^2 + 2z^2)$$

$$\text{let } g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}), f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3), h: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3) \\ x \mapsto \sin x \text{ (trig)} \quad (x, y, z) \mapsto z^2 - y^2 \text{ (poly)} \quad (x, y, z) \mapsto x^2 + 2z^2 \text{ (poly)}$$

$$\text{So } F_2 = (g \circ f) \cdot h \text{ is } C^\infty$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad F_3(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^9$$

$$\text{let } g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \\ x \mapsto x^9 \text{ (positive power)}, \quad f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3) \\ (x, y, z) \mapsto x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \text{ (poly)}$$

$$\text{So } F_3 = g \circ f \text{ is } C^\infty$$

Thus all entries of the Jacobian matrix of F are in C^∞ , thus F is differentiable.

let $F_1: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} x^2 + 2y^2 \\ x^2 + 2z^2 \\ z^2 - y^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$F_2: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \exp(a) \\ b \sin(c) \\ (\frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}b)^9 \end{pmatrix}$$

note: $\underline{F = F_2 \circ F_1}$

Thus by the chain rule: $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^3, DF(a) = DF_2(F_1(a)) \cdot DF_1(a)$

So $\det(DF(a)) = \det(DF_2(F_1(a))) \det(DF_1(a))$

note that $\forall a = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3, DF_1(a) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x & 4y & 0 \\ 2x & 0 & 4z \\ 0 & -2y & 2z \end{pmatrix}$

where $\text{row}_3 = \frac{1}{2}(\text{row}_2 - \text{row}_1) \Rightarrow \text{linearly dependent} \Rightarrow \underline{\text{row rank} \leq 3}$
 $\Rightarrow \det(DF_1(a)) = 0$

This finishes the proof the $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^3, \det(CDF(a)) = 0$

□

Problem B: Suppose

$$F : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow B \subset \mathbb{R}^m$$

and

$$G : B \subset \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

are both differentiable and are inverses of each other (A, B open). Show that $n = m$ and that, for all pairs $a \in A, b \in B$ with $F(a) = b$

$$DG(b) = DF(a)^{-1}.$$

Pf wLOG suppose $n = m$

Then take arbitrary $x \in A$

Since F, G are differentiable and inverse of each other,

$$\text{we have } GF(x) = x \Rightarrow D(GF)(x) = I_n$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{DG(F(x))DF(x) = I_n \text{ by chain rule}} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

Similarly we have:

$$\forall y \in B, FG(y) = y \Rightarrow D(GF)(y) = I_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{DF(G(y))DG(y) = I_m \text{ by chain rule}}$$

$$\text{By taking } y = F(x) \Rightarrow \underline{DF(x)DG(F(x)) = I_m} \quad \textcircled{2}$$

Claim: if matrix $AB = I_m$ and $BA = I_n$ then we must have $m=n$ and $A=B^{-1}$.

If of claim $AB = I_m \Rightarrow m = \text{rank}(AB) \leq \text{rank}(A) \leq \min\{n, m\}$

$BA = I_n \Rightarrow n = \text{rank}(BA) \leq \text{rank}(B) \leq \min\{m, n\}$

if $m \geq n \Rightarrow$ must have $m \leq n$; if $m \leq n \Rightarrow$ must have $m \geq n$

Therefore $m=n$

By claim, we have $m=n$ and $DF(x)^{-1} = DG(F(x))$

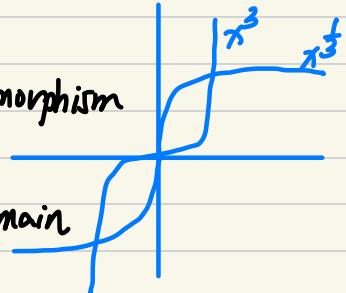
Since x is taken arbitrary, this proves that $\forall a \in A, b \in B$ s.t. $F(a) = b$ we have $DF(a)^{-1} = DG(b)$

□

Problem C: Give an example of a differentiable homeomorphism from \mathbb{R} to itself whose inverse is not differentiable at every point. (For your example, you need to find only a single point where the inverse isn't differentiable.)

ex $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

sending $x \mapsto x^3$ is a differentiable homeomorphism
since it is invertible and differentiable
on the whole domain



its inverse: $f^{-1}: x \mapsto \sqrt[3]{x}$ is not differentiable at $x=0$

Since $\frac{d}{dx} f^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}}$ does not exist at $x=0$

Problem D: Suppose $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at the origin. Show

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h, k) = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} F(h, k),$$

assuming all these limits exit. Give an example where F is not continuous, both double limits exist, but the two double limits are not equal.

