- 1. (20 points) (Parts are unrelated to each other in this question.)
- (a) Parametrize the line segment starting at (1, 1, 1) and ending at (2, 1, 3).One parametrization is given by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1, 1, 1)(1 - t) + (2, 1, 3)t$$
 for $0 \le t \le 1$.

I didn't take off points if you forgot the domain of \mathbf{r} .

(b) Find the point where the line (t, 1 − t, 1 − t) intersects the plane 2x − y − z = 0.
Since x(t) = t, y(t) = 1 − t, z(t) = 1 − t, you should first plug these into the equation of the plane and solve for t:

$$2t - (1 - t) - (1 - t) = 0 \implies 4t = 2 \implies t = 1/2$$

So the point is (1/2, 1/2, 1/2).

(c) Given a C^1 function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, what is the direction of greatest increase at a point \mathbf{x}_0 ?

The direction of greatest increase is the direction of the gradient. Since direction is a unit vector, the answer is $\nabla f(x_0)/\|\nabla f(x_0)\|$ if $\nabla f(x_0) \neq 0$. If it is the zero vector, then we might not be able to say what the direction of greatest increase is.

(d) Let
$$f(x,y) = ye^{\sin(y)} + xe^{\cos(x)}$$
. Find $\frac{\partial^4 f}{\partial x(\partial y)^3}(1,2)$.

By properties of differentiable functions (multiplication, composition, addition), f(x, y) is infinitely differentiable. Therefore we can move around all the partials we want.

$$\frac{\partial^4 f}{\partial x (\partial y)^3} = \frac{\partial^4 f}{(\partial y)^3 \partial x} = \frac{\partial^3}{(\partial y)^3} (\text{some function of only } x) = 0,$$

since the partial derivative with respect to x of $ye^{\sin(y)}$ is the zero function.

2. (20 points)

Let $f(x,y) = \frac{x^3}{3} - x + \frac{y^2}{2} - y$. Let *D* be the closed region the triangle with vertices at (0,0), (0,2), and (2,2). Find the absolute maximum and minimum of *f* on *D*.

Solution: First, check where the gradient is zero inside the region:

$$\nabla f = (x^2 - 1, y - 1) = (0, 0)$$
 at $(\pm 1, 1)$.

The only point inside the region out of these two is (1, 1).

Next, check the boundaries. The triangle has three sides: $y = x, 0 \le x \le 2$; $x = 0, 0 \le y \le 2$; and $y = 2, 0 \le x \le 2$.

• On y = x,

$$f(x, x) = \frac{x^3}{3} - x + \frac{x^2}{2} - x = g_1(x).$$

Then $g'_1(x) = x^2 + x - 2 = (x + 2)(x - 1)$. This gives us the point (1, 1), which we already had above. (-2, -2) is not inside the region.

• On x = 0,

$$f(0,y) = y^2/2 - y = g_2(y)$$

Then $g'_2(y) = y - 1 = 0$ when y = 1. This gives us the point (0, 1).

• On y = 2,

$$f(x,2) = x^3/3 - x + 2 - 2 = x^3/3 - x = g_3(x).$$

Then $g'_3(x) = x^2 - 1 = (x+1)(x-1)$, giving us the point (1,2).

Finally, we have three more points coming from the boundary of these lines, namely (0,0), (2,0), and (2,2).

Plugging in each of these six points, the absolute minimum is f(1, 1) = -7/6 and the absolute maximum is f(2, 2) = 2/3.

3. (20 points) Let $f(x,y) = (e^x \sin(y), e^x \cos(y))$. If $x(t) = \cos(t)$ and $y(t) = \sin(t)$, using the Chain Rule, find $\frac{df}{dt}$ at t = 0.

Solution: Think of $\mathbf{c}(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ as a column vector. The chain rule tells us

$$\frac{df}{dt}(0) = Df(x(0), y(0))\mathbf{c}'(0).$$

First,

$$Df = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} e^x \sin(y) & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} e^x \sin(y) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} e^x \cos(y) & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} e^x \cos(y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^x \sin(y) & e^x \cos(y) \\ e^x \cos(y) & -e^x \sin(y) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since (x(0), y(0)) = (1, 0), Df evaluated at t = 0 is

$$Df(1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e \\ e & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Also, $\mathbf{c}'(0) = (0, 1)^T$. Therefore,

$$\frac{df}{dt}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e \\ e & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

4. (20 points)

- (a) State the Implicit Function Theorem for C^1 functions $F : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{R}$. See book.
- (b) State the Inverse Function Theorem. See book.
- (c) Prove the Inverse Function Theorem using Implicit Function Theorem.

