

# Course M1105

Vector functions  
and functions of several variables

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# Chapter 1

## Topology of $\mathbb{R}^n$

### 1.1 Norms and distances on $\mathbb{R}^n$

#### 1.1.1 The space $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Definition 1.1** We define the space  $\mathbb{R}^n = \underbrace{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R}}_{n\text{-times}}$  by

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n) : x_1, \cdots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

with the addition and the scalar multiplication

$$x + y = (x_1, \cdots, x_n) + (y_1, \cdots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \cdots, x_n + y_n), \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
$$\text{and } \alpha x = \alpha (x_1, \cdots, x_n) = (\alpha x_1, \cdots, \alpha x_n), \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Let  $e_1 = (1, 0, \cdots, 0)$ ,  $e_2 = (0, 1, 0, \cdots, 0)$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $e_n = (0, \cdots, 0, 1)$  be the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . An element  $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is therefore written in the form

$$x = x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \cdots + x_n e_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i.$$

Matrix notation is often used  $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$ .

- For  $n = 2$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^2 = \{X = (x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , representing the  $xy$ -plane, with the orthonormal system  $(O, \vec{i}, \vec{j})$  and  $X = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j}$ ,  $\forall X \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .
- For  $n = 3$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^3 = \{X = (x, y, z) : x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , representing the  $xyz$ -space, with the orthonormal system  $(O, \vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k})$  and  $X = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ ,  $\forall X \in \mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Definition 1.2**  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is equipped with a scalar product defined, for two vectors  $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, \cdots, y_n)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , by

$$x \cdot y = \langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

**Theorem 1.1 (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality)**

$\forall x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right| \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

*Proof :* Suppose that  $x$  and  $y$  are not collinear.

We have  $\sum_{i=1}^n (tx_i + y_i)^2 > 0$ , for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (tx_i + y_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (t^2 x_i^2 + 2tx_i y_i + y_i^2) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right) t^2 + 2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right) t + \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right) > 0.$$

Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$ ,  $b = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$  and  $c = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \implies at^2 + 2bt + c > 0$ ,

as  $a > 0 \implies \Delta' = b^2 - ac < 0 \implies b^2 < ac$

$\implies \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right)^2 < \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right)$ , hence the inequality.

If  $x$  and  $y$  are collinear, then  $\exists t_0 \in \mathbb{R}^*$  such that  $y = t_0 x$ , therefore

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n t_0^2 x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |t_0| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

and  $\left| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right| = |t_0| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$ , hence the equality.

**1.1.2 Norms and distances**

**Definition 1.3** A norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is all mapping

$$N : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow [0, \infty[,$$

verifying the three properties :

- $(N_1) \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, N(x) = 0 \iff x = 0_{\mathbb{R}^n};$  (Positivity)
- $(N_2) \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, N(\alpha x) = |\alpha| N(x);$  (Homogeneity)
- $(N_2) \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, N(x + y) \leq N(x) + N(y).$  (Triangular inequality)

**Definition 1.4** A distance on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is all mapping

$$d : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow [0, \infty[,$$

that satisfies :

- $(D_1) \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y;$
- $(D_2) \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, d(x, y) = d(y, x);$
- $(D_3) \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n, d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z).$

**Remark :** For all norm  $\|\cdot\|$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we can associate a distance  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  such that for  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$d(x, y) = N(y - x).$$

The converse is not true, i.e., there are distances that are not deduced from a norm.

**Note :** For  $n = 1$ , the unique usual norm on  $\mathbb{R}$  is the absolute value  $N(x) = |x|$ , and the associated distance is defined by  $d(x, y) = |y - x|$ .

### 1.1.3 Usual Norms and associated distances

In what follows we will study the three usual norms of the space  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

- **First usual norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$**  : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

The first usual norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is defined by

$$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2|,$$

and its associated distance is given by

$$d_1(x, y) = \|y - x\|_1 = |y_1 - x_1| + |y_2 - x_2|.$$

**Proposition 1.1**  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $d_1$  is a distance on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Proof* : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$(N1) \quad \|x\|_1 = 0 \iff |x_1| + |x_2| = 0 \iff |x_1| = |x_2| = 0 \iff x_1 = x_2 = 0 \iff x = (0, 0),$$

$$(N2) \quad \|\alpha x\|_1 = |\alpha x_1| + |\alpha x_2| = |\alpha| |x_1| + |\alpha| |x_2| = |\alpha| (|x_1| + |x_2|) = |\alpha| \|x\|_1, \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$(N3) \quad \|x + y\|_1 = |x_1 + y_1| + |x_2 + y_2| \leq |x_1| + |y_1| + |x_2| + |y_2| \leq \|x\|_1 + \|y\|_1.$$

Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$(D1) \quad d_1(x, y) = 0 \iff \|y - x\|_1 = 0 \iff y - x = 0 \iff x = y,$$

$$(D2) \quad d_1(x, y) = \|y - x\|_1 = \|-(x - y)\|_1 = \|x - y\|_1 = d_1(y, x),$$

$$(D3) \quad d_1(x, z) = \|z - x\|_1 = \|z - y + y - x\|_1 \leq \|z - y\|_1 + \|y - x\|_1 \leq d_1(x, y) + d_2(y, z).$$

- **Second usual norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$**  : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

The second usual norm, called euclidean norm, on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is defined by

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

and its associated distance is given by

$$d_2(x, y) = \|y - x\|_2 = \sqrt{(y_1 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - x_2)^2}.$$

**Proposition 1.2**  $\|\cdot\|_2$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $d_2$  is a distance on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Proof* : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$(N1) \quad \|x\|_2 = 0 \iff \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} = 0 \iff x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 0 \iff x_1 = x_2 = 0 \iff x = (0, 0),$$

$$(N2) \quad \|\alpha x\|_2 = \sqrt{(\alpha x_1)^2 + (\alpha x_2)^2} = \sqrt{\alpha^2 (x_1^2 + x_2^2)} = |\alpha| \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} = |\alpha| \|x\|_2, \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$\begin{aligned} (N3) \quad \|x + y\|_2^2 &= (x_1 + y_1)^2 + (x_2 + y_2)^2 = |x_1 + y_1|^2 + |x_2 + y_2|^2 \\ &\leq (|x_1| + |y_1|)^2 + (|x_2| + |y_2|)^2 \\ &\leq x_1^2 + y_1^2 + 2|x_1||y_1| + x_2^2 + y_2^2 + 2|x_2||y_2| \\ &\leq (x_1^2 + x_2^2) + (y_1^2 + y_2^2) + 2(|x_1||y_1| + |x_2||y_2|). \end{aligned}$$

Using Cauchy-Schwarz inequality  $|x_1||y_1| + |x_2||y_2| \leq \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2}$ ,

then  $\|x + y\|_2^2 \leq \|x\|_2^2 + \|y\|_2^2 + 2\|x\|_2\|y\|_2 \leq (\|x\|_2 + \|y\|_2)^2$

therefore  $\|x + y\|_2 \leq \|x\|_2 + \|y\|_2$ .

For the distance, the proof is similar to the one of the previous proposition.

- **Third usual norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$**  : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

The third usual norm, called infinite norm, on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is defined by

$$\|x\|_{\infty} = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|),$$

and its associated distance is given by

$$d_{\infty}(x, y) = \|y - x\|_{\infty} = \max(|y_1 - x_1|, |y_2 - x_2|).$$

**Proposition 1.3**  $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $d_{\infty}$  is a distance on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Proof* : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$(N1) \quad \|x\|_{\infty} = 0 \iff \max(|x_1|, |x_2|) = 0 \iff |x_1| = |x_2| = 0 \iff x_1 = x_2 = 0 \iff x = (0, 0),$$

$$(N2) \quad \|\alpha x\|_{\infty} = \max(|\alpha x_1|, |\alpha x_2|) = \max(|\alpha| |x_1|, |\alpha| |x_2|) = |\alpha| \max(|x_1|, |x_2|) = |\alpha| \|x\|_{\infty},$$

$\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$(N3) \quad \|x + y\|_{\infty} = \max(|x_1 + y_1|, |x_2 + y_2|)$$

$$\text{we have } |x_1 + y_1| \leq |x_1| + |y_1| \leq \max(|x_1|, |x_2|) + \max(|y_1|, |y_2|) \leq \|x\|_{\infty} + \|y\|_{\infty},$$

$$\text{similarly } |x_2 + y_2| \leq \|x\|_{\infty} + \|y\|_{\infty}, \text{ then } \|x + y\|_{\infty} \leq \|x\|_{\infty} + \|y\|_{\infty}$$

For the distance, the proof is similar to the one of the previous theorem.

**Example** : Let  $A(2, 3)$  and  $B(-1, 2)$  be two points of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Calculate  $d(A, B)$  with respect to the three usual distances.

*Solution* :  $d_1(A, B) = |-1 - 2| + |2 - 3| = 4$ .

$$d_2(A, B) = \sqrt{(-1 - 2)^2 + (2 - 3)^2} = \sqrt{10},$$

$$d_{\infty}(A, B) = \max\{|-1 - 2|, |2 - 3|\} = 3.$$

**Remarks** : (1) In the same way, we can define the three usual norms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\|_1 &= |x_1| + \cdots + |x_n| &= \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|, \\ \|x\|_2 &= \sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2} &= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}, \\ \|x\|_{\infty} &= \max(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|) &= \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i|, \end{aligned}$$

$$\forall x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

(2)  $\forall i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $|x_i| \leq \|x\|$ , whatever the norm.

(3) The norm  $\|\cdot\|_2$  is associated to the inner product  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$  between the two vectors

$$x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \text{ with } \|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}.$$

(4) From Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we can deduce that for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2.$$

**Definition 1.5** For  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we define the Hölder's norm of order  $p$  ( $1 \leq p < \infty$ ) by

$$\|x\|_p = (|x_1|^p + \cdots + |x_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

## 1.2 Neighborhoods on $\mathbb{R}^n$

### 1.2.1 Open balls, closed balls and spheres in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Let  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $d$  be the associated distance,  $r > 0$  and  $a$  be a point of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 1.6** We call open ball of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of center  $a$  and radius  $r$ , associated to  $\|\cdot\|$ , the set

$$B(a, r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : d(a, x) < r\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - a\| < r\}.$$

**Definition 1.7** We call closed ball of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of center  $a$  and radius  $r$ , associated to  $\|\cdot\|$ , the set

$$\overline{B}(a, r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : d(a, x) \leq r\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - a\| \leq r\}$$

**Definition 1.8** We call sphere of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of center  $a$  and radius  $r$ , associated to  $\|\cdot\|$ , the set

$$S(a, r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : d(a, x) = r\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - a\| = r\}.$$

**Remark :** If the center is the origin and  $r = 1$ , the closed balls respectively, spheres are called unit balls respectively, unit spheres.

### 1.2.2 Balls associated to the usual norms of $\mathbb{R}^2$

- **Associated ball to  $\|\cdot\|_1$  :** Let  $A(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $r > 0$ .

$$B_1(A, r) = \{M \in \mathbb{R}^2 : d_1(A, M) < r\} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|(x, y) - (a, b)\|_1 < r\}.$$

$$\text{Let } M(x, y) \in B_1(A, r) \implies d_1(A, M) < r \implies |x - a| + |y - b| < r.$$

Geometrically,  $B_1$  is the inside of the square of center  $A$  and side  $\sqrt{2}r$  rotated  $\frac{\pi}{4}$  private of its boundary drawn in dotted line.

- **Associated ball to  $\|\cdot\|_2$  :** Let  $A(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $r > 0$ .

$$B_2(A, r) = \{M \in \mathbb{R}^2 : d_2(A, M) < r\} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|(x, y) - (a, b)\|_2 < r\}.$$

$$\text{Let } M(x, y) \in B_2(A, r) \implies d_2(A, M) < r \implies \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2} < r$$

$$\implies (x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 < r^2.$$

Geometrically,  $B_2$  is the disk  $D(A, r)$  of center  $A$  and radius  $r$  without the circumference of radius  $r$  drawn in dotted line.

- **Associated ball to  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  :** Let  $A(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $r > 0$ .

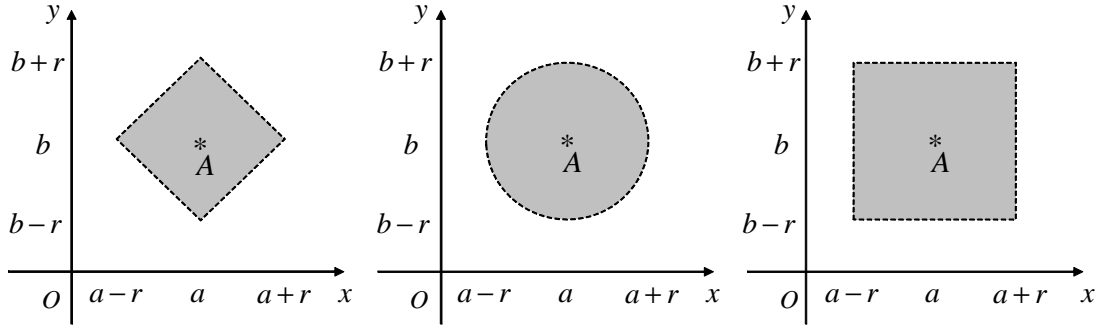
$$B_\infty(A, r) = \{M \in \mathbb{R}^2 : d_\infty(A, M) < r\} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|(x, y) - (a, b)\|_\infty < r\}.$$

$$\text{Let } M(x, y) \in B_\infty(A, r) \implies d_\infty(A, M) < r \implies \max(|x - a|, |y - b|) < r$$

$$\implies |x - a| < r \text{ and } |y - b| < r.$$

Geometrically,  $B_\infty$  is the inside of the square of center  $A$  and side  $2r$  private of its boundary drawn in dotted line.





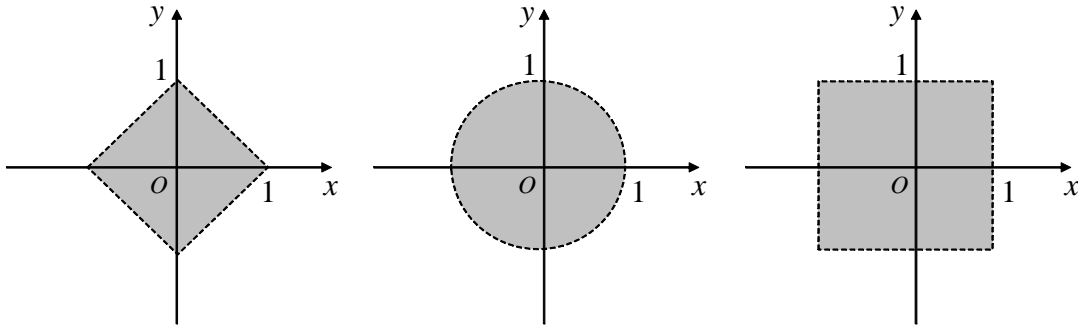
**Example :** The (open) unit balls associated to the three usual norms are

$$B_1(O, 1) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|(x, y)\|_1 = |x| + |y| < 1\},$$

$$B_2(O, 1) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|(x, y)\|_2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < 1\}$$

and

$$B_\infty(O, 1) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|(x, y)\|_\infty = \max(|x|, |y|) < 1\}.$$



**Remarks :** (1) In  $\mathbb{R}$ , we obtain the interval  $]a - r, a + r[$ .

(2) In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we will obtain full regular octahedron, full spheres (balls) and full cubes respectively.

### 1.2.3 Equivalent norms

**Definition 1.9** Two norms  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be equivalent if there exist  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$  such that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \alpha N_2(x) \leq N_1(x) \leq \beta N_2(x).$$

**Proposition 1.4** Let  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  be two norms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The following statements are equivalent

(i) There exist  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$  such that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \alpha N_2(x) \leq N_1(x) \leq \beta N_2(x).$$

(ii) There exist  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$  such that

$$B_{N_1}(0, \alpha) \subseteq B_{N_2}(0, 1) \subseteq B_{N_1}(0, \beta).$$

(iii) There exist  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$  such that

$$B_{N_2}\left(0, \frac{1}{\beta}\right) \subseteq B_{N_1}(0, 1) \subseteq B_{N_2}\left(0, \frac{1}{\alpha}\right).$$

**Proposition 1.5** For all  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1 \leq n \|x\|_\infty.$$

*Proof :*  $\forall i = 1, \dots, n, |x_i| \leq \|x\|_2 \implies \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i| \leq \|x\|_2 \implies \|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_2,$

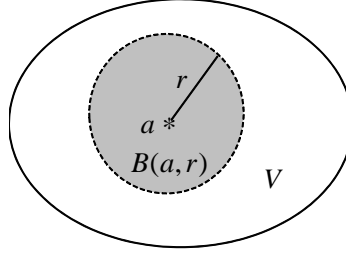
$$\|x\|_2^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1; i < j}^n |x_i| |x_j| \leq (|x_1| + \dots + |x_n|)^2 \leq \|x\|_1^2 \implies \|x\|_2 \leq \|x\|_1,$$

$$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + \dots + |x_n| \leq \|x\|_\infty + \dots + \|x\|_\infty \leq n \|x\|_\infty.$$

**Remark :** All the norms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are equivalent.

### 1.2.4 Neighborhood

**Definition 1.10** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $V$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ , if there exists a real  $r > 0$  such that  $B(a, r) \subseteq V$ .



**Definition 1.11** We call pointed neighborhood of  $a$ , noted  $\hat{V}$  all neighborhood of  $a$  not containing  $a$ .

**Proposition 1.6** The intersection of two neighborhoods of  $a$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ .

*Proof :* Consider two neighborhoods  $V$  and  $W$  of  $a$ , then

$$\exists r_1 > 0 / B(a, r_1) \subseteq V \quad \text{and} \quad \exists r_2 > 0 / B(a, r_2) \subseteq W.$$

Let  $r = \inf(r_1, r_2) \implies B(a, r) \subseteq B(a, r_1) \subseteq V$  and  $B(a, r) \subseteq B(a, r_2) \subseteq W \implies B(a, r) \subseteq V \cap W$ , then  $V \cap W$  is a neighborhood of  $a$ .

## 1.3 Convergence in $\mathbb{R}^n$

### 1.3.1 Convergence of a vector sequence

**Definition 1.12** A vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is all sequence  $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$  such that  $x_k = (x_k^1, \dots, x_k^n)$  with  $x_k^i \in \mathbb{R}, \forall i = 1, \dots, n$ .

**Definition 1.13** Let  $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$  be a vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$  converges to  $a$  with respect to  $\|\cdot\|$  if one of the following properties is verified :

- (i)  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall k \geq k_0 \implies \|x_k - a\| < \varepsilon)$ .
- (ii) The numerical sequence  $(\|x_k - a\|)_{k \geq 0}$  tends to 0.

In this case, we denote  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  when  $k \longrightarrow \infty$  and we say that  $a$  is the limit of  $(x_k)_k$ , i.e.,  $\lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} x_k = a$ .

**Example :** Show that  $\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n}{n+2}, 2 - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) = (1, 2)$ .

*Solution :* Let the vector sequence  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  such that  $x_n = \left( \frac{n}{n+2}, 2 - \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$ .

$$\|x_n - (1, 2)\|_\infty = \max \left( \left| \frac{n}{n+2} - 1 \right|, \left| 2 - \frac{1}{n^2} - 2 \right| \right) = \max \left( \left| \frac{1}{n+2} \right|, \left| \frac{1}{n^2} \right| \right).$$

$$\text{We have } \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{n+2} \right| = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{n^2} \right| = 0 \implies \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \|x_n - (1, 2)\|_\infty = 0.$$

**Proposition 1.7** A vector sequence  $(x_k)_k$  is convergent in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if the sequences  $(x_k^1)_k, \dots, (x_k^n)_k$  are convergent in  $\mathbb{R}$ , and we have

$$\lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} x_k = \left( \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} x_k^1, \dots, \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} x_k^n \right).$$

*Proof :* Consider the norm  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$  and suppose that  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|_\infty} a$  when  $k \longrightarrow \infty$ , with  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We have } \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} \|x_k - a\|_\infty = 0 &\iff \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_k^i - a_i| = 0 \iff \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} |x_k^i - a_i| = 0 \\ &\iff x_k \longrightarrow a_i, \forall i = 1, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 1.8** If a vector sequence  $(x_k)_k$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a limit, it is unique.

*Proof :* Suppose that  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  and  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} b$   
 $\implies (\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall k \geq k_0 \implies \|x_k - a\| < \varepsilon \text{ and } \|x_k - b\| < \varepsilon)$   
 $\implies \|a - b\| \leq \|a - x_k\| + \|x_k - b\| < 2\varepsilon, \forall \varepsilon > 0,$   
then  $\|a - b\| = 0 \implies a = b$ .

**Example :**  $\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left( n \sin \frac{1}{n}, \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right) = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left( \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} n \sin \frac{1}{n}, \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right) = (1, 0)$ .

**Definition 1.14** A vector sequence  $(x_k)_k$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be divergent if it doesn't admit a limit in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Example :** Study the convergence of the sequence  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  such that  $x_n = \left( 2^n, \frac{1}{n} \right)$ .

*Solution :*  $\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left( 2^n, \frac{1}{n} \right) = \left( \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} 2^n, \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \right) = (\infty, 0)$ , therefore the sequence is divergent.

**Definition 1.15** We call sub-sequence of the sequence  $(x_k)_k$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , every sequence of the form  $(x_{\sigma(k)})$  where  $\sigma : \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is a strictly increasing mapping.

**Proposition 1.9** Let  $(x_k)_k$  be a vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  when  $k \longrightarrow \infty$ , then every sub-sequence of  $(x_k)_k$  converges to  $a$ . But the reciprocal is not true.

**Remark :** If there exists two sub-sequences of a sequence  $(x_k)_k$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  converging to two different limits, then the sequence  $(x_k)_k$  is divergent.

**Example :** Study the convergence of the sequence  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  such that  $x_n = \left( \frac{(-1)^n n}{n+1}, \frac{n + (-1)^n}{n^2} \right)$ .

*Solution :* We have  $\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_{2n} = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{2n}{2n+1}, \frac{2n+1}{4n^2} \right) = (1, 0)$  and

$\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_{2n+1} = \lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{-(2n+1)}{2n+2}, \frac{2n}{(2n+1)^2} \right) = (-1, 0)$ . Therefore  $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is divergent.

### 1.3.2 Theorems on the sequences

**Proposition 1.10** Let  $(x_k)_k$  be a vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  when  $k \longrightarrow \infty$ , then the numerical sequence  $(\|x_k\|)_k$  converges to  $\|a\|$ .

*Proof :* We have  $\forall k \geq 0, 0 \leq \|\|x_k\| - \|a\|\| \leq \|x_k - a\|$   
 $\implies 0 \leq \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} \|\|x_k\| - \|a\|\| \leq \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} \|x_k - a\| \leq 0$   
 $\implies \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} \|\|x_k\| - \|a\|\| = 0 \implies \lim_{k \longrightarrow \infty} \|x_k\| = \|a\|$ .

**Definition 1.16** Let  $(x_k)_k$  be a vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $(x_k)_k$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if there exists  $M > 0$  such that  $\forall k \geq 0, \|x_k\| \leq M$ .

**Proposition 1.11** Let  $(x_k)_k$  be a vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  when  $k \longrightarrow \infty$ , then the sequence  $(x_k)_k$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof :* First, let us recall that we say  $(x_k)_k$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  iff the sequences  $(x_k^1)_k, \dots, (x_k^n)_k$  are bounded in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

As  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$ , then  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall k \geq k_0 \implies \|x_k - a\| < \varepsilon)$ .

