

The inverse and implicit function theorems

Motivations.

Consider the 1-dimensional situation.

Q1. Suppose $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable and $f'(x) > 0$ for every $x \in (a, b)$.

(a) What can you say about f ? f is strictly increasing on (a, b) .

(b) Is f injective? Yes.

(c) Is f surjective? Not necessarily; eg. $f(x) = x$, $a=0, b=1$.

(d) If $(c, d) = f(a, b)$ is the image of (a, b) under f , can we define $g: (c, d) \rightarrow (a, b)$ such that

$$\begin{cases} g(f(x)) = x & \forall x \in (a, b) \\ f(g(y)) = y & \forall y \in (c, d) \end{cases} ? \quad \text{Yes.}$$

(e) Is the function g defined in (d) differentiable? Yes

What is $g'(y)$? $g'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(g(y))}$ by chain rule.

Q2. Suppose now $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is still differentiable
 $0 \in (a, b)$, and $f'(0) > 0$.

(a) Must f be strictly increasing on (a, b) ?

No, e.g. $f(x) = \sin x$, $(a, b) = (-\pi, \pi)$



(b) Must there be some (possibly tiny but non-empty) open interval I containing 0 so that f is strictly increasing on I ?

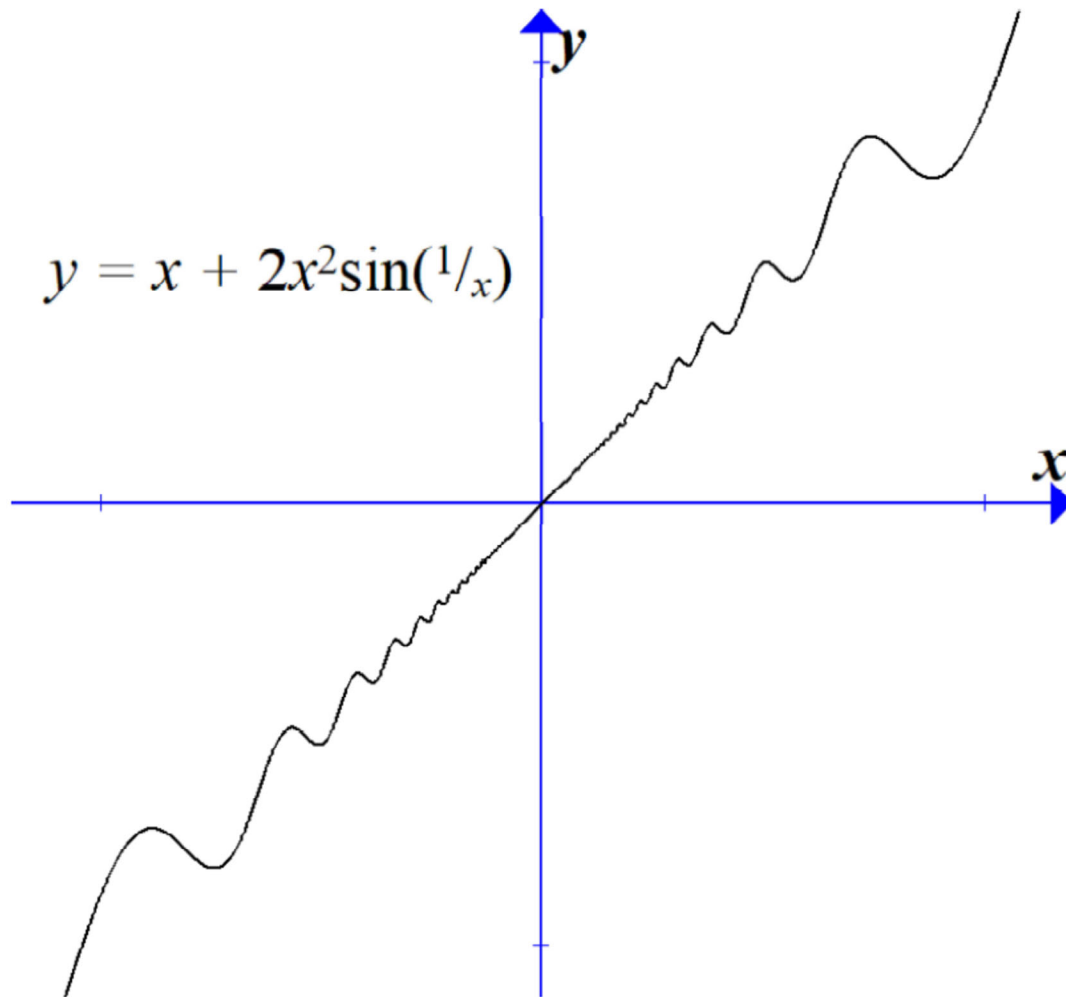
Again no!

$$\text{e.g. } f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Then } f'(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x + 2x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} - 0}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + 2x \sin \frac{1}{x}) = 1 > 0, \text{ but for } x \neq 0,$$

$f'(x) = 1 + 4x \sin \frac{1}{x} - 2 \cos \frac{1}{x}$ which can be negative on intervals arbitrarily close to 0 .



The function

$f(x) = x + 2x^2 \sin(\frac{1}{x})$ is bounded inside a quadratic envelope near the line $y = x$, so $f'(0) = 1$.

Nevertheless, it has local max/min points accumulating at $x = 0$, so it is not one-to-one on any surrounding interval.

Source: Wikipedia

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - 2\cos\frac{1}{x} + 4x\sin\frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Problem: $f'(x)$ is

not continuous at $x=0$!

Q3. Suppose $f : (a,b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not only differentiable on (a,b) , but f' is continuous on (a,b) . Suppose also $f'(0) \neq 0$. Must there be some non-empty open interval I near 0 such that f is monotone on I ?