Solution: Assume that the system

$$\begin{cases} y_1 &= f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots &= \vdots \\ y_n &= f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{cases}$$

is such that

$$J(f)(x_0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots \ddots \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} (x_0)$$

is invertible. Let $F_i(y, x) = f_i(x) - y_i$ for $1 \le i \le n$. Then the function $F : \mathbb{R}^{2n} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by $F(y, x) = (F_1(y, x), \dots, F_n(y, x)) = 0$ at (y_0, x_0) (where $y_0 = (f_1(x_0), \dots, f_n(x_0))$). Moreover, we have

$$D_x(F)(y_0, x_0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots \ddots \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} (y_0, x_0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots \ddots \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} (x_0),$$

and therefore $D_x(F)(y_0, x_0)$ is invertible. So the (general) Implicit Function Theorem guarantees that $x_i = g_i(y_1, \ldots, y_n)$ in some open set containing (y_0, x_0) for $1 \le i \le n$ and g_i are continuously differentiable.

5. (20 points)

- (a) A norm has 4 properties (including triangle inequality). Define what a norm on \mathbb{R}^2 is. A norm on \mathbb{R}^2 is **any** function $\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying
 - (i) $||(x, y)|| \ge 0$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$;
 - (ii) ||(x, y)|| = 0 if and only if (x, y) = (0, 0);
 - (iii) For $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $\|\alpha(x, y)\| = |\alpha| \|(x, y)\|$;
 - (iv) $||(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2)|| \le ||(x_1, y_1)|| + ||(x_2, y_2)||.$
- (b) Prove that the function $\|\cdot\|_1 : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$||(x,y)||_1 = |x| + |y|$$

is a norm on \mathbb{R}^2 . This is called the ℓ_1 norm on \mathbb{R}^2 .

- (i) $||(x,y)||_1 = |x| + |y| \ge 0$ for all $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ since absolute value is always nonnegative;
- (ii) $||(x, y)||_1 = 0$ if and only if |x| + |y| = 0, which only happens when x = 0 and y = 0 since absolute value is zero if and only if the input is zero;
- (iii) For $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|\alpha(x,y)||_1 = ||(\alpha x, \alpha y)||_1 = |\alpha x| + |\alpha y| = |\alpha||x| + |\alpha||y| = |\alpha|(|x| + |y|) = |\alpha|||(x,y)||_1;$$

(iv)

$$\|(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2)\|_1 = \|(x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2)\|_1 = |x_1 + x_2| + |y_1 + y_2|$$

$$\le |x_1| + |x_2| + |y_1| + |y_2| = (|x_1| + |y_1|) + (|x_2| + |y_2|) = \|(x_1, y_1)\|_1 + \|(x_2, y_2)\|_1.$$

(c) Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} x+y \text{ if } x \text{ or } y \text{ are rational,} \\ x-y \text{ if } x \text{ and } y \text{ are irrational} \end{cases}$$

Prove that f is continuous at (0,0) with respect to the ℓ_1 norm (that is, in the definition of continuity, show that $||(x,y) - (0,0)||_1 < \delta$ implies ...).

Note that

$$|x+y| \le |x|+|y| = ||(x,y)||_1$$
 and $|x-y| \le |x|+|y| = ||(x,y)||_1$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Let $\delta = \varepsilon$. By the above computation, no matter what $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is,

$$|f(x,y) - f(0,0)| \le |x| + |y| = ||(x,y)||_1.$$

Therefore, if $||(x, y)||_1 < \delta$ then $|f(x, y) - f(0, 0)| < \delta = \varepsilon$.

Bonus (10 points) Let \mathbb{Q} be the set of rational numbers. Given a prime number p, any nonzero rational number x can be expressed as $x = p^a \cdot \frac{n}{d}$ for a unique integer a, where n and d are integers not divisible by p.

For a prime number p, define $|\cdot|_p: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}$ by $|x|_p = p^{-a}$, if x is as above, and define $|0|_p = 0$.

