Chapter 9

Functions of Several Variables

9.1 Notes

2/14:

- Plan:
 - 1. Warm-up with matrices.
 - 2. The total derivatives of $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ $(n = m = 2, \text{ i.e., } f: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}).$
 - 3. Basic properties: Chain rule, relation with partial derivatives, implicit function theorem.
- Let V, W be finite-dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{R} . We let L(V, W) be the vector space of all linear transformations $\phi: V \to W$.
- If we pick bases $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ of V and $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_m$ of W, then $V \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ and $W \cong \mathbb{R}^m$. It follows that $L(V, W) \cong \mathbb{R}^{mn}$.
- $L(V, W) \times L(W, U) \xrightarrow{\text{compose}} L(V, U)$, i.e., $\mathbb{R}^{mn} \times \mathbb{R}^{nl} \xrightarrow{\text{matrix}} \mathbb{R}^{ml}$.
- Sup norm: If A is an $m \times n$ real matrix, then $||A|| = \sup_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ |\mathbf{x}| = 1}} |A\mathbf{x}|$.
 - Basic properties:
 - 1. $|A\mathbf{x}| \le ||A|||x|$.
 - 2. $||A|| < \infty$ and all $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ are uniformly continuous.
 - 3. $||A|| = 0 \iff A = 0$.
 - 4. ||cA|| = |c|||A||.
 - 5. $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$.
 - 6. $||AB|| \le ||A|| ||B||$.
 - Note that we get a metric space structure on L(V, W) by defining d(A, B) = ||A B||.
- Proves that 1 and 2 imply the uniform continuity of all A (via Lipschitz continuity).
- **Differentiable** (function \mathbf{f} at \mathbf{x}_0): A function $\mathbf{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ($U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$) such that to $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ there corresponds some linear transformation $A: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ such that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to\mathbf{0}}\frac{|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0-\mathbf{h})-\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)-A\mathbf{h}|}{|\mathbf{h}|}=0$$

- Total derivative (of f at x_0): The linear transformation A in the above definition. Denoted by $f'(x_0)$, $Df(x_0)$, $df(x_0)$.
- "An proof and progress in mathematics" Thurston.

- Relating to the old one dimensional derivative.
- A paper we'd find rather impressionistic right now.
- Propositions ahead of us.
 - Proposition: Suppose that **f** is differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ and A, B are both derivatives of **f** at \mathbf{x}_0 . Then A = B.
 - Proposition: Differentiable implies continuous.
 - Proposition: Sum rule, product rule, quotient rule.
- 2/16: Plan: Derivatives of functions $\mathbf{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ where $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.
 - Basic properties: Differentiability implies continuity, $(\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g})' = \mathbf{f}' + \mathbf{g}'$, $(c\mathbf{f})' = c\mathbf{f}'$, chain rule, $\mathbf{f}' = 0$ iff \mathbf{f} is constant.
 - Relationship with partial derivatives (how we compute everything and anything).
 - When is **f** differentiable?
 - Inverse function theorem.
 - Implicit function theorem.
 - Continuously differentiable (function \mathbf{f}): A function $\mathbf{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ that is differentiable for all $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ and such that $\mathbf{f}': U \to L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ is continuous. Also known as \mathscr{C}^1 .
 - Proposition: Let $\mathbf{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$. Then \mathbf{f} is continuous at \mathbf{x}_0 .
 - The proof makes use of the fact that $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{h}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{h})$.
 - Proposition: Given $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g} : U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ both differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$, then $\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g}$ is also differentiable at \mathbf{x}_0 with

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

- The proof is immediate via the triangle inequality.
- Theorem (Chain Rule): Given $\mathbf{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and $\mathbf{g}: V \to \mathbb{R}^k$, where $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{f}(U) \subset V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$, with \mathbf{f} differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ and \mathbf{g} differentiable at $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$, the composition $\mathbf{g} \circ \mathbf{f}$ is differentiable at \mathbf{x}_0 with

$$(\mathbf{g} \circ \mathbf{f})'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)) \cdot \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

- The proof is rather subtle.
- Partial derivative (of f_i wrt. x_j at \mathbf{x}_0): The following limit, if it exists, where $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $1 \le i \le m$, and $1 \le j \le n$. Denoted by $(\partial f_i/\partial x_j)(\mathbf{x}_0)$, $(D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x}_0)$. Given by