Pf By continuity at the origin we have $\lim_{\sqrt{h^2+k^2} \rightarrow 0} F(h, k) = F(0, 0)$

$$\Rightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \sqrt{h^2+k^2} < \delta, |F(h, k) - F(0, 0)| < \varepsilon$$

let $\varphi_1(h) = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h, k)$, $h \in \mathbb{R}$

Claim 1 $\varphi_1(0) = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(0, k) = F(0, 0)$

let $\varepsilon > 0$. By continuity of F at origin,

$$\exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \sqrt{h^2+k^2} < \delta, |F(h, k) - F(0, 0)| < \varepsilon$$

take the same $\delta \Rightarrow |F(0, k) - F(0, 0)| < \varepsilon$ for all $k \in B_\delta(0)$

Thus $\varphi_1(0) = F(0, 0)$

Claim 2

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \varphi_i(h) = \varphi_i(0) = F(0,0)$$

(i.e. φ_i is continuous at $h=0$)

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. By continuity of F at origin,

$$\text{take } \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall \sqrt{h^2+k^2} < \delta, |F(h,k) - F(0,0)| < \varepsilon \quad \text{①}$$

WTS: $\exists \delta_2 > 0$ st. $|\varphi_i(h) - \varphi_i(0)| < \varepsilon$ for all $|h| < \delta_2$

consider $\delta_2 = \frac{\delta}{\sqrt{2}}$. Let $|h| < \delta_2$

$$\Rightarrow |\varphi_i(h) - \varphi_i(0)| = \left| \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h, k) - F(0,0) \right| < \varepsilon$$

Since $\forall |k| < \delta_2$, we always have $\sqrt{h^2+k^2} < \delta$

$$\text{thus } F(h,k) \in B_\varepsilon(F(0,0)) \Rightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h,k) \in B_\varepsilon(F(0,0))$$

(since the limit exists,
it is bounded by all
values of $F(h,k)$ near $(0,0)$)

$$\Rightarrow \left| \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h,k) - F(0,0) \right| < \varepsilon$$

that is, $|\varphi_i(h) - \varphi_i(0)| < \varepsilon$

This proves that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \varphi_i(h) = \varphi_i(0)$

$$\text{i.e. } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h,k) = F(0,0)$$

By taking $\varphi_2(k) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} F(h,k)$, $k \in \mathbb{R}$

we can dually prove that $\varphi_2(0) = F(0,0)$

$$\text{and } \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \varphi_2(k) = \varphi_2(0)$$

$$\text{thus } \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} F(h,k) = F(0,0)$$

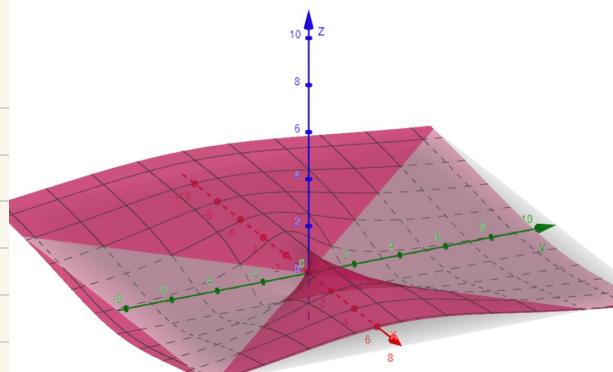
This finishes the proof that $\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} F(h,k) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h,k)$

counterexample when f is not continuous:

$$F(h,k) = \begin{cases} \frac{h^2-k^2}{h^2+k^2}, & (h,k) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & (h,k) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h, k) = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} F(h, k) = \frac{-1}{1} = -1$$



Just for fun (don't hand in): Give an example where $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at the origin but $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} F(h, k)$ does not exist.