(a) Prove $|\cdot|_p$ is a norm on \mathbb{Q} (is this even a well-defined function?).

This is well-defined because the expression for rational numbers given above is unique. As in the previous question, we check the properties of a norm:

- (i), (ii) $|x|_p = p^{-a}$ where a is uniquely given if x is rational and nonzero. p^{-a} is strictly positive for any integer a. If x = 0, then by definition $|0|_p = 0$.
 - (iii) Since $|\cdot|_p$ is only defined for rationals, let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$. α can be uniquely expressed as $p^b m/k$. Let $x = p^a n/d$ as above. Then

$$|\alpha x|_p = |p^{a+b}mn/(kd)|_p = p^{-a-b} = p^{-a}p^{-b} = |\alpha|_p |x|_p.$$

Above, it's easy to see that mn/(kd) is such that the numerator and denominator both don't have any powers of p, since p is prime. (Sorry, this part of inner product was vague. The absolute value we have to use here is $|\cdot|_p$ itself.)

(iv) Let $x = p^a n/d$ and $y = p^b m/k$, where n, d, m, k are not divisible by p. Assume for simplicity that $a \leq b$. Then,

$$x + y = p^{a}(n/d + p^{b-a}m/k) = p^{a}\frac{nk + p^{b-a}md}{dk}.$$

Since p is a prime that doesn't divide d or k, it does not divide dk. Let c be the largest integer such that $nk + p^{b-a}md = p^{c}l$ where l is not divisible by p. Then

$$|x+y|_p = |p^{a+c}\frac{l}{dk}| = p^{-a-c} \le p^{-a} \le \max\{p^{-a}, p^{-b}\} = \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\} \le |x|_p + |y|_p.$$

(b) Show that $|\cdot|_p$ is non-archimedean with respect to distance, that is,

$$|x+y|_p \le \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\}.$$

It has been observed that on quantum scales, distances behave this way. (What does this say about triangles in such spaces?)

See above.

(c) Compute $|n/8|_2$ for $1 \le n \le 8$ and verify the non-archimedean property for some case.

$ \begin{bmatrix} 1/8 _2 \\ 2/8 _2 \\ 3/8 _2 \\ 4/8 _2 \\ 5/8 _2 \\ 6/8 _2 \\ 7/8 _2 \\ 8/8 _2 \end{bmatrix} = $	$ \begin{bmatrix} 1/8 _2 \\ 1/4 _2 \\ 3/8 _2 \\ 1/2 _2 \\ 5/8 _2 \\ 3/4 _2 \\ 7/8 _2 \\ 1 _2 \end{bmatrix} = $	$\begin{bmatrix} 2^{-3} _2\\ 2^{-2} _2\\ 2^{-3}3 _2\\ 2^{-1} _2\\ 2^{-3}5 _2\\ 2^{-2}3 _2\\ 2^{-3}7 _2\\ 1 _2 \end{bmatrix} =$	$\begin{bmatrix} 2^{3} \\ 2^{2} \\ 2^{3} \\ 2 \\ 2^{3} \\ 2^{2} \\ 2^{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} =$	$\begin{bmatrix} 8\\4\\8\\2\\8\\4\\8\\1\end{bmatrix}.$
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Notice that

$$4 = |6/8|_p = |4/8 + 2/8|_p \le \max\{|1/2|_p, |1/4|_p\} = \max\{2, 4\} = 4.$$

Triangles in such spaces have the following property: all triangles are isosceles. Let $|x|_p$ be the length of one side and $|y|_p$ be the length of another side (and therefore the third side has length $|x + y|_p$). If $|x|_p = |y|_p$ then the triangle is isosceles and we are done. Otherwise, we can assume that $|x|_p > |y|_p$. In this case,

$$|x+y|_p \le \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\} = |x|_p.$$

But also by the triangle inequality,

$$|x|_{p} = |x + y - y|_{p} \le \max\{|x + y|_{p}, |y|_{p}\}.$$

Since $|x|_p > |y|_p$, the maximum above must be $|x + y|_p$. So $|x|_p \le |x + y|_p$. We just showed that $|x + y|_p \le |x|_p \le |x + y|_p$ and therefore $|x|_p = |x + y|_p$.