

Homework 1 - Spring 2020 MATH 126-001 - Introduction to PDEs

1. Show that there exists a continuous function that does not map open sets to open sets.
2. Show that there exists a continuous function that does not map simply connected sets to simply connected sets.
3. Let

$$I = \{(x, 0) \mid x \in (0, 1)\}$$
$$J = \{(x, 0) \mid x \in [0, 1]\}.$$

- (a) Is the set $\mathbf{R}^2 \setminus I$ open or closed?
 - (b) Is the set $\mathbf{R}^2 \setminus J$ open or closed?
4. The velocity of a particle with respect to position is given by

$$v(x) = xe^x.$$

Find the acceleration function with respect to position.

5. Let $f : \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ where $f \in C^2(\mathbf{R}^2)$. Let $s(\alpha, \beta) = \alpha + \beta t$ and suppose

$$G(a, b, c, d) = f(s(a, b), s(c, d)).$$

Show that G satisfies the partial differential equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial c \partial b} = \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial a \partial d}.$$

6. Suppose $y \in C^2((0, \infty))$ is a solution of the differential equation

$$t^2 y''(t) + \alpha t y'(t) + y(t) = 0.$$

Let $x = \ln(t)$ and express the differential equation of $y(t)$ with respect to x .

7. Determine if the system

$$u(x, y, z) = x + xyz$$
$$v(x, y, z) = y + xy$$
$$w(x, y, z) = z + 2x + 3z^2$$

can be solved for x, y, z in terms of (u, v, w) near $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$.

8. Define $\mathbf{F} : \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^2$ by

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (e^x \cos(y), e^x \sin(y)).$$

- (a) Show that $\mathbf{F} \in C^1$ and that $d\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ is invertible for all $(x, y) \in \mathbf{R}^2$.
- (b) Is \mathbf{F} one to one on all of \mathbf{R}^2 ? Is there a contradiction with the Inverse Function Theorem?

9. Consider the function

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

- (a) Show f' exists for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$.
- (b) Show $f'(0) > 0$.
- (c) Can the hypothesis that $f \in C^1$ be weakened in the Inverse Function Theorem?

Homework 1 Solution

1. Idea: $f(x) = x$ or $f(x) = -x$ does not work.

Any strictly increasing or strictly decreasing function does not work.

$f(x) = \cos x$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function.

It sends \mathbb{R} onto $[-1, 1]$.
(open) (not open)

[Another extreme example: $f(x) = 0$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, a constant function.]

2. Idea: The most famous non-simply connected set is the unit circle.

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ (or one can restrict to $f: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$),
defined by $f(x) = (\cos x, \sin x)$ is a continuous function.

It sends \mathbb{R} or $[0, 2\pi]$ (both simply connected) to the unit circle (non-simply connected).

3. Idea: "the complement of open is closed and vice versa".

$\bar{C} = C$ implies C : closed" & " U : open means

any point is in a small ball."

(a) $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus I$: closed or open? is the same question as

I : open or closed?

Is I open? No, because $(\frac{1}{2}, 0) \in I$ does not have a small ball in I containing $(\frac{1}{2}, 0)$.

closed? No, \bar{I} contains $(0, 0)$ which is not in I .

So, $\bar{I} \neq I$.

Therefore, $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus I$ is neither open nor closed.

(6) Similarly to (a), we need to check about J . 2

J is not open for the same reason as I not open.

But, \overline{J} is the same as J , so it is closed.

Therefore, $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus J$ is not closed but it is open.

⚡ Openness and Closedness are not exclusive.

Just like (a), a set can be neither of them.

Like (6), a set can be open but not closed.

Similarly, a set can be closed but not open.

Finally, just like \mathbb{R}^2 , it can be both open and closed, but mostly there are only a few.

4. Idea: The acceleration is the derivative of the velocity with respect to the time. We need Chain rule.

Let t be the time variable and I will abuse notation so that $x(t)$ is the position "function" with respect to the variable t . Then, $v(x(t))$ is the velocity with respect to the time. So, the acceleration is $(v(x(t)))' = v'(x(t)) \cdot x'(t)$. However, $x'(t)$ is the velocity at time t which is just $v(x(t))$. Noting that $v'(x(t))$ means $\frac{dv}{dx}(x(t))$, the acceleration is $(x+1) \cdot e^x \cdot x \cdot e^x = x(x+1) \cdot e^{2x}$.