Just for fun (don't hand in): Also note that for $a_{n,m} = 2^{n-m}$ it is not true that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} a_{n,m} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n,m}.$$

Problem E: If F is a function of 4 variables, how many terms (in general) are in the degree 10 Taylor series of F ? (Degree 10 means you use multi-indices α of degree at most 10.) You do not need to show your work; just give the final answer.

$$\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4)$$

$$|\alpha| \leq 10$$

$$\{\alpha \text{ feasible}\} = \binom{10+4-1}{4-1} = \underline{286}$$

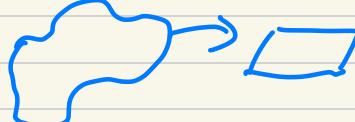
$$0 \mid 00 \dots / 0000 \quad \frac{11 \times 12 \times 13}{3!}$$

Problem F: Suppose that $F : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable with A open and connected and $Df(a) = 0$ for all $a \in A$. Show that F is constant.

Claim 1 for all $a \in A$, f is locally constant on A

$(\exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } f|_{B_\varepsilon(a)} \text{ is const.})$

Pf of claim 1



Let $a \in A$. Take $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $B_\varepsilon(a) \subseteq A$ (by openness)

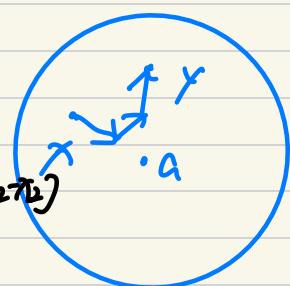
Let $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} \in B_\varepsilon(a)$.

Let $s_0 = x, \varphi_0: t \mapsto F(s_0 + te_1), t \in [0, y_1 - x_1]$

$s_1 = x + (y_1 - x_1), \varphi_1: t \mapsto F(s_1 + te_2), t \in [0, y_2 - x_2]$

\vdots

$s_n = x + (y_1 - x_1) + (y_2 - x_2) + \dots + (y_n - x_n) = y$



Since for all points $c \in A$ all entries of $Df(c)$ are 0,
every partial is constant 0 (thus continuous) on A

Note: For each $\varphi_i, 0 \leq i \leq n-1$, we have $\varphi'_i(t) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_i}(s_i + te_{i+1}) = 0$

for all $t \in [0, y_{i+1} - x_{i+1}]$

$\Rightarrow \forall i=1, \dots, n-1, F(x_i) - F(x_{i+1}) = (y_i - x_i) \varphi'_{i+1}(t) = 0$ by MVT

$$\text{Thus } F(y) - F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n (F(x_i) - F(x_{i+1})) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow F(y) = F(x)$$

Since x, y are arbitrary, we have proved that $\forall x, y \in B_\epsilon(a), F(x) = F(y)$

Therefore F is locally constant around a.

Claim 2 $S = \{x : F(x) = F(a)\}$ is both closed and open in A

Pf of Claim 2

S is open since $(\forall a \in S, \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } B_\epsilon(a) \subseteq S)$ proved in claim 1

Let (a_n) be a sequence in S s.t. $a_n \rightarrow x$ for some $x \in A$

Since F is ditible thus ctn, $F(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(a_n) = F(a) \Rightarrow x \in S$

Thus S is closed

The fact that A is connected implies that the only set both open and closed in A is A itself.

$$\Rightarrow S = A.$$

$\Rightarrow \forall x \in A, F(x) = F(a)$, which shows that F is constant.

□

Problem G: Let $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^k . Show that

$$\partial^k(f_1 \cdots f_m) = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \partial^{\alpha_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\alpha_m} f_m.$$

Pf We prove by induction on $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Base case: } k=1, \partial(f_1 \cdots f_m) &= \partial(f_1 \cdot (f_2 \cdots f_m)) \\ &= (f_2 \cdots f_m) \partial f_1 + f_1 \partial(f_2 \cdots f_m) \text{ by product rule} \\ &= (f_2 \cdots f_m) \partial f_1 + (f_1 f_3 \cdots f_m) \partial f_2 + f_1 f_2 \partial(f_3 \cdots f_m) \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \partial f_i \prod_{j \neq i} f_j \right) + \left(\prod_{i=1}^k f_i \right) \left(\partial \prod_{i=k+1}^m f_i \right) \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^m \left(\partial f_i \prod_{j \neq i} f_j \right)}_{= \sum_{|\alpha|=1} \frac{1!}{\alpha!} \partial^{\alpha_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\alpha_m} f_m}, \text{ statement holds true} \end{aligned}$$