For  $\varepsilon = 1, (\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall k \geq k_0, \|x_k\| < 1 + \|a\|)$ .

Take  $M = \max \{\|x_k\|, \dots, \|x_{k_0}\|, 1 + \|a\|\} \implies \forall k \geq 0, \|x_k\| \leq M$ .

**Remarks :** (1) For a sequence to be divergent, it is sufficient to show that it is not bounded.

(2) If a sequence is bounded, this does not imply that it is convergent.

**Example :** Let  $x_n = (\cos n, \sin n)$ , for  $n \geq 0$ .

$\|x_n\|_1 = |\cos n| + |\sin n| \leq 2, \forall n \geq 0$ , but  $(x_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is not convergent.

**Theorem 1.2** Let  $(x_k)_k$  and  $(y_k)_k$  be two vector sequences of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  and  $y_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} b$  when  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , then the sequence  $(\alpha x_k + \beta y_k)_k$  converges to  $\alpha a + \beta b$ , for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof :* We have  $\forall k \geq 0$ ,  $\alpha x_k + \beta y_k - \alpha a - \beta b = \alpha(x_k - a) + \beta(y_k - b)$   
 $\Rightarrow \forall k \geq 0$ ,  $0 \leq \|\alpha x_k + \beta y_k - \alpha a - \beta b\| \leq |\alpha| \|x_k - a\| + |\beta| \|y_k - b\|$   
 $\Rightarrow 0 \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\alpha x_k + \beta y_k - \alpha a - \beta b\| \leq |\alpha| \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k - a\| + |\beta| \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|y_k - b\| \leq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\alpha x_k + \beta y_k - \alpha a - \beta b\| = 0$ .

**Theorem 1.3** Let  $(x_k)_k$  be a vector sequence of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $(\alpha_k)_k$  be a scalar sequence of  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $x_k \xrightarrow{\|\cdot\|} a$  and  $\alpha_k \rightarrow \alpha$  when  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , then the sequence  $(\alpha_k x_k)_k$  converges to  $\alpha a$ .

*Proof :* We have  $\forall k \geq 0$ ,  $\alpha_k x_k - \alpha a = \alpha_k x_k - \alpha_k a + \alpha_k a - \alpha a$   
 $\Rightarrow \forall k \geq 0$ ,  $0 \leq \|\alpha_k x_k - \alpha a\| \leq |\alpha_k| \|x_k - a\| + |\alpha_k - \alpha| \|a\|$   
 $\Rightarrow 0 \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\alpha_k x_k - \alpha a\| \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |\alpha_k| \|x_k - a\| + \|a\| \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |\alpha_k - \alpha| \leq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\alpha_k x_k - \alpha a\| = 0$ .

## 1.4 Topological concepts on $\mathbb{R}^n$

### 1.4.1 Open, closed and bounded set

**Definition 1.17** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$E$  is said to be open on  $\mathbb{R}^n \iff (\forall x \in E) (\exists r > 0) (B(x, r) \subseteq E)$ .

**Definition 1.18** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$E$  is said to be closed on  $\mathbb{R}^n \iff (\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n) (\forall r > 0) (B(x, r) \cap E \neq \emptyset \implies x \in E)$ .

**Definition 1.19** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We call complementary of  $E$ , the set

$$E^c = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \notin E\}.$$

**Proposition 1.12** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $E^c$  is closed if and only if  $E$  is open.

**Remarks :** (1) The sets  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\emptyset$  are at the same time open and closed in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(2) Any singleton  $\{a\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed.

(3) Any open set is neighborhood of each of its points.

**Proposition 1.13** Let  $I$  be a set of  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $(U_i)_{i \in I}$  be a family of open and  $(F_i)_{i \in I}$  be a family of closed of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(i)  $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$  is an open and  $\bigcap_{i \in I} F_i$  is a closed of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(ii) If  $I$  is finite, then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$  is an open and  $\bigcup_{i \in I} F_i$  is a closed of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Remark :** On the other hand if  $I$  is not finite  $\bigcap_{i \in I} U_i$  is not necessarily open and  $\bigcup_{i \in I} F_i$  is not necessarily closed.

**Example :**  $\bigcap_{n \geq 1} B_2\left(0, \frac{1}{n}\right) = \{0\}$  not open and  $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} \overline{B}_2\left(0, 1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) = B_2(0, 1)$  not closed.

**Definition 1.20** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$E$  is said to be bounded with respect to  $\|\cdot\|$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n \iff \exists M > 0 / \forall x \in E, \|x\| \leq M$ , i.e.,  $E \subseteq \overline{B}(O, M)$ .

**Properties :** (1) All ball of  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \|\cdot\|)$  is bounded.  
(2) Any subset of a bounded set is bounded.  
(3) Any sequence of a bounded set is bounded.

**Remark :** To show that a set is not bounded, it sufficient to find a sequence in this set which is not bounded.

**Examples :**

- (1)  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 < 1\} = B_2(O, 1)$  is open and bounded.
- (2)  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\} = \overline{B}_2(O, 1)$  is closed and bounded
- (3)  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 > 1\} = \overline{B}_2(O, 1)^c$  is open and not bounded.
- (4)  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \geq 1\} = B_2(O, 1)^c$  is closed and not bounded.
- (5)  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 < x^2 + y^2 < 4\} = B_2(O, 2) \cap \overline{B}_2(O, 1)^c$  is open and bounded.
- (6)  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 < 9\} = B_2(O, 3) \cap B_2(O, 1)^c$  is neither open nor closed, but bounded.

### 1.4.2 Adherence, Interior and Boundary

**Definition 1.21** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We call interior of  $E$ , the open set

$$\overset{\circ}{E} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists r > 0, B(x, r) \subseteq E\}.$$

**Definition 1.22** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We call adherence or closure of  $E$ , the closed set

$$\overline{E} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall r > 0, E \cap B(x, r) \neq \emptyset\}.$$

**Properties :** Let  $E$  and  $F$  be two parts of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

- (1)  $\overset{\circ}{E} \subseteq E \subseteq \overline{E}$ ,  $(\overline{E})^c = \overset{\circ}{E^c}$  and  $\left(\overset{\circ}{E}\right)^c = \overline{E^c}$ ;
- (2)  $E \subseteq F \implies \overset{\circ}{E} \subseteq \overset{\circ}{F}$  and  $\overline{E} \subseteq \overline{F}$ .
- (3)  $\overline{E}$  is the smallest closed containing  $E$  and  $\overset{\circ}{E}$  is the largest open contained in  $E$ .

**Definition 1.23** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . An element  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be a boundary point of  $E$  if

$$(\forall r > 0) (E \cap B(a, r) \neq \emptyset \text{ and } E^c \cap B(a, r) \neq \emptyset).$$

**Definition 1.24** Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We call boundary of  $E$ , the set of all boundary points of  $E$ . It is given by

$$\partial E = \overline{E} \setminus \overset{\circ}{E}.$$

**Proposition 1.14** Let  $E$  be a part of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

- (i)  $x \in \overset{\circ}{E} \iff (\forall (x_k) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n / x_k \longrightarrow x)(\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N} / \forall k \geq k_0, x_k \in E)$ ;
- (ii)  $x \in \overline{E} \iff (\exists (x_k) \subseteq E / x_k \longrightarrow x)$ .

*Proof :* (i)  $\implies$ ) Let  $x \in \overset{\circ}{E} \implies \exists r > 0 / B(x, r) \subseteq E$ . Take  $(x_k) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n / x_k \longrightarrow x$ , then  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall k \geq k_0 \implies \|x_k - x\| < \varepsilon)$ .

Take  $\varepsilon = r \implies \|x_k - x\| < r, \forall k \geq k_0 \implies x_k \in B(x, r) \subseteq E, \forall k \geq k_0$ .

$\impliedby$ ) Suppose that  $x \notin \overset{\circ}{E} \implies \forall r > 0, B(x, r) \not\subseteq E \implies \forall r > 0, \exists y \in B(x, r) / y \notin E$ .

Take  $r = \frac{1}{k}$ , for  $k \in \mathbb{N} - \{0\} \implies \forall k \geq 1, \exists y_k \in B(x, r) / y_k \notin E$

$\implies \forall k \geq 1, \|y_k - x\| < \frac{1}{k} \implies y_k \longrightarrow x \implies y_k \in E, \forall k \geq 1$ , contradiction.

(ii)  $\implies$ ) Let  $x \in \overline{E} \implies (\forall r > 0)(E \cap B(x, r) \neq \emptyset)$ .

Take  $r = \frac{1}{k}$ , for  $k \in \mathbb{N} - \{0\} \implies \forall k \geq 1, \exists x_k \in E / x_k \in B\left(x, \frac{1}{k}\right)$

$\implies \forall k \geq 1, \|x_k - x\| < \frac{1}{k} \implies \exists (x_k) \subseteq E / x_k \longrightarrow x$ .

$\impliedby$ ) Suppose that  $\exists (x_k) \subseteq E / x_k \longrightarrow x \implies (\forall r > 0) (\exists k_0 \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall k \geq k_0 \implies \|x_k - x\| < r)$

$\implies x_k \in B(x, r), \forall k \geq k_0 \implies x_k \in E \cap B(x, r), \forall k \geq k_0 \implies (\forall r > 0)(E \cap B(x, r) \neq \emptyset)$

$\implies x \in \overline{E}$ .

**Corollary 1.1** Let  $E$  be a part of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $E$  is closed if and only if every convergent sequence of elements of  $E$  converges in  $E$ , i.e.,  $\forall (x_k) \subseteq E / x_k \longrightarrow x \implies x \in E$ .

**Corollary 1.2** Let  $E$  be a part of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

(i)  $E$  is open  $\iff \overset{\circ}{E} = E$ .

(ii)  $E$  is closed  $\iff \overline{E} = E$

**Example :** Show that  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 2x + 3y = 1\}$  is closed on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Solution :* Prove that  $\overline{E} = E$ . Since  $E \subseteq \overline{E}$ , it remains to show that  $\overline{E} \subseteq E$ .

Let  $(a, b) \in \overline{E}$ , then  $\exists ((x_k, y_k))_{k \geq 0}$  a sequence of  $E$  such that  $(x_k, y_k) \longrightarrow (a, b)$ .

We have  $2x_k + 3y_k = 1$  and  $x_k \longrightarrow a, y_k \longrightarrow b \implies \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (2x_k + 3y_k) = 2a + 3b = 1 \implies (a, b) \in E$ .

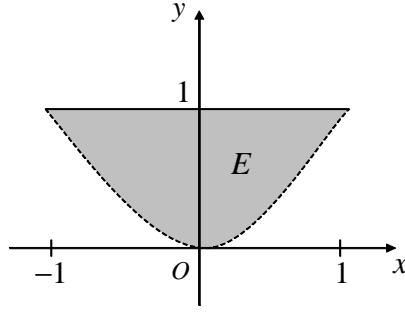
**Example :** Let  $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 - y < 0 \text{ and } y \leq 1\}$ .

1. Sketch  $E$  and show that it is bounded.

2. Determine  $\overset{\circ}{E}$ ,  $\overline{E}$ ,  $E^c$  and  $\partial E$ .

3. Is  $E$  open ? closed ?

*Solution :* 1.



Let  $(x, y) \in E \implies x^2 - y < 0$  and  $y \leq 1 \implies 0 < x^2 < y \leq 1 \implies |x| < 1$  and  $|y| \leq 1$ .

If we consider the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_1 = |x| + |y| \implies \|(x, y)\|_1 \leq 2$ , i.e.,  $E \subset \overline{B}_1(O, 2)$ .

If we consider the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \implies \|(x, y)\|_2 \leq \sqrt{2}$ , i.e.,  $E \subset \overline{B}_2(O, \sqrt{2})$ .

If we consider the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_\infty = \max(|x|, |y|) \implies \|(x, y)\|_\infty \leq 1$ , i.e.,  $E \subset \overline{B}_\infty(O, 1)$ .

2.  $\overset{\circ}{E} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 - y < 0 \text{ and } y < 1\}$ .

$\overline{E} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 - y \leq 0 \text{ and } y \leq 1\}$ .

$E^c = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 - y \geq 0 \text{ or } y > 1\}$ .

$\partial E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x^2 = y \text{ and } -1 \leq x \leq 1) \text{ or } (y = 1 \text{ and } -1 \leq x \leq 1)\}$   
 $= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = x^2 \text{ and } |x| \leq 1\} \cup \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = 1 \text{ and } |x| \leq 1\}$ .

3. Take the point  $(0, 1) \in E$  and the sequence  $((0, y_k)) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $y_k = 1 + \frac{1}{k}$ , for  $k \geq 1$ .

$(0, y_k) \longrightarrow (0, 1)$  but  $(0, y_k) \notin E \implies (0, 1) \notin \overset{\circ}{E} \implies \overset{\circ}{E} \neq E$ , then  $E$  is not open.

Take the sequence  $((0, y_k)) \subseteq E$  such that  $y_k = \frac{1}{k}$ , for  $k \geq 1$ .

$(0, y_k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$  but  $(0, 0) \notin E$ , then  $E$  is not closed.

### 1.4.3 Convex and Connected sets

**Definition 1.25** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we define the segment noted  $[a, b]$  by

$$\begin{aligned} [a, b] &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x = \alpha a + \beta b; \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ and } \alpha + \beta = 1\} \\ &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x = ta + (1 - t)b; t \in [0, 1]\}. \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.26** A subset  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be convex if  $\forall (a, b) \in D \times D$ , the segment  $[a, b] \subset D$ .

**Examples :** (1) The open and closed balls of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are convex.

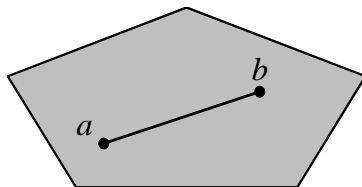
Take for example the closed unit ball  $\overline{B}(O, 1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ .

For  $x, y \in \overline{B}(O, 1)$ , we have  $\|x\| \leq 1$  and  $\|y\| \leq 1$

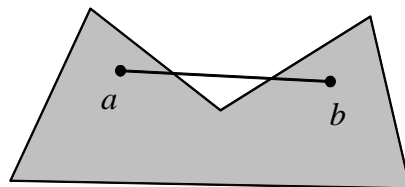
$\implies \|tx + (1 - t)y\| \leq |t| \|x\| + |1 - t| \|y\| \leq t + 1 - t \leq 1$

$\implies tx + (1 - t)y \in \overline{B}(O, 1)$ .

(2)



Convex



Not convex



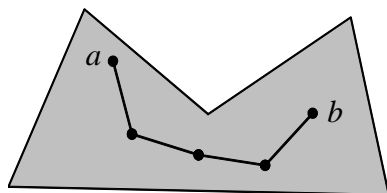
(3)  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$  is not convex.

In fact, the points  $(1, 1)$  and  $(-1, -1) \in D$  but  $\frac{1}{2}(1, 1) + \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)(-1, -1) = (0, 0) \notin D$ .

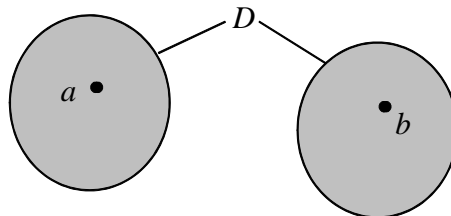
**Definition 1.27** A subset  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be connected if  $\forall (a, b) \in D \times D$ , there is a finite sequence  $x_0 = a, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_k = b$  of elements of  $D$  such that the segments  $[x_i, x_{i+1}] \subset D, \forall i = 0, \dots, k-1$ .

**Examples :** (1) Every convex of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is connected.

(2)



Connected



Not connected

(3)  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$  is connected.

(4)  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1 \text{ or } x^2 + y^2 \geq 4\}$  is not connected.

## 1.5 Exercises

**Exercise 1.1** Using Cauchy-Schwarz inequality show that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \|x\|_1 \leq \sqrt{n} \|x\|_2.$$

**Exercise 1.2** Show that, if  $\|\cdot\|$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have

1.  $||x| - |y|| \leq |x + y|$ ;
2.  $|x| + |y| \leq |x + y| + |x - y|$ ;
3.  $\frac{|x - y|}{|x|} \leq \rho < 1 \implies \frac{|y - x|}{|y|} \leq \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho}$ , with  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$ .

**Exercise 1.3** If  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a distance associated to a norm  $\|\cdot\|$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , verify that

1.  $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n, d(x, y) = d(x + z, y + z)$ ;
2.  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, d(\alpha x, \alpha y) = |\alpha| d(x, y)$ .

**Exercise 1.4** Check whether each mapping  $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$  is a distance on  $\mathbb{R}$  :

1.  $d(x, y) = |x^2 - y^2|$
2.  $d(x, y) = |x^3 - y^3|$
3.  $d(x, y) = |\arctan x - \arctan y|$
4.  $d(x, y) = \max\{x, y\}$

**Exercise 1.5** Verify if each of the following forms defines a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  :

1.  $\|X\| = |5x + 3y|$ , for  $X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
2.  $\|X\| = |x + y| + |2x - y|$ , for  $X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
3.  $\|X\| = \frac{|x| + |y|}{1 + |x| + |y|}$ , for  $X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
4.  $\|X\| = \max(|x + y|, |x - y|)$ , for  $X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
5.  $\|X\| = |x + y + z| + |x - y + 2z|$ , for  $X = (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$

**Exercise 1.6** Let  $N$  be the mapping defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$N(X) = |x| + |x + y|, \text{ for } X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

1. Show that  $N$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Determine the closed unit ball  $\overline{B}(0, 1)$  associated to  $N$ .
3. Determine graphically the smallest constant  $\beta$  and the biggest constant  $\alpha$ , such that

$$\overline{B}_1(O, \alpha) \subseteq \overline{B}(0, 1) \subseteq \overline{B}_1(O, \beta).$$

**Exercise 1.7** Let  $N$  be the mapping defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$N(X) = \max(|x + 4y|, |x - y|), \text{ for } X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

1. Show that  $N$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Determine the open unit ball  $B(0, 1)$  associated to  $N$ .
3. Determine the best constants  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that

$$\forall X \in \mathbb{R}^2, \quad \alpha \|X\|_2 \leq N(X) \leq \beta \|X\|_2.$$

**Exercise 1.8** Let  $N$  be the mapping defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$N(X) = |x| + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \text{ for } X = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

1. Show that  $N$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Determine the open unit ball  $B(0, 1)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  associated to  $N$ .
3. Verify that

$$\forall X \in \mathbb{R}^2, \quad \|X\|_2 \leq N(X) \leq 2 \|X\|_2.$$

**Exercise 1.9** Study the convergence of the sequences  $(x_n)_n$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$\begin{array}{lll} 1. x_n = \left( \frac{1}{n+1}, \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^n \right) & 2. x_n = \left( \frac{n^2+1}{n-1}, \frac{n+1}{n-1} \right) & 3. x_n = \left( 1, n \sin \frac{1}{n} \right) \\ 4. x_n = \left( \frac{\sqrt{n}+1}{n+1}, \frac{\sqrt{n}+n}{n+1} \right) & 5. x_n = \left( \frac{2^n-1}{3^n-2}, \frac{n+2^n}{n2^n} \right) & 6. x_n = \left( \cos \frac{n\pi}{2}, \sin \frac{n\pi}{2} \right) \end{array}$$

**Exercise 1.10** Study the convergence of the sequence  $(x_n)_{n \geq 0}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $x_n = \left( \frac{\cos \sqrt{n}}{2^n}, \frac{\sin \sqrt{n}}{2^n} \right)$ ,

$$\text{then the sequence } (y_n)_{n \geq 0} \text{ such that } y_n = \frac{1}{\|x_n\|_2} \left( x_{n+1} - \frac{1}{2} x_n \right).$$

**Exercise 1.11** Indicate if the following subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are bounded for the usual norms :

$$\begin{array}{l} A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + 5y^2 \leq 2\} \\ B = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |x + y| \leq 1\} \\ C = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \cos x \leq \cos y\} \\ D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq y \leq 1 \text{ and } |x| \leq y\} \end{array}$$

**Exercise 1.12** Consider the set  $\mathbb{R}^2$  equipped with the usual norms. By writing the following subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  as a union or intersection in terms of the balls, say whether they are open or closed :

- $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1 \text{ and } (x-2)^2 + (y-1)^2 \leq 4\}$   
 $B = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\} \cup \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x-2)^2 + (y-1)^2 \leq 4\}$   
 $C = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 4 \leq (x-2)^2 + (y-2)^2 \leq 9\}$   
 $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1 \text{ and } |x| + |y-1| \leq 1\}$   
 $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 2 < \max\{|x-1|, |y|\} < 3\}$   
 $F = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \max\{|x|, |y|\} \leq 2 \text{ and } |x-1| + |y| \leq 3\}$

**Exercise 1.13** Determine, with justification, whether the following sets are open or closed for the usual norms :

- $A = \{(x, x^2 + 1) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$   
 $B = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : xy + x^2 < 4y^2\}$   
 $C = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : e^x \leq x \cos y\}$   
 $D = \{(x, x^2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0\}$   
 $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } y \in \mathbb{R}\}$   
 $F = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 > 4 \text{ and } y \geq 1\}$   
 $G = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } y \geq x\}$   
 $H = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 < |x-y| < x^2 + 1\}$

**Exercise 1.14** Sketch  $E$  and determine  $E^c$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{E}$ ,  $\overline{E}$  and  $\partial E$  in the following cases :

- $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 < x \leq 2 \text{ and } 0 \leq y < 2\}$
- $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |x+y| \leq 1\}$
- $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |xy| \leq 1\}$
- $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq 4, y > x, y > 3x\}$
- $E = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 2x \text{ and } x + y > 2\}$

**Exercise 1.15** 1. Let

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y \geq x > 0\} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y \geq x \geq 0\}$$

and let  $\mathbb{R}^2$  be equipped with the usual norms.

- Show that  $A$  is neither open nor closed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - Show that  $B$  is closed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - Let  $C = \{(x, y) \in B : x = 0\}$ . Show that  $C \subset \overline{A}$ .
  - Deduce that  $\overline{A} = B$ .
- Same question with  $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 9 \text{ and } x > 2\}$ .
  - Same question with  $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 - y < 0 \text{ and } x + y \geq 1\}$ .

**Exercise 1.16** Let

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 2x, x + y > 2\} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 < 2x, x + y > 2\}$$

and let  $\mathbb{R}^2$  be equipped with the usual norms.

- Show that  $A$  is neither open nor closed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
- Show that  $B$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
- Let  $C = \{(x, y) \in A : x^2 + y^2 - 2y = 0\}$ . Show that  $C \subset (\overset{\circ}{A})^c$ .
- Deduce that  $\overset{\circ}{A} = B$ .

