

LOCAL COORDINATES AND THE IMPLICIT FUNCTION THEOREM

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At the end of Spivak's section on the implicit function theorem, he states the following result:

Corollary 1. *Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$ be continuously differentiable in an open set containing a , where $p \leq n$. If $D_p f$ has rank r , then there is an open set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ containing p , a second open set B , and a differentiable function $h: B \rightarrow A$ with differentiable inverse such that*

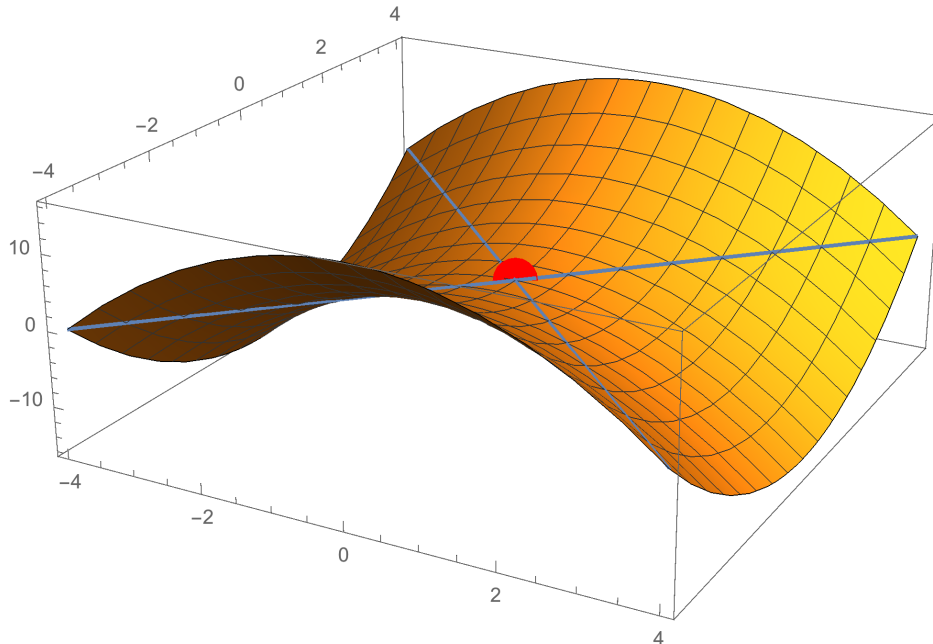
$$f \circ h(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_{n-r+1}, \dots, x_n). \quad \square$$

He doesn't do an especially good job of telling you *why* you would care about this theorem. The hypothesis that $D_a f$ has rank p exactly means that, up to change of basis (using horizontal and vertical Gaussian elimination), the matrix expressing $D_a f$ can be written in the form

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} I & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right).$$

The core idea of the corollary, then, is that h is a kind of Gaussian elimination *for f itself*, so that not only does $D_{h^{-1}(a)}(f \circ h)$ take the form of the centered matrix, but $f \circ h$ itself (i.e., without linearization) literally looks like that centered matrix too.

This is easier to see in an example. Take $f(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$, a function whose graph familiar from the practice midterm:



You've already calculated its derivative to be $D_{(p_x, p_y)} f = (-2p_x \quad 2p_y)$. So, if we pick a point like $p = (1, 0)$, we get $D_{(1,0)} = (-2 \quad 0)$, which is of full rank. The theorem thus applies, guaranteeing the existence of a locally defined function h , comparing our standard coordinates (x, y) with some other coordinates (a, b) ,

and which have the property $f \circ h(a, b) = a$. Thinking of (a, b) as functions of (x, y) , this gives the equation

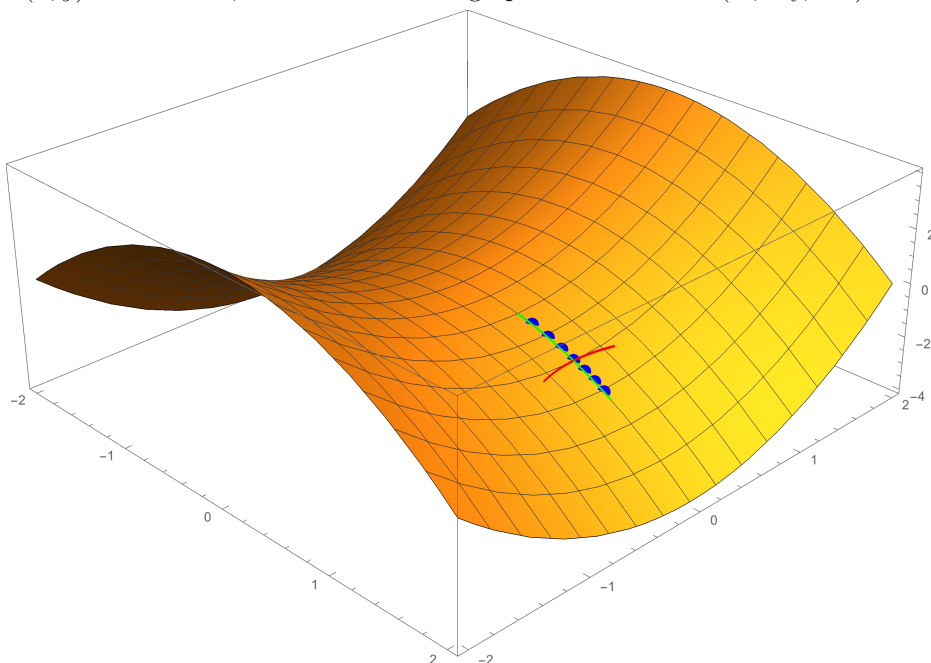
$$a(x, y) = y^2 - x^2.$$

The only constraint on b is that it couple with a to give an invertible function near $(x, y) = (1, 0)$, so we pick $b(x, y) = y$, so that the point $(1, 0)$ in (x, y) -coordinates corresponds to $(-1, 0)$ in (a, b) -coordinates. Back-solving, we learn that under this choice we have

$$y(a, b) = b, \quad x(a, b) = \sqrt{b^2 - a},$$

You'll note that $x(a, b)$ is only well- defined in a range of a values for any given b and that $a(x, y)$ is only injective in a range of x and y values.

What are these coordinate transformations doing? Well, we can draw a picture of what it looks like to “move in the a -direction” or to “move in the b -direction”: the segment of radius $3/4$ in the a -direction centered at $(-1, 0)$ doesn't escape the domain of definition of the coordinate transformation. We can take this segment, translate it into a curve in (x, y) -coordinates, then draw it on the graph of the function (which we have done in green). The segment of radius $1/3$ in the b -direction centered at $(-1, 0)$ doesn't escape the domain of definition of the coordinate transformation either, so we can also take this segment, translate it into a curve in (x, y) -coordinates, and draw it on the graph of the function (in, say, red). Here's the picture:



There are two things to notice: the red coordinate is *not* a linear function, but rather bends away from a straight line as we progress along the curve. It also has another property: it traces out an altitude contour of the graph, so that moving in the red direction *doesn't change the output value of f* . The green coordinate, on the other hand, has the property that it is “unit speed” as you traverse the different possibilities of the variable a . The blue dots are spaced at $1/5$ th intervals in a (i.e., they look like $\dots, (-1/5, 0), (0, 0), (1/5, 0), (2/5, 0), \dots$), and if you look closely you can see that they start to cluster up at they move down the parabola — because they don't have to be spread as far apart horizontally to move vertically by $1/5$ units.