# Analysis - PMA 16 -

KYB

Thrn, it's a Fact mathrnfact@gmail.com

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# Overview

Funtions of Several Variables Linear Transformations Differentiation

#### **Definition**

- (a) A nonempty set  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space if  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in X$  and  $c\mathbf{x} \in X$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in X$  and for all scalars c.
- (b) If  $\mathbf{x_1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c_1, \dots, c_k$  are scalars, the vector

$$c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \cdots + c_k\mathbf{x}_k$$

is called a *linear combination of*  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k$ . If  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and if E is the set of all linear combinations of elements of S, we say S spans E, or that E is the span of S.

- (c) A set consisting of vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k$  is said to be *independent* if the relation  $c_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + c_k\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{0}$  implies that  $c_1 = \dots = c_k = 0$ . Otherwise  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  is said to be *dependent*.
- (d) If a vector space X contains an indepedent set of r vectors but contains no independent set of r+1 vectors, we say that X has dimension r, and write  $\dim X = r$ .
- (e) An independent subset of a vector space X which spans X is called a *basis* of X.

#### Observe

- Every span is a vector space.
- ▶ The set  $\{0\}$  is a vector space and its dimension is 0.
- ▶ If  $B = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  is a basis of X, then every  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  has a unique representation of the form  $\mathbf{x} = \sum c_j \mathbf{x}_j$ . Such a representation exists since B spans X, and it is unique since B is independent. The numbers  $c_1, \dots, c_k$  are called the *coordinates of*  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to the basis B.
- ▶ The most familar example of a basis is the set  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ . If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , then  $\mathbf{x} = \sum x_i e_i$ .

## Theorem

Let r be a positive integer. If a vector space X is spanned by a set of r vectors, then  $\dim X \leq r$ .

# Corollary

 $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$ .

#### **Theorem**

Suppose X is a vector space, and  $\dim X = n$ .

- (a) A set E of n vectors in X spans X if and only if E is independent.
- (b) X has a basis, and every basis consists of n vectors.
- (c) If  $1 \le r \le n$  and  $\{y_1, \dots, y_r\}$  is an independet set in X, then X has a basis containing  $\{y_1, \dots, y_r\}$ .

## Definition

A mapping A of vector space X into a vector space Y is said to be a linear transformation if

$$A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2, \quad A(c\mathbf{x}) = cA\mathbf{x}.$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  and for all scalars c.

## Observe

- $ightharpoonup A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$  if A is linear.
- $\blacktriangleright$  Any linear transformation A of X into Y is completely determined by its action on any basis.

- $\blacktriangleright$  If A is a linear operator on X which (i) ono-to-one and (ii) maps X onto X, we say that A is invertible.
- In this case, we can define an operaor  $A^{-1}$  on X by requiring that  $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ .

#### **Theorem**

A linear operator A on a finite-dimensional vector space X is one-to-one if and only if the range of A is all of X.

#### **Definition**

(a) Let L(X,Y) be the et of all linear transformations of the vector space X into the vector space Y. If X=Y, simply write L(X). If  $A_1,A_2\in L(X,Y)$  and  $c_1,c_2$  are scalars,  $c_1A_1+c_2A_2$  by

$$(c_1A_1 + c_2A_2)\mathbf{x} = c_1A_1\mathbf{x} + c_2A_2\mathbf{x}.$$

Then  $c_1A_1 + c_2A_2 \in L(X,Y)$  (so L(X,Y) is also vector space.)

(b) If X,Y,Z are vector spaces, and if  $A \in L(X,Y)$  and  $B \in L(Y,Z)$ , we define their *product* BA to be the somposition of A and B:

$$(BA)\mathbf{x} = B(A\mathbf{x}).$$

Then  $BA \in L(X, Z)$ .

(c) For  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ , define the *norm* ||A|| of A to be the sup of all numbers  $|A\mathbf{x}|$ , where  $\mathbf{x}$  ranges over all vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$ .

#### Remark

- $|A\mathbf{x}| \leq ||A|||\mathbf{x}|$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- ▶ If  $\lambda$  such that  $|A\mathbf{x}| \leq \lambda |\mathbf{x}|$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $||A|| \leq \lambda$ .

#### **Theorem**

- (a) If  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ , then  $||A|| < \infty$  and A is uniformly continuous mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .
- (b) If  $A, B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  and c is scalar, then

$$||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||, \quad ||cA|| = |c|||A||.$$

With the distance between A and B defined as ||A - B||,  $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  is a metric space.