## Chapter 2

# Real-valued functions of several variables - Limits and continuity

### 2.1 Functions of several real variables

**Definition 2.1** We call a real valued function of  $n$  real variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , any mapping defined from a subset  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , that for every vector point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$  corresponds a real image  $f(x) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}$ . It is denoted by

$$\begin{aligned} f : \quad D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (x_1, \dots, x_n) &\longmapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

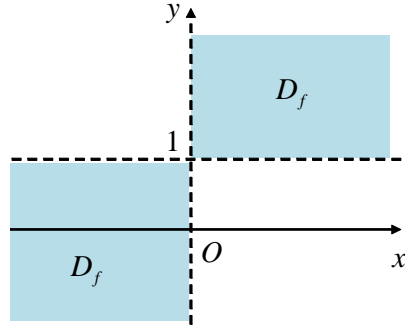
**Definition 2.2** The set of  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  for which  $f$  is defined is called domain of definition of  $f$ , noted  $D_f$ , with

$$D_f = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ exists in } \mathbb{R}\}.$$

- If  $n = 1$ , we have a function of one variable : 
$$\begin{aligned} f : \quad D \subseteq \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x &\longmapsto f(x) \end{aligned}$$
- If  $n = 2$ , we have a function of two variables : 
$$\begin{aligned} f : \quad D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y) &\longmapsto f(x, y) \end{aligned}$$
- If  $n = 3$ , we have a function of three variables : 
$$\begin{aligned} f : \quad D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (x, y, z) &\longmapsto f(x, y, z) \end{aligned}$$

**Examples :** (1) The domain of definition of the function  $f(x, y) = \ln(xy - x)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} D_f &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x(y - 1) > 0\} \\ &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x > 0 \text{ and } y > 1) \text{ or } (x < 0 \text{ and } y < 1)\} \\ &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0 \text{ and } y > 1\} \cup \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x < 0 \text{ and } y < 1\}. \end{aligned}$$



(2) The domain of definition of the function  $g(x, y, z) = \frac{\ln(1 - |xy|)}{z}$  is

$$D_g = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : 1 - |xy| > 0 \text{ and } z \neq 0\} = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{\tilde{3}} : -1 < xy < 1 \text{ and } z \neq 0\}.$$

(3) The function  $h(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + (x - y)^2 + 1}$  is defined  $\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Theorem 2.1** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two functions of  $n$  variables defined, respectively, on  $D_f$  and  $D_g$ , then  $\alpha f$  is defined on  $D_f$  and the functions  $f \pm g$ ,  $fg$  and  $\frac{f}{g}$  (for  $g(x) \neq 0, \forall x \in D_g$ ) are defined on  $D_f \cap D_g$  with

- (i)  $(\alpha f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \alpha f(x_1, \dots, x_n), \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R};$
- (ii)  $(f \pm g)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \pm g(x_1, \dots, x_n);$
- (iii)  $(fg)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)g(x_1, \dots, x_n);$
- (iv)  $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{g(x_1, \dots, x_n)}.$

**Definition 2.3** Given the diagram  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} I \subseteq \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(D) \subseteq I$ .

The function  $g \circ f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called composite function of  $f$  and  $g$  with

$$(g \circ f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g(f(x_1, \dots, x_n)).$$

**Example :** If  $f(x, y) = \frac{x+y}{x-y}$  and  $g(x) = \frac{x+1}{x-1}$ ,

$$\text{then } (g \circ f)(x, y) = g(f(x, y)) = \frac{\frac{x+y}{x-y} + 1}{\frac{x+y}{x-y} - 1} = \frac{x}{y},$$

with  $D_f = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \neq y\}$ ,  $D_g = \mathbb{R} - \{1\}$  and  $D_{g \circ f} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \neq y \text{ and } y \neq 0\}.$

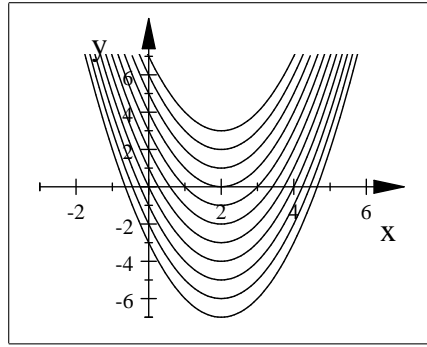
**Definition 2.4** Let  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of two variables. We call level curve the set

$$L_k = \{(x, y) \in D : f(x, y) = k\}.$$

**Example :** The function  $f(x, y) = -x^2 + 4x + y$ , has level curves given by the equations

$$y = x^2 - 4x + k.$$

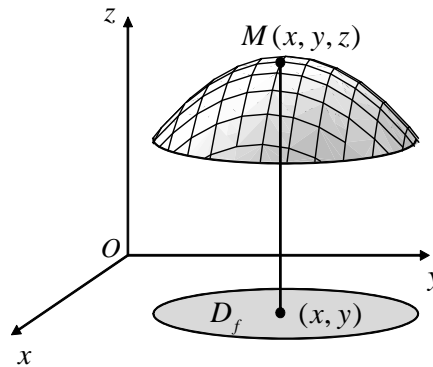
These are parabolas admitting all the same axis of symmetry ( $x = 2$ ).



**Definition 2.5** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The set

$$G_f = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : (x, y) \in D_f \text{ and } z = f(x, y)\}$$

is called the graph of  $f$ , representing a surface of the  $xyz$  - space whose Cartesian equation is  $z = f(x, y)$ .

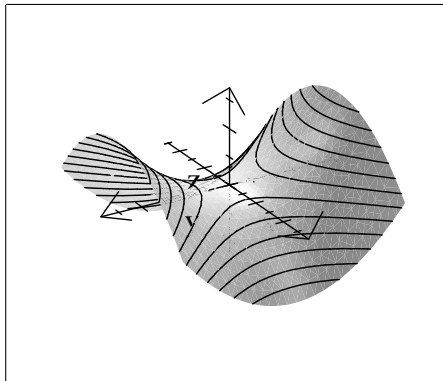
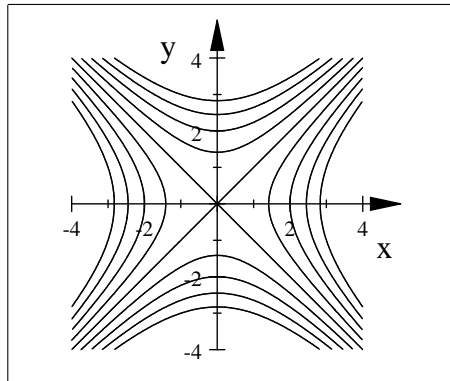


**Example :** Construct the surface  $z = x^2 - y^2$ .

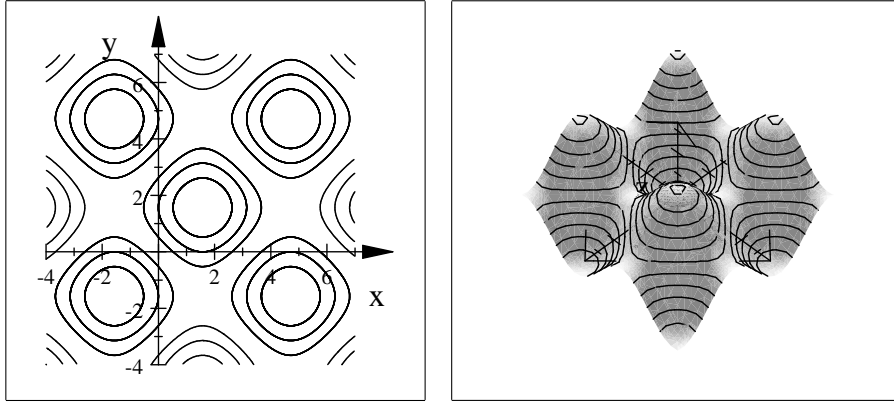
**Solution :** The function  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ , has level curves given by the equations

$$x^2 - y^2 = k.$$

For  $k = 0$ , we have  $y = \pm x$ , for  $k > 0$ ,  $x^2 - y^2 = k$  is a hyperbola of axis  $x'x$  and for  $k < 0$ ,  $y^2 - x^2 = -k$  is a hyperbola of axis  $y'y$ .



**Example :** Level curves and representative surface of the function  $z = f(x, y) = \sin x + \sin y$ .



**Definition 2.6** Let  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of three variables. We call level surface the set

$$S_k = \{(x, y, z) \in D : f(x, y, z) = k\}.$$

**Example :** The function  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ , has level surfaces given by the equations

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = k.$$

These are spheres admitting all the same center  $O$  and of radius  $R = \sqrt{k}$  with  $k \geq 0$ .

## 2.2 Limits of functions of several variables

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  or  $\overline{D}$ .

**Definition 2.7** We say that  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  is the limit of  $f(x)$  when  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  tends to  $a$  if and only if

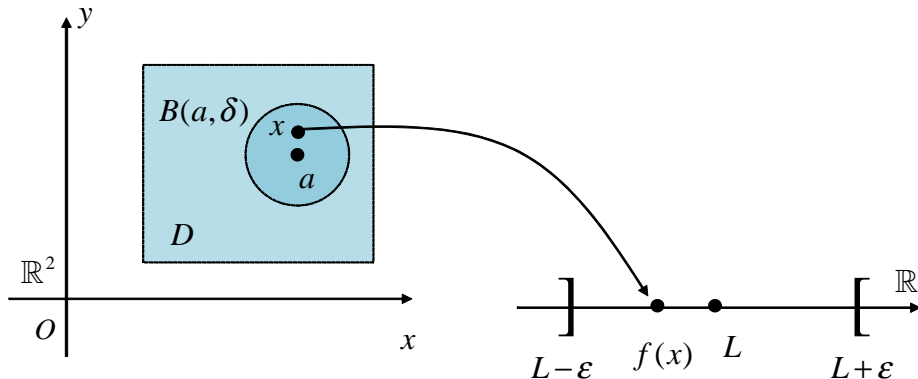
$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon),$$

whatever the norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , and we write

$$\lim_{x \longrightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) \longrightarrow L \text{ when } x \longrightarrow a.$$

In other words

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists B(a, \delta)) (\forall x \in B(a, \delta), f(x) \in ]L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon[).$$



**Note :** The limits at infinity points and the notions of the attached limits are defined in the same manners to those of the functions of one variable.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2y - y$  and  $P(2, 3)$ . Prove that  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (2,3)} f(x, y) = 9$ .

*Solution :* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , find  $\delta > 0$  /  $\|(x, y) - (2, 3)\| < \delta \implies |f(x, y) - 9| < \varepsilon$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x, y) - 9| &= |x^2y - 12 - y + 3| = |x^2y - 4y + 4y - 12 - y + 3| \\ &= |(x^2 - 4)y + 4(y - 3) - (y - 3)| = |(x - 2)(x + 2)y + 3(y - 3)| \\ &\leq |x - 2||x + 2||y| + 3|y - 3| \end{aligned}$$

Consider the norm  $\|(x, y) - (2, 3)\|_\infty = \max(|x - 2|, |y - 3|)$ , then we have

$$|x - 2| < \delta \text{ and } |y - 3| < \delta \implies |f(x, y) - 9| < \delta(|x + 2||y| + 3).$$

Let  $\delta < 1$ , i.e., we consider that  $M(x, y) \in B_\infty(P, 1)$

$$\implies \begin{cases} |x - 2| < 1 \\ |y - 3| < 1 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} -1 < x - 2 < 1 \\ -1 < y - 3 < 1 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} 3 < x + 2 < 5 \\ 2 < y < 4 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} |x + 2| < 5 \\ |y| < 4 \end{cases}$$

$$\implies |f(x, y) - 9| < 23\delta < \varepsilon \text{ if } \delta < \frac{\varepsilon}{23}.$$

We take  $\delta = \inf\left(1, \frac{\varepsilon}{23}\right)$ , i.e., we consider the neighborhood  $V_P = B_\infty(P, 1) \cap B_\infty\left(P, \frac{\varepsilon}{23}\right)$ .

**Theorem 2.2** If the limit of  $f(x)$  exists at a point  $a$  this limit is unique.

*Proof :* Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be two limits of  $f$  at the point  $a$ ,

then  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta_1 > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta_1 \implies |f(x) - L_1| < \varepsilon)$ ,

and  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta_2 > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta_2 \implies |f(x) - L_2| < \varepsilon)$ .

Let  $\delta = \inf\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ , then for  $\|x - a\| < \delta$ ,

$$|L_1 - L_2| = |L_1 - f(x) + f(x) - L_2| \leq |f(x) - L_1| + |f(x) - L_2| < 2\varepsilon, \forall \varepsilon > 0$$

$$\implies |L_1 - L_2| = 0 \implies L_1 = L_2.$$

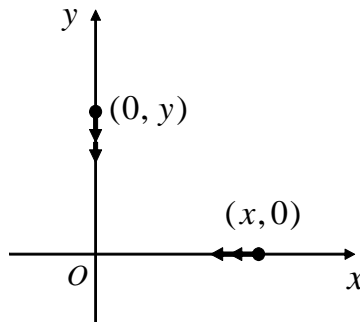
**Corollary 2.1** If when  $x$  approaches  $a$  following two different paths (ways)  $f(x)$  has two different limits or if when there is no finite limit for at least a path, then  $f(x)$  doesn't admit a limit at the point  $a$ . This means that if the limit depends on the path followed then the limit does not exist.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x+y}{x-y} & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases}$ . Does  $f$  have a limit at the origin ?

*Solution :* Following the path  $y = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, 0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x} = 1$ ,

following the path  $x = 0$ ,  $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(0, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{y}{-y} = -1$ ,

then  $f$  doesn't have a limit at the point  $(0, 0)$ .





**Note :** If we obtain the same limit following at least two different paths, it doesn't mean that  $f$  has a limit.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^2}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ . Does  $f$  have a limit at the origin ?

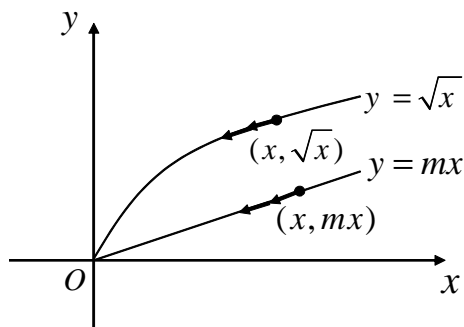
*Solution :* Following the rectilinear path  $y = mx$  with  $m \neq 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, mx) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{m^2 x^2}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} m^2 x = 0, \forall m \in \mathbb{R}^*,$$

therefore, we have the same limit following an infinity of paths.

But following the path  $y = \sqrt{x}$ , with  $x > 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, \sqrt{x}) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x} = 1 \neq 0$ .

Then  $f$  doesn't have a limit at the point  $(0, 0)$ .



**Theorem 2.3** If  $f(x)$  has a limit at a point  $a$ , then  $f$  is bounded in a neighborhood of  $a$ .

*Proof :* Let  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , then  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon)$ ,  
for  $\varepsilon = 1$ ,  $|f(x)| - |L| < 1 \implies \forall x \in B(a, \delta), |f(x)| < |L| + 1$ .

**Properties :** If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L'$ , then

- (1)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f \pm g)(x) = L \pm L'$ ;
- (2)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (fg)(x) = LL'$ ;
- (3)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (\alpha f)(x) = \alpha L, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (4)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left( \frac{f}{g} \right)(x) = \frac{L}{L'}$  (with  $L' \neq 0$ ).

*Proof :* Similar to the proof of the functions of one variable.

**Theorem 2.4** Let  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L'$ ,

- (i) If  $f(x) \geq 0, \forall x \in V_a$ , then  $L \geq 0$ ;
- (ii) If  $f(x) \leq g(x), \forall x \in V_a$ , then  $L \leq L'$ ;
- (iii) If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = 0$ , then  $L = 0$ ;
- (iv) If  $L = L'$  and  $f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x), \forall x \in V_a$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$ ;
- (v) If  $L = 0$  and  $g$  is bounded in a  $V_a$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = 0$ .

*Proof :* Similar to the proof of the functions of one variable.

- **Limits in polar coordinates :** Let  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ , for  $r > 0$  and  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi[$ .

As  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$ , we observe that  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (0, 0) \iff r \longrightarrow 0$ . Hence

$$\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = \lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) = \lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} F(r, \theta).$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ . Show that  $\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = 0$ ,

(i) by using polar coordinates;

(ii) by Sandwich theorem.

*Solution :* (i) We have  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ , with  $r \longrightarrow 0$  when  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ .

$$\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 y^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} \frac{r^4 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta}{r^2} = \lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta = 0$$

since  $\lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} r^2 = 0$  and  $|\cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta| = |\cos \theta|^2 |\sin \theta|^2 \leq 1$ .

(ii) We have  $0 \leq x^2 \leq x^2 + y^2 \implies 0 \leq \frac{x^2 y^2}{x^2 + y^2} \leq y^2, \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$

$$\implies \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} |f(x, y)| \leq \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} y^2 = 0 \implies \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} |f(x, y)| = 0$$

$$\implies \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = 0.$$

**Remark :** To find the limit of  $f(x, y)$  when  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (a, b)$  for  $(a, b) \neq (0, 0)$ , it is enough to return it to the neighborhood of  $(0, 0)$  by using the change of variables  $X = x - a$  and  $Y = y - b$ . Otherwise, we write

$$\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = \lim_{(X,Y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} f(X + a, Y + b) = \lim_{(X,Y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} F(X, Y).$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \frac{xy + y - 2x - 2}{\sqrt{(x+1)^2 + (y-2)^2}}$ . Find  $\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (-1,2)} f(x, y)$ .

*Solution :* Let  $X = x + 1$  and  $Y = y - 2$ ,

$$\implies \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (-1,2)} f(x, y) = \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (-1,2)} \frac{(x+1)(y-2)}{\sqrt{(x+1)^2 + (y-2)^2}} = \lim_{(X,Y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} \frac{XY}{\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}}.$$

By setting  $X = r \cos \theta$  and  $Y = r \sin \theta$ ,

$$\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (-1,2)} f(x, y) = \lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} \frac{r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta}{r} = \lim_{r \longrightarrow 0} r \cos \theta \sin \theta = 0.$$

**Example :** Find  $\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (+\infty, +\infty)} \frac{\ln(x+y)}{x+y}$ . Does the limit  $\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (+\infty, +\infty)} \frac{\ln(x-y)}{x-y}$  exist ?

*Solution :* Let  $u = x + y \implies \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (+\infty, +\infty)} \frac{\ln(x+y)}{x+y} = \lim_{u \longrightarrow +\infty} \frac{\ln u}{u} = 0$ .

For the second limit we consider the path  $x - y = m$  with  $m > 0$

$$\implies \lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (+\infty, +\infty)} \frac{\ln(x-y)}{x-y} = \frac{\ln m}{m}. \text{ Then the limit does not exist.}$$

**Proposition 2.1** Let  $u : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function, then

$$\lim_{x \longrightarrow a} u(f(x)) = u\left(\lim_{x \longrightarrow a} f(x)\right).$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \frac{\arcsin(x^2 + y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}$  and  $u(t) = t^2 - t + 2$ . Calculate  $\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} u(f(x, y))$ .

*Solution :* The function  $u$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and by setting  $z = x^2 + y^2$ , then

$$\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} u(f(x, y)) = u\left(\lim_{(x,y) \longrightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)\right) = u\left(\lim_{z \longrightarrow 0} \frac{\arcsin z}{z}\right) = u(1) = 2.$$

## 2.3 Continuity of functions of several variables

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$  and  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$ .

**Definition 2.8** We say that  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a$  when  $f(x)$  has a finite limit at  $a$  and that

$$\lim_{x \longrightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

i.e.,

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon).$$

**Note :** An equivalence of the definition is given by

$$f(x) = f(a) + \varepsilon(x - a)$$

with  $\varepsilon(x - a) \longrightarrow 0$  when  $x \longrightarrow a$ .

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} (x + y) \sin \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

Show that  $f$  is continuous at the origin.

*Solution :* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , find  $\delta > 0$  /  $\|(x, y) - (0, 0)\| < \delta \implies |f(x, y) - f(0, 0)| < \varepsilon$ .

$$|f(x, y)| = \left| (x + y) \sin \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \right| = |x + y| \left| \sin \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \right| \leq |x + y| \leq |x| + |y|.$$

If we consider the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_1 = |x| + |y| \implies |f(x, y)| < \delta < \varepsilon$ , then we take  $\delta < \varepsilon$ .

If we consider the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \implies |f(x, y)| < \sqrt{2}\delta < \varepsilon$ , then we take  $\delta < \varepsilon/\sqrt{2}$ .

If we consider the norm  $\|(x, y)\|_\infty = \max(|x|, |y|) \implies |f(x, y)| < 2\delta < \varepsilon$ , then we take  $\delta < \varepsilon/2$ .

**Theorem 2.5** All continuous function at a point  $a$  is bounded on a neighborhood of  $a$ .

*Proof :* If  $f$  is continue at the point  $a$ , then

for  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0$  given,  $\exists \delta > 0$  /  $\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon_0 \implies |f(x)| < |f(a)| + \varepsilon_0$ ,  
therefore  $f$  is bounded on  $B(a, \delta)$ .

**Theorem 2.6** If  $f$  and  $g$  are two continuous functions at the point  $a$ , then  $f \pm g$ ,  $\alpha f$ ,  $fg$  and  $\frac{f}{g}$  ( $g(x) \neq 0$  in a neighborhood of  $a$ ) are continuous at the point  $a$ .

*Proof :* If  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at the point  $a$  then

$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta_1 > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta_1 \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon)$

and  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta_2 > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta_2 \implies |g(x) - g(a)| < \varepsilon)$ .

► Continuity of  $f + g$  : for  $\delta = \inf(\delta_1, \delta_2)$  we have for  $\|x - a\| < \delta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |(f + g)(x) - (f + g)(a)| &= |[f(x) - f(a)] + [g(x) - g(a)]| \\ &\leq |f(x) - f(a)| + |g(x) - g(a)| \\ &< \varepsilon + \varepsilon \leq 2\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

► Continuity of  $\alpha f$  : for  $\alpha = 0$ , nothing to prove. For  $\alpha \neq 0$  and  $\delta = \delta_1$  we have

$$\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |(\alpha f)(x) - (\alpha f)(a)| = |\alpha| |f(x) - f(a)| < |\alpha| \varepsilon.$$

► Continuity of  $fg$  :

$$\begin{aligned} |(fg)(x) - (fg)(a)| &= |f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(a) + f(x)g(a) - f(a)g(a)| \\ &\leq |f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(a)| + |f(x)g(a) - f(a)g(a)| \\ &\leq |f(x)| |g(x) - g(a)| + |f(x) - f(a)| |g(a)| \end{aligned}$$

$f$  and  $g$  being continuous at  $a$ , then  $f$  and  $g$  are bounded in a neighborhood of  $a$ , then

$\forall x \in B(a, \delta'), |f(x)| \leq K$  and  $|g(x)| \leq L$ ,

then for  $\delta = \inf(\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta')$ , we have

$$\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |(fg)(x) - (fg)(a)| < (K + L) \varepsilon.$$

► Continuity of  $\frac{f}{g}$  :

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \left( \frac{f}{g} \right)(x) - \left( \frac{f}{g} \right)(a) \right| &= \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(a)}{g(x)} + \frac{f(a)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(a)}{g(a)} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(a)}{g(x)} \right| + \left| \frac{f(a)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(a)}{g(a)} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|g(x)|} |f(x) - f(a)| + \left| \frac{f(a)}{g(a)g(x)} \right| |g(x) - g(a)| \end{aligned}$$

$f$  and  $g$  being continuous at  $a$ , then  $f$  and  $g$  are bounded in a neighborhood of  $a$

(with  $g(x) \neq 0$ ), then  $\forall x \in B(a, \delta'), \frac{1}{|g(x)|} \leq K$  and  $\left| \frac{f(a)}{g(a)g(x)} \right| \leq L$ ,

then for  $\delta = \inf(\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta')$ , we have

$$\|x - a\| < \delta \implies \left| \left( \frac{f}{g} \right)(x) - \left( \frac{f}{g} \right)(a) \right| < (K + L) \varepsilon.$$

**Example :** Given the following polynomial of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  :  $f(x, y) = x^2y + xy^3 - 2x$

Let  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . The first and second projection functions

$$\text{Pr}_1(x, y) = x \text{ and } \text{Pr}_2(x, y) = y$$

are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We write

$$f(x, y) = \text{Pr}_1^2(x, y) \text{Pr}_2(x, y) + \text{Pr}_1(x, y) \text{Pr}_2^3(x, y) - 2 \text{Pr}_1(x, y),$$

then using the previous theorem  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Theorem 2.7** Given the composition  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} I \subseteq \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{R}$ . If  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a \in D$  and  $g$  is continuous at the point  $f(a) \in I$ , then  $g \circ f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at  $a$ .