Inductive step: Suppose the equality holds for $1, 2, \dots, k$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \partial^{k+1}(f_1 f_2 \cdots f_m) &= \partial(\partial^k(f_1 f_2 \cdots f_m)) \\ &= \partial \left(\sum_{|\alpha|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \partial^{\alpha_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\alpha_m} f_m \right) \\ &= \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \underbrace{\partial(\partial^{\alpha_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\alpha_m} f_m)}_{= \sum_{|\beta|=1} \partial^{\beta_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\beta_m} f_m} \\ &= \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \sum_{|\beta|=1} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \left(\partial^{\beta_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\beta_m} f_m \right) \\ &= \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \partial^{\alpha_1} f_1 \cdots \partial^{\alpha_{i-1}} f_{i-1} \partial^{\alpha_{i+1}+1} f_i \cdots \partial^{\alpha_m} f_m \right) \end{aligned}$$

every term correspond to a multi-index β s.t.
for some $j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$, $\beta_i = \alpha_i + 1$ while for $i \neq j$, $\beta_i = \alpha_i$

So each β has $|\beta| = k+1$

$$\text{Thus } \partial^{k+1}(f_1 \dots f_m) = \sum_{|\beta|=k+1} (\text{coeff}) \partial^{\beta_1} f_1 \dots \partial^{\beta_m} f_m$$

$$\text{The (coeff)} = \sum_i \underbrace{\text{coeff of } \left(\partial^{\beta_1} f_1 \dots \partial^{\beta_{i-1}} f_i \dots \partial^{\beta_m} f_m \right)}_{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{k!}{\beta_1! \dots (\beta_i-1)! \dots \beta_m!}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{k! \beta_i}{\beta_i!} = \frac{k!(k+1)}{\beta!} = \frac{(k+1)!}{\beta!}$$

Therefore the expression simplifies to:

$$\partial^{k+1} \left(\prod_{i=1}^m f_i \right) = \sum_{|\beta|=k+1} \left(\frac{(k+1)!}{\beta!} \prod_{i=1}^m \partial^{\beta_i} f_i \right)$$

This finishes the proof by induction. \square

Problem H: Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be in C^{k+1} . Show that the Taylor polynomial of degree k centered at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the best polynomial approximation of $f(x)$ near x_0 in the following sense: Suppose that $P(x)$ is a polynomial of degree k . Then

$$P(x) - f(x) = o(|x - x_0|^k)$$

if and only if P is the Taylor polynomial of degree k centered at x_0 . (Recall that a quantity Q is $o(|x - x_0|^k)$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{Q}{|x - x_0|^k} = 0$.)

Pf Backward direction

let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be in C^{k+1}

let $T_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the Taylor polynomial of degree k centered at x_0

$$\text{i.e. } T_k(x) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \frac{\partial^\alpha f(x_0)}{\alpha!} (x - x_0)^\alpha, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Then by Taylor's Theorem we have

$$T_k(x) - f(x) = R_{x_0, k}(x) = \sum_{|\alpha|=k+1} \frac{\partial^\alpha f}{\alpha!}(c) (x-x_0)^\alpha$$

for some c on the line segment connecting x, x_0 .

Note that $(\alpha | |\alpha| = k+1)$ is finite, $\frac{\partial^\alpha f}{\alpha!}(c)$ is constant for all α .