Yes! Just choose some open interval I containing 0 so that $f'(x) \neq 0 \quad \forall x \in I$.

This guarantees that f is injective on I .

This generalizes to higher dimension.

Theorem (Inverse function theorem on \mathbb{R}^n , $n \geq 1$)

Suppose $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open set and $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is continuously differentiable (i.e. differentiable with a continuous derivative). If $Df(x_0)$ is invertible (on \mathbb{R}^n) for some $x_0 \in \Omega$, then \exists open set $V \subseteq \Omega$ containing x_0 such that $f: V \rightarrow f(V)$ is bijective, and its inverse map $g: f(V) \rightarrow V$ is continuously differentiable. Furthermore,

$$Dg(y) = [Df(g(y))]^{-1} \quad \forall y \in f(V).$$

If $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is C^∞ , then so is $g: f(V) \rightarrow V$.

$Df(x_0)$ is an $n \times n$ matrix!
" $Df(x_0)$ invertible" is the same as saying " $\det(Df(x_0)) \neq 0$ ".

(The most difficult part of the proof is in establishing that f is injective on some open set V containing x_0 . This is done using e.g. the contraction mapping principle.)

We write $f \in C^1$ if f is continuously differentiable.

Closely related to the inverse function theorem is the implicit function theorem.

Question: If (x_0, y_0) is on a hypersurface $F(x, y) = 0$,
can we parametrize $\{F(x, y) = 0\}$ as the graph of a function $y = \phi(x)$ near the point (x_0, y_0) ?

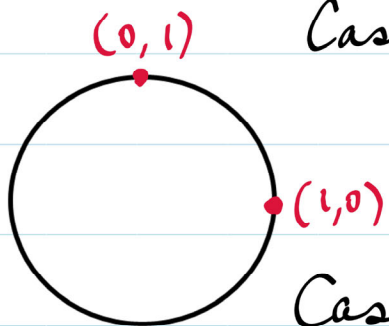
eg. $F(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1$ so that " $F(x, y) = 0$ " is the unit circle centered at 0, (x_0, y_0) lies on the unit circle

Case 1: $(x_0, y_0) = (0, 1)$.

Then near $(0, 1)$, the circle can be described by $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, $x \in (-1, 1)$.

Case 2: $(x_0, y_0) = (1, 0)$ **Problem: $\partial_2 F(1, 0) = 0!$**

Then near $(1, 0)$, the circle cannot be described as a graph $y = \phi(x)$ [Two values of y for each $x \in (0, 1)$].



We use the inverse function theorem to prove the following

Theorem (Implicit function theorem on \mathbb{R}^n , $n > 1$)

Suppose $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open set and $F: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable. If $(x_0, y_0) \in \Omega$ satisfies

$$\begin{cases} F(x_0, y_0) = 0 \\ \partial_y F(x_0, y_0) \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

where y_0 is the last variable of (x_0, y_0) and $\partial_y F$ is partial derivative with respect to the last variable of \mathbb{R}^n , then

\exists open set $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ containing (x_0, y_0) , and a C^1 map $\phi: \pi(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

where $\pi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ is the coordinate projection onto the first $(n-1)$ coordinates,

such that $\begin{cases} (x, y) \in V \\ F(x, y) = 0 \end{cases}$ if and only if $\begin{cases} x \in \pi(V) \\ y = \phi(x) \end{cases}$.

If F is C^∞ on Ω , then $\phi \in C^\infty$ on $\pi(V)$.

Proof. Given F and $(x_0, y_0) \in \Omega$ as in the implicit function theorem, let $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be given by $f(x, y) = (x, F(x, y)) \forall x, y \in \Omega$. Then f is C^1 on Ω , and $\det(Df(x_0, y_0)) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \text{Id}_{n-1} & \vdots & \partial_x F(x_0, y_0) \\ \hline 0 & \vdots & \partial_y F(x_0, y_0) \end{pmatrix} = \partial_y F(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$.

Hence the inverse function theorem applies, and \exists open sets $V \subseteq \Omega$, $U := f(V) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and a C^1 map $g: U \rightarrow V$ such that

$$\textcircled{1} f(g(x, y)) = (x, y) \quad \forall (x, y) \in U \quad \text{and} \quad \textcircled{2} g(f(x, y)) = (x, y) \quad \forall (x, y) \in V.$$

The first $(n-1)$ components of $\textcircled{1}$ shows that $g(x, y) = (x, G(x, y))$ for some C^1 function G on U . The last components of $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$ then shows

$$\textcircled{3} F(x, G(x, y)) = y \quad \forall (x, y) \in U \quad \text{and} \quad \textcircled{4} G(x, F(x, y)) = y \quad \forall (x, y) \in V.$$

$\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$ also ensures that $\pi(U) = \pi(V)$. By shrinking U and V if necessary, we assume $U = \pi(V) \times J$ for some open interval $J \ni 0$. Let $\phi: \pi(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $\phi(x) = G(x, 0) \forall x \in \pi(V)$. If $x \in \pi(V)$ and $y = \phi(x)$, then $(x, 0) \in U$, so

by $\textcircled{3}$, $F(x, y) = F(x, \phi(x)) = F(x, G(x, 0)) = 0$; we also have $(x, y) = g(x, 0) \in V$.

On the other hand, if $(x, y) \in V$ and $F(x, y) = 0$, then by $\textcircled{4}$, $y = G(x, F(x, y)) = G(x, 0) = \phi(x)$ and clearly $x \in \pi(V)$. Finally, if $F \in C^\infty$, then so is f, g, G and hence ϕ .