(c) If  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$  and  $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^k)$ , then

$$||BA|| \le ||B|| ||A||.$$

#### **Theorem**

Let  $\Omega$  be the set of all invertible linear operators on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(a) If  $A \in \Omega$ ,  $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , and

$$||B - A|| \cdot ||A^{-1}|| < 1,$$

then  $B \in \Omega$ .

(b)  $\Omega$  is an open subset of  $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , and the mapping  $A \to A^{-1}$  is conitnuous on  $\Omega$ .

#### Matrices

Suppose  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_m\}$  are bases of vector spaces X and Y, respectively. Then every  $A \in L(X,Y)$  determines a set of numbers  $a_{ij}$  such that

$$A\mathbf{x}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}\mathbf{y}_i.$$

It is conveinent to visualize these numbers in a rectangle array of m rows and n columns, called an m by n matrix:

$$[A] = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Matrices

If  $\mathbf{x} = \sum c_j \mathbf{x}_j$ , then

$$A\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} c_j \right) \mathbf{y}_i.$$

Thus the coordinated of  $A\mathbf{x}$  are  $\sum_{i} a_{ij}c_{j}$ .

Now, suppose that an m by n matrix is given, with real entries  $a_{ij}$ . If A is defined by  $A\mathbf{x}_j = \sum_i a_{ij}\mathbf{y}_i$ , then  $A \in L(X,Y)$ . Thus there is a natural 1-1 correspondence between L(X,Y) and the set of all m by n matrices.

### Matrices

If Z is a third vector space, with basis  $\{\mathbf{z}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{z}_p\}$ , and if

$$B\mathbf{y}_i = \sum_k b_{ki}\mathbf{z}_k, \quad (BA)\mathbf{x}_j = \sum_k c_{kj}\mathbf{z}_k,$$

then  $A \in L(X,Y)$ ,  $B \in L(Y,Z)$ ,  $BA \in L(X,Z)$ , and since

$$B(A\mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{k} \left( \sum_{i} b_{ki} a_{ij} \right) \mathbf{z}_k,$$

the independence of  $\{\mathbf{z}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{z}_p\}$  implies that

$$c_{kj} = \sum_{i} b_{ki} a_{ij}.$$

This gives the rule of product of two matrices A and B.

#### Matrices

Finally, suppose  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_m\}$  are standard bases of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and A is given  $A\mathbf{x} = \sum_i (\sum_j a_{ij} c_j) \mathbf{y}_i$ . The Schwarz inequality shows that

$$|A\mathbf{x}|^2 = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{ij}^2 |\mathbf{x}|^2.$$

Thus

$$||A|| \le \left(\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{ij}^2\right)^{1/2}.$$

## Remark

If S is a metric space, if  $a_{11}, \dots, a_{mn}$  are real continuous functions on S, and if, for each  $p \in S$ ,  $A_p$  is the linear transformation of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  whose matrix has entries  $a_{ij}(p)$ , then the mapping  $p \to A_p$  is a continuous mapping of S into  $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ .

## Ex 9.1

If S is a nonempty subset of a vector space X, prove that the span of S is a vector space.

## Ex 9.2

Prove that BA is linear if A and B are linear transformations. Prove also that  $A^{-1}$  is linear and invertible.

Ex 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.

## Ex 9.4

Prove that null spaces and ranges of linear transformations are vector spaces.

Ex 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  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}|$ .

#### **Preliminaries**

If f is a real function with domain  $(a,b) \subset \mathbb{R}$  and if  $x \in (a,b)$ , then f'(x) is usually defined to be the real number

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

provided that this limits exists. Thus

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = f'(x)h + r(h)$$

where the remainder r(h) is small, in the sense that

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{r(h)}{h} = 0.$$

### **Preliminaries**

Consider a function  $\mathbf{f}$  that maps  $(a,b) \subset \mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . In that case,  $\mathbf{f}'(x)$  was defined to be that vector  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  for which

$$\lim_{h\to 0} \left( \frac{\mathbf{f}'(x+h) - \mathbf{f}(x)}{h} - \mathbf{y} \right) = \mathbf{0}.$$

We can again rewrite this in the form

$$\mathbf{f}(x+h) - \mathbf{f}(x) = h\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{r}(h),$$

where  $\mathbf{r}(h)/h \to \mathbf{0}$  as  $h \to 0$ .