*Proof :*  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a$  then

$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon).$

$g$  is continuous at the point  $f(a)$  then

$(\forall \varepsilon' > 0) (\exists \delta' > 0) (|f(x) - f(a)| < \delta' \implies |g(f(x)) - g(f(a))| < \varepsilon').$

Let  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon' = \delta'$ , then  $\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |(g \circ f)(x) - (g \circ f)(a)| < \varepsilon.$

**Definition 2.9** We say that  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous on  $D$  if  $f$  is continuous at each point of  $D$ .

**Example :** Prove that the function  $f(x, y) = \sin \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$  is continuous on  $D = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ .

*Solution :* Let  $u(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$  and  $g(u) = \sin u$ .

The functions  $v / v(x, y) = xy = \text{Pr}_1(x, y) \text{Pr}_2(x, y)$  and  $w / w(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = \text{Pr}_1^2(x, y) + \text{Pr}_2^2(x, y)$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , with  $x^2 + y^2 \neq 0, \forall (x, y) \in D$ , then  $u = \frac{v}{w}$  is continuous on  $D$ , and since  $g$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $f = g \circ u$  is continuous on  $D$ .

• **Extension by continuity :** Let  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined and continuous on a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  except at a point  $a \in D$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  exists and is finite then we can extend  $f$  by continuity on  $D$ . Its extension  $g$  is defined on  $D$  by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in D \setminus \{a\} \\ L & \text{if } x = a \end{cases}$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ , for  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ .

is  $f$  extendable by continuity at  $(0, 0)$  ?

*Solution :*  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{r^3 \cos \theta \sin^2 \theta}{r^2} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} r \cos \theta \sin^2 \theta = 0$

then  $f$  is extendable by continuity on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and its extension is given by

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\} \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

**Definition 2.10** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The set

$$f^{-1}(S) = \{x \in D : f(x) \in S\}$$

is called reciprocal image of  $S$  by  $f$ .

**Theorem 2.8** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function.

(i) For all open  $U$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $f^{-1}(U)$  is an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(ii) For all closed  $F$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $f^{-1}(F)$  is a closed of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  that is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$f^{-1}([1, 4]) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : f(x, y) \in [1, 4]\} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$  is a closed and

$f^{-1}(]1, 4[) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : f(x, y) \in ]1, 4[) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 1 < x^2 + y^2 < 4\}$  is an pen.

## 2.4 Partial continuity of functions of several variables

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$  and  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$ .

**Definition 2.11** For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , the mapping from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  defined by :

$$f_i : x_i \longmapsto f_i(x_i) = f(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, x_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)$$

is called  $i^{\text{th}}$  partial mapping of  $f$  at the point  $a$ .

**Definition 2.12** If the mapping  $f_i$  is continuous at  $a_i$ , we say that  $f$  is continuous with respect to  $x_i$  at the point  $a$ .

**Definition 2.13** If  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  are continuous at  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , respectively, we say that  $f$  is partially continuous at  $a$ .

**Proposition 2.2** If  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a$ , then  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  are also continuous at  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , respectively.

*Proof :*  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ , then  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon)$ .

We know that for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $|x_i - a_i| \leq \|x - a\| < \delta$ , whatever the norm,

then  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 / |x_i - a_i| < \delta$

$$\implies |f(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, x_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n) - f(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, a_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)| < \varepsilon$$

therefore  $(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (|x_i - a_i| < \delta \implies |f_i(x_i) - f_i(a_i)| < \varepsilon)$ .

**Remark :** If  $f$  is partially continuous at the point  $a$ , it is not necessarily continuous at  $a$ .

**Definition 2.14** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We call the restriction of  $f$  on the curve of equation  $y = g(x)$  a function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\varphi(x) = f(x, g(x))$ . We say that this restriction of  $f$  is continuous at a point  $P(a, b)$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \varphi(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x, g(x)) = f(a, b).$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^4} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

1. Show that  $f$  is partially continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .
2. Show that the restriction of  $f$  on the straight line  $y = mx$ ,  $\forall m \in \mathbb{R}$ , is continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .
3. Find the limit when  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$  of the restriction of  $f$  on the parabola  $x = y^2$ .
4. Is there an equivalence between continuity and partial continuity ?

*Solution :*

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f_1(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, 0) = 0 = f(0, 0)$  and  $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f_2(y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(0, y) = 0 = f(0, 0)$ , then  $f$  is partially continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .

2. For  $y = mx$  and  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\varphi(x) = f(x, mx) = \frac{m^2 x^3}{x^2 + m^4 x^4} = \frac{m^2 x}{1 + m^4 x^2}$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \varphi(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, mx) = 0 = f(0, 0)$ , then  $f$  is continuous in any rectilinear direction passing through the origin.

3. For  $x = y^2$  and  $y \neq 0$ ,  $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \varphi(y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(y^2, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{y^4}{y^4 + y^4} = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0 = f(0, 0)$ .

4. No,  $f$  is partially continuous but it is not continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .

## 2.5 Exercises

**Exercise 2.1** Determine the domain of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = \arcsin \frac{x}{y}$
2.  $f(x, y) = \frac{\arcsin x}{\arcsin y}$
3.  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{y^2 - 4x^2 - 16}$
4.  $f(x, y) = \ln \frac{xy}{1 - xy}$
5.  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{\frac{y^2 - 1}{1 - x^2}}$
6.  $f(x, y) = \ln \frac{x}{1 - x^2 - y^2}$
7.  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x \cos y}$
8.  $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y - \sqrt{x}}}$
9.  $f(x, y) = \exp \left( \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2 - 1} \right)$

**Exercise 2.2** Determine the level curves of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 6y + 13$ , for  $k \in \mathbb{R}$
2.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y}{x + y^2}$ , for  $k \in \{0, -1\}$
3.  $f(x, y) = \frac{xy - x + y}{xy}$ , for  $k \in \{1, 2\}$
4.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^4 + y^4}{8 - x^2 y^2}$ , for  $k = 2$

**Exercise 2.3** Study the limit when  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = \frac{\sqrt{1 + x^2} - 1}{\sqrt{1 + y^2} - 1}$
2.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 - 2xy + 5y^2}{3x^2 + 4y^2}$
3.  $f(x, y) = \frac{y^2 \ln(x^2 + y^2)}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$
4.  $f(x, y) = \frac{\ln(1 + xy^2)}{y^2}$
5.  $f(x, y) = \frac{y^2 \sin x}{x^2 + y^2 + |x + y|}$
6.  $f(x, y) = \frac{e^{x^2 y^2} - \cos xy}{\ln(1 + x^2 + y^2)}$
7.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{y \ln(y - x^2)}$
8.  $f(x, y) = x^y$

**Exercise 2.4** Let  $\alpha > 0$  and  $f$  be the function of two variables defined by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 \ln(1 + y^2) - y^2 \ln(1 + x^2)}{\sqrt{1 + (x^2 + y^2)^\alpha} - 1}.$$

Discuss according to the parameter  $\alpha$  the existence of  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} f(x, y)$ .

**Exercise 2.5** Find the limits as  $\|(x, y)\| \rightarrow \infty$  of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^4}{x^4 + y^2}$
2.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x \arctan y}{1 + x^2 + y^2}$

**Exercise 2.6** Show, using the definition of the limit at a point, that

1.  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{x + y}{1 + x^2 + y^2} = 0$
2.  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{xy - \sin y}{2 + \cos x} = 0$

**Exercise 2.7** Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(xy - y^2)}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Verify that  $|f(x, y)| \leq |x - y|$ , for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ .
2. Deduce that  $f$  is continuous at the point  $(0, 0)$ .

**Exercise 2.8** Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{(x+y) \ln(1+|xy|)}{\sin(x^2+y^2)} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Show that in the neighborhood of the point  $(0, 0)$ ,  $f$  is equivalent to a function  $g$ .
2. Using polar coordinates, show that  $f$  is continuous at the point  $(0, 0)$ .

**Exercise 2.9** Study the continuity at the origin  $O(0, 0)$  of the following functions :

$$\begin{aligned} 1. f(x, y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases} & 2. f(x, y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{x^3 y^3}{x^{12} + y^4} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases} \\ 3. f(x, y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{x}{x+y} & \text{if } x+y \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x+y = 0 \end{cases} & 4. f(x, y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(x^2 y^2)}{x^2 y^2 + |x-y|} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases} \\ 5. f(x, y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{y^2}{x-y} & \text{if } x \neq y \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y \end{cases} & 6. f(x, y) &= \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 y^3 \arctan \frac{y}{x}}{\ln(1+x^4+y^4+2x^2 y^2)} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 2.10** Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$  and  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the function defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{|x|^\alpha |y|^\beta}{x^2 + y^2 - xy} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Verify that  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ .
2. Give a necessary and sufficient condition on  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  so that  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .  
(Hint : We can verify that  $\frac{1}{2} \leq 1 - \sin \theta \cos \theta \leq \frac{3}{2}$ )

**Exercise 2.11** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^2 - x^2}{|y - x|} & \text{if } y \neq x \\ 0 & \text{if } y = x \end{cases}$$

Study the continuity of  $f$  on the straight line  $y = x$ .

**Exercise 2.12** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} xy \sin \frac{1}{xy} & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

Study the continuity of  $f$  at each point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .



**Exercise 2.13** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin xy - xy}{\ln(1 + x^2 y^2)} & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

1. Show that  $f$  is continuous on the set  $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : xy = 0\}$ .
2. Deduce that it is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Exercise 2.14** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 10 - x^2 - y^2 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \leq 9 \\ \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - 9 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 > 9 \end{cases}$$

1. Study the continuity of  $f$  on the set  $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 9\}$ .
2. Deduce the domain of continuity of  $f$ .

**Exercise 2.15** Study if each of the following functions can be extended by continuity at  $(0, 0)$  and give its extension  $g$  :

$$1. f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^3 + 3y^2} \quad 2. f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 y}{2x^2 + 3y^2} \quad 3. f(x, y) = \frac{x \sin(xy^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$

**Exercise 2.16** Let the function  $f$  given by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{|x| + |y|}.$$

1. Show that  $x^2 + y^2 \leq (|x| + |y|)^2$ ,  $\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  then calculate  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$ .
2. Show that  $|\cos \theta| + |\sin \theta| \geq 1$ ,  $\forall \theta \in \mathbb{R}$  then find again  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$  using polar coordinates.
3. Deduce that the function  $g$  given by

$$g(x, y) = \frac{\sin xy}{|x| + |y|}$$

is extendable by continuity at  $(0, 0)$ .

**Exercise 2.17** Extend by continuity the function  $f$  and give its extension  $g$  :

1.  $f(x, y) = \frac{\cos x - \cos y}{x - y}$  on the line  $y = x$
2.  $f(x, y) = \frac{\sin(y^2 - x)}{y^2 - x} e^{y^2 + x}$  on the parabola  $y^2 = x$
3.  $f(x, y) = \frac{e^{x^2 y^2} - \cos(xy)}{y^2}$  on the line  $y = 0$

## Chapter 3

# Differentiability for real-valued functions of several variables

### 3.1 Partial derivatives of a function of several variables

**Definition 3.1** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $(x, y) \longmapsto f(x, y)$  be a function defined in an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The first order partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  at a point  $P(a, b) \in D$  is defined by

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x, b) - f(a, b)}{x - a} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}.$$

Similarly, the first order partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  at the point  $P(a, b)$  is defined by

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) = \lim_{y \rightarrow b} \frac{f(a, y) - f(a, b)}{y - b} = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a, b + k) - f(a, b)}{k}.$$

**Note :** By fixing  $y = b$ , the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  at the point  $P(a, b)$  is therefore the derivative at the point  $x = a$  of the first partial function  $f_1 : x \longrightarrow f(x, b)$  of  $f$  with

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f_1(x) - f_1(a)}{x - a} = f'_1(a).$$

Similarly

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) = \lim_{y \rightarrow b} \frac{f_2(y) - f_2(b)}{y - b} = f'_2(b).$$

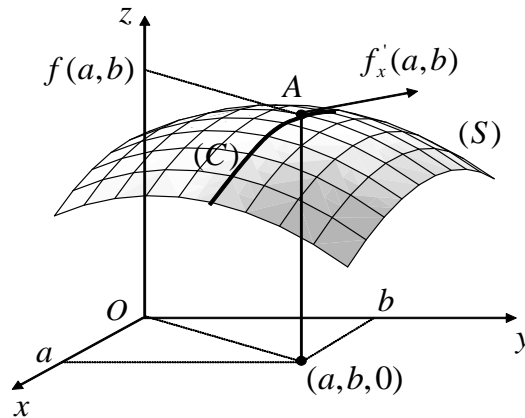
**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + x\sqrt{y}$  and  $P(1, 4)$ . Calculate  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 4)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 4)$ .

*Solution :*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 4) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(x, 4) - f(1, 4)}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 + 2x - 3}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x + 3)}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x + 3) = 4, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 4) &= \lim_{y \rightarrow 4} \frac{f(1, y) - f(1, 4)}{y - 4} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 4} \frac{\sqrt{y} - 2}{y - 4} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 4} \frac{1}{(y - 4)(\sqrt{y} + 2)} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{y} + 2} = \frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

• **Geometric interpretation :** Let  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $P(a, b) \in D$ .

Recall that the set  $S = \{M(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : z = f(x, y)\}$  is the representative surface of the function  $f$ . The first partial function  $f_1(x) = f(x, b)$  of  $f$  represents a curve  $(C)$  on  $(S)$  (called line of coordinates) of equation  $z = f_1(x)$  and located in the plane  $y = b$ . In this plane the partial derivative  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b)$  is the slope of the tangent at the point  $A(a, b, f(a, b))$  to the curve  $(C)$ . Similarly for  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$ .



**General case :** More generally, the partial derivative with respect to the variable  $x_i$  for a function of  $n$  variables  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  at a point  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$ , is defined by

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a_1, \dots, a_{i-1}, a_i + h, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n) - f(a_1, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_n)}{h}.$$

**Remarks :** (1) The partial derivative  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$  may be denoted by  $f'_{x_i}$  or  $D_i f$ .

(2) In practice, to calculate  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  at each point  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of  $D$ , it is sufficient to derive  $f$  as a function of the single variable  $x_i$ , the other variables are considered as constant.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y, z) = xe^{-y} \cos z$ . Calculate by two methods the partial derivatives of  $f$  at the point  $P(2, 0, \pi)$ .

*Solution : First method (by definition) :*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2, 0, \pi) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{f(x, 0, \pi) - f(2, 0, \pi)}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{-x + 2}{x - 2} = -1, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2, 0, \pi) &= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2, y, \pi) - f(2, 0, \pi)}{y - 0} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2e^{-y} + 2}{y} \stackrel{HR}{=} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{2e^{-y}}{1} = 2, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(2, 0, \pi) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow \pi} \frac{f(2, 0, z) - f(2, 0, \pi)}{z - \pi} = \lim_{z \rightarrow \pi} \frac{2 \cos z + 2}{z - \pi} \stackrel{HR}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow \pi} \frac{-2 \sin z}{1} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

*Second method (by calculation) :*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, z) &= e^{-y} \cos z \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2, 0, \pi) = -1, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, z) &= -xe^{-y} \cos z \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2, 0, \pi) = 2, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, z) &= -xe^{-y} \sin z \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(2, 0, \pi) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

**Note :** The existence of the partial derivatives of a function of several variables at a given point does not guarantee the continuity at this point.

**Example :** Given the function  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-1}{y-1} & \text{if } y \neq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } y = 1 \end{cases}$

1. Find  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 1)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 1)$ .

2. Is  $f$  continuous at the point  $(1, 1)$  ?

*Solution :* 1.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(x, 1) - f(1, 1)}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{0 - 0}{x - 1} = 0$

$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 1) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(1, y) - f(1, 1)}{y - 1} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 1} \frac{0 - 0}{y - 1} = 0$

2. Let the path  $y = x$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x, x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{x-1} = 1 \neq 0 = f(1, 1)$ .

Therefore  $f$  is not continuous at  $(1, 1)$ , however  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 1)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 1)$  exist at  $(1, 1)$ .

- **Differentiation rules :** The rules of partial differentiation are the same of the functions of one variable. Consider two functions of  $n$  variables  $u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $v : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we have for  $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\alpha u) &= \alpha \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(u + v) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_i} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(u^n) &= n \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} u^{n-1} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(uv) &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} v + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_i} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{u}{v} \right) &= \frac{\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} v - u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_i}}{v^2} \end{aligned}$$

If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a differentiable function of one real variable, then for  $i = 1, \dots, n$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(f \circ u) = \frac{df}{du} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i}.$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \ln(xy + \tan y) = \ln u(x, y)$ .

Then  $f'_x(x, y) = \frac{u'_x(x, y)}{u(x, y)} = \frac{y}{xy + \tan y}$  and  $f'_y(x, y) = \frac{u'_y(x, y)}{u(x, y)} = \frac{x + 1 + \tan^2 y}{xy + \tan y}$ .

## 3.2 Higher order partial derivatives

As the functions of one variable, a function of several variables may have second, third, and higher partial derivatives.

- **Second order partial derivatives :** Let a function  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  having first order partial derivatives in a certain domain  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ . The functions  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  may each have two partial derivatives. We can therefore define the following second order partial derivatives :

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\nearrow & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = (f'_x)'_x = f''_{xx} & \nearrow \\
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\
\searrow & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = (f'_x)'_y = f''_{xy} & \searrow \\
& \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = (f'_y)'_x = f''_{yx} & \\
& \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = (f'_y)'_y = f''_{yy} &
\end{array}$$

- $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$  are the pure second derivatives;
- $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$  are the mixed second derivatives.

In general the second order partial derivatives of a function of  $n$  variables

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
f : & D \subset \mathbb{R}^n & \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\
& (x_1, \dots, x_n) & \longmapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_n)
\end{array}$$

are given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}, \forall i, j = 1, \dots, n.$$

**Remark :** Third and higher partial derivatives are defined in like manner.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 \sin(xy)$ . Find all second partial derivatives of  $f$ .

$$\text{Solution : } \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 2x \sin(xy) + x^2 y \cos(xy), \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = x^3 \cos(xy),$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) = 2 \sin(xy) + 4xy \cos(xy) - x^2 y^2 \sin(xy), \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) = -x^4 \sin(xy),$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(x, y) = 3x^2 \cos(xy) - x^3 y \sin(xy), \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) = 3x^2 \cos(xy) - x^3 y \sin(xy).$$

$$\text{In this example we note that } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y), \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

**Theorem 3.1 (Schwarz theorem) :** Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . If  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has continuous partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$  in a neighborhood of a point  $P(a, b) \in D$ , then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(a, b).$$

More generally, if  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function having continuous first and second order partial derivatives at a point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$  then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(x) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(x), \quad \forall i, j = 1, \dots, n.$$

*Proof :* Set, for  $(a + h, b + k) \in D$ ,

$$E(h, k) = f(a + h, b + k) - f(a + h, b) - f(a, b + k) + f(a, b).$$

Let  $\varphi(x) = f(x, b + k) - f(x, b)$ , we have  $E(h, k) = \varphi(a + h) - \varphi(a)$ .

Using the M.V.T. applied to  $\varphi$ , there exists  $\alpha \in ]0, 1[$  such that  $\varphi(a + h) - \varphi(a) = h\varphi'(a + \alpha h)$ , we therefore obtain

$$E(h, k) = h \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, b + k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, b) \right].$$

Let now,  $\psi(y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, y)$ , we have  $E(h, k) = h[\psi(b + k) - \psi(b)]$ .

Using the M.V.T. applied to  $\psi$ , there exists  $\beta \in ]0, 1[$  such that  $\psi(b + k) - \psi(b) = k\psi'(b + \beta k)$ , which gives

$$E(h, k) = hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(a + \alpha h, b + \beta k).$$

In a similar way, there exists  $s, t \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$E(h, k) = kh \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a + sh, b + tk).$$

This gives that  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(a + \alpha h, b + \beta k) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a + sh, b + tk)$ .

As  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$  are continuous at  $P(a, b)$  and making  $(h, k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ , we obtain

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(a, b).$$

**Definition 3.2** Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

(i) We say that  $f$  is of class  $C^0$  on  $D$  if it is continuous on  $D$ .

(ii) We say that  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $D$  if,  $f$  and all its first-order partial derivatives are continuous on  $D$ .

(iii) We say that  $f$  is of class  $C^k$  on  $D$  ( $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ) if,  $f$  and all its partial derivatives up to order  $k$  are continuous on  $D$ .

(iv) We say that  $f$  is of class  $C^\infty$  on  $D$  if it is of class  $C^k$  on  $D$ , for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^3y - xy^3}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

Calculate  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0)$ . Conclusion ?

*Solution :* We have  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) (0, 0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, 0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0)}{x - 0}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0) &= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0, y) - f(0, 0)}{y - 0} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{0}{y^2} - 0}{y} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{y} = 0; \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) &= \frac{(x^3 - 3xy^2)(x^2 + y^2) - (x^3y - xy^3)(2y)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \frac{x^5 - 4x^3y^2 - xy^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, 0) = \frac{x^5}{x^4} = x, \text{ for } x \neq 0.$$

Or using the definition

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, 0) &= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, y) - f(x, 0)}{y - 0} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{x^3 y - x y^3}{x^2 + y^2} - \frac{0}{x^2}}{y} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 - x y^2}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{x^3}{x^2} = x \\ \implies \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - 0}{x} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Similarly } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) (0, 0) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, y) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0)}{y - 0},$$

$$\text{with } \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0) = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = \frac{x^4 y + 4x^2 y^3 - y^5}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{-y - 0}{y} = -1.$$

We conclude that  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0) \neq \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0)$  and therefore  $f$  is not class  $C^2$  at  $(0, 0)$ .