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x_0}) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f_i(\mathbf{x_0} + t\mathbf{e}_j) - f_i(\mathbf{x_0})}{t}$$

• Directional derivative (of f_i toward $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$): The following limit, if it exists, where $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and $1 \le i \le m$. Denoted by $\mathbf{D_u} f_i$. Given by

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f_i = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f_i(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{u}) - f_i(\mathbf{x}_0)}{t}$$

• Jacobian: The following matrix. Given by

$$\left[\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}_0)\right]$$

• Theorem: Let $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_m) : U \to \mathbb{R}^m$, where $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, be differentiable at some $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$. Then the partial derivatives $\partial f_i/\partial x_j$ $(1 \le i \le m; 1 \le j \le n)$ exist at \mathbf{x}_0 and, with respect to the usual choice of bases.

$$\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \left[\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}_0)\right]$$

2/18:

- We have that

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{e}_i) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_i) + \mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_i)$$

- Since **f** is differentiable at \mathbf{x}_0 , $\mathbf{f}(t\mathbf{e}_i)/t \to 0$ as $t \to 0$.
- Additionally, $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_j)/t = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{e}_j)$.
- Therefore,

$$\lim_{t\to 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)}{t} = \lim_{t\to 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_j)}{t} = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{e}_j) - \lim_{t\to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_j)}{t} = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(\mathbf{e}_j)$$

as desired.

- Unpacking the definition of the linear transformation as a matrix gives the rest of the proof.
- Today:
 - More on differentiation (recall the Jacobian).
 - Sufficient condition for differentiability.
 - $-\mathbf{f'} = 0$ iff \mathbf{f} is constant.
 - State the inverse function theorem.
- It is not true that having all partials exist implies that f is differentiable at x_0 .
- Theorem: \mathbf{f} continuously differentiable at \mathbf{x}_0 iff all partials exist and are continuous at \mathbf{x}_0 .
- 2/21: Contraction mapping theorem.
- 2/23:
- Plan.
 - 1. Proof of the inverse function theorem.
 - 2. Commuting partials.
- Theorem (Inverse function theorem): If $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $\mathbf{f} : E \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E$, and $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$ is invertible, then there exist $U \subset E$ open with $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ and $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open with $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) \in V$ such that $\mathbf{f}|_U : U \to V$ is a bijection and $(\mathbf{f}|_U)^{-1}$ is continuously differentiable.
- Idea.
 - 1. Find U and prove one-to-one restricted to U.
 - 2. $\mathbf{f}(U)$ is open.
 - 3. Prove the inverse is continuously differentiable (left as an exercise to us).
 - There is a trick for 1-2: We introduce an auxiliary function $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ and apply the contraction mapping theorem.
- Proof.
 - Let $A = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)$.
 - Since \mathbf{f}' is continuous, there is an open ball $U \subset E$ with center \mathbf{x}_0 such that $\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) A\| < \lambda$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in U$.
 - We'll pick $\lambda = 1/(2||A^{-1}||)$ without motivation for now.

- \blacksquare Note that if you need to pick a U (for an example function), this criterion gives you one (not necessarily the best one, but it gives you a one).
- Trick: For all $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, consider $\varphi_{\mathbf{v}} : U \to \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by

$$\varphi_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + A^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))$$

- Important property of this function: $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$ iff $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$.
- Plan: Show that for all $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{f}(U)$ that $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ is a contraction. Therefore, by the contraction mapping theorem, \mathbf{f} has exactly 1 fixed point, so $\mathbf{f}|_U$ is injective.
- Proving that $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ is a contraction. Claim: $|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_1) \varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2|$. Use the Chain Rule, MVT, and the fact that $||AB|| \leq ||A|| ||B||$.
 - Using the chain rule, we have that

$$\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}' = I - A^{-1} \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})$$
$$= A^{-1} (A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}))$$

■ Thus.

$$\|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x})\| \le \|A^{-1}\| \|A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| < \frac{1}{2}$$

for all \mathbf{x} .