It suffices to show that $T_k(x) - f(x)$ is $O(\|x-x_0\|^k)$ by showing that for any α s.t. $|\alpha|=k+1$,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{(x-x_0)^\alpha}{\|x-x_0\|^k} = 0, \text{ i.e. } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^\alpha}{\|x\|^k} = 0$$

Note: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x^\alpha = x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2} \dots x_n^{d_n} = |x_1|^{d_1} \dots |x_n|^{d_n} \leq \|x\|^{d_1 + \dots + d_n} = \|x\|^{k+1}$

$$\text{So } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^\alpha}{\|x\|^k} \leq \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \|x\|}_{} = 0 \quad \square$$

Forward Direction

Let $P(x)$ be a polynomial of degree k that is not T_k

$f(x) - P(x) = C_1 x^{\alpha^{(1)}} + \dots + C_m x^{\alpha^{(m)}}$ for some constants C_1, \dots, C_m and multi-index $\alpha^{(1)}, \dots, \alpha^{(m)}$ s.t. $|\alpha^{(i)}| \leq k$ for each i

$$\text{WTS: } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{C_1 x^{\alpha^{(1)}} + \dots + C_m x^{\alpha^{(m)}}}{\|x\|^k} \neq 0$$

Case 1 $\sum_{i=1}^m C_i \neq 0$

Consider the sequence $(t_n = \frac{1}{n})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in \mathbb{R}

for each t_n , let $x_n = (t_n, t_n, \dots, t_n)$

Then $(x_n) \rightarrow 0$ in \mathbb{R}^n

$$\text{Hence } \sum_{i=1}^m C_i x_n^{\alpha^{(i)}} = \sum_{i=1}^m C_i t_n^{\alpha^{(i)}} = t_n^k \sum_{i=1}^m C_i$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{C_1 x_n^{\alpha^{(1)}} + \dots + C_m x_n^{\alpha^{(m)}}}{\|x_n\|^k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m C_i t_n^{\alpha^{(i)}}}{\sqrt{d} t_n^k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m C_i}{\sqrt{d}} \text{ is constant while } n \rightarrow \infty$$

This suffices to show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{C_1 x^{\alpha^{(1)}} + \dots + C_m x^{\alpha^{(m)}}}{\|x\|^k} \neq 0$

Case 2 $\sum_{i=1}^m C_i = 0$

$\exists k \in$

Try another way to prove the forward direction:

Claim a polynomial homogeneous of degree k in \mathbb{R}^d is not $O(|x|^k)$
(by homogeneous of degree k we mean:
 $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^d, P(tx) = t^k P(x)$)

Let $P(x)$ be a polynomial homogeneous of degree k in \mathbb{R}^d

let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $(t_n = \frac{1}{n})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{R}

so $((t_n x_0, \dots, t_n x_0))_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \rightarrow 0$ in \mathbb{R}^d

Denote each term of this seq as x_n

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P(x_n)}{|x_n|^k} = \frac{t_n^k P(x_0)}{t_n^k |x_0|^k} = \frac{P(x_0)}{|x_0|^k} \text{ is const.}$$

This implies that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P(x_n)}{|x_n|^k} \neq 0$

Note that a polynomial of degree k is a homogeneous of degree k .

Problem I: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function, and define $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $F(x, y) = f(x^2 + y^2)$, so F is differentiable.

(1) Prove

$$x \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = y \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}.$$

(2) Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable. Define $\phi : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ via

$$\phi(x, y, z) = (f(h(x), g(x, y), z), g(y, z)).$$

Find a formula for the matrix of the derivative $D\phi(p) : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ at an arbitrary point $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$ in terms of the partial derivatives of f , g , and h at p .

(3) In (ii), compute $D\phi(1, 1, 1)$ when $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + yz$, $g(x, y) = y^3 + xy$, and $h(x) = e^x$. Do this in two ways: using your general formula in (ii) and also by explicitly computing ϕ in this case and directly computing the Jacobian matrix from this.

(1) Pf let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = 2x Df(x^2 + y^2) \text{ by chain rule}$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = 2y Df(x^2 + y^2) \text{ by chain rule}$$

$$\Rightarrow y \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = x \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = 2xy Df(x^2 + y^2)$$