### 3.3 Derivative of a composite function (The Chain Rule)

**Theorem 3.2** Let  $I$  be an open interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and the following composition :

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} I \subset \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{g} & D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathbb{R} \\ t & \longmapsto & (x(t), y(t)) & \longmapsto & f(x(t), y(t)) = F(t) \end{array}$$

If the functions  $x$  and  $y$  are differentiable at a point  $t_0 \in I$  and if  $f$  has continuous first partial derivatives at the point  $(x_0, y_0) = (x(t_0), y(t_0)) \in D$ , then  $F = f \circ g : I \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at the point  $t_0$ , with

$$F'(t_0) = \frac{dF}{dt}(t_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)x'(t_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)y'(t_0).$$

*Proof :* We have

$$F(t) - F(t_0) = f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0) = f(x, y) - f(x_0, y) + f(x_0, y) - f(x_0, y_0).$$

Let  $\varphi(x) = f(x, y)$  and  $\psi(y) = f(x_0, y)$ . We have  $F(t) - F(t_0) = \varphi(x) - \varphi(x_0) + \psi(y) - \psi(y_0)$ . By M.V.T. applied to  $\varphi$ , there exists  $\alpha \in ]x_0, x[$  or  $]x, x_0[$  such that  $\varphi(x) - \varphi(x_0) = (x - x_0)\varphi'(\alpha)$  and by M.V.T. applied to  $\psi$ , there exists  $\beta \in ]y_0, y[$  or  $]y, y_0[$  such that  $\psi(y) - \psi(y_0) = (y - y_0)\psi'(\beta)$ , we therefore obtain

$$F(t) - F(t_0) = (x - x_0) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\alpha, y) + (y - y_0) \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, \beta).$$

According to the continuity of  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  and the differentiability of  $x$  and  $y$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} F'(t_0) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{F(t) - F(t_0)}{t - t_0} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{x(t) - x(t_0)}{t - t_0} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\alpha, y) + \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{y(t) - y(t_0)}{t - t_0} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, \beta) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)x'(t_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)y'(t_0). \end{aligned}$$

**Example :** Calculate by two different methods the derivative of the function

$$F(t) = (t^2 + 5t + 6)^{\cos t}, \text{ for } t \notin [-3, -2].$$

*Solution :*

*First method (direct) :*

$$\begin{aligned} \ln F(t) &= \cos t \ln(t^2 + 5t + 6) \implies \frac{F'(t)}{F(t)} = -\sin t \ln(t^2 + 5t + 6) + \frac{2t + 5}{t^2 + 5t + 6} \cos t \\ \implies F'(t) &= F(t) \left[ -\sin t \ln(t^2 + 5t + 6) + \cos t \frac{2t + 5}{t^2 + 5t + 6} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

*Second method (Chain rule) :*

Let  $x(t) = t^2 + 5t + 6$ ,  $y(t) = \cos t$  and  $f(x, y) = x^y = F(t)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF}{dt}(t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{y}{x} x^y (2t + 5) + x^y (\ln x) (-\sin t) \\ \implies F'(t) &= F(t) \left[ \frac{2t + 5}{t^2 + 5t + 6} \cos t - \sin t \ln(t^2 + 5t + 6) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

**Example :** Let  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$  and  $F(t) = f(x, y)$  where  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  and  $x, y$  are 2-times continuously differentiable. Show that

$$F''(t) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} [x'(t)]^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} x'(t) y'(t) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} [y'(t)]^2 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x''(t) + (t) \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} y''(t).$$

*Solution :* We have

$$\begin{aligned} F'(t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x'(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} y'(t) \implies F''(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{dF}{dt} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x'(t) \right) + \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} y'(t) \right) \\ \implies F''(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) x'(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x''(t) + \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) y'(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} y''(t) \\ &= \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) x'(t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) y'(t) \right] x'(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x''(t) \\ &\quad + \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) x'(t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) y'(t) \right] y'(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} y''(t) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} (x'(t))^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} x'(t) y'(t) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} (y'(t))^2 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} x''(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} y''(t). \end{aligned}$$

**General case :** Let  $I$  be an open interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and the following composition

$$\begin{array}{ccc} I \subset \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{g} & D \subset \mathbb{R}^n & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathbb{R} \\ t & \longmapsto & (x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)) & \longmapsto & f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = F(t) \end{array}$$

If the functions  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are differentiable at a point  $t_0 \in I$  and if  $f$  has continuous first partial derivatives at the point  $x_0 = g(t_0) = (x_1(t_0), \dots, x_n(t_0)) \in D$ , then  $F = f \circ g : I \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at the point  $t_0$ , with

$$F'(t_0) = \frac{dF}{dt}(t_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_0) x'_i(t_0).$$



### 3.4 Directional derivative

Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function defined in an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  and  $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$  be a unit vector of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $\|u\| = 1$ ).

**Definition 3.3** The directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction of the vector  $\vec{u}$ , at the point  $a$  is defined by

$$D_u f(a) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + tu) - f(a)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a_1 + tu_1, \dots, a_n + tu_n) - f(a_1, \dots, a_n)}{t}.$$

**Definition 3.4** We define the gradient of  $f$  at a point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  by

$$\vec{\text{grad}} f(x) = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(x) \right) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

**Theorem 3.3** If  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  in a neighborhood of  $a$ , then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\text{grad}} f(a).$$

*Proof :* Let  $F(t) = f(a + tu)$ , then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(t) - F(0)}{t} = F'(0)$ .

Using chain rule  $F'(0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) x'_i(0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) u_i = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\text{grad}} f(a)$ ,

then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\text{grad}} f(a)$ .

**Note :**  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}$  can also denoted by  $D_u f$ .

**Theorem 3.4** The maximum value of  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a)$  occurs in the direction of  $\vec{\text{grad}} f(a)$ .  
This maximum value equals (in module)

$$\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a) \right| = \left\| \vec{\text{grad}} f(a) \right\|.$$

*Proof :*  $\left| \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\text{grad}} f(a) \right|$  is maximal when  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{\text{grad}} f(a)$  are collinear, with

$$\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(a) \right| = \left| \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\text{grad}} f(a) \right| = \|\vec{u}\| \left\| \vec{\text{grad}} f(a) \right\| = \left\| \vec{\text{grad}} f(a) \right\|.$$

It is the case where  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{\text{grad}} f(a)$  have the same direction.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $P(1, 1)$  and  $\vec{u} = \cos \alpha \vec{i} + \sin \alpha \vec{j}$  with  $0 \leq \alpha \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

1. Find the directional derivative of  $f$  at the point  $P$ , in the direction of  $\vec{u}$ .
2. In what direction this directional derivative is maximal ?

*Solution* : 1.  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}f(x, y) = 2x \overrightarrow{i} + 2y \overrightarrow{j} \implies \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}f(1, 1) = 2 \overrightarrow{i} + 2 \overrightarrow{j}$   
 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(1, 1) = \overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}f(1, 1) = (\cos \alpha \overrightarrow{i} + \sin \alpha \overrightarrow{j}) \cdot (2 \overrightarrow{i} + 2 \overrightarrow{j}) = 2(\cos \alpha + \sin \alpha).$   
 2. This derivative is maximal when  $2|\cos \alpha + \sin \alpha| = \|\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}f(1, 1)\| = 2\sqrt{2}$   
 $\iff \cos \alpha + \sin \alpha = \sqrt{2}$ , i.e., when  $\alpha = \frac{\pi}{4}$ .

### 3.5 Differentiability in several variables

Recall that the differentiability of the functions of one variable is the same thing that the existence of the derivative and that we have

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

i.e., there exists a mapping  $E : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(a+h) - f(a) = f'(a)h + |h|E(h) \approx f'(a)h.$$

where  $E(h) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .

Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function defined in an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Definition 3.5** We say that  $f$  is differentiable at  $P(a, b) \in D$  if there exists two real  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  and a mapping  $E : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(a+h, b+k) - f(a, b) = \alpha h + \beta k + \|(h, k)\| E(h, k)$$

where  $E(h, k) \rightarrow 0$  as  $(h, k) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ . In other way

$$\lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} E(h, k) = \lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{f(a+h, b+k) - f(a, b) - \alpha h - \beta k}{\|(h, k)\|} = 0.$$

The norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is one of the three usual norms of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

We deduce from this definition that if  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $P$ , then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$  exist; moreover  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are unique with

$$\alpha = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b).$$

In fact,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h, b) - f(a, b)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\alpha h + |h| E(h, 0)}{h} = \alpha$ . Similarly for  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$ .

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 y^2}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

1. Find  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0)$ .
2. Show that  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $(0,0)$ .

*Solution :*

$$1. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x,0) - f(0,0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{0 - 0}{x} = 0.$$

$$\text{Similarly } \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = 0.$$

2. Let  $\alpha = \beta = 0$  and  $E(h,k)$  such that

$$f(h,k) - f(0,0) = 0h + 0k + \|(h,k)\| E(h,k) \implies E(h,k) = \frac{f(h,k)}{\|(h,k)\|}.$$

$$\text{Take } \|(h,k)\|_2 = \sqrt{h^2 + k^2}, \text{ then } E(h,k) = \frac{h^2 k^2}{(h^2 + k^2)^{3/2}}.$$

$$\lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} E(h,k) = \lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{h^2 k^2}{(h^2 + k^2)^{3/2}} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{r^4 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta}{r^3} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} r \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta = 0.$$

Then  $f$  is differentiable at  $(0,0)$ .

**Theorem 3.5** If  $f$  is differentiable at a point  $P(a,b) \in D$ , then  $f$  is continuous at this point.

*Proof :* If  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $P$ , then  $\exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(a+h, b+k) - f(a,b) = \alpha h + \beta k + \|(h,k)\| E(h,k).$$

When  $(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)$ , we have  $M(x,y) \rightarrow P(a,b)$  with  $x = a+h$  and  $y = b+k$  and then  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} [f(x,y) - f(a,b)] = 0$ , therefore  $f$  is continuous at  $P$ .

**Remark :** The reciprocal of this theorem is not true.

**Proposition 3.1** If  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  are continuous in a neighborhood of a point  $P(a,b) \in D$ , then  $f$  is differentiable at this point.

*Proof :* Set, for  $(a+h, b+k) \in D$ ,

$$E(h,k) = \frac{1}{\|(h,k)\|} \left[ f(a+h, b+k) - f(a,b) - h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) - k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) \right].$$

Using the M.V.T., and based on to the proof of the chain theorem, we therefore obtain

$$\begin{aligned} f(a+h, b+k) - f(a,b) &= f(a+h, b+k) - f(a, b+k) + f(a, b+k) - f(a,b) \\ &= h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, b+k) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b + \beta k), \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$E(h,k) = \frac{1}{\|(h,k)\|} \left[ h \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, b+k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) \right) + k \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b + \beta k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) \right) \right].$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} |E(h,k)| &\leq \frac{|h|}{\|(h,k)\|} \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, b+k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) \right| + \frac{|k|}{\|(h,k)\|} \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b + \beta k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \alpha h, b+k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) \right| + \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b + \beta k) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) \right| \end{aligned}$$

As  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$  are continuous at  $P(a, b)$  and making  $(h, k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ , we obtain

$$\lim_{(h,k) \longrightarrow (0,0)} |E(h, k)| = 0.$$

**Notes :** (1) If one of the partial derivatives at  $P$  doesn't exist, we can conclude that  $f$  is not differentiable at  $P$ .

(2) The existence of the partial derivatives at  $P$  doesn't provide the differentiability, it is necessary that they are continuous at this point.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{|x| + |y|} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

1. Calculate  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0)$ .

2. Is  $f$  differentiable at  $(0, 0)$  ?

*Solution :*

1.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0) = \lim_{x \longrightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, 0) - f(0, 0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \longrightarrow 0} \frac{0 - 0}{x} = 0$ ; similarly  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0) = 0$ .

2. Suppose that  $f$  is differentiable at  $(0, 0)$ , then

$$f(h, k) - f(0, 0) = 0h + 0k + \|(h, k)\| E(h, k) \implies E(h, k) = \frac{f(h, k)}{\|(h, k)\|}.$$

$$\text{Take } \|(h, k)\|_1 = |h| + |k|, \text{ then } E(h, k) = \frac{hk}{(|h| + |k|)^2}.$$

$$\text{Following the path } h = k, \text{ we have } \lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} E(h, h) = \lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} \frac{h^2}{(2|h|)^2} = \lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} \frac{h^2}{4h^2} = \frac{1}{4} \neq 0.$$

Then  $f$  is not differentiable at  $(0, 0)$ .

**General case :** For the functions of  $n$  variables  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we say that  $f$  is differentiable at a point  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  if there exists  $n$  real  $\alpha_i$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , and a mapping  $E : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(a + h) - f(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i h_i + \|h\| E(h)$$

where  $E(h) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \longrightarrow 0_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ . In other way

$$\lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} E(h) = \lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a) - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i h_i}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

We deduce that if  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $a$ , then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a)$  exist; moreover  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  are unique with

$$\alpha_i = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

### 3.6 Differentials for functions of several variables

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function at a point  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then we have

$$f(a_1 + h_1, \dots, a_n + h_n) - f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a)h_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a)h_n + \|h\| E(h).$$

where  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $E(h) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $h \longrightarrow 0_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ .

**Definition 3.6** We call differential of  $f$  at the point  $a$  the linear mapping denoted  $d_a f$  or  $df(a) : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that for a vector  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  associates the linear expression in  $h_1, \dots, h_n$  given by :

$$d_a f(h) = df(a)(h) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a)h_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a)h_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)h_i.$$

**Theorem 3.6** If  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ , then

$$df(a) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a)dx_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a)dx_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)dx_i.$$

*Proof :* The variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  being independents and for  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

we have  $d(x_i)(h) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_j}(a)h_j = h_i$ , then

$$df(a)(h) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)d(x_i)(h) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)dx_i \right)(h), \text{ for all } h \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

$$\text{therefore } df(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)dx_i.$$

**Theorem 3.7** If  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $a$ , then  $f$  has a directional derivative in any direction  $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$  at  $a$ , with

$$df(a)(h) = \vec{h} \cdot \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} f(a) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial h}(a).$$

*Proof :* If  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $a$ , then

$$f(a+h) - f(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)h_i + \|h\| E(h).$$

with  $E(h) \longrightarrow 0$  when  $h \longrightarrow 0$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial h}(a) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+th) - f(a)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)th_i + \|th\| E(th)}{t} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)h_i + \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{|t| \|h\| E(th)}{t} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)h_i = df(a)(h). \end{aligned}$$

**Remark :** The reciprocal of this theorem is not true.

**Note :** Suppose that  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ . From (where  $h = x - a$ )

$$f(x) - f(a) = df(a)(x - a) + \|x - a\| E(x - a),$$

for  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$ , we can deduce the approximation of  $f$  in a neighborhood of  $a$

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + df(a)(x - a).$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^y = e^{y \ln x}$ . Using the differential, give an approximate value of  $f(2.01, 2.97)$  from the point  $P(2, 3)$ .

*Solution :* We have  $f(2.01, 2.97) \approx f(2, 3) + df(2, 3)(2.01 - 2, 2.97 - 3) = f(2, 3) + df(2, 3)(0.01, -0.03)$ .

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = \frac{y}{x} x^y \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2, 3) = 12 \text{ and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = (\ln x) x^y \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2, 3) = 8 \ln 2$$

$$\implies f(2.01, 2.97) \approx f(2, 3) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2, 3)0.01 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2, 3)(-0.03) = 2^3 + (12)(0.01) + (8 \ln 2)(-0.03)$$

$$\implies f(2.01, 2.97) \approx 8 + 0.12 - 0.24 \ln 2 \approx 7.953645.$$

By calculator  $f(2.01, 2.97) = 2.01^{2.97} = 7.952292$ .

**Theorem 3.8** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two functions of  $n$  variables that are differentiable at a point  $a$  of an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\alpha f + \beta g$  (for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ),  $f/g$ ,  $\frac{f}{g}$  ( $g(x) \neq 0$  in a neighborhood of  $a$ ) and  $f^n$  are differentiable at  $a$ , and we have

- (i)  $d(\alpha f + \beta g)(a) = \alpha df(a) + \beta dg(a)$ ;
- (ii)  $d(fg)(a) = g(a) df(a) + f(a) dg(a)$ ;
- (iii)  $d\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)(a) = \frac{g(a) df(a) - f(a) dg(a)}{g^2(a)}$ ;
- (iv)  $d(f^n)(a) = n f^{n-1}(a) df(a)$ .

### 3.7 Exercises

**Exercise 3.1** Find the first and second partial derivatives of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = (x^3 - y^2)^5 + \ln(x^2 + y^2)$
2.  $f(x, y) = x \cos \frac{x}{y}$
3.  $f(x, y, z) = x e^z - y e^x + z e^y$
4.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 \arctan(yz)$

**Exercise 3.2** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be twice differentiable.

1. Find the first and second partial derivatives of the following functions :

$$g(x, y) = f(x^2 + y^2 + xy) \quad \text{and} \quad h(x, y, z) = f(z \sin x + \cos y).$$

2. If  $u(x, t) = f(x - at) + f(x + at)$ , show that  $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = a^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$ .

**Exercise 3.3** Study the existence of the partial derivatives at the origin, in the following cases :

1.  $f(x, y) = \max\{x^2, y\}$
2.  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^3 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$
3.  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^3}{x^4 + |y - x^2|} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

**Exercise 3.4** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , given by

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} \frac{xyz}{x^3 + y^3 + z^3} & \text{if } x^3 + y^3 + z^3 \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x^3 + y^3 + z^3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Prove that  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(0, 0, 0)$  exist, but  $f$  is not continuous at  $(0, 0, 0)$ .

**Exercise 3.5** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} (x^2 + y^2)^x & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 1 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Is the function  $f$  continuous at  $(0, 0)$  ?
2. Determine  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)$  at any  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ .
3. Do the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  exist at the point  $(0, 0)$  ?

**Exercise 3.6** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} x^4 y \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Calculate  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0)$ .

**Exercise 3.7** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} (x^2 + y^2) \sin \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Show that  $f$  is continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .
2. Calculate  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)$  at any  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ .
3. Study the continuity of  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  at the point  $(0, 0)$ . Is  $f$  of class  $C^1$  at  $(0, 0)$  ?

**Exercise 3.8** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} xy \ln(|x| + |y|) & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

Show that  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Exercise 3.9** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{(x - y)^2}{xy - 1} & \text{if } xy \neq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 1 \end{cases}$$

Study the differentiability of  $f$  at  $(1, 1)$ .

**Exercise 3.10** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x \sin y - y \sin x}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Study the differentiability of  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Show that  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
3. Calculate  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0)$ . Deduce that  $f$  is not of class  $C^2$ .

**Exercise 3.11** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$  and the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^n - y^n}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Study, according to the values of  $n$ , the continuity of  $f$  at  $(0, 0)$ .
2. Determine the first order partial derivatives of  $f$  at the point  $(0, 0)$ .
3. Study, according to the values of  $n$ , the differentiability of  $f$  at  $(0, 0)$ .
4. Is  $f$  of class  $C^1$  at  $(0, 0)$  for  $n = 3$  ? for  $n = 4$  ?

**Exercise 3.12** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{1-(x^2+y^2)} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \geq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 < 1 \end{cases}$$

Is this function of class  $C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  ?

**Exercise 3.13** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin xy - xy}{e^{xy} - 1} & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

1. Show that  $f$  is differentiable in  $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : xy = 0\}$ .
2. Deduce that  $f$  is differentiable in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .



**Exercise 3.14** Find the total differentials of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = \arcsin(2x + y)$
2.  $f(x, y) = \ln \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2}$
3.  $f(x, y) = x^{\sin y}$
4.  $f(x, y) = x^2 e^{xy} + \frac{1}{y^2}$
5.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 \sin z + y \ln z$
6.  $f(x, y, z) = z^{xy}$

**Exercise 3.15** 1. Find  $\frac{du}{dt}$  if  $u = xy + xz + yz$ , with  $x = e^t$ ,  $y = e^{-t}$  and  $z = e^t + e^{-t}$ .

2. Find  $\frac{dz}{dx}$  and  $\frac{dz}{dy}$  if  $z = f(x, y) = x^2 y + xy^2$  and  $y = \ln x$ .

3. If  $f(x, y) = 0$  and  $g(x, z) = 0$  and if  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable, show that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} dy = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial z} dz.$$

**Exercise 3.16** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2}{y} \exp \frac{y}{x} & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

1. Calculate  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0)$ .

2. Determine, using the definition, the directional derivative of  $f$  at the point  $(0, 0)$  in any direction of unit vector  $\vec{u} = \alpha \vec{i} + \beta \vec{j}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $\alpha\beta \neq 0$ .

3. Calculate the limit when  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$  of the restriction of  $f$  on the parabola  $y = x^2$ .

4. Is  $f$  continuous at  $(0, 0)$  ? Conclusion ?

**Exercise 3.17** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(xy^2)}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

1. Determine, using the definition, the directional derivative of  $f$  at the point  $(0, 0)$  in any direction of unit vector  $\vec{u} = \alpha \vec{i} + \beta \vec{j}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

2. Is  $f$  differentiable at  $(0, 0)$  ? Conclusion ?

3. Calculate, if it exists,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0)$ .

**Exercise 3.18** The temperature at any point of a thin sheet is given by

$$T(x, y) = \frac{100xy}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

1. Find the directional derivative of  $T$  at the point  $P(2, 1)$ , following the direction that makes an angle of  $60^\circ$  with the  $x$ -axis.

2. What is the direction of the greatest drop in temperature at  $P$ .

**Exercise 3.19** Given  $P(a, b, c) \in S(0, 1)$  and the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = e^{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} - xyz.$$

Determine the directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction of the vector  $\vec{u} = \overrightarrow{OP}$  at the point  $P$ .

## Chapter 4

# Applications of the differential in $\mathbb{R}^n$

### 4.1 Mean value theorem, Taylor's formula and Finite expansions

Let  $P(a, b)$  and  $M(x, y)$  be two points of an open and convex domain  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  such that

$$\begin{cases} x = a + ht \\ y = b + kt \end{cases}, \text{ for } t \in [0, 1].$$

Consider a function  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined on  $D$  and we set

$$f(x, y) = f(a + ht, b + kt) = F(t).$$

#### 4.1.1 Mean value theorem

##### **Theorem 4.1 (Mean value theorem)**

If  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $D$ , then  $\exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b) = \left( h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) (a + \theta h, b + \theta k).$$

*Proof :*  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $D$ , then  $F$  is continuous and differentiable on  $[0, 1]$ .

Therefore, according to the mean value theorem applied to  $F : [0, 1] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  on  $[0, 1]$ ,

$\exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$F(1) - F(0) = (1 - 0)F'(\theta).$$

As  $F(0) = f(a, b)$ ,  $F(1) = f(a + h, b + k)$  and

$$F'(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) x'(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) y'(t) = \left( h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) (a + ht, b + kt),$$

$$\text{then } f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b) = \left( h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) (a + \theta h, b + \theta k).$$

**General case :** Let  $D$  be an open domain of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of  $n$  variables and  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$ . If  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $D$  and if  $[a, a + h] \subset D$  for  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$ , then

$\exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$f(a_1 + h_1, \dots, a_n + h_n) - f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a_1 + \theta h_1, \dots, a_n + \theta h_n).$$

In other words

$$f(a + h) - f(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + \theta h) = \left\langle \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} f(a + \theta h), h \right\rangle.$$

#### 4.1.2 Taylor's formula

##### **Theorem 4.2 (Taylor's formula of order 1)**

If  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  on  $D$ , then  $\exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} f(a + h, b + k) &= f(a, b) + h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \left( h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right) (a + \theta h, b + \theta k). \end{aligned}$$

*Proof :*  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  on  $D$ , then  $F$  is continuous and twice differentiable on  $[0, 1]$ .

Therefore, according to Taylor's formula applied to  $F$  on  $[0, 1]$ ,  $\exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$F(1) = F(0) + (1 - 0)F'(0) + \frac{1}{2}F''(\theta).$$

We have  $F(0) = f(a, b)$ ,  $F(1) = f(a + h, b + k)$ ,  $F'(0) = h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$  and

$$\begin{aligned} F''(t) &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) [x'(t)]^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) x'(t) y'(t) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) [y'(t)]^2 \\ &= \left( h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right) (a + ht, b + kt), \end{aligned}$$

hence the formula.

**General case :** Let  $D$  be an open domain of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of  $n$  variables and  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$ . If  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  on  $D$  and if  $[a, a + h] \subset D$  for  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$ , then  $\exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n h_i h_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a + \theta h).$$

#### 4.1.3 Finite expansions

According to the previous paragraph, we can define the first and second order finite expansions formulas in a neighborhood of a point  $P(a, b)$ .

**Theorem 4.3 (First order finite expansion formula)**

If  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $D$ , then the finite expansion up to order 1 of  $f$  in a neighborhood of  $P(a, b)$  is given by

$$f(a + h, b + k) = f(a, b) + h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) + r\varepsilon(h, k)$$

with  $r = \|(h, k)\|$  and  $\varepsilon(h, k) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $(h, k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ .

*Proof :* Using mean value theorem, we have

$$f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b) = \left( h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) (a + \theta h, b + \theta k).$$

Since  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  are continuous in a neighborhood of  $P$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \theta h, b + \theta k) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + \varepsilon_1(h, k) \\ \text{and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a + \theta h, b + \theta k) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) + \varepsilon_2(h, k), \end{aligned}$$

with  $\varepsilon_1(h, k) \longrightarrow 0$  and  $\varepsilon_2(h, k) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $(h, k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ .  
This implies

$$\begin{aligned} f(a + h, b + k) &= f(a, b) + h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) + h\varepsilon_1(h, k) + k\varepsilon_2(h, k) \\ &= f(a, b) + h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) + \|(h, k)\| \varepsilon(h, k) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } \varepsilon(h, k) = \frac{h\varepsilon_1(h, k) + k\varepsilon_2(h, k)}{\|(h, k)\|}.$$

It is easy to show that  $\varepsilon(h, k) \longrightarrow 0$  when  $(h, k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ .

**General case :** The finite expansion up to order 1, of a function  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of class  $C^1$ , in a neighborhood of  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  is given by

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) + r\varepsilon(h)$$

with  $r = \|h\|$  and  $\varepsilon(h) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \longrightarrow (0, \dots, 0)$ .

**Theorem 4.4 (Second order finite expansion formula)**

If  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  on  $D$ , then the finite expansion up to order 2 of  $f$  in a neighborhood of  $P(a, b)$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(a + h, b + k) &= f(a, b) + h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \left[ h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a, b) \right] + r^2 \varepsilon(h, k) \end{aligned}$$

with  $r = \|(h, k)\|$  and  $\varepsilon(h, k) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $(h, k) \longrightarrow (0, 0)$ .

*Proof :* The proof is analogous to the previous theorem using Taylor's formula of order 1.

**General case :** The finite expansion up to order 2, of a function  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of class  $C^2$ , in a neighborhood of  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  is given by

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n h_i h_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a) + r^2 \varepsilon(h)$$

with  $r = \|h\|$  and  $\varepsilon(h) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \longrightarrow (0, \dots, 0)$ .

**Example :** Give the finite expansion up to order 2 of  $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{xy}$  in a neighborhood of  $(1, 1)$ .

*Solution :* We have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= f(1 + h, 1 + k) \\ &= f(1, 1) + \left( h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) (1, 1) + \frac{1}{2} \left( h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right) (1, 1) + r^2 \varepsilon(h, k) \end{aligned}$$

with  $h = x - 1$  and  $k = y - 1$ .

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{x^2 y}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{xy^2}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) = \frac{2}{x^3 y}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) = \frac{2}{xy^3}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) = \frac{1}{x^2 y^2}$$

$$\implies f(1, 1) = 1, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 1) = -1, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 1) = -1, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(1, 1) = 2, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(1, 1) = 2 \text{ and } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(1, 1) = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies f(x, y) &= 1 - h - k + h^2 + hk + k^2 + r^2 \varepsilon(h, k) \\ &= 1 - (x - 1) - (y - 1) + (x - 1)^2 + (x - 1)(y - 1) + (y - 1)^2 + r^2 \varepsilon(x - 1, y - 1). \end{aligned}$$

## 4.2 Extrema of functions of two variables

### 4.2.1 Necessary condition for a local extremum

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $P(a, b) \in D$ .

**Definition 4.1** (i) We say that  $f$  has a local minimum (or relative) at  $(a, b)$  if there exists a neighborhood  $V \subseteq D$  of  $(a, b)$  such that

$$f(a, b) \leq f(x, y), \quad \forall (x, y) \in V.$$

(ii) We say that  $f$  has a local maximum (or relative) at  $(a, b)$  if there exists a neighborhood  $V \subseteq D$  of  $(a, b)$  such that

$$f(a, b) \geq f(x, y), \quad \forall (x, y) \in V.$$

**Definition 4.2** (i) We say that  $f$  has a strict local minimum at  $(a, b)$  if there exists a neighborhood  $V \subseteq D$  of  $(a, b)$  such that

$$f(a, b) < f(x, y), \quad \forall (x, y) \in V \text{ and } (x, y) \neq (a, b).$$

(ii) We say that  $f$  has a strict local maximum at  $(a, b)$  if there exists a neighborhood  $V \subseteq D$  of  $(a, b)$  such that

$$f(a, b) > f(x, y), \quad \forall (x, y) \in V \text{ and } (x, y) \neq (a, b).$$

- **Graphic interpretation :** The existence of a local minimum (resp. maximum) at  $(a, b)$  signifies that in a neighborhood of  $(a, b)$ , the position of the surface  $(S)$  of equation  $z = f(x, y)$  is above (resp. below) the plane of equation  $z = f(a, b)$ .

**Remark :** An extremum designate a minimum or a maximum.

- **Critical point :** Suppose that  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  on  $D$  and that it has a local extremum at  $P(a, b)$ . Then the coordinates of  $P$  verify the following first order conditions :

$$(NC) \quad \begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) = 0 \end{cases}$$

This point is called critical point and the condition  $(NC)$  is necessary but is not sufficient for  $f$  to have a local extrema at  $(a, b)$ .

**Example :** For  $f(x, y) = xy$  we have  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0) = 0$  but there is neither maximum nor minimum at the point  $(0, 0)$ .

#### 4.2.2 Sufficient condition for a local extremum

In the following, based on the second order finite expansion formula in a neighborhood of a point  $P(a, b)$ , we will extract a sufficient condition for the existence of local extrema.

- **Sufficient condition (Monge's notations) :**

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^2$  and  $P(a, b) \in D$  be a critical point of  $f$ . We have for  $(x, y) \in V_P$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) - f(a, b) &= h \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) + k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) + \frac{1}{2} \left[ h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a, b) \right] \\ &\quad + r^2 \varepsilon(h, k) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) + k^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a, b) \right] + r^2 \varepsilon(h, k) \end{aligned}$$

When  $(x, y) \longrightarrow (a, b)$  the sign of  $\Delta f = f(x, y) - f(a, b)$  becomes the one of the quantity between hooks. To facilitate the discussion put

$$A = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b), \quad B = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b), \quad C = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a, b).$$

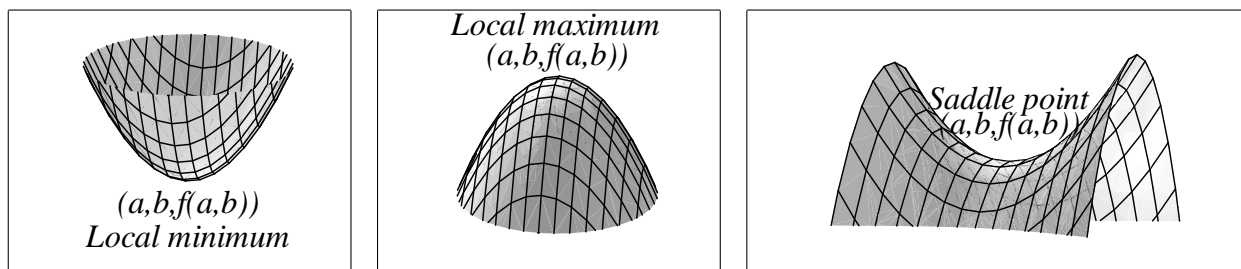
Then  $\Delta f \underset{P}{\approx} \frac{1}{2} [Ah^2 + 2Bhk + Ck^2]$ .

Let's study the sign of  $\Delta f$  while considering the term between hooks like polynomial of second degree in  $h$ . However  $\Delta' = b'^2 - ac = B^2 k^2 - AC k^2 = (B^2 - AC) k^2$ . We set

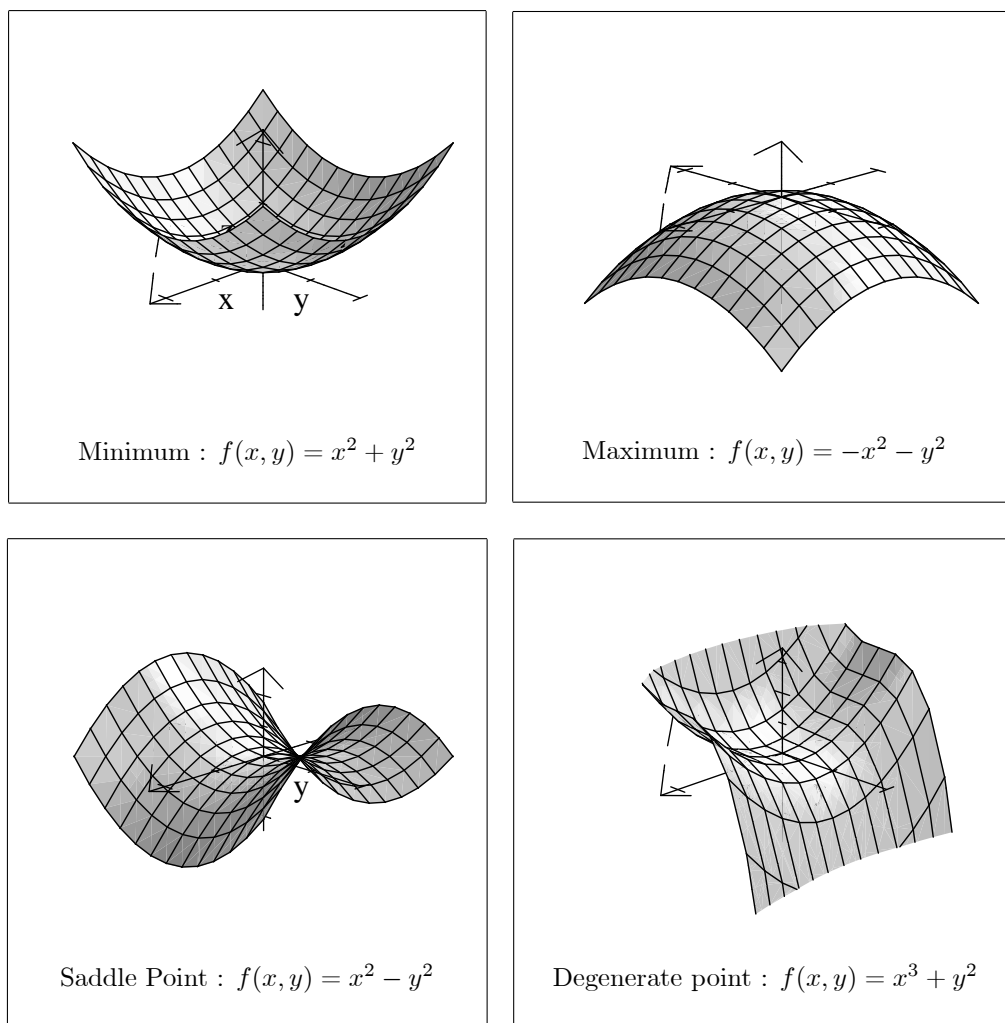
$$Q(a, b) = B^2 - AC = \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) \right) \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a, b) \right).$$

Then the sign of  $\Delta f$  depends on  $Q(a, b)$ . We have three cases, representing the second order condition :

- First case : if  $Q(a, b) < 0$ , then  $\Delta f$  and  $A$  have the same sign and moreover if
  - (i)  $A > 0 \implies f(x, y) > f(a, b), \forall (x, y) \in V_P$ , and  $f$  has a local minimum at  $P$ ;
  - (ii)  $A < 0 \implies f(x, y) < f(a, b), \forall (x, y) \in V_P$ , and  $f$  has a local maximum at  $P$ .
- Second case : if  $Q(a, b) > 0$ , then  $\Delta f$  changes sign and  $f$  has a saddle point at  $P$ .
- Third case : if  $Q(a, b) = 0$ , then  $\Delta f \approx_P \frac{1}{2A}(Ah + Bk)^2 = 0$  (since  $h = -\frac{b'}{a} = -\frac{Bk}{A}$ ), the point is therefore degenerate, and we cannot conclude anything.



**Examples :**



**Example :** Study the extrema of the function  $z = f(x, y) = x \sin y$ .

*Solution :*

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \sin y = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x \cos y = 0 \end{cases} \text{ if } \begin{cases} y = k\pi \\ \text{and} \\ x = 0 \text{ or } y = \frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} x = 0 \text{ and } y = k\pi \\ \text{or} \\ y = k\pi \text{ and } y = \frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi \end{cases}$$

The second case is impossible then the critical points are  $P_k(0, k\pi)$ .

$$Q(x, y) = \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) \right)^2 - \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) \right) \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) \right) = \cos^2 y - (0)(-x \sin y) = \cos^2 y$$

$$Q(0, k\pi) = \cos^2 k\pi = 1 > 0.$$

Therefore  $f$  has a saddle point at  $P_k, \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , with  $z_k = f(0, k\pi) = 0$ .

### 4.2.3 Hessian matrix and finding extrema

**Definition 4.3** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of  $n$  variables. We define the Hessian matrix of  $f$  at a point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by

$$H_f(x) = \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(x) \right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n}(x) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2}(x) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Its determinant, denoted  $\Delta_H(x)$ , is called the Hessian of  $f$  at  $x$ . If  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  then this Hessian matrix is symmetric.

**Theorem 4.5** Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^2$  and  $P(a, b) \in D$  be a critical point of  $f$ . Then

- (i) if  $\Delta_H(a, b) > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) > 0$ ,  $f$  has a local minimum at  $P(a, b)$ ;
- (ii) if  $\Delta_H(a, b) > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) < 0$ ,  $f$  has a local maximum at  $P(a, b)$ ;
- (iii) if  $\Delta_H(a, b) < 0$ ,  $f$  has a saddle point at  $P(a, b)$ ;
- (iv) if  $\Delta_H(a, b) = 0$ , no conclusion can be drawn.

*Proof :*

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_H(x, y) &= \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(x, y) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) \end{vmatrix} = \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) \right) \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) \right) - \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) \right)^2 \\ &= -Q(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

The conclusions then will be obtained from those of  $Q(x, y)$ .

**Example :** Study the extrema of the function  $z = f(x, y) = x^3 + 3xy^2 - 15x - 12y$ .

*Solution :*

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 3x^2 + 3y^2 - 15 = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 6xy - 12 = 0 \end{cases} \text{ if } \begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 = 5 \\ xy = 2 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} (x+y)^2 = 9 \\ xy = 2 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} x+y = \pm 3 \\ xy = 2 \end{cases}$$

The critical points are  $P_1(1, 2)$ ,  $P_2(2, 1)$ ,  $P_3(-1, -2)$  and  $P_4(-2, -1)$ .



$$\Delta_H(x, y) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(x, y) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 6x & 6y \\ 6y & 6x \end{vmatrix} = 36(x^2 - y^2).$$

$\Delta_H(1, 2) = -108 < 0$ , then  $f$  has a saddle point at  $P_1$ , with  $z_1 = f(1, 2) = -26$ ;

$\Delta_H(2, 1) = 108 > 0$  and  $A = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(2, 1) = 12 > 0$ , then  $f$  has a local minimum at  $P_2$ ,

with  $z_2 = f(2, 1) = -28$ ;

$\Delta_H(-1, -2) = -108 < 0$ , then  $f$  has a saddle point at  $P_3$ , with  $z_3 = f(-1, -2) = 26$ ;

$\Delta_H(-2, -1) = 108 > 0$  and  $A = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(-2, -1) = -12 < 0$ , then  $f$  has a local maximum at  $P_4$ ,

with  $z_3 = f(2, 1) = 28$ .

#### 4.2.4 Global extremum

**Definition 4.4** Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $P(a, b) \in D$ .

(i) We say that  $f$  has a global minimum (or absolute) at  $(a, b)$  if

$$f(a, b) \leq f(x, y), \quad \forall (x, y) \in D.$$

(ii) We say that  $f$  has a global maximum (or absolute) at  $(a, b)$  if

$$f(a, b) \geq f(x, y), \quad \forall (x, y) \in D.$$

**Theorem 4.6** Let  $D$  be a closed and bounded domain (compact) of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Then  $f$  is bounded and attains its bounds. More precisely, there exists  $(a, b) \in D$  and  $(\alpha, \beta) \in D$  such that

$$f(a, b) = \inf_{(x, y) \in D} f(x, y) = \min_{(x, y) \in D} f(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad f(\alpha, \beta) = \sup_{(x, y) \in D} f(x, y) = \max_{(x, y) \in D} f(x, y).$$

This theorem shows that  $f$  has a global minimum at  $(a, b)$  and a global maximum at  $(\alpha, \beta)$ .

**Proposition 4.1** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function such that

$$\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = +\infty.$$

Then  $f$  is bounded below and attains its minimum.

**Remark :** If  $\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = -\infty$ , then  $f$  is bounded above and attains its maximum.

**Example :** Study the extrema of the function  $z = f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ .

Does this function admit a global extrema on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Justify.

$$\text{Solution : } \begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 2x = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 2y = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{if } x = y = 0, \text{ then the critical point is } (0, 0).$$

$$\Delta_H(0, 0) = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 4 > 0 \text{ and } A = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(0, 0) = 2 > 0,$$

then  $f$  has a local minimum at  $(0, 0)$  with  $z_O = f(0, 0) = 1$ .

$$\lim_{\|(x, y)\|_2 \rightarrow +\infty} f(x, y) = \lim_{\|(x, y)\|_2 \rightarrow +\infty} (\|(x, y)\|_2^2 + 1) = +\infty,$$

then  $f$  has a global minimum at  $(0, 0)$ .

### 4.3 Finding extrema with constraints

In this part, we will study the extrema of  $f(x, y)$  in the case where the variables  $x$  and  $y$  are linked by a constraint of the form  $g(x, y) = k$ . We then consider the problem

$$\begin{cases} \text{Find the extrema of } z = f(x, y), \\ \text{under to the constraint } g(x, y) = k \end{cases}$$

**Definition 4.5** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^2$  under the constraint  $g(x, y) = k$ , with  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of class  $C^2$ . We define the Lagrangian function  $L : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  associated with the problem by

$$L(x, y, \lambda) = f(x, y) + \lambda[k - g(x, y)].$$

The parameter  $\lambda$  is called the Lagrange multiplier.

The Hessian of  $L$  is given by

$$\Delta_H(x, y, \lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(x, y) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}(x, y) \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(x, y) & \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial x^2}(x, y, \lambda) & \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y, \lambda) \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}(x, y) & \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial y \partial x}(x, y, \lambda) & \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial y^2}(x, y, \lambda) \end{vmatrix}.$$

- **Necessary condition for relative extrema :**

The critical values are the solutions of the system

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial x}(x, y, \lambda) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}(x, y, \lambda) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda}(x, y, \lambda) = 0 \end{cases}$$

- **Sufficient condition for relative extrema :**

Let  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $\lambda_0$  be critical values for which

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x}(a, b, \lambda_0) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}(a, b, \lambda_0) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda}(a, b, \lambda_0) = 0$$

and the set

$$G = \{(x, y) \in D_f : g(x, y) = k\}.$$

The Hessian  $\Delta_H$  of  $H$  is evaluated at the critical values :

- if  $\Delta_H(a, b, \lambda_0) > 0$ , then  $f|_G$  has a local maximum at  $(a, b)$ ;
- if  $\Delta_H(a, b, \lambda_0) < 0$ , then  $f|_G$  has a local minimum at  $(a, b)$ .

**Example :** Find the extrema of the function  $z = f(x, y) = x^2 - xy + 2y$

1. without constraint;
2. with the constraint  $x + 2y = 10$ ;
3. with the constraint  $xy = 1$ .

*Solution :*

$$1. \begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 2x - y = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 2 - x = 0 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} y = 2x = 4 \\ x = 2 \end{cases} \implies \text{the critical point is } P(2, 4).$$

$$\Delta_H(x, y) = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -1 < 0, \text{ then } f \text{ has a saddle point at } P, \text{ with } z_P = 4.$$

2. Let  $L(x, y, \lambda) = x^2 - xy + 2y + \lambda[10 - x - 2y]$   
and  $G = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : g(x, y) = x + 2y = 10\}$ .

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial x}(x, y, \lambda) = 2x - y - \lambda = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}(x, y, \lambda) = 2 - x - 2\lambda = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda}(x, y, \lambda) = 10 - x - 2y = 0 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} \lambda = 2x - y \\ \lambda = \frac{2 - x}{2} \\ x + 2y = 10 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} 5x - 2y = 2 \\ x + 2y = 10 \end{cases}$$

$\implies$  the critical values are  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 4$  and  $\lambda = 0$

$$\Delta_H(x, y, \lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -12 < 0, \text{ then } f_{/G} \text{ has a local minimum at } P, \text{ with } z_P = 4.$$

3. Let  $L(x, y, \lambda) = x^2 - xy + 2y + \lambda[1 - xy]$   
and  $G = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : g(x, y) = xy = 1\}$ .

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial x}(x, y, \lambda) = 2x - y - \lambda y = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial y}(x, y, \lambda) = 2 - x - \lambda x = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda}(x, y, \lambda) = 1 - xy = 0 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} \lambda = \frac{2x - y}{y} \\ \lambda = \frac{2 - x}{x} \\ xy = 1 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} y = x^2 \\ xy = 1 \end{cases} \implies xy = x^3 = 1$$

$\implies$  the critical values are  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 1$  and  $\lambda = 1$

$$\Delta_H(x, y, \lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & y & x \\ y & 2 & -1 - \lambda \\ x & -1 - \lambda & 0 \end{vmatrix} \implies \Delta_H(1, 1, 1) = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -6 < 0$$

then  $f_{/G}$  has a local minimum at  $Q(1, 1)$ , with  $z_Q = 2$ .

## 4.4 Implicit functions

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. We say that the relation  $f(x, y) = 0$  defines  $y$  as an implicit function of  $x$ , if there is a continuous function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , called implicit function, such that  $y = \varphi(x)$ . This means that when the two variables are linked by an equation, it is locally possible to express one of them as function of the other, but under certain conditions.

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1$ . We have  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 2x$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 2y$ .

The curve of equation  $f(x, y) = 0$  is obviously the unit circle of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Let  $D = \mathbb{R} \times ]0, +\infty[$ ; at each point  $(x_0, y_0) \in D$ , we can explicitly determine the function  $\varphi$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0$  by  $\varphi(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2} > 0$ .

Similarly in  $D = \mathbb{R} \times ]-\infty, 0[$  with  $\varphi(x) = -\sqrt{1-x^2} < 0$ .