■ It follows by the MVT that

$$|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_2)| \le \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$$

- Therefore, $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ is a contraction.
- We now prove that $\mathbf{f}(U)$ is open.
- Let $\mathbf{y}_0 \in f(U)$ be such that $\mathbf{y}_0 = f(\mathbf{p}_0)$.
- Pick $B_r(\mathbf{p}_0) \subset U$ such that $\overline{B} \subset U$.
- Claim: For all $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $|\mathbf{y} \mathbf{y}_0| < \lambda r$, we have that $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{f}(U)$.
 - We are going to show that $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\overline{B}) \subset \overline{B}$ and therefore $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}} : \overline{B} \to \overline{B}$ is a contraction and therefore by the contraction mapping theorem, there exists a fixed point $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{y}}$ of $\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ in \overline{B} . Therefore, $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{y}}) = \mathbf{y}$ and so $\mathbf{f}(U)$ is open.
- φ_y is derived from Newton's method. The contraction mapping thing then is what substitutes for convergence. You have to start in the right area though, the chosen U!

2/25: • Plan:

- 1. A point on the IFT.
- 2. Commuting partials.
- 3. Implicit function theorem.
- Subtle point: Last time, in the proof of the IFT, we first found the $U \subset E$ and prove that $\mathbf{f}|_U$ is injective, and then we proved that $\mathbf{f}(U)$ is open.
- The properties of $\varphi_{\mathbf{v}}$.
 - $-\varphi_{\mathbf{v}}(U)\subset U.$
 - $-\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}$ is a contraction since $|\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_1) \varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2|$.
 - $-\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$ iff $\varphi_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$ (fixed points for this contraction mapping).
- Commuting partials.

- When does the following hold?

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$$

- Simple answer: Not often, but with enough regularity, yes.
- Theorem: Given $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$ where $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, we say that f is C^2 (or of class C^2)
- Class C^2 (function f): A function $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$ (where $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$) such that all partials $\partial^2 f / \partial x_j \partial x_i$ exist and are continuous for all points in E. Denoted by $f \in C^2$.
- Lemma (MVT): If $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ open, $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$, $\partial f/\partial x$, $\partial^2 f/\partial y \partial x$ exist for all $(x,y) \in E$, $Q = [a, a+h] \times [b, b+k] \subset E$, and

$$\Delta(f,Q) = f(a+h, b+k) - f(a+h, b) + f(a, b+k) - f(a, b)$$

then there exists $(x_0, y_0) \in Q$ such that

$$\Delta(f,Q) = hk \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$

- Proof idea: We reduce to the goal of the 1D MVT.
- Define u(t) = f(t, b + k) f(t, b). Then u is differentiable by the sum and scalar multiple rules.
- It follows that

$$\Delta(f,Q) = u(a+h) - u(a)$$

$$= hu'(x_0)$$

$$= h\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right]$$

$$= hk\frac{\partial^2}{\partial u\partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$

• Theorem: If $f \in C^2$, then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$$

for all $1 \le i, j \le n$.

- Idea.
 - To make life easy, take n = 2. Then we just need the right kind of mean value theorem (the one in the lemma).
- Proof.
 - Follows from the lemma as $h, k \to 0$.
 - See Theorem 15.3 in Labalme (2021).

2/28: • Plan:

- 1. Implicit function theorem (end of Chapter 9).
- 2. Sharkovsky's theorem.
- 3. Go back and talk about Chapter 8 material.

• Theorem (Implicit Function Theorem; informal): Given a nice system of equations

$$f_1(c_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m) = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_m) = 0$$

and a particular solution (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) , we can solve for $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$ locally at (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) .

- Theorem (Implicit Function Theorem): If $E \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$, $\mathbf{f} : E \to \mathbb{R}^n$ continuously differentiable, $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \in E$ with $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{0}$, $A = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$, $A_{\mathbf{x}} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{0})$ invertible, and $A_{\mathbf{y}} : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by $\mathbf{y} \mapsto \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{y})$, then there exists $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$, $W \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ with $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \in U$, $\mathbf{b} \in W$ such that:
 - 1. For every $\mathbf{y} \in W$, there exists a unique $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in U$ and $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{0}$.
 - 2. There is a continuously differentiable function $\mathbf{g}: W \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$f(g(y), y) = 0$$

for all $\mathbf{y} \in W$ and

$$\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{b}) = -(A_{\mathbf{x}})^{-1}A_{\mathbf{y}}$$