(2) $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\text{let } \varphi_m : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4 \text{ map } \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} h(x) \\ g(xy) \\ z \\ g(yz) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^3 & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & \mathbb{R} \\ \downarrow \varphi_m & & \uparrow \varphi_n \\ \mathbb{R}^4 & & \end{array}$$

$$\varphi_n : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ map } \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} f(a, b, c) \\ d \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $\varphi = \varphi_n \circ \varphi_m$

$$\varphi: p = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\varphi_m} \begin{pmatrix} a = h(x) \\ b = g(x, y) \\ c = z \\ d = g(y, z) \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\varphi_n} \begin{pmatrix} f(a, b, c) \\ d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow D\varphi(p) = D\varphi_n(\varphi_m(p)) D\varphi_m(p) \text{ by chain rule.}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} h(p_1) & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} g(p_1, p_2, p_3) & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3} g(p_1, p_2, p_3) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h'(p_1) & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}(p_1, p_2) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_2}(p_1, p_2) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}(p_2, p_3) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_2}(p_2, p_3) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(3) \quad p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2, \quad g(x, y) = y^3 + xy, \quad h(x) = e^x$$

$$h(p_1) = e, \quad g(p_1, p_2) = 2, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x, y, z) = 2x, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(x, y, z) = 2y, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3}(x, y, z) = y$$

$$h'(x) = e^x, \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}(x, y) = y, \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_2}(x, y) = 3y^2 + x$$

By the formula in (2),

$$D\varphi(1, 1, 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 2e & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2e^2 + 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Compute directly:

$$\varphi(x, y, z) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{2x} + 2(y^3 + xy) \\ y^3 + yz \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D\varphi(1, 1, 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x^1 e^{2x^1} + 1 \cdot 2 & 3y^2 + 1 \cdot 1 & 1^3 + 1 \cdot 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \cdot 1 + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2e^2 + 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

same result. ;)

Problem J: Problem 2(a) on page 63 of the text.

Problem $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ $g: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} e^{2x_1+x_2} \\ 3x_2 - \cos x_1 \\ x_1^2 + x_2 + 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 3y_1 + 2y_2 + y_3^2 \\ y_1^2 - y_3 + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$F(x) = g \circ f(x). \text{ Find } DF(0)$$

Sol $DF(0) = Dg(f(0)) Df(0)$ by chain rule

$$Df = \begin{pmatrix} 2e^{2x_1+x_2} & e^{2x_1+x_2} \\ \sin x_1 & 3 \\ 2x_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad Dg = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 2y_3 \\ 2y_1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(0) = \begin{pmatrix} e^0 = 1 \\ 0 - \cos 0 = -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow DF(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 13 \\ 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem K: Find the 3rd order Taylor series of $F(x, y) = e^{x+y^2}$ about the origin.

$(F(x, y) = e^{x+y^2} \text{ is in } C^\infty \text{ so we can do this})$

$$T_3(x, y) = \sum_{|\alpha| \leq 3} \frac{\partial^\alpha f(0)}{\alpha!} (x, y)^\alpha$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f = 2ye^{\pi+2y}$$

$$\text{possible } \alpha : |\alpha|=0 : (0, 0) \Rightarrow f(0, 0) = e^0 = 1$$

$$|\alpha|=1 : (0, 1), (1, 0) \Rightarrow \partial^{(0,1)} f(0, 0) = 2ye^{\pi+2y} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 0$$

$$\partial^{(1,0)} f(0, 0) = e^{\pi+2y} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 1$$

$$|\alpha|=2 : (0, 2), (2, 0), (1, 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \partial^{(0,2)} f(0, 0) = 2e^{\pi+2y^2} + 4y^2 e^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 2$$

$$\partial^{(2,0)} f(0, 0) = e^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 1$$

$$\partial^{(1,1)} f(0, 0) = 2ye^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 0$$

$$|\alpha|=3 : (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0), (0, 3)$$

$$\Rightarrow \partial^{(0,3)} f(0, 0) = 2e^{\pi+2y^2} + 4y^2 e^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 2$$

$$\partial^{(2,1)} f(0, 0) = 2ye^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 0$$

$$\partial^{(3,0)} f(0, 0) = e^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 1$$

$$\partial^{(1,2)} f(0, 0) = 4ye^{\pi+2y^2} + 8y^2 e^{\pi+2y^2} + 8y^3 e^{\pi+2y^2} \Big|_{(0,0)} = 0$$

Thus $\underline{T_3(x, y) = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + y^2 + xy^2 + \frac{\pi}{6}x^3}$

Bonus: A real symmetric n by n matrix A is called positive definite if $x^T Ax > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- (1) Show that a real symmetric matrix is positive definite if and only if it is invertible and, for all non-zero x , the angle between Ax and x is less than 90 degrees.
- (2) Show that a real symmetric matrix is positive definite if and only if all its eigenvalues are positive.
- (3) Let A_d be the top left d by d minor of A . Show that if A is positive definite, so is each A_d , $1 \leq d \leq n$.
- (4) Prove that A is positive definite if and only if $\det(A_d) > 0$ for all $1 \leq d \leq n$.