On the other hand, it is not possible at  $(1, 0)$  or  $(-1, 0)$ . We notice that in the first two

cases  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$  while in the other two cases  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(\pm 1, 0) = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.7 (Implicit functions theorem - Case of 2 variables)**

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function and  $(a, b) \in D$  such that  $f(a, b) = 0$ . If  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  in  $D$  and if  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) \neq 0$ , then there exists a neighborhood  $V \subset \mathbb{R}$  of  $a$ , a neighborhood  $W \subset \mathbb{R}$  of  $b$  and a function  $\varphi : V \longrightarrow W$  of class  $C^1$  in  $V$ , such that we have the equivalence

$$[(x, y) \in V \times W \text{ and } f(x, y) = 0] \iff [x \in V \text{ and } y = \varphi(x)].$$

This implicit function is determined in a unique way by the relation

$$f(x, \varphi(x)) = 0, \quad \forall x \in V.$$

Moreover, we have for all  $x \in V$  :

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \varphi'(x) = -\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, \varphi(x))}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, \varphi(x))}.$$

**Remark :** In particular  $\varphi'(a) = -\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b)}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)}$  and the equation of the tangent line  $(T)$  to the curve

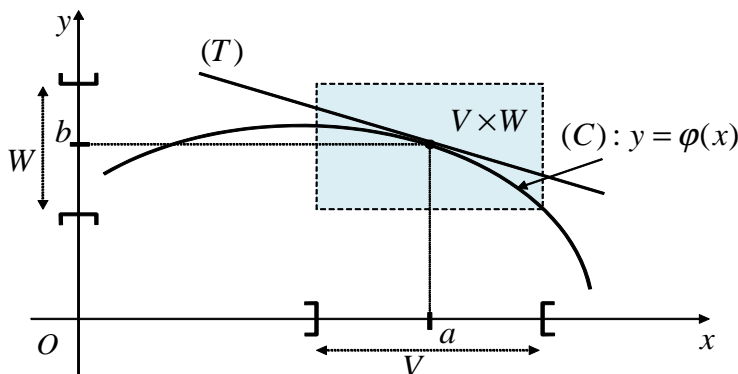
$(C) : y = \varphi(x)$  at the point  $A(a, b)$  is

$$(T) : y = \varphi'(a)(x - a) + b,$$

or simply,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b)(x - a) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)(y - b) = 0.$$

This situation is schematized by the following graph :



**Example :** Evaluate  $y'$  at the point  $A(1, 0)$  if  $x + y = \cos(xy)$ .

**Solution :** Let  $f(x, y) = x + y - \cos(xy)$ . We have  $f(1, 0) = 0$ ,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 1 + y \sin(xy) \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 0) = 1 \text{ and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 1 + x \sin(xy) \implies \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 0) = 1 \neq 0.$$

Since  $f$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  are continuous at the point  $A$ ,

then using the implicit function theorem there exists a neighborhood  $V \subset \mathbb{R}$  of 1, a neighborhood  $W \subset \mathbb{R}$  of 0 and a function  $\varphi : V \longrightarrow W$  of class  $C^1$  in  $V$ , such that

$$f(x, \varphi(x)) = 0, \quad \forall x \in V,$$

moreover

$$\phi'(1) = -\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 0)}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 0)} = -1 = y'_A.$$

Another method for the determination of  $\varphi'(1)$  :

Derive  $x + y = \cos(xy)$  with respect to  $x$  knowing that  $y = \varphi(x) : 1 + y' = -(y + xy') \sin(xy)$ .  
At the point  $A(1, 0) : 1 + y'_A = -(0 + y'_A) \sin(0) \implies y'_A = \varphi'(1) = -1$ .

#### **Theorem 4.8 (Implicit functions theorem - Case of 3 variables)**

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function and  $(a, b, c) \in D$  such that  $f(a, b, c) = 0$ . If  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  in  $D$  and if  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(a, b, c) \neq 0$ , then there exists a neighborhood  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  of  $(a, b)$ , a neighborhood  $W \subset \mathbb{R}$  of  $c$  and a function  $\varphi : V \longrightarrow W$  of class  $C^1$  in  $V$ , such that we have the equivalence

$$[(x, y, z) \in V \times W \text{ and } f(x, y, z) = 0] \iff [(x, y) \in V \text{ and } z = \varphi(x, y)].$$

This implicit function is determined in a unique way by the relation

$$f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) = 0, \quad \forall (x, y) \in V.$$

Moreover, we have for all  $(x, y) \in V$  :

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \varphi'_x(x, y) = -\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, \varphi(x, y))}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, \varphi(x, y))} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \varphi'_y(x, y) = -\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, \varphi(x, y))}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, \varphi(x, y))}.$$

**Remark :** The equation of the tangent plane  $(P)$  to the surface  $(S) : z = \varphi(x, y)$  at the point  $A(a, b, c)$  is given by

$$(P) : z = \varphi'_x(a, b)(x - a) + \varphi'_y(a, b)(y - b) + c,$$

or simply,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b, c)(x - a) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b, c)(y - b) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(a, b, c)(z - c) = 0.$$

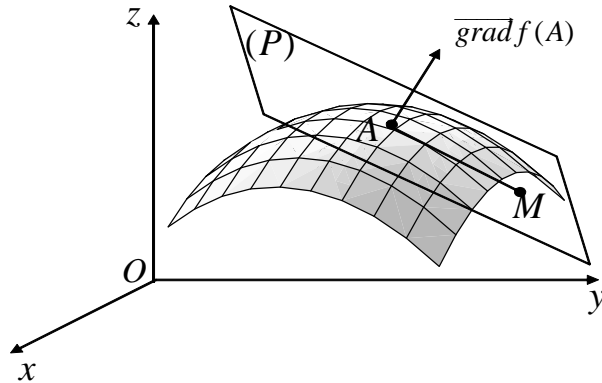
- **Normal vector to a surface :** If  $(P)$  is the tangent plane to the surface  $(S)$  of equation  $f(x, y, z) = 0$  at  $A(a, b, c)$  and  $M(x, y, z)$  any point of  $(P)$  then we have

$$\overrightarrow{AM} \cdot \overrightarrow{\text{grad}f(A)} = 0 \iff \overrightarrow{AM} \perp \overrightarrow{\text{grad}f(A)}.$$

Therefore,  $\vec{N}_A = \overrightarrow{\text{grad}f}(A)$  is an orthogonal vector to  $(P)$  at  $A$  and the vector

$$\vec{n} = \frac{\overrightarrow{\text{grad}f}(A)}{\|\overrightarrow{\text{grad}f}(A)\|}$$

constitutes the unit normal vector to the surface  $(S)$  at this point.



**Example :** Determine  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$  if  $x + y + z = xyz$ .

*Solution :* Let  $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z - xyz$ .

On a  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, z) = 1 - yz$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, z) = 1 - xz$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, z) = 1 - xy \neq 0$  if  $xy \neq 1$ .

Let  $D = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : xy \neq 1\}$ ,

$f$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$  are continuous on  $D$  /  $f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = 0$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0$  at each point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0) \in D$ , then, using the implicit function theorem there exists a neighborhood  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  of  $(x_0, y_0)$ , a neighborhood  $W \subset \mathbb{R}$  of  $z_0$  and a function  $\varphi : V \longrightarrow W$  of class  $C^1$  in  $V$ , such that

$$f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) = 0, \quad \forall (x, y) \in V,$$

with  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \varphi'_x(x, y) = -\frac{1 - yz}{1 - xy}$  and  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \varphi'_y(x, y) = -\frac{1 - xz}{1 - xy}$ .

*Another method for the determination of  $z'_x$  and  $z'_y$  :*

Differentiate  $x + y + z = xyz$  with respect to  $x$  knowing that  $z = \varphi(x, y)$  :

$$1 + z'_x = yz + xyz'_x \implies z'_x = \frac{yz - 1}{1 - xy}.$$

Differentiate  $x + y + z = xyz$  with respect to  $y$  knowing that  $z = \varphi(x, y)$  :

$$1 + z'_y = xz + xyz'_y \implies z'_y = \frac{xz - 1}{1 - xy}.$$

## 4.5 Exercises

**Exercise 4.1** Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + xy.$$

1. Find the number  $\theta$  involved in the mean value theorem applied to  $f$  in a neighborhood of any point  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Develop according to the powers of  $(x-1)$  and  $(y-2)$  the function  $f$  using the finite expansion of order 2 in the neighborhood of  $(1, 2)$ .

**Exercise 4.2** Let  $A(1, 1)$  and  $M(x, y)$ . Using the mean value theorem for functions of two variables on the segment  $[AM]$ , show that  $\forall x, y > 0, \exists \theta \in ]0, 1[$  such that

$$\ln\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) = \frac{x+y-2}{2+\theta(x+y-2)}.$$

**Exercise 4.3** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = xe^y + ye^x.$$

By applying the mean value theorem to  $f$ , between the points  $O(0, 0)$  and  $A(a, a)$ , show that

$$\forall a \neq 0, \exists \theta \in ]0, 1[ \text{ such that } e^{a(1-\theta)} = 1 + a\theta.$$

**Exercise 4.4** Find the finite expansion of order 2, in a neighborhood of the point  $A$ , of the following functions :

1.  $f(x, y) = \cos(xy) - y^2$  with  $A(\pi, 1)$
2.  $f(x, y) = \arctan \frac{x}{y}$  with  $A(-1, 1)$
3.  $f(x, y, z) = \ln(1 + xyz)$  with  $A(1, 0, 2)$
4.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2yz + y^2z^3$  with  $A(1, 2, -1)$

**Exercise 4.5** Given the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \ln(1 + x^2 + y^2).$$

1. Give the finite expansion of order 2 of  $f$  at  $(0, 0)$ .
2. Study the position of the representative surface  $(S)$  of the function  $f$ , in a neighborhood of  $(0, 0)$ , with respect to its tangent plane at the point  $(0, 0, 0)$ .
3. Using the mean value theorem to  $f$ , show that

$$|f(x, y)| \leq |x| + |y|, \text{ for } |x| \leq \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } |y| \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$

**Exercise 4.6** Given the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{e^{\sin(\sqrt{1+x}-\sqrt{1+y})}}{1+x-y}.$$

1. Without derivation, give the finite expansion of order 2 of  $f$  at  $(0, 0)$ .
2. Deduce  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0)$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0)$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(0, 0)$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0)$ .
3. Determine the values of  $\alpha$  for which the limit  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{f(x, y) - 1}{(x^2 + y^2)^\alpha}$  exists.

**Exercise 4.7** Given the following function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = 3xy^2 - y^3 + x^2 + y^2 - 1.$$

1. Determine the critical points of  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Study the local extremum of  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
3. Does  $f$  admit a global extremum on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  ?

**Exercise 4.8** Given the function  $f$  such that

$$f(x, y) = x (\ln x)^2 + xy^2.$$

1. Determine the domain of definition of  $f$ .
2. Find the critical points of  $f$ . Determine their nature.
3. Show that the obtained local minimum is a global minimum.

**Exercise 4.9** In what follows find the extremes of  $f$  :

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. $f(x, y) = xy - x^2 - y^2 - 2x - 2y + 4$   | 2. $f(x, y) = \sin^2 y + (x - \cos y)^2$ |
| 3. $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 4(x - y)^2$         | 4. $f(x, y) = e^{5-3xy}$                 |
| 5. $f(x, y) = x^4 + 14x^2y^2 - 7y^4 - 4x + 6$ | 6. $f(x, y) = e^x \sin y$                |

**Exercise 4.10** Consider the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 - 3axy$$

where  $a$  is a real parameter.

1. Discuss, according to the values of  $a$ , the existence of the critical points of  $f$ .
2. Discuss, according to the values of  $a$ , the nature of the critical points of  $f$ .

**Exercise 4.11** Let  $g : ]0, \infty[ \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$g(x) = x^2 + \ln x.$$

1. Show that there exists  $\alpha \in ]0, \infty[$  such that  $g(\alpha) = 0$ .
2. Let  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0\}$  and  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = xe^y + y \ln x.$$

Show that  $f$  has a critical point  $P$  in  $D$  that will be determined as a function of  $\alpha$ .

3. Does  $f$  admit a local extremum at  $P$  ?

**Exercise 4.12** 1. Decompose the number 1000 in three numbers whose product is maximum.

2. Find the minimum distance between the surface  $xyz = 1$  and the origin.

**Exercise 4.13** Determine the bounds of

$$f(x, y) = 3xy - 3x^2 - y^3$$

on  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |x| \leq 1 \text{ and } |y| \leq 1\}$ .

**Exercise 4.14** Let the real function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = (5 - 2x + y)e^{x^2-y}.$$

1. Find the critical point of  $f$ .
2. Is this point a global extremum of  $f$  ?
3. Consider the function  $\varphi_a(x) = f(x, x^2 - a)$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Verify that  $\varphi_a$  has a minimum value  $m_a$ .
4. Compare  $m_a$  with the value of  $f$  on its critical point.



**Exercise 4.15** Using the Lagrangian multiplier, find the maximum and the minimum of the function

$$f(x, y) = e^{xy-y}$$

such that this function takes their values on the unit circle.

**Exercise 4.16** Let the functions  $f$  and  $g$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = xy \quad \text{and} \quad g(x, y) = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y}.$$

1. Determine the extrema of  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 2$ .
2. Determine the extrema of  $g$  on  $D_g$  subject to the constraint  $f(x, y) = 1$ .

**Exercise 4.17** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - xy.$$

1. Determine the critical points of  $f$ .
2. Determine the critical points of  $f$  on the unit circle.
3. What are the maxima and the minima of  $f$  restricted to the disk

$$D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}.$$

**Exercise 4.18** 1. Find the domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  in which the relation

$$f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2 - 1)^2 - 4x^2 = 0$$

defines an implicit function  $y = \varphi(x)$  and find  $y'$ .

2. Same question for  $f(x, y) = x \ln y - y \ln x = 0$ .

**Exercise 4.19** Let  $\Gamma$  be the subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  given by

$$\Gamma = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^3 + y^3 = 3xy + 1\}.$$

1. Using the implicit function theorem, show that in the neighborhood of  $(0, 1)$ ,  $\Gamma$  is the graph of a function  $y = \varphi(x)$  such that  $\varphi(0) = 1$ .
2. Calculate  $\varphi'(0)$ ,  $\varphi''(0)$  and  $\varphi'''(0)$ .
3. Give the finite expansion up to order 3 of  $\varphi$  in a neighborhood of 0.
4. Deduce the equation of the tangent line  $(T)$  to  $\Gamma$  at the point  $(0, 1)$ .  
Discuss the relative position of  $(T)$  with respect to  $\Gamma$  in a neighborhood of  $(0, 1)$ .

**Exercise 4.20** 1. Show, that in a neighborhood of the point  $(0, 0)$ , the relation

$$e^{x-y} = 1 + \sin x + y$$

defines an implicit function  $y = \varphi(x)$  verifying  $e^{x-\varphi(x)} = 1 + \sin x + \varphi(x)$ .

2. Calculate  $\varphi(0)$ ,  $\varphi'(0)$  and  $\varphi''(0)$ .

3. Deduce that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi(x)}{x^2} = \frac{1}{4}$ .

4. Can we apply the implicit function theorem at  $(0, 0)$ , to define  $x = \psi(y)$  in a neighborhood of 0 ?

**Exercise 4.21** Consider the function  $f$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$f(x, y) = x(x^2 + y^2) - a(x^2 - y^2); \quad a > 0$$

and denotes by  $(C)$  the curve defined by  $f(x, y) = 0$ .

1. Can we apply the implicit function theorem at the point  $(0, 0)$  ?
2. Show that the equation  $f(x, y) = 0$  can be written in the form  $x = \varphi(y)$  in the neighborhood of  $(a, 0)$ .
3. Determine the finite expansion up to order 2 of  $\varphi$  in a neighborhood of 0.
4. Deduce the equation of the tangent line  $(T)$  to  $(C)$  at the point  $(a, 0)$  and the position of  $(C)$  with respect to  $(T)$ .

**Exercise 4.22** Find the domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  in which the relation

$$f(x, y, z) = z^3 - xz - y = 0$$

defines an implicit function  $z = \varphi(x, y)$  and calculate  $\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x \partial y}$ .

**Exercise 4.23** 1. Prove that the relation

$$x^2 + xz + e^{xyz} + \sin \frac{\pi y}{2} = 3$$

defines an implicit function  $z = \varphi(x, y)$  in a neighborhood of  $(1, 1)$  such that  $\varphi(1, 1) = 0$ .

2. Calculate  $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x}(1, 1)$  and  $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial y}(1, 1)$ .
3. Determine the equation of the tangent plane  $(P)$  to the surface  $(S)$  of equation  $z = \varphi(x, y)$  at the point  $A(1, 1, 0)$ .
4. Can we apply the implicit function theorem at  $(1, 1, 0)$ , to define  $y = \psi(x, z)$  in a neighborhood of  $(1, 0)$  ?

**Exercise 4.24** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

1. Find sufficient condition in order that, in a neighborhood of a point, the relation

$$y - xz = f(z)$$

may define  $z$  as an implicit function of  $x$  and  $y$ .

2. Show that the partial derivatives of this function satisfy  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + z \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0$ .

**Exercise 4.25** Given the surface  $(S) : 2x^2 + 2yz = z^2 + 1$  and the point  $A(1, 0, -1)$ .

1. Determine a unit normal vector to  $(S)$  at the point  $A$ .
2. Determine the equation of the tangent plane  $(P)$  at the point  $A$ .
3. Determine the equation of the normal line  $(N)$  to  $(S)$  at the point  $A$ .

**Exercise 4.26** Two surfaces are orthogonal at a given point if their two tangent planes at this point are perpendicular. Show that the following surfaces

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 50 \quad \text{and} \quad x^2 + y^2 - 10z + 25 = 0$$

are orthogonal at the point  $A(3, 4, 5)$ .

**Exercise 4.27** We say that a function  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is homogenous of degree  $m$  if

$$\forall \lambda > 0, \quad f(\lambda x, \lambda y) = \lambda^m f(x, y).$$

1. Show that if  $f$  is homogenous of degree  $m$  and if it has first order partial derivatives then  $f$  satisfies Euler's identity

$$x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = m f(x, y).$$

2. Given the function  $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} \cos \frac{x - y}{x + y}$  with  $x + y \neq 0$ .

Show without calculate the partial derivatives of  $f$  that  $x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 0$ .

3. Let  $f(x, y) = \ln u(x, y)$  where  $u : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow ]0, \infty[$  is a differentiable function and homogeneous of degree  $m$ . Show that

$$x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = m.$$

# Chapter 5

## Vector-valued functions

### 5.1 Vector functions of one real variable

Let  $D$  be a non empty set of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 5.1** A vector function of one real variable  $t \in I$  is a mapping  $f$  from  $D$  into  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $n \geq 2$ ), that for every point  $t$  of  $D$  associates a vector image  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and we write

$$\begin{aligned} f : D &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ t &\longmapsto f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t)) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(t) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The real functions  $f_i : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are called the components of  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ .

**Definition 5.2** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a vector function of one real variable. The set for which  $f$  is defined is called domain of definition of  $f$ , noted  $D_f$ , with

$$D_f = \{t \in \mathbb{R} : f(t) \text{ exists in } \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

**Example :** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$f(t) = (f_1(t), f_2(t), f_3(t)) = (1 + t^2, \sqrt{2 - t}, \ln t).$$

Its domain is  $D_f = ]0, 2]$ .

**Definition 5.3** A parametric curve  $(C)$  of parameter  $t \in D$  is the image of a certain vector function  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , given by par

$$f(t) = (x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_n(t) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Such a function is called a parameterization of the curve and the  $x_i(t)$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are the parametric equations or the parametric coordinates of  $(C)$ .

• **Position vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$**  : Let  $M(x, y, z)$  be a point of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$\overrightarrow{OM} = \overrightarrow{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) = x(t) \overrightarrow{i} + y(t) \overrightarrow{j} + z(t) \overrightarrow{k} \quad \text{with } t \in D \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

This vector is called position vector of which  $O$  is the origin and  $M$  is its extremity.

**Examples :** (1) The position vector

$$\overrightarrow{r}(t) = (9 - 4t) \overrightarrow{i} + (6t - 4) \overrightarrow{j} + (3t + 3) \overrightarrow{k}, \quad \text{for } t \in \mathbb{R}$$

represents a parameterization of a straight line ( $D$ ) of the space ( $Oxyz$ ) passing through the point  $A(9, -4, 3)$  with director vector  $\overrightarrow{V}(-4, 6, 3)$ .

(2) The function  $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that

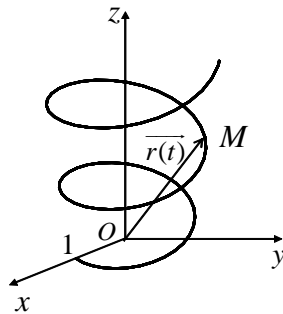
$$f(t) = (x(t), y(t)) = (a + R \cos t, b + R \sin t)$$

is a parameterization of the circle  $C(I(a, b), R)$ , of the plane ( $xOy$ ).

(3) The function  $f : [0, \infty[ \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$f(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) = (\cos t, \sin t, t)$$

represents the following parametric curve ( $C_f$ ) of the space ( $Oxyz$ ) :



**Definition 5.4** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a vector function of one real variable and  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $v$  is a limit of  $f(t)$  at the point  $t_0$  if and only if

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (|t - t_0| < \delta \implies \|f(t) - v\| < \varepsilon), \quad \forall \text{ the norm } \|\cdot\|.$$

This is equivalent to  $\lim_{t \longrightarrow t_0} f_i(t) = v_i, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n$ , and then we write

$$\lim_{t \longrightarrow t_0} f(t) = \left( \lim_{t \longrightarrow t_0} f_1(t), \dots, \lim_{t \longrightarrow t_0} f_n(t) \right) = (v_1, \dots, v_n) = v.$$

**Example :** Let  $f : ]0, \infty[ \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  such that

$$f(t) = \left( t \ln t, \frac{\sin t}{t}, \frac{e^t - 1}{t} \right).$$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{t \longrightarrow 0} f(t) = \left( \lim_{t \longrightarrow 0} t \ln t, \lim_{t \longrightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t}, \lim_{t \longrightarrow 0} \frac{e^t - 1}{t} \right) = (0, 1, 1).$$

**Definition 5.5** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a vector function of one real variable and  $t_0 \in D$ . We say that  $f$  is continuous at the point  $t_0$  if and only if

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (|t - t_0| < \delta \implies \|f(t) - f(t_0)\| < \varepsilon), \quad \forall \text{ the norm } \|\cdot\|.$$

This is equivalent to saying  $f_i$  is continuous at the point  $t_0$ ,  $\forall i = 1, \dots, n$ , with

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} f(t) = \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} f_1(t), \dots, \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} f_n(t) \right) = (f_1(t_0), \dots, f_n(t_0)) = f(t_0).$$

**Definition 5.6** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a vector function of one real variable. We say that  $f$  is continuous on  $D$  if and only if  $f$  is continuous at each point of  $D$ .

## 5.2 Differentiability of vector functions of one real variable

Let  $D$  be a non empty set of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 5.7** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a vector function of one real variable and  $t_0 \in D$ . We say that  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $t_0$  if and only if  $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{1}{t - t_0} [f(t) - f(t_0)]$  exists in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This limit, denoted by  $f'(t_0)$ , is called derivative of  $f$  at  $t_0$ .

This is equivalent to saying that  $f_i$  is differentiable at the point  $t_0$ ,  $\forall i = 1, \dots, n$ , with

$$\begin{aligned} f'(t_0) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{1}{t - t_0} [f(t) - f(t_0)] \\ &= \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{f_1(t) - f_1(t_0)}{t - t_0}, \dots, \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{f_n(t) - f_n(t_0)}{t - t_0} \right) \\ &= (f'_1(t_0), \dots, f'_n(t_0)). \end{aligned}$$

### • Geometric interpretation of the derivative in $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

We consider, for  $t \in D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , a parametric curve of the space ( $Oxyz$ ) given by

$$(C) : \overrightarrow{OM} = \overrightarrow{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) = x(t) \overrightarrow{i} + y(t) \overrightarrow{j} + z(t) \overrightarrow{k}.$$

The vector derivative

$$\frac{d\overrightarrow{r}}{dt}(t_0) = x'(t_0) \overrightarrow{i} + y'(t_0) \overrightarrow{j} + z'(t_0) \overrightarrow{k}$$

represents a tangent vector to the curve  $(C_f)$  at a point  $M_0 \in C_f$ , of parameter  $t_0 \in D$ .