5. Idea: Use Chain rule to express the second partial derivatives of G in terms of f .

$$\begin{aligned}
 1) \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x \partial b} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial b} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial b} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial b} \right) \\
 &\stackrel{\text{Chain rule}}{=} \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial b} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial b} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot t + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot 0 \right) \\
 &\stackrel{\text{Chain rule}}{=} \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot t \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) \cdot t + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial t}{\partial c}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Chain rule} & \rightarrow \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial c} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial c} \right] \cdot t \\ & = \left[\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \cdot \frac{\partial s(a,b)}{\partial c} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial s(c,d)}{\partial c} \right] t = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \times t. \end{aligned}$$

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2) In a similar way, you can compute $\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial a \partial b}$.
For the sake of simplicity, I'll use G_a instead of $\frac{\partial G}{\partial a}$
or f_y instead of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$.

$$\text{Now, } G_{sa} = (G_a)_a = \left(f_x \cdot \underbrace{x_a}_0 + f_y \cdot \underbrace{y_a}_t \right)_a = (f_y \cdot t)_a$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{prod. rule} & \rightarrow \underline{=} (f_y)_a \cdot t + f_y \cdot \underbrace{t_a}_0 \\ \text{chain rule} & \rightarrow \underline{=} \left(f_{yx} \cdot \underbrace{x_a}_1 + f_{yy} \cdot \underbrace{y_a}_0 \right) \cdot t \\ & = f_{yx} \cdot t. \end{aligned}$$

3) Now, we use Clairaut's theorem.

$$\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial c \partial b} \text{ is } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \cdot t \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial a \partial d} \text{ is } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \cdot t.$$

Once f is C^2 , by Clairaut's theorem, they equal.

But this is given in the problem. So, they equal.
($f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$.)

⚡ You should end up getting f_{xy} and f_{yx} and need Clairaut's theorem to prove this problem. $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ condition is crucial.

6. Idea: Introduce a new function $Z(x)$ defined by $y(e^x)$.

For example, if $y(t)$ is given as $y(t) = t^2$, then the new $Z(x)$ is given as $Z(x) = e^{2x}$.

We want to change y 's diff. eqn with respect to t into Z 's diff. eqn with respect to x .

Note that $Z(x)$ is defined to be $y(e^x)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz(x)}{dx} &= \frac{dy(e^x)}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt}(e^x) \cdot \frac{de^x}{dx} \quad (\text{Chain rule}) \\ &= y'(e^x) \cdot e^x \quad \dots\dots (*)\end{aligned}$$

(Note that $y'(e^x)$ is y' and then plug in e^x instead of t .)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2z(x)}{dx^2} &= \frac{d}{dx} (y'(e^x) \cdot e^x) = \frac{d}{dx} (y'(e^x)) \cdot e^x + y'(e^x) \cdot \frac{de^x}{dx} \\ &= \frac{dy'}{dt}(e^x) \cdot \frac{de^x}{dx} \cdot e^x + y'(e^x) \cdot e^x \\ &= y''(e^x) \cdot e^{2x} + y'(e^x) \cdot e^x \quad \dots\dots (**)\end{aligned}$$

If you replace t by e^x in the given differential equation, you get

$$e^{2x} \cdot y''(e^x) + \alpha \cdot e^x \cdot y'(e^x) + y(e^x) = 0.$$

Combining (*) and (**), we have

$$e^{2x} \cdot y''(e^x) = z''(x) - z'(x)$$

$$\text{and } e^x \cdot y'(e^x) = z'(x)$$

$$\text{and } y(e^x) = z(x) \quad (\text{this is how we defined } z(x).)$$

So, we get a new differential equation

$$z''(x) - z'(x) + \alpha \cdot z'(x) + z(x) = 0$$

$$\text{or, } z''(x) + (\alpha - 1) \cdot z'(x) + z(x) = 0$$

↳ $t^2 \cdot y'' + \alpha t \cdot y' + y = 0$ is an example of Euler equations.