- Example: Consider $f: \mathbb{R}^{1+1} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $(x,y) \mapsto x^2 + y^2 1$.
 - Then $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is the unit circle.
 - $-Df = \begin{bmatrix} 2x & 2y \end{bmatrix}, A_x = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } A_y = \begin{bmatrix} 2y \end{bmatrix}.$
- Idea:
 - Use the inverse function theorem, and apply it to $A_{\mathbf{x}}$.
 - Goal: Find U and W; from this, \mathbf{g} follows uniquely (though you also technically need to show continuous differentiability).
 - Define $F: E \to \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ by $F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}), \mathbf{y})$. Claim: $F'(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ is invertible. Apply the inverse function theorem to F.
- Proof left to us.
- The goal of Sharkovsky's theorem is to understand the iterates of f, i.e., $x, f(x), f^2(x), f^3(x), \ldots$ This fits in thematically with the contraction mapping theorem.
- **Periodic** (point $p \in I$): A point $p \in I$ for which $f^m(p) = p$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.
- **Period** (of $p \in I$ periodic): The least number m such that $f^m(p) = p$.
- **Fixed point**: A periodic point of period 1.
- Example: $f:[0,1] \to [0,1]$ defined by f(x) = 1 x has periodic points of period 2 everywhere on its domain save 1/2, which has period 1.
- Theorem: If f has a point p of period 3, then f has points of all other periods.
- Sharkovsky ordering: All of the odd numbers, then 2^1 times the odd numbers, then 2^2 times the odd numbers, then continuing for $n \to \infty$, and then 2^n as large as possible all the way down to 1.
 - If n comes before m in the Sharkovsky ordering, we write n > m.
- Sharkovsky's theorem: If $A \subset \mathbb{R}$, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ continuous satisfies $f(A) \subset A$ and has a period m point with $m \rhd l$, then f has a period l point.
- Example: Logistic maps $g_b: [0,1] \to [0,1]$ defined by $x \mapsto bx(1-x)$ for $b \in [1,4]$.

3/2: • Theorem (Li & Yorke): If f has a period 3 point, then there exists an uncountable set $S \subset A$ such that for all $p, q \in S$,

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}|f^n(p)-f^n(q)|=0 \qquad \qquad \limsup_{n\to\infty}|f^n(p)-f^n(q)|>0$$

- Plan:
 - 1. Prove the warm-up to Sharkovsky.
- Theorem: If f continuous has a period 3 point, then f has points of all other periods.
- Notation.
 - We say "I covers J" and write $I \to J$ when $I, J \subset A$ are closed intervals with $f(I) \supset J$.
- Lemma 1: If $[a,b] \to [a,b]$, then f continuous has a fixed point in [a,b].
 - Consider f(x) x on [a, b].
 - Either f(a) = a, f(b) = b, or we can invoke the IVT.
 - Alternatively, since $[a,b] \subset f([a,b])$, there exist a_0,b_0 with $f(a_0)=a$ and $f(b_0)=b$. Thus, $f(a_0)-a_0 \leq 0$ and $f(b_0)-b_0 \geq 0$, so by the IVT, there is some zero of f(x)-x on [a,b], as desired.
- Lemma 2: p has period m iff p is a fixed point of f^m and not a fixed point of f^i for i < m.
- Lemma 3: Suppose we have a loop of intervals $J_0 \to J_1 \to J_2 \to \cdots \to J_{n-1} \to J_0 \to \cdots$. Then there is a fixed point $p \in J_0$ of f^n such that $f^i(p) \in J_i$ for all $0 \le i < n$.

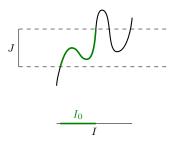


Figure 9.1: Loop mapping.

- Isn't this obvious? No there's an issue, namely that $f(J_i) \not\subset J_{i+1}$. We can solve this though by noting that if $I \to J$, then there exists some subinterval $I_0 \subset I$ such that $f(I_0) \subset J$ and $I_0 \to J$ (i.e., $f(I_0) = J$).
- You can use this idea to pull a J'_i out of each J_i for which set equality holds.
- Then by the previous lemma, there exists a fixed point p of f^n in J'_0 . Then $f(p) \in J'_1 \subset J_1, \ldots, f^{n-1}(p) \in J'_{n-1} \subset J_{n-1}$.
- Notation.
 - In the case of Lemma 3, we say that p is **following** the cycle $J_0 \to \cdots \to J_{n-1} \to J_0 \to \cdots$.
 - We call $J_0 \to \cdots \to J_{n-1} \to J_0 \to \cdots$ elementary if it is only followed by points of period n.
- Lemma: Let q have period m and let $\mathcal{O} = \{q, f(q), \dots, f^{m-1}(q)\}$. Let $J_0 \to \dots \to J_{n-1} \to J_0 \to \dots$ and suppose
 - (i) all endpoints of the J_i are in \mathcal{O} ;

- (ii) the loop is not followed by any point in \mathcal{O} ;
- (iii) The interior of J_0 , int (J_0) is disjoint from the other J_i .

