MATH 20410 (Analysis in $\mathbb{R}^n$ II – Accelerated) Notes

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Contents

Chapter 6

The Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

6.1 Notes

1/28:

- Plan:
  1. Finish up Fundamental Theorem of Calculus proof.
  2. Basic consequences.
  3. Rectifiable curves.
- Recall that we're given $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ continuous, $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$, and $x\mapsto\int_a^x f(t)\,\mathrm{d}t$.
- Goal: Show $F'(x_0)=f(x_0)$.
  - WTS: Find δ such that $|x-x_0|<\delta$ implies

$$\begin{aligned}\left|\frac{1}{x-x_0}\int_{x_0}^x f(t)\,\mathrm{d}t-f(x_0)\right| &= \left|\frac{1}{x-x_0}\int_{x_0}^x f(t)\,\mathrm{d}t-\frac{1}{x-x_0}\int_{x_0}^x f(x_0)\,\mathrm{d}t\right|\\ &= \frac{1}{|x-x_0|}\left|\int_{x_0}^x (f(t)-f(x_0))\,\mathrm{d}t\right|\\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x-x_0|}\int_{x_0}^x |f(t)-f(x_0)|\,\mathrm{d}t\\ &< \epsilon\end{aligned}$$

  - Since f is continuous, there exists δ such that if $|x-x_0|<\delta$, then $|f(x)-f(x_0)|<\epsilon$.
  - Now

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{|x-x_0|}\int_{x_0}^x |f(t)-f(x_0)|\,\mathrm{d}t &< \frac{1}{|x-x_0|}\int_{x_0}^x \epsilon\,\mathrm{d}t\\ &= \epsilon\end{aligned}$$

- Applications:
  1. Theorem (MVT for integration): $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ continuous, then there exists $x_0\in[a,b]$ such that

$$f(x_0)=\frac{1}{b-a}\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

     - Apply MVT to $F(x)=\int_a^x f(t)\,\mathrm{d}t$. Then

$$F'(x_0)=f(x_0)=\frac{F(b)-F(a)}{b-a}$$

       as desired.

2. Theorem (Integration by parts): Let $F, G : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable with $F' = f$, $G' = g$ and with f and g both integrable. Then
$$\int_a^b Fg = F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b fG$$
   - Just use the product rule plus the FTC to prove.
   - We have
$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (FG)' &= \int_a^b fG + \int_a^b Fg \\ F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) &= \int_a^b fG + \int_a^b Fg \\ \int_a^b Fg &= F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^b fG \end{aligned}$$
3. Theorem (u-substitution).
   - Follows similarly from the chain rule and FTC.

- Integration of vector-valued functions.
- If $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}^k$, we define $\int_a^b f$ by
$$\int_a^b f = \left(\int_a^b f_1, \dots, \int_a^b f_k \right)$$
- Alternatively, you can define $\int_a^b f$ using P, $U(f,P)$, $L(f,P)$, etc. and then prove that the integral exists iff all f_i are integrable and in this case the above definition holds.
- Rectifiable curves: Let $\gamma : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}^k$ be a continuous function.
- Plan: Define the length of γ and show that we can compute it with an integral.
  - Idea: For polygonal paths, we know how to define length. So let's approximate γ by polygons and take a limit.
  - Ref: Given a partition P, then define the length of γ with respect to P as $\Lambda(\gamma, P)$. Let the length of γ be $\Lambda(\gamma) = \sup_P \Lambda(\gamma, P)$ if this limit exists in this case, we call γ **rectifiable**.
- Fractals are not rectifiable — their length diverges.
- Theorem: Suppose γ is continuously differentiable (i.e., γ is differentiable and γ' is continuous). Then γ si rectifiable and
$$\Lambda(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t$$
  - Notice: If $P \leq P'$, then $\Lambda(\gamma, P) \leq \Lambda(\gamma, P')$. (Prove with triangle inequality.)
  - WTS: For all partitions P, $\Lambda(\gamma, P) \leq \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t$ and thus $\Lambda(\gamma) \leq \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t$.
  - We have that
$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(\gamma, P) &= \sum_{i=1}^n |\gamma(x_i) - \gamma(x_{i-1}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \gamma'(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} |\gamma'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &= \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t \end{aligned}$$

- Catch up.
  - I should make up PSets 1-2.
  - Exams have less than Rudin-strength problems.
  - Exams are mostly true/false (and of that, mostly false, provide a counterexample).