What we have done here is to get an equivalent but easier-looking equation: $z'' + (\alpha - 1) \cdot z' + z = 0$.

7. Idea: This is an Inverse Function Theorem problem.

Recall what it is.

u, v, w are functions of x, y, z . The question is asking if x, y, z are functions of u, v, w near $(0, 0, 0)$.

According to Inverse Function Theorem, we only need to check if the Jacobian is invertible at $(x, y, z, u, v, w) = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$.

It is $\begin{pmatrix} u_x & u_y & u_z \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \\ w_x & w_y & w_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+yz & xz & xy \\ y & 1+x & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1+6z \end{pmatrix}$. At $x=y=z=0$,

it becomes $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ← lower triangular matrix whose determinant is $1 \times 1 \times 1 = 1$.

Therefore, the Jacobian is invertible. We know that u, v, w are all $C^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$, so by Inverse Function Theorem x, y, z can be expressed in terms of u, v, w .

8. Idea: Inverse Function Theorem asserts that there is an inverse function ONLY near the point.

(a) e^x and $\cos y, \sin y$ are all C^1 functions with respect to x and y . So, f sending (x, y) to $(e^x \cos y, e^x \sin y)$ is C^1 . df is computed by $\begin{pmatrix} \partial f_1 / \partial x & \partial f_1 / \partial y \\ \partial f_2 / \partial x & \partial f_2 / \partial y \end{pmatrix}$ where $f = (f_1, f_2)$.

It is $\begin{pmatrix} e^x \cos y & -e^x \sin y \\ e^x \sin y & e^x \cos y \end{pmatrix}$ and the determinant is $e^{2x} \cos^2 y - (-e^{2x} \sin^2 y) = e^{2x} (\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y) = e^{2x} > 0$.

So, df is invertible.

(b) f is not one-to-one on all of \mathbb{R}^2 because $f(0, 0) = (1, 0)$ and $f(0, 2\pi) = (1, 0)$.

This does not contradict to Inverse Function Theorem because the theorem says f is one-to-one only near the point whose Jacobian is nonzero.

f is one-to-one in a small neighborhood of $(0, 0)$ and so is in a small nbhd of $(0, 2\pi)$ separately.

9. Idea: Follow the instruction...

(a) f' exists outside of $x=0$ for free (it is the product of differentiable functions).

Main thing is near $x=0$. To prove this, we need to check

if $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0}$ is well-defined. (In other words, if the limit exists.)

$$\frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{\frac{x}{2} + x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) - 0}{x} = \frac{1}{2} + x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right).$$

As x goes to 0 (from right or left), x goes to 0 and $\sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ is always bounded by ± 1 .

So, the limit exists and it is $\frac{1}{2} + 0 = \frac{1}{2}$.

(b) $f'(0)$ is computed in (a). It is $\frac{1}{2} > 0$.

(c) $f(x)$ is differentiable as we have proven in (a), but it is not C^1 because $f'(x)$ is not continuous.

Why? $f'(x)$ outside $x=0$ can be computed using the product rule: $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} + 2x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + x^2 \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \cdot -\frac{1}{x^2}$
 $= \frac{1}{2} + 2x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right).$

As x goes to 0, this oscillates radically because of $\cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ term. So, the limit of $f'(x)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$ does not exist. It cannot be continuous at $x=0$.

Hence, one cannot use Inverse Function Theorem.

⚡ It is not only that the theorem cannot be applied, but also that the theorem's statement does not hold. Even if $f'(0) > 0$ and $f'(x)$ exists, f is not one-to-one in any small nbhd of $x=0$. You can be more convinced by considering:

- You can imagine the graph near 0. (It increases and decreases.)

- More concretely, $f'(x)$ is $-\frac{1}{2} < 0$ if $x = \frac{1}{2n\pi}$ for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

$\frac{3}{2} > 0$ if $x = \frac{1}{(2n+1)\pi}$ for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

You can find large enough n s.t. $\frac{1}{2n\pi}, \frac{1}{(2n+1)\pi}$ is in your small nbhd of $x=0$.