You may use without proof that a real symmetric matrix has an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors. A hint for the last part is available on the office door, but as always try it without first!

(1) Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be positive definite

Suppose A is not invertible $\Rightarrow \exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $Ax = 0$
 Thus A is invertible. $\Rightarrow x^T Ax = 0$, contradicts

let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, θ be the angle between Ax and x

$$\Rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{x \cdot Ax}{\|x\| \|Ax\|} = \frac{x^T Ax}{\|x\| \|Ax\|} > 0 \Rightarrow \theta \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$$

Then we prove the backward direction.

let A be invertible with $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

angle between Ax and x $\theta \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$

$$\text{let } x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \text{ we have } \frac{x \cdot Ax}{\|x\| \|Ax\|} = \frac{x^T Ax}{\|x\| \|Ax\|} > 0 \Rightarrow x^T Ax > 0$$

This proves the iff statement

(2) Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive definite

let λ be an eigenvalue of A .

$$\Rightarrow \text{for some } \pi \in \mathbb{R}^n, A\pi = \lambda\pi \Rightarrow \pi^T A \pi = \lambda \pi^T \pi = \lambda \|\pi\|^2 > 0 \Rightarrow \lambda > 0$$

This proves the forward direction.

For the backward direction:

Suppose all eigenvalues of A are positive.

Since A is real symmetric it has an orthonormal eigenvectors $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$

So for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i b_i$ for some $c_1, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow x^T A x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i c_i^2 \geq 0 \text{ since each } \lambda_i > 0$$

This proves the proof. \square

(3) Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive definite.

let $1 \leq d \leq n$, $\tilde{\pi} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Take $\tilde{x} = (\underbrace{\tilde{\pi}, 0, 0, \dots, 0}_{n-d}) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

By A being positive definite, we have $\tilde{x}^T A \tilde{x} > 0$

$$\text{Note that } \tilde{\pi}^T A \tilde{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\pi}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\pi}_d \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \text{row}(A)_1 \cdot \tilde{\pi} \\ \vdots \\ \text{row}(A)_d \cdot \tilde{\pi} \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^d \tilde{\pi}_i (\text{row}(A)_i \cdot \tilde{\pi}) = \sum_{i=1}^d \tilde{\pi}_i (\text{row}(A_d)_i \cdot \tilde{\pi}) = \tilde{\pi}^T A_d \tilde{\pi} > 0$$

Therefore A_d is positive definite, $1 \leq d \leq n$. \square

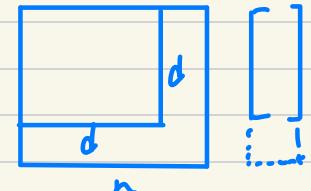
(4) Pf

Forward direction:

Suppose A is positive definite $\Rightarrow \forall 1 \leq d \leq n$, A_d is positive definite.

By (2), each A_d has its all eigenvalues positive

So $\det(A_d) = \prod \lambda_{di} > 0$.



Backward direction:

$$a_{ij} = \mathbf{w}_i \cdot \mathbf{w}_j^T$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n l_{ij} b_{jj}$$

$$a_{ij} = \sum_{x=1}^n l_{xi} b_{xj}$$

$$\underbrace{\sqrt{a_{11}}}_{r_1 \cdot r_1}$$

$$\begin{matrix} r_1 \cdot r_2 & r_1 \cdot r_3 \\ r_2 \cdot r_2 & r_2 \cdot r_3 \\ \sim r_3 \end{matrix}$$

$$a_{11} = b_{11}^2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$a_{21} = b_{21} b_{11} + b_{22} b_{21}$$

$$l_{21}(l_{11} + l_{22})$$

$$a_{31} = b_{31} b_{11} + b_{32} b_{21}$$