6.2 Exam 1 Additional Topics

- A continuous function that is not always differentiable.

$$f(x) = |x|$$

- A differentiable function with a discontinuous derivative.

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

- A vector-valued function that doesn't satisfy the MVT.

$$\mathbf{f}(x) = \mathrm{e}^{ix}$$

  - Between 0 and 2π.

- A pair of vector-valued functions that don't satisfy L'Hôpital's rule.

$$f(x) = x \qquad g(x) = x + x^2 \mathrm{e}^{i/x^2}$$

Chapter 7

Sequences and Series of Functions

7.1 Notes

1/31:

- Midterm on differentiation and integration, and a bit of stuff from this week.
- Plan:
  - Talk about sequences of functions, all with the same domain and range, converging.
  - Address what properties of f_n remain in the limit (e.g., continuity, differentiability, integrability).
    - The answer depends on what we mean by "convergence."
    - $f_n \to f$ pointwise implies basically nothing.
    - $f_n \to f$ uniformly implies that basically everything works out nicely.
- We'll restrict ourselves to real functions because those have all the properties (integrability, differentiability, etc.) that we care about.
- **Pointwise** (convergent sequence $\{f_n\}$ to f): A sequence of functions $\{f_n\}$ such that for all $x \in X$, the sequence $\{f_n(x)\}$ converges to $f(x)$, where $f_n : X \to \mathbb{R}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$. *Denoted by* $f_n \to f$.
- Bad functions.
  - Consider $f_n : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $x \mapsto x^n$. Each f_n is continuous, but f is not (zero everywhere except $f(1) = 1)$[1].
  - Consider $f_n : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f_n(x) = x^2/(1+x^2)^n$, and $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)$. As a geometric series, $f(x) = 1 + x^2$ when $x \neq 0$ but $f(0) = 0$. Thus, the limit exists but is not continuous once again.
  - Consider $f_m : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $x \mapsto \lim_{n\to\infty} \cos^{2n}(m!\pi x)$. Each f_m is integrable, but the limit f is the function that's 1 for rationals and zero for irrationals. In particular, f is not integrable.
    - We take even powers of the cosine to make it always positive.
    - We use $\cos^2(x)$ just because its always between $[0,1]$, and we know when it is equal to 1.
    - In particular, $\cos^2(\pi x)$ is equal to 1 at every integer, $\cos^2(2\pi x)$ is equal to 1 at every half integer. $\cos^2(6\pi x)$ is equal to 1 at every one-sixth of an integer.
    - Then raising it to the n^{th} power just makes it spiky.
- Aside: Interchanging limits.
  - If all f_n are continuous, then $\lim_{x\to x_0} f_n(x) = f_n(x_0)$.

[1] Questions that require counterexamples like this could show up on the midterm!

- The question "is f continuous" is equivalent to being able to interchange limits:

$$\lim_{x\to x_0}\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = f(x_0) = \lim_{n\to\infty}\lim_{x\to x_0} f_n(x)$$

- Sequence example showing we need to be careful interchanging limits: $s_{n,m} = m/(m+n)$.

- All of this pathology goes away with the right definition, though.
- **Uniformly** (convergent sequence $\{f_n\}$ to f): A sequence of functions $\{f_n\}$ such that for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an N such that if $n \geq N$, then $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ for all $x \in X$, where $f_n : X \to \mathbb{R}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$.
- Proposition (Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence): $f_n \to f$ uniformly iff for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N such that for all $m, n \geq N$ and for all $x \in X$, $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$.
  - Forward direction: Let $\epsilon > 0$. Suppose $f_n \to f$ uniformly. Choose N such that the functions are within $\epsilon/2$. Then

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \leq |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f(x) - f_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$$

2/2:

- Office hours tomorrow 4-5 PM.
- Plan:
  1. More on uniform convergence.
     - Limit of continuous functions is continuous.
     - Limit of the integral of functions is the integral of the limit.
  2. $\mathcal{C}(X)$ perspectives on uniform convergence.
- Corollary (Weierstraß M-test): If there exist constants $M_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$ for all x and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$ converges, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ converges uniformly.
- Theorem: $f_n : X \to \mathbb{R}$, f_n continuous at $x_0 \in X$ for all n, and $f_n \to f$ uniformly imply f continuous at x_0.
  - Idea:
    - "$\epsilon/3$ trick": Find δ such that if $|x - x_0| < \delta$, then

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \leq |f(x) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)| + |f_N(x_0) - f(x_0)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$$

  - Proof:
    - $f_n \to f$ uniformly implies there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|f_N(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3$ for all $x \in X$.
    - f_N continuous at x_0: There exists δ such that if $d(x, x_0) < \delta$, then $|f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)| < \epsilon/3$.
    - Thus, by the $\epsilon/3$ trick, we have the continuity of f.
- Defining a norm on $\mathcal{C}(X)$.

$$\|f\| = \sup_{x\in X} |f(x)|$$

  - This makes $\mathcal{C}(X)$ into a vector space.
  - We can now define our metric $d(f,g)$ by $d(f,g) = \|f - g\|$.
- $f_n \to f \iff f$ is bounded.
  - $f_n \to f$ uniformly $\iff \lim_{n\to\infty} \sup |f_n(x) - f(x)| = 0 \iff f_n \to f$ is $\mathcal{C}(X)$.
- Corollary to the Weierstraß M-test: $\mathcal{C}(X)$ is complete (i.e., all uniformly Cauchy sequences converge).

- Assume $\{f_n\}$ is Cauchy. Then by the Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence, f_n converges uniformly to some f. But this f must be continuous, too, meaning $f \in \mathcal{C}(X)$.

2/4:

- Plan.
  1. $\int \lim f_n = \lim \int f_n$.
  2. $\mathrm{d}x \lim f_n = \lim \mathrm{d}x\, f_n$.
  3. Definitions: Pointwise/uniform boundedness, equicontinuity.
- Theorem: $f_n : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ integrable and $f_n \to f$ uniformly implies f is integrable and

$$\int_a^b f = \lim_{n\to\infty} \int_a^b f_n$$

  - Plan:
    1. Show f is integrable.
    2. Show $\int f = \lim \int f_n$.
  - Proof:
    - Let $\epsilon_n = \sup_{x\in[a,b]} |f(x) - f_n(x)|$.
    - Since $f_n \to f$ uniformly, $\epsilon_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
    - By definition, $f_n - \epsilon_n \leq f \leq f_n + \epsilon_n$.
    - Thus, by Theorems 6.4 and 6.5,

$$\int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) = \underline{\int} (f_n - \epsilon_n) \leq \underline{\int} f \leq \bar{f} \leq \int_a^b (f_n + \epsilon_n)$$

    - It follows since

$$0 \leq \overline{\int} f - \underline{\int} f \leq \int_a^b (f_n + \epsilon_n) - \int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) = (b-a)...$$

      that f is integrable.
    - Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) \leq \int_a^b f \leq \int_a^b (f_n - \epsilon_n) \\
\left| \int_a^b f_n - \int_a^b f \right| \leq \epsilon_n \\
\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_a^b f_n = \int_a^b f
\end{aligned}$$

- Theorem: $f_n : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$, each f_n differentiable, $f_n \to f$ pointwise, and $(f_n)' \to g$ uniformly implies that f is differentiable and $f' = g$.
  - Note that you can do better: Substituting $f_n(x_0)$ converging for some $x_0 \in [a,b]$ for $f_n \to f$ pointwise still implies the desired result.
  - Idea: We use the $\epsilon/3$ trick; 2/3 will be easy and 1/3 will be tricky.
  - Goal: We want

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - g(x_0) \right| < \epsilon$$

    for some δ with $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$. We will show that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} + \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f_N'(x_0) + f_N'(x_0) - g(x_0) \right| \\
&\leq \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| + \left| \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f_N'(x_0) \right| + |f_N'(x_0) - g(x_0)|
\end{aligned}$$

- For the middle inequality, use Chapter 5, Exercise 8.
- For the right inequality, use the uniform convergence condition.
- For the left inequality, it will suffice to show the Cauchy condition

$$\left|\frac{f_n(x)-f_n(x_0)}{x-x_0}-\frac{f_m(x)-f_m(x_0)}{x-x_0}\right|<\frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

so, noting that the left term above is equal to

$$\left|\frac{[f_n(x)-f_m(x)]-[f_n(x_0)-f_m(x_0)]}{x-x_0}\right|$$

which is equal to $|f_n'(c)-f_m'(c)|$ by the MVT, from which we can apply the Cauchy form of the uniform convergence of $(f_n)'$ condition.