If  $\mathbf{f}$  is a differentialbe mapping of  $(a,b) \subset \mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and if  $x \in (a,b)$ , then  $\mathbf{f}'(x)$  is the linear transformation of  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  that satisfies

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

### Definition

Suppose E is an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  maps E into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ . If there exists a linear transformation A of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  such that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to\mathbf{0}}\frac{|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h})-\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})-A\mathbf{h}|}{|\mathbf{h}|}=0,$$

then we say that f is differentiable at x, and write

$$\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = A.$$

If f is differentiable at every  $x \in E$ , we say that f is differentiable in E.

#### Theorem

Suppose E is an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  maps E into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , and  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}$  with  $A = A_1$  and with  $A = A_2$ . Then  $A_1 = A_2$ .

#### Remark

(a) If f is differentiable at x,

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{h})$$

where

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h} \to \mathbf{0}} \frac{|\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{h})|}{|\mathbf{h}|}$$

- (b) Suppose f is differentiable in E. Then for every  $x \in E$ , f'(x) is a function: f' maps E into  $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ .
- (c) f is continuous at any point at which f is differentiable.
- (d) The derivative f' is often called the *differential* of f at x, or the *total derivative* of f at x.

Example

If 
$$A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$$
 and if  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$A'(\mathbf{x}) = A.$$

# Theorem (The Chain Rule)

Suppose E is an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  maps E into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E$ ,  $\mathbf{g}$  maps an open set containing  $\mathbf{f}(E)$  into  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , and  $\mathbf{g}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ . Then the mapping  $\mathbf{F}$  of E into  $\mathbb{R}^k$  defined by

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))$$

is differentiable at  $x_0$ , and

$$\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0).$$

#### Partial Derivatives

Consider a function  $\mathbf{f}: E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  and  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$  be the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . The components of  $\mathbf{f}$  are the real functions  $f_1, \cdots, f_m$  defined by

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{u}_j,$$

or, equivalently, by  $f_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}_i$ .

For  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , we define

$$(D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f_i(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{e}_j) - f_i(\mathbf{x})}{t},$$

provided the limit exists. Writing  $f_i(x_1, \cdots, x_n)$  in place of  $f_i(\mathbf{x})$ , we see that  $D_j f_i$  is the derivative of  $f_i$  with respect to  $x_j$ , keeping the other variables fixed. The notation  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$  is often used in place of  $D_j f_i$ , and it is called a *partial derivative*.

#### **Theorem**

Suppose f maps an open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and f is differentiable at a point  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ . Then the partial derivatives  $(D_i f_i)(\mathbf{x})$  exists, and

$$\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_j = \sum_{i=1}^m (D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{u}_i.$$

#### Remark

Let  $[\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})]$  be the matrix that represents  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})$  with respect to our standard bases. Then  $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_j$  is the jth column vector of  $[\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})]$ , and

$$[\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})] = \begin{bmatrix} (D_1 f_1)(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & (D_n f_1)(\mathbf{x}) \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ (D_1 f_m)(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & (D_n f_m)(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

# Example

Let  $\gamma$  be a differentiable mapping of the segment  $(a,b) \subset \mathbb{R}$  into an open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let f be a real-valued differentiable function with domain E. Thus f is differentiable mapping of E into  $\mathbb{R}$ . Define

$$g(t) = f(\gamma(t)).$$

The chain rule asserts then that

$$g'(t) = f'(\gamma(t))\gamma'(t).$$

Then g'(t) can be regarded as a real number.

$$g'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_i f)(\gamma(t)) \gamma_i'(t).$$

# Example

Associate with each  $x \in E$  a vector, the so-called "gradient" of f at x, defined by

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

Since 
$$\gamma'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma'_i(t) \mathbf{e}_i$$
,

$$g'(t) = (\nabla f)(\gamma(t)) \cdot \gamma'(t).$$

# Example

Let us now fix an  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , let  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be a unit vector, and specialize  $\gamma$  so that  $\gamma(t) = \mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{u}$  for  $-\infty < t < \infty$ . Then  $\gamma'(t) = \mathbf{u}$  for every t. Hence

$$g'(0) = (\nabla f)(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}.$$

On the other hand,

$$g(t) - g(0) = f(\mathbf{x} + y\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{x}).$$

Hence

$$\lim_{t\to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{t} = (\nabla f)(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

The limit is called the *directional derivative* of f at  $\mathbf{x}$ , denoted by  $(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(\mathbf{x})$ .