Then the loop is elementary, and so f has a period n point.

- Suppose p follows the loop.
- Then by (i) and (ii), p is not an endpoint of J_0 , so if $f^i(p) = p \in J_0$ for i < n, then int $(J_0) \cap J_i$, contradicting (iii).
- 3/4: Plan:
 - 1. Finish 3 implies all $m \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - 2. Hint at the rest of Sharkovsky.
 - 3. Power series/fun with the exponential function (Chapter 8).
 - Theorem (warm-up Sharkovsky): If $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$ continuous, $f(I) \subset I$, and f has a period 3 point, then f has a period n point for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - Consider the three point loop.
 - Let I_1 be the interval from p_0 to p_1 , and let I_2 be the interval from p_1 to p_2 . We can choose p_0, p_1, p_2 WLOG such that $I_1 \cap I_2 = \{p_1\}$.
 - We have $I_1 \rightarrow I_2$, $I_2 \rightarrow I_2$, and $I_2 \rightarrow I_1$.
 - We may construct

$$I_1 \underbrace{\longrightarrow I_2}_{m-1} \to I_1$$

to yield a point of period m by the last lemma.

- Period 1 point: $I_2 \rightarrow I_2$ apply Lemma 1.

9.2 Chapter 9: Functions of Several Variables

From Rudin (1976).

- 2/15: Defines a vector space by the closure of its elements under addition and scalar multiplication.
 - Defines a linear combination, span, independence and dependence, dimension, basis, coordinates, and the standard basis.
 - Theorem 9.2: If X is spanned by r vectors, dim $X \leq r$.
 - Corollary: $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$.
 - Theorem 9.3: Let X a vector space with dim X = n.
 - (a) $E \subset X$ containing n vectors spans X iff E is independent.
 - (b) X has a basis, and every basis contains n vectors.
 - (c) If $1 \le r \le n$ and $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_r\}$ is independent in X, then X has a basis containing $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_r\}$.
 - Defines linear transformation, linear operator.
 - Notes that $A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ if A is a linear transformation, and that A is completely determined by its action on any basis.
 - Invertible (linear operator): A linear operator A that is one-to-one and onto.
 - Theorem 9.5: A a linear operator on X finite-dimensional is one-to-one iff it is onto.

- Defines L(X,Y), L(X), the product BA of two linear transformations, and the supremum norm of a linear transformation.
- Theorem 9.7:
 - (a) $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ implies $||A|| < \infty$ and $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ uniformly continuous.
 - (b) $A, B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ and $c \in \mathbb{C}$ implies

$$||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$$
 $||cA|| = |c|||A||$

Defining d(A, B) = ||A - B|| makes $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ a metric space.

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

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

- Theorem 9.8: Let Ω be the set of all invertible linear operators on \mathbb{R}^n .
 - (a) $A \in \Omega$, $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n)$, and $||B A|| \cdot ||A^{-1}|| < 1$ implies $B \in \Omega$.

Proof. Let $||A^{-1}|| = 1/\alpha$, and let $||B - A|| = \beta$. Then

$$||B - A|| \cdot ||A^{-1}|| < 1$$
$$\beta \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha} < 1$$
$$\beta < \alpha$$

To prove that $B \in \Omega$, the definition of invertibility and Theorem 9.5 tell us that it will suffice to show that B is 1-1. To do so, it will suffice to show that $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ iff $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Let's begin. Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\alpha |\mathbf{x}| = \alpha |A^{-1}A\mathbf{x}| \le \alpha ||A^{-1}|| \cdot |A\mathbf{x}| = |A\mathbf{x}| \le |(A - B)\mathbf{x}| + |B\mathbf{x}| \le \beta |\mathbf{x}| + |B\mathbf{x}|$$
$$(\alpha - \beta)|\mathbf{x}| \le |B\mathbf{x}|$$

It follows that if $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$, then $|B\mathbf{x}| > 0$. This combined with the fact that $B\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ implies the desired result.

(b) Ω is open in $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $A \mapsto A^{-1}$ is continuous on Ω .

Proof. To prove that Ω is open in $L(\mathbb{R}^n)$, it will suffice to show that for all $A \in \Omega$, there exists $N_r(A)$ such that if $\|B - A\| < r$, then $B \in \Omega$. Let's begin. Let $A \in \Omega$ be arbitrary. Choose $N_{\alpha}(A)$ to be our neighborhood, where α is defined as in part (a). Let $B \in L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ satisfy $\|B - A\| < \alpha$. Then $\|B - A\| \cdot \|A^{-1}\| < 1$, so $B \in \Omega$ by part (a), as desired.

To prove that $A \mapsto A^{-1}$ is continuous, it will suffice to show that $||B^{-1} - A^{-1}|| \to 0$ as $B \to A$. First off, we have by part (a) and the substitution $\mathbf{x} = B^{-1}\mathbf{y}$ ($\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$) that

$$(\alpha - \beta)|B^{-1}\mathbf{y}| \le |BB^{-1}\mathbf{y}| = |\mathbf{y}|$$

$$\left|B^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|}\right)\right| \le (\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$$

Thus, since $|B^{-1}\mathbf{u}|$ is bounded by $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$ for every unit vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $||B^{-1}||$ is bounded by $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$. This combined with the fact that

$$\begin{split} B^{-1} - A^{-1} &= B^{-1}I - IA^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}AA^{-1} - B^{-1}BA^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}(A - B)A^{-1} \end{split}$$

implies by Theorem 9.7c that

$$||B^{-1} - A^{-1}|| \le ||B^{-1}|| ||A - B|| ||A^{-1}|| \le (\alpha - \beta)^{-1} \cdot \beta \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha} = \frac{\beta}{\alpha(\alpha - \beta)}$$

Therefore, since $\beta \to 0$ as $B \to A$, the above inequality establishes the desired result.

- Note that the mapping $A \mapsto A^{-1}$ defined in Theorem 9.8b is a 1-1 mapping of Ω onto Ω and its own inverse.
- Defines matrices, column vectors, and matrix multiplication.
- From the Schwarz inequality, we can show that

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

- "If S is a metric space, if a_{11}, \ldots, 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 into \mathbb{R}^m whose matrix has entries $a_{ij}(p)$, then the mapping $p \to A_p$ is a continuous mapping of S into $L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ " (Rudin, 1976, p. 211).
- Rudin (1976) spends some time motivating the definition of the total derivative. He also discusses the natural 1-1 correspondence between \mathbb{R}^1 and $L(\mathbb{R}^1)$.
- Defines differentiability in \mathbb{R}^n .
- Theorem 9.12: A_1, A_2 the derivative of \mathbf{f} at \mathbf{x} implies $A_1 = A_2$.
- If $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$ where $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, then $\mathbf{f}': E \to L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$.
- \bullet **f** differentiable implies **f** continuous.
- Example (**f** is linear):
 - If $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$, then $A'(\mathbf{x}) = A$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Note that this means that $A' : \mathbb{R}^n \to L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$, as expected.
- Theorem 9.15 (Chain Rule): E open in \mathbb{R}^n , $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$ differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in E$, $I \supset \mathbf{f}(E)$ open in \mathbb{R}^m , and $\mathbf{g}: I \to \mathbb{R}^k$ differentiable at $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ implies $\mathbf{F}: E \to \mathbb{R}^k$ defined by

$$F(x) = g(f(x))$$

is differentiable at \mathbf{x}_0 with

$$\mathbf{F}'(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0))\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)^{[1]}$$

Proof. Largely symmetric to that of the one-dimensional chain rule in Chapter 5.

• Components (of $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$): The real functions f_1, \dots, f_m defined by

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

for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$ or, equivalently, by $f_i(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}_i$ $(1 \le i \le m)$, where $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m$ is the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^m .

¹Note that the right-hand side of this equation contains the product of two linear transformations.

- Defines partial derivatives.
- Theorem 9.17: $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open and $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$ differentiable at $\mathbf{x} \in E$ imply the partial derivatives $(D_i f_i)(\mathbf{x})$ exist and

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

for $1 \le j \le n$.

• It follows that

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

- Discusses the gradient and the directional derivative.
- Theorem 9.19: $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ convex and open, $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$ differentiable in E, and there exists M such that

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

for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$ implies

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

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

2/20:

- Corollary: If, in addition, $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$, then \mathbf{f} is constant.
- Continuously differentiable (mapping $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$): A function $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $\mathbf{f}': E \to L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m)$ is continuous. Also known as \mathscr{C}^1 -mapping. Denoted by $\mathbf{f} \in \mathscr{C}^1(E)$.
- Theorem 9.21: Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open and $\mathbf{f}: E \to \mathbb{R}^m$. Then $\mathbf{f} \in \mathscr{C}^1(E)$ iff the partial derivatives $D_j f_i$ $(1 \le i \le m; 1 \le j \le n)$ exist and are continuous on E.
- Contraction (of X into X): A function $\varphi: X \to X$ for which there exists a number c < 1 such that

$$d(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) \le c \cdot d(x, y)$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where X is a metric space with metric d.

• Theorem 9.23: X a complete metric space and ϕ a contraction of X into X implies there exists a unique $x \in X$ such that $\varphi(x) = x$.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define $\{x_n\}$ recursively by

$$x_{n+1} = \phi(x_n)$$

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ Let c < 1 be the number corresponding to the contraction φ . Then for $n \ge 1$, we have

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) = d(\varphi(x_n), \varphi(x_{n-1})) \le c \cdot d(x_n, x_{n-1})$$

or, for $n \geq 0$,

$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) \le c^n d(x_1, x_0)$$

by induction. Now to prove that $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy, it will suffice to show that for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that $m \ge n \ge N$ implies $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$. But since

$$d(x_n, x_m) \le \sum_{i=n+1}^m d(x_i, x_{i-1})$$

$$\le (c^n + c^{n+1} + \dots + c^{m-1}) d(x_1, x_0)$$

$$\le [(1 - c)^{-1} d(x_1, x_0)] c^n$$

we can simply choose N large enough that $[(1-c)^{-1}d(x_1,x_0)]c^N < \epsilon$. Thus, since $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy and X is complete, there exists $x \in X$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = x$. Therefore, since φ is Lipschitz continuous, we have that

$$\varphi(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \varphi(x_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1} = x$$

as desired.

Now suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists $y \neq x$ such that $\varphi(y) = y$. Then since φ is a contraction,

$$d(y,x) = d(\varphi(y), \varphi(x)) \le c \cdot d(y,x) < d(y,x)$$

a contradiction.

- Theorem 9.24 (Inverse Function Theorem): $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $\mathbf{f} : E \to \mathbb{R}^n$ a \mathscr{C}^1 -mapping, $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})$ invertible for some $\mathbf{a} \in E$, and $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})$ implies
 - (a) There exist $U, V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open with $\mathbf{a} \in U$, $\mathbf{b} \in V$ such that \mathbf{f} is 1-1 on U and $\mathbf{f}(U) = V$.

Proof. Let $A = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{a})$. Choose λ such that

$$2\lambda ||A^{-1}|| = 1$$

Define^[2] for each $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ a function φ by

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} + A^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}))$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$. (Note that a key property of φ is that as defined, $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$ iff \mathbf{x} is a fixed point of \mathbf{y} .) Now since $\mathbf{f} \in \mathscr{C}^1$ and hence \mathbf{f}' is continuous at \mathbf{a} , there exists an open ball $B_r(\mathbf{a}) \subset E$ such that

$$\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) - A\| < \lambda$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in B_r(\mathbf{a})$. Let $U = B_r(\mathbf{a})$. Clearly it follows that U is open. Thus, since each $\varphi'(\mathbf{x}) = I - A^{-1}\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = A^{-1}(A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}))$, we have that

$$\|\varphi'(\mathbf{x})\| \le \|A^{-1}\| \|A - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| < \frac{1}{2\lambda} \cdot \lambda = \frac{1}{2}$$

Consequently, we have by Theorem 9.19 that for all $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in U$,

$$|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_2)| \le \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$$

Thus, by the uniqueness argument in the proof of Theorem 9.23, φ has at most one fixed point in U, so $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$ for at most one $\mathbf{x} \in U$. Therefore, \mathbf{f} is 1-1 on U.