- **Pointwise bounded** ($\{f_n\}$): A sequence of real functions $\{f_n\}$ such that for all $x \in X$, there exists $M_x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $|f_n(x)| \leq M_x$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- **Uniformly bounded** ($\{f_n\}$): A sequence of real functions $\{f_n\}$ for which there exists $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $x \in X$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $|f_n(x)| \leq M$.
- Proposition: $f_n : E \to \mathbb{R}$, $\{f_n\}$ is pointwise bounded, and E is countable implies there is a subsequence $\{f_{n_k}\}$ that converges pointwise.
  - Enumerate $E = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$.
  - Then since $\{f_n(x_m)\}$ is bounded for all m by hypothesis, it always has a convergent subsequence.
  - The claim is if you look at the sequence of diagonal functions, it is such a subsequence, i.e., if $f_1(x_1)$ is the first term for x_1, $f_3(x_2)$ is the second term for x_2, $f_{11}(x_3)$ is the third term for x_3, and so on, $f_1, f_3, f_{11}, \dots$ is such a subsequence.

2/9:
- Build up to the Arzelà-Ascoli theorem.

2/11:
- The Arzelà-Ascoli theorem.

Chapter 9

Functions of Several Variables

9.1 Notes

2/14: • Plan:

1. Warm-up with matrices.
2. The total derivatives of $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ($n = m = 2$, 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., $\mathbb{R}^{mn} \times \mathbb{R}^{nl} \xrightarrow[\text{mult.}]{\text{matrix}} \mathbb{R}^{ml}$.
- 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. $|A\mathbf{x}| \leq \|A\||x|$.
    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. $\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$.
    6. $\|AB\| \leq \|A\|\|B\|$.
  - 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 $\mathbf{f}$ at $\mathbf{x}_0$): The linear transformation A in the above definition. *Denoted by* $\mathbf{f'(x_0)}$, $\boldsymbol{D}\mathbf{f(x_0)}$, $\boldsymbol{d}\mathbf{f(x_0)}$.
- "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 $\mathbf{f}$ is differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 \in U$ and A, B are both derivatives of $\mathbf{f}$ 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 $\mathbf{f}$ 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 $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $1 \leq i \leq m$, and $1 \leq j \leq n$. *Denoted by* $\boldsymbol{(\partial f_i/\partial x_j)(\mathbf{x}_0)}$, $\boldsymbol{(D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x}_0)}$. *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 $1 \leq i \leq m$. *Denoted by* $\boldsymbol{D_{\mathbf{u}} f_i}$. *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 $\partial f_i/\partial x_j$ $(1 \leq i \leq m;\ 1 \leq j \leq n)$ 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
$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{e}_j) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}_0)(t\mathbf{e}_j) + \mathbf{r}(t\mathbf{e}_j)$$
  - Since $\mathbf{f}$ is differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0$, $\mathbf{f}(t\mathbf{e}_j)/t \to 0$ 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 $\mathbf{f}$ is differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0$.
- Theorem: $\mathbf{f}$ continuously differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0$ iff all partials exist and are continuous at $\mathbf{x}_0$.
- 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.

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 $1 \leq r \leq n$ 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
  $$\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\| \qquad\qquad \|cA\| = |c|\|A\|$$
  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
  $$\|BA\| \leq \|B\|\|A\|$$
- 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 $\|B - A\| \cdot \left\|A^{-1}\right\| < 1$ implies $B \in \Omega$.