## Example

If f and  $\mathbf{x}$  are fixed, but  $\mathbf{u}$  varies, then  $(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(\mathbf{x})$  attains its maximum when  $\mathbf{u}$  is a positive scalar multiple of  $(\nabla f)(\mathbf{x})$ . If  $\mathbf{u} = \sum u_i \mathbf{e}_i$ , then

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_{i}f)(\mathbf{x})u_{i}.$$

#### **Theorem**

Suppose f maps a convex open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , f is differentiable in E, and there is a real number M such that

$$\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| \le M$$

for every  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ . Then

$$|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})| \le M|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}|$$

for every  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in E$ .

## Corollary

If, in addition, f'(x) = 0 for all  $x \in E$ , then f is constant.

## Definition

- A differentiable mapping f of an open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is said to be *continuously differentiable* in E if f' is a continuous mapping of E into  $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ .
- ▶ If this is so, we also say that f is a  $\mathscr{C}'$ -mapping, or that  $f \in \mathscr{C}(E)$ .

# Differentiation

#### Theorem

Suppose f maps an open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Then  $f \in \mathscr{C}'(E)$  if and only if the partial derivatives  $D_j f_i$  exist and are continuous on E for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .

Ex 9.6

Let

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

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

#### Ex 9.7

Suppose that f a real-valued function defined in an open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , and that the partial derivatives  $D_1 f, \dots, D_n f$  are bounded in E. Prove that f is continuous in E.

#### Ex 9.8

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

#### Ex 9.9

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

#### Ex 9.10

If f is a real function defined in a convex open set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , such that  $(D_1 f)(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x} \in E$ , prove that f(x) depends only on  $x_2, ..., x_n$ .

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.

#### Ex 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  $\nabla(1/f) = -f^{-2}\nabla f$  whenever  $f \neq 0$ .

#### Ex 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 of  $\mathbf{f}$ .

(a) Show that there are exactly 4 points  $\mathbf{p} \in K$  such that  $(\nabla f_1)(\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{p})) = \mathbf{0}$ .

#### Ex 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 of  $\mathbf{f}$ .

(b) Determine the set of all  $\mathbf{q} \in K$  such that  $(\nabla f_3)(\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{q})) = \mathbf{0}$ .

#### Ex 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 of  $\mathbf{f}$ .

(c) Show that one of the points p founded 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")

#### Ex 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 of  $\mathbf{f}$ .

(d) Let  $\lambda$  be an irrational real number, and define  $\mathbf{g}(t) = \mathbf{f}(t, \lambda t)$ . Prove that  $\mathbf{g}$  is a 1-1 mapping of  $\mathbb{R}$  onto a dense subset of K. Prove that

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

#### Ex 9.13

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

Ex 9.14

Let

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

(a) Prove that  $D_1f$  and  $D_2f$  are bounded functions in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Let

Ex 9.14

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

(b) Let  $\mathbf u$  be any 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.

Let

Ex 9.14

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

(c) Let  $\gamma$  be a differential mapping of  $\mathbb R$  into  $\mathbb R^2$ , with  $\gamma(0)=(0,0)$  and  $|\gamma'(t)|>0$ . Put  $g(t)=f(\gamma(t))$  and prove that q is differentiable for every  $t\in\mathbb R$ . If  $\gamma\in\mathscr C'$ , prove that  $q\in\mathscr C'$ .

Let

Ex 9.14

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

(d) In spite of this, prove that f is not differentiable at (0,0).

Ex 9.15

Let

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \\ x^2 + y^2 - 2x^2y - \frac{4x^6y^2}{(x^4 + y^2)^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \end{cases}$$

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

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

Conclude that f is continuous,

Ex 9.15

Let

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \\ x^2 + y^2 - 2x^2y - \frac{4x^6y^2}{(x^4 + y^2)^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \end{cases}$$

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

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

Show that  $g_{\theta}(0), g_{\theta}'(0) = 0, g_{\theta}''(0) = 2$ . Each  $g_{\theta}$  has therefore a strict local minimum at t = 0.

Ex 9.15

Let

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \\ x^2 + y^2 - 2x^2y - \frac{4x^6y^2}{(x^4 + y^2)^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \end{cases}$$

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

# The End