The vector equation of the tangent line  $(T)$  to  $(C_f)$  at  $M_0$  is given by

$$(T) : \overrightarrow{OM} = \overrightarrow{r}(s) = \overrightarrow{r}(t_0) + s \frac{d\overrightarrow{r}}{dt}(t_0).$$

**Example :** Given the parametric curve

$$(C) : \overrightarrow{OM} = \overrightarrow{r}(t) = (3t^2 - 7) \overrightarrow{i} + (t^3 - 3t) \overrightarrow{j} + (t^3 - 2t) \overrightarrow{k}, \quad \text{for } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Give the parametric equations of the tangent line to  $(C)$  at the point  $M_0(5, 2, 4)$ .

*Solution* :  $t_0 = 2$  and  $\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}(t) = 6t\vec{i} + (3t^2 - 3)\vec{j} + (3t^2 - 2)\vec{k} \implies \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}(2) = 12\vec{i} + 9\vec{j} + 10\vec{k}$ .

The parametric equations of the tangent line are 
$$\begin{cases} x = 12s + 5 \\ y = 9s + 2 \\ z = 10s + 4 \end{cases}$$

**Definition 5.8** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a vector function of one real variable. If  $f'(t)$  exists for all  $t$  of  $D$ , then

$$f' : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$t \longmapsto f'(t) = (f'_1(t), \dots, f'_n(t)) = \begin{pmatrix} f'_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ f'_n(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

defines a vector function. If  $f'$  is differentiable at  $t_0 \in D$ , we say that  $f$  is twice differentiable at  $t_0$  and that it has a second order derivative at  $t_0$ . It will be noted by

$$f''(t_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{1}{t - t_0} [f'(t) - f'(t_0)].$$

In the same way we can define derivatives of higher orders.

**Definition 5.9** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a vector function of one real variable and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . We say that  $f$  is of class  $C^k$  on  $D$  if and only if  $f$  is  $k$ -times continuously differentiable on  $D$ .

This is equivalent to saying  $f_i$  is  $k$ -times continuously differentiable (class  $C^k$ ) on  $D$ ,  $\forall i = 1, \dots, n$ .

**Properties :** Let  $u : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $v : D \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be two differentiable vector functions of one real variable on  $D$ . Then

- (1)  $[u(t) + v(t)]' = u'(t) + v'(t), \quad \forall t \in D;$
- (2)  $[\alpha u(t)]' = \alpha u'(t), \quad \forall t \in D, \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R};$
- (3)  $[u(t) \cdot v(t)]' = u'(t) \cdot v(t) + u(t) \cdot v'(t), \quad \forall t \in D;$
- (4)  $[u(t) \wedge v(t)]' = u'(t) \wedge v(t) + u(t) \wedge v'(t), \quad \forall t \in D.$

### 5.3 Mappings from $\mathbb{R}^n$ into $\mathbb{R}^m$ ( $n, m \geq 2$ )

**Definition 5.10** Let  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $f$  is a function from  $D$  (domain of  $f$ ) into  $\mathbb{R}^m$  if for every vector point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of  $D$  corresponds a vector image

$$y = (y_1, \dots, y_m) = f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

where the components  $f_j$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ , are functions of  $n$  variables from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ . We denote

$$f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$$

$f$  is called a vector function of several real variables.

**Definition 5.11** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . The set of the images  $y = f(x)$  such that  $x \in D$  is called the range of  $f$ , denoted  $f(D) = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^m : x \in D\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Examples :** (1) Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 / f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2, x + y + z)$ .

We have  $D = \mathbb{R}^3$ .

For  $(x, y, z) \in D$ ,  $f_1(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$  and  $f_2(x, y, z) = x + y + z \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $f(D) = \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}$ .

(2) Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 / g(x, y) = \left( \frac{1}{x+y}, \frac{1}{x-y} \right)$ .

$D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |x| \neq |y|\}$ .

For  $(x, y) \in D$ ,  $g_1(x, y) = \frac{1}{x+y} \neq 0$  and  $g_2(x, y) = \frac{1}{x-y} \neq 0$ ,

then  $g(D) = \{(X, Y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : X \neq 0 \text{ and } Y \neq 0\}$ .

**Definition 5.12** Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . We define the graph of  $f$  by

$$G_f = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m : x \in D \text{ and } y = f(x)\}.$$

**Definition 5.13** Given the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n & \xrightarrow{f} & D' \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m & \xrightarrow{g} & \mathbb{R}^p \\ x & \longmapsto & y = f(x) & \longmapsto & z = g(y) = g(f(x)) \end{array}$$

where  $f(D) \subseteq D'$ . We define the composite function of  $f$  and  $g$  by  $g \circ f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  such that

$$(g \circ f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g(f(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = g(y_1, \dots, y_m) = (z_1, \dots, z_p).$$

## 5.4 Limit and continuity for functions from $\mathbb{R}^n$ into $\mathbb{R}^m$ ( $n, m \geq 2$ )

Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  or  $\overline{D}$  and  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f : & D \subset \mathbb{R}^n & \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \\ & x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) & \longmapsto f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

**Definition 5.14** We say that  $L = (L_1, \dots, L_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the limit of  $f(x)$  when  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  tends to  $a$  if and only if

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta \implies \|f(x) - L\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \varepsilon),$$

whatever the norms  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  and  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathbb{R}^m}$ .

This is equivalent to  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f_i(x) = L_i, \forall i = 1, \dots, m$ , and we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f_1(x), \dots, \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f_m(x) \right) = (L_1, \dots, L_m) = L.$$



**Example :**  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \left( xy \cos \frac{1}{xy}, \frac{\sin xy}{xy} \right) = \left( \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} xy \cos \frac{1}{xy}, \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin xy}{xy} \right) = (0, 1).$

**Definition 5.15** We say that  $f$  is continuous at a point  $a \in D$  when  $f(x)$  has a finite limit at  $a$  and that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ , i.e.,

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \varepsilon).$$

**Proposition 5.1**  $f$  is continuous at a point  $a \in D$  if and only if  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are continuous at  $a$ .

*Proof :*  $\implies$   $f$  is continuous at the point  $a$  then

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \varepsilon).$$

We have  $\forall i = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $|f_i(x) - f_i(a)| \leq \|f(x) - f(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \varepsilon$ ,  $\forall$  the norm  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathbb{R}^m}$

$\Longleftarrow$  For all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $f_i$  is continuous at the point  $a$  then

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta_i > 0) (\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta_i \implies |f_i(x) - f_i(a)| < \varepsilon).$$

Let  $\delta = \inf(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m)$ , then  $\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \varepsilon$ .

Therefore  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a$ .

**Proposition 5.2**  $f$  is continuous on  $D$  if and only if  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are continuous on  $D$ .

**Example :** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = (f_1(x, y), f_2(x, y)) = (\ln(1 + x^2 + y^2), x \arctan y).$$

Show that  $f$  is continuous at each point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Solution :*  $1 + x^2 + y^2 > 0$ ,  $\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \implies f_1 / f_1(x, y) = \ln(1 + x^2 + y^2)$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$   
and  $f_2 / f_2(x, y) = x \arctan y$  it is too, then  $f = (f_1, f_2)$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Theorem 5.1** Given the composition  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} D' \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{R}^p$ . If  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a \in D$  and  $g$  is continuous at the point  $f(a) \in D'$ , then  $g \circ f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  is continuous at  $a$ .

*Proof :*  $f$  is continuous at the point  $a$  then

$$(\forall \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \varepsilon).$$

$g$  is continuous at the point  $f(a)$  then

$$(\forall \varepsilon' > 0) (\exists \delta' > 0) (\|f(x) - f(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^m} < \delta' \implies \|g(f(x)) - g(f(a))\|_{\mathbb{R}^p} < \varepsilon').$$

Let  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon' = \delta'$ , then  $\|x - a\|_{\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta \implies \|(g \circ f)(x) - (g \circ f)(a)\|_{\mathbb{R}^p} < \varepsilon$ .

## 5.5 Vector partial derivatives and Jacobian matrix

Consider, for  $n, m \geq 2$ , the function

$$f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are functions of the variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

**Definition 5.16** The first vector partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to the  $j^{\text{th}}$  variable  $x_j$  at a point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$  is given by

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(x) = \left( \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_j}(x), \dots, \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_j}(x) \right) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_j}(x) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_j}(x) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2y \\ xy^2 \\ \ln(x+y) \end{pmatrix}$ , with  $x + y > 0$ . Calculate  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2, -1)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2, -1)$ .

*Solution :*  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2, -1) = \begin{pmatrix} 2xy \\ y^2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{(2,-1)} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2, -1) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 \\ 2xy \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{(2,-1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

**Note :** In the same way we can define the second vector partial derivatives.

From the vector partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(a) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_j}(a) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_j}(a) \end{pmatrix}$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ , we can define a

matrix called Jacobian matrix of  $f$  at  $a$ , denoted  $M_f(a)$ . It is given by

$$M_f(a) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n}(a) \end{pmatrix} = \left( \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a) \right)_{\substack{i=1, \dots, m \\ j=1, \dots, n}}.$$

For  $m = n$ , the determinant of  $M_f(a)$  is called the Jacobian of  $f$  at  $a$ . It is given by

$$J_f(a) = \det(M_f(a)) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n}(a) \end{vmatrix} = \frac{D(f_1, \dots, f_n)}{D(x_1, \dots, x_n)}(a).$$

**Example :** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by  $f(x, y) = (u, v) = (xy, x^2 + y^2)$ . Calculate  $J_f(x, y)$ .

*Solution :*  $J_f(x, y) = \frac{D(u, v)}{D(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(x, y) & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}(x, y) \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}(x, y) & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}(x, y) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} y & x \\ 2x & 2y \end{vmatrix} = 2(y^2 - x^2).$

**Definition 5.17** We say that  $f$  is of class  $C^k$  on  $D$  ( $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ) if,  $f$  and all its partial derivatives up to order  $k$  are continuous on  $D$ .

This is equivalent to say that  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are of class  $C^k$  on  $D$ .

## 5.6 Differentiability of functions from $\mathbb{R}^n$ into $\mathbb{R}^m$

Consider, for  $n, m \geq 2$ , the function

$$f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \longmapsto f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are functions of the variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

**Definition 5.18** We say that  $f$  is differentiable at a point  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  if there exists a linear mapping  $L : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and a mapping  $E : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that

$$f(a+h) - f(a) = L(h) + \|h\| E(h)$$

with  $E(h) \longrightarrow 0_{\mathbb{R}^m}$  when  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n) \longrightarrow 0_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ . In other way

$$\lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} E(h) = \lim_{h \longrightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - L(h)}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

The norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is one of the three usual norms of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

We can deduce that if  $f$  is differentiable at point  $a$ , then  $M_f(a)$  exists and the mapping  $L$  is unique with

$$L(h) = M_f(a)h.$$

**Example :** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $f(x, y) = (x + y, x - y)$ .

1. Calculate  $M_f(a, b)$ , for  $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Show that  $f$  is differentiable at the point  $(a, b)$ .

*Solution :*

$$1. M_f(a, b) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x}(a, b) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}(a, b) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x}(a, b) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y}(a, b) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2. Let  $E : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  such that

$$f(a+h, b+k) - f(a, b) = M_f(a, b) \begin{pmatrix} h \\ k \end{pmatrix} + \|(h, k)\| E(h, k)$$

$$\implies E(h, k) = \frac{1}{\|(h, k)\|} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} a+h+b+k \\ a+h-b-k \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} a+b \\ a-b \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h \\ k \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\implies \lim_{(h,k) \longrightarrow (0,0)} \|E(h, k)\| = 0. \text{ Then } f \text{ is differentiable at } (a, b).$$

**Definition 5.19** We call differential of  $f$  at a point  $a$ , denoted  $df_a$  or  $df(a)$ , the following linear mapping

$$\begin{aligned} df(a) : \mathbb{R}^n &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \\ h &\longmapsto df(a)(h) = M_f(a)h \end{aligned}$$

**Example :** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by  $f(x, y) = (x^2 + e^y, x + y \sin z)$ . Calculate its differential at the point  $P(1, 1, \pi)$ .

*Solution :*  $M_f(1, 1, \pi) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x & e^y & 0 \\ 1 & \sin z & y \cos z \end{pmatrix}_{(1,1,\pi)} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & e & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$

$$\text{Let } h = \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \implies df(1, 1, \pi)(h) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & e & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2h_1 + h_2e \\ h_1 - h_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Proposition 5.3**  $f$  is differentiable at a point  $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in D$  if and only if  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are differentiable at  $a$ , with  $df(a) = (df_1(a), \dots, df_n(a))$ .

*Proof :*  $f$  is differentiable at  $a \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - M_f(a)h}{\|h\|} = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} & f_i(a+h) - f_i(a) - \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)h_j \\ \iff & \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_i(a+h) - f_i(a) - \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)h_j}{\|h\|} = 0, \forall i = 1, \dots, m \\ \iff & f_i \text{ is differentiable at } a, \forall i = 1, \dots, m. \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 5.4**  $f$  is differentiable on  $D$  if and only if  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  are differentiable on  $D$ .

## 5.7 Differential of a composite function

Let the composition  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{f} D' \subset \mathbb{R}^m \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{R}^p$ . If  $f$  is differentiable at a point  $a \in D$  and  $g$  is differentiable at the point  $b = f(a) \in D'$ , then  $h = g \circ f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  is differentiable at  $a$ , and we have

$$d(g \circ f)(a) = d(f(a)) \circ dg(a),$$

which is equivalent to

$$M_{g \circ f}(a) = M_g(f(a))M_f(a),$$

such that

$$\begin{aligned} M_g(b)M_f(a) &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial y_1}(b) & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial y_m}(b) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial y_1}(b) & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial y_m}(b) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(a) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n}(a) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_k}(b) \right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq p \\ 1 \leq k \leq m}} \left( \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_j}(a) \right)_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq m \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}} = \left( \frac{\partial h_i}{\partial x_j}(a) \right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq p \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}} = M_h(a) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } \frac{\partial h_i}{\partial x_j}(a) = \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_1}(b) \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_j}(a) + \cdots + \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_m}(b) \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_j}(a) = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_k}(b) \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_j}(a).$$

**Proposition 5.5** Given the differentiable transformation  $(T(D) \subset D')$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} D \subset \mathbb{R}^n & \xrightarrow{T} & D' \subset \mathbb{R}^n \\ x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) & \mapsto & u = (u_1, \dots, u_n) \end{array}$$

Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $F : D' \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f = F \circ T$ . If  $F$  is differentiable on  $D'$  then  $f$  is differentiable on  $D$ , and we have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_j} + \dots + \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_j}, \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, n$$

*Proof* : From what precedes

$M_f(x) = M_{F \circ T}(x) = M_F(T(x))M_T(x) = M_F(u)M_T(x)$ , for  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in D$ . Then

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x) & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(x) \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_1}(u) & \dots & \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_n}(u) \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1}(x) & \dots & \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_n}(x) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_1}(x) & \dots & \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_n}(x) \end{array} \right)$$

hence

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + \dots + \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_n} + \dots + \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_n} \frac{\partial u_n}{\partial x_n} \end{array} \right.$$

**Proposition 5.6** Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a differentiable and invertible mapping in  $D$ . If  $J_f(x) \neq 0, \forall x \in D$ , then  $f^{-1}$  is differentiable in  $f(D)$ , with

$$df^{-1}(f(x)) = [df(x)]^{-1},$$

which is equivalent to

$$M_{f^{-1}}(f(x)) = [M_f(x)]^{-1}.$$

**Corollary 5.1** Let  $D$  be an open of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a differentiable and invertible mapping in  $D$ . If  $J_f(x) \neq 0, \forall x \in D$ , then

$$J_{f^{-1}}(f(x)) = \frac{1}{J_f(x)}.$$

*Proof* : From what precedes we have

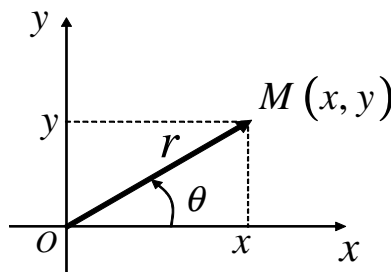
$$\begin{aligned} M_{f^{-1}}(f(x))M_f(x) &= M_{f^{-1} \circ f}(x) = M_{Id}(x) = I_n \\ \implies J_{f^{-1}}(f(x))J_f(x) &= 1 \implies J_{f^{-1}}(f(x)) = \frac{1}{J_f(x)}. \end{aligned}$$

## 5.8 Coordinate Systems

### • Polar coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^2$ :

In the  $xy$  - plane :  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , we consider a point  $M(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Let

$$r = \left\| \overrightarrow{OM} \right\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \left( \overrightarrow{Ox}, \overrightarrow{OM} \right).$$



The couple  $(r, \theta) \in ]0, +\infty[ \times [0, 2\pi[$  defines the polar coordinates of  $M$ , given by the following bijective mapping :

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : ]0, +\infty[ \times [0, 2\pi[ &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0, 0)\} \\ (r, \theta) &\longmapsto (x, y) \end{aligned}$$

with  $\begin{cases} x = r \cos \theta \\ y = r \sin \theta \end{cases}$ . The Jacobian of this function is

$$J_\phi(r, \theta) = \frac{D(x, y)}{D(r, \theta)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r}(r, \theta) & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta) \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}(r, \theta) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r \cos^2 \theta + r \sin^2 \theta = r \neq 0.$$

Its reciprocal mapping is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0, 0)\} &\longrightarrow ]0, +\infty[ \times [0, 2\pi[ \\ (x, y) &\longmapsto (r, \theta) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } \begin{cases} r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \theta = \arctan \frac{y}{x} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad J_{\phi^{-1}}(x, y) = \frac{1}{J_\phi(r, \theta)} = \frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}.$$

**Note :** The mapping  $\phi$  is called transformation or transition function of the polar coordinates to the Cartesian coordinates.

**Example :** Give the polar equation of the curve with Cartesian equation :

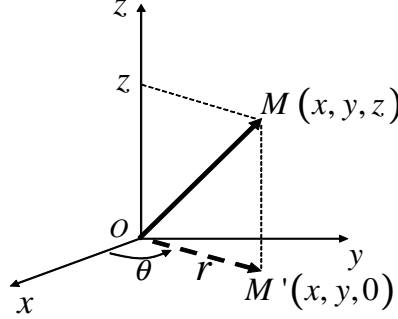
$$x^2 + y^2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - y.$$

*Solution :* Let  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$  with  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \implies r^2 = r - r \sin \theta \implies r = 1 - \sin \theta$ .

### • Cylindrical coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

In the  $xyz$ -space :  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we consider a point  $M(x, y, z) \notin z'z$ .  
 Let  $M'(x, y, 0) = \text{Pr}_{(xOy)} M(x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0)$ ,

$$r = \|\overrightarrow{OM'}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \left( \overrightarrow{Ox}, \overrightarrow{OM'} \right).$$



The cylindrical coordinates of  $M$  are defined by the following bijective mapping :

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : ]0, +\infty[ \times [0, 2\pi[ \times \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 - \{z'z\} \\ (r, \theta, z) &\longmapsto (x, y, z) \end{aligned}$$

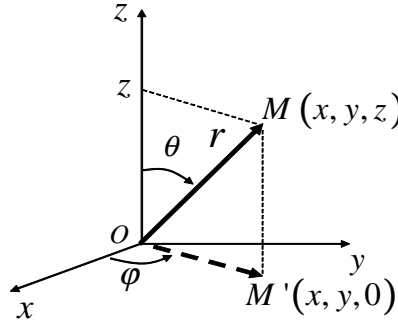
with  $\begin{cases} x = r \cos \theta \\ y = r \sin \theta \\ z = z \end{cases}$ . The Jacobian of this function is

$$\begin{aligned} J_\phi(r, \theta, z) &= \frac{D(x, y, z)}{D(r, \theta, z)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r}(r, \theta, z) & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta, z) & \frac{\partial x}{\partial z}(r, \theta, z) \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}(r, \theta, z) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta, z) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial z}(r, \theta, z) \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial r}(r, \theta, z) & \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta, z) & \frac{\partial z}{\partial z}(r, \theta, z) \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = r \cos^2 \theta + r \sin^2 \theta = r \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

### • Spherical coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

In the  $xyz$ -space :  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we consider a point  $M(x, y, z) \notin z'z$ .  
 Let  $M'(x, y, 0) = \text{Pr}_{(xOy)} M(x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0)$ ,

$$r = \|\overrightarrow{OM}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}, \quad \varphi = \left( \overrightarrow{Ox}, \overrightarrow{OM'} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \left( \overrightarrow{Oz}, \overrightarrow{OM} \right).$$



The spherical coordinates of  $M$  are defined by the following bijective mapping :

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : ]0, +\infty[ \times ]0, \pi[ \times [0, 2\pi[ &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 - \{z'z\} \\ (r, \theta, \varphi) &\longmapsto (x, y, z) \end{aligned}$$

with  $\begin{cases} x = r \sin \theta \cos \varphi \\ y = r \sin \theta \sin \varphi \\ z = r \cos \theta \end{cases}$ . The Jacobian of this function is

$$\begin{aligned} J_\phi(r, \theta, \varphi) &= \frac{D(x, y, z)}{D(r, \theta, \varphi)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r}(r, \theta, \varphi) & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta, \varphi) & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \varphi}(r, \theta, \varphi) \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}(r, \theta, \varphi) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta, \varphi) & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \varphi}(r, \theta, \varphi) \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial r}(r, \theta, \varphi) & \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta}(r, \theta, \varphi) & \frac{\partial z}{\partial \varphi}(r, \theta, \varphi) \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \sin \theta \cos \varphi & r \cos \theta \cos \varphi & -r \sin \theta \sin \varphi \\ \sin \theta \sin \varphi & r \cos \theta \sin \varphi & r \sin \theta \cos \varphi \\ \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \varphi \sin \theta + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta \sin^2 \varphi + r^2 \cos^2 \varphi \sin^3 \theta + r^2 \sin^3 \theta \sin^2 \varphi \\ &= r^2 \sin \theta \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

**Example :** Give the spherical equation of the sphere of equation :

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2z.$$

*Solution :* Let  $x = r \sin \theta \cos \varphi$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta \sin \varphi$  and  $z = r \cos \theta$  with  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$   
 $\implies r^2 = 2r \cos \theta \implies r = 2 \cos \theta$ .

## 5.9 Exercises

**Exercise 5.1** Given the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$f(t) = (x(t), y(t)) = \begin{cases} \left( \frac{t - \sqrt{2-t}}{t-1}, \frac{t \ln t}{t-1} \right) & \text{if } t \neq 1 \\ \left( \frac{3}{2}, 1 \right) & \text{if } t = 1 \end{cases}$$

1. Find its domain of definition.
2. Show that  $f$  is continuous at  $t = 1$  ?
3. Show that  $f$  is differentiable at  $t = 1$  ?

**Exercise 5.2** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  defined by

$$f(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) = \left( \frac{\ln(1+t^2)}{t}, \frac{\sqrt{1+t^2}-1}{t}, \frac{\tan t - t}{t^2} \right).$$

1. Show that the function  $f$  is extendible by continuity on  $\mathbb{R}$  and give its extension  $g$ .
2. Is  $g$  differentiable at 0 ?
3. Is  $g$  of class  $C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  ?



**Exercise 5.3** Determine the domain and the range of each of the following functions :

1.  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  with  $f(x, y) = \left( \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}, x + y \right)$
2.  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  with  $f(x, y) = \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, 1 \right)$
3.  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  with  $f(x, y, z) = \left( \sqrt{25 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2}, \sqrt{z - 2} \right)$

**Exercise 5.4** Study the existence of the following limits :

1.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \left( \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, \frac{x + y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \right)$
2.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