  Proof. Let $\left\|A^{-1}\right\| = 1/\alpha$, and let $\|B - A\| = \beta$. Then
  $$\begin{aligned} \|B - A\| \cdot \left\|A^{-1}\right\| &< 1 \\ \beta \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha} &< 1 \\ \beta &< \alpha \end{aligned}$$
  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
  $$\begin{aligned} \alpha|\mathbf{x}| = \alpha|A^{-1}A\mathbf{x}| \leq \alpha\left\|A^{-1}\right\| \cdot |Ax| = |A\mathbf{x}| \leq |(A - B)\mathbf{x}| + |B\mathbf{x}| &\leq \beta|\mathbf{x}| + |B\mathbf{x}| \\ (\alpha - \beta)|\mathbf{x}| &\leq |B\mathbf{x}| \end{aligned}$$
  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 $\|B - A\| \cdot \left\|A^{-1}\right\| < 1$, so $B \in \Omega$ by part (a), as desired.
  To prove that $A \mapsto A^{-1}$ is continuous, it will suffice to show that $\left\|B^{-1} - A^{-1}\right\| \to 0$ 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
  $$\begin{aligned} (\alpha - \beta)|B^{-1}\mathbf{y}| &\leq |BB^{-1}\mathbf{y}| = |\mathbf{y}| \\ \left|B^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|}\right)\right| &\leq (\alpha - \beta)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$
  Thus, since $|B^{-1}\mathbf{u}|$ is bounded by $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$ for every unit vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\left\|B^{-1}\right\|$ is bounded by $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$. This combined with the fact that
  $$\begin{aligned} B^{-1} - A^{-1} &= B^{-1}I - IA^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}AA^{-1} - B^{-1}BA^{-1} \\ &= B^{-1}(A - B)A^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

implies by Theorem 9.7c that

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

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

- 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

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

- "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 $\mathbb{R}^n$ 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 $\mathbf{f}' : E \to L(\mathbb{R}^n,\mathbb{R}^m)$.
- $\mathbf{f}$ differentiable implies $\mathbf{f}$ continuous.
- Example ($\mathbf{f}$ 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

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

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. $\square$

- **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 $f_i(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}_i$ $(1 \leq i \leq m)$, where $\mathbf{u}_1,\dots,\mathbf{u}_m$ is the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^m$.

[1] Note 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 $(D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x})$ exist and
$$\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_j = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (D_j f_i)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{u}_i$$
for $1 \leq j \leq n$.
- 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
$$\|\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\| \leq M$$
for all $\mathbf{x} \in E$ implies
$$|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})| \leq M|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}|$$
for all $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in E$.
- 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* $\boldsymbol{\mathscr{C}^1}$**-mapping**. *Denoted by* $\mathbf{f} \in \boldsymbol{\mathscr{C}^1(E)}$.
- 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 $D_j f_i$ $(1 \leq i \leq m;\ 1 \leq j \leq n)$ exist and are continuous on E.

2/20:

- **Contraction** (of X into X): A function $\varphi : X \to X$ for which there exists a number $c < 1$ such that
$$d(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) \leq c \cdot d(x, y)$$
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 $n \geq 1$, we have
$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) = d(\varphi(x_n), \varphi(x_{n-1})) \leq c \cdot d(x_n, x_{n-1})$$
or, for $n \geq 0$,
$$d(x_{n+1}, x_n) \leq c^n d(x_1, x_0)$$
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 $m \geq n \geq N$ implies $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$. But since
$$\begin{aligned} d(x_n, x_m) &\leq \sum_{i=n+1}^{m} d(x_i, x_{i-1}) \\ &\leq (c^n + c^{n+1} + \cdots + c^{m-1}) d(x_1, x_0) \\ &\leq [(1-c)^{-1} d(x_1, x_0)] c^n \end{aligned}$$

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,

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

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

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

  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

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

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

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

  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 $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{B}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
|\varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{x}_0| &\leq |\varphi(\mathbf{x}) - \varphi(\mathbf{x}_0)| + |\varphi(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{x}_0| \\
&< \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| + \frac{r}{2} \\
&\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot r + \frac{r}{2} \\
&= r
\end{aligned}$$

[2] How 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.,

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{y}) - T\mathbf{k} &= \mathbf{h} - T\mathbf{k}\\ &= -T[(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{k}) - \mathbf{y}] + T\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}\\ &= -T[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{h}]\end{aligned}$$

we have that

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

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).