Let $V = \mathbf{f}(U)$. To prove that V is open, it will suffice to show that for all $\mathbf{y}_0 \in V$, there exists an open subset of V containing \mathbf{y}_0 such that. Let $\mathbf{y}_0 \in V$ be arbitrary. By the definition of V as the image of U under \mathbf{f} , there exists $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ such that $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$. As such, choose $B_r(\mathbf{x}_0)$ such that $\overline{B} \subset U$. Pick \mathbf{y} satisfying $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_0| < \lambda r$. Then

$$|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{x}_0| = |A^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_0)| < ||A|| \lambda r = \frac{r}{2}$$

so for all $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{B}$,

$$|\varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{x}_0| \le |\varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_0)| + |\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{x}_0|$$

$$< \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| + \frac{r}{2}$$

$$\le \frac{1}{2} \cdot r + \frac{r}{2}$$

$$= r$$

²How do we motivate this definition?

Thus, $\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) \in B$. Moreover, since $|\varphi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|$ naturally holds for all $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \overline{B} \subset U$, we have that φ is a contraction of \overline{B} into \overline{B} . Additionally, since $\overline{B} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed, it is a complete metric space under the Euclidean metric. Thus, Theorem 9.23 implies that φ has a fixed point $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{B}$. In particular, $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}$. Therefore, $\mathbf{y} \in f(\overline{B}) \subset \mathbf{f}(U) = V$, as desired.

(b) If \mathbf{g} is the inverse of \mathbf{f} on V [which exists by (a)], i.e.,

$$g(f(x)) = x$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in U$, then $\mathbf{g} \in \mathscr{C}^1(V)$.

Proof. We first show that for all $\mathbf{y} \in V$, $\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = [\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}))]^{-1}$. Let $\mathbf{y} \in V$ be arbitrary, and choose \mathbf{k} such that $(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) \in V$. It follows by part (a) that there exist $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h} \in U$ such that $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ and $\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h})$. Thus,

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h} + A^{-1}[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h})] = \mathbf{h} - A^{-1}\mathbf{k}$$

so

$$|\mathbf{h} - A^{-1}\mathbf{k}| = |\varphi(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x})| \le \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{x}| = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{h}|$$

Consequently, $|A^{-1}\mathbf{k}| \geq \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{h}|$, so

$$|\mathbf{h}| \le 2 ||A^{-1}|| |\mathbf{k}| = \frac{|\mathbf{k}|}{\lambda}$$

Additionally, we know that $\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) - A\|\|A^{-1}\| = 1/2 < 1$, so Theorem 9.8a implies that $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})$ is invertible with an inverse that we may call T. Thus, since

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}) - T\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{h} - T\mathbf{k}$$

$$= -T[(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{y}] + T\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}$$

$$= -T[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}]$$

we have that

$$\frac{|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}) - T\mathbf{k}|}{|\mathbf{k}|} \le \frac{\|T\||\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}|}{\lambda |\mathbf{h}|}$$

Consequently, $\mathbf{k} \to \mathbf{0}$ implies that $\mathbf{h} \to \mathbf{0}$, which implies that the right side of the above inequality goes to zero, which implies that the left side of the above inequality goes to zero. Thus, $\mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{y}) = T$, so

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

for all $\mathbf{y} \in V$, as desired.

To prove that \mathbf{g}' is continuous on V, Theorem 4.7 and the above equation tell us that it will suffice to show that $\mathbf{g}: V \to U$ is continuous, $\mathbf{f}': U \to L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is continuous, and $M \mapsto M^{-1}: L(\mathbb{R}^n) \to L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is continuous. But we have the first condition since differentiability implies continuity and \mathbf{g} is differentiable, we have the second condition since $\mathbf{f} \in \mathscr{C}^1$ by hypothesis, and we have the third condition by Theorem 9.8b, as desired.

- Theorem 9.25: $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $\mathbf{f} :: E \to \mathbb{R}^n$ a \mathscr{C}^1 -mapping, and $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})$ invertible for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$ implies $\mathbf{f}(W)$ open in \mathbb{R}^n for every open $W \subset E$.
 - Note that the hypotheses of this theorem guarantee that \mathbf{f} is locally 1-1 at each $\mathbf{x} \in E$, but it may not be 1-1 in E under these conditions (see Exercise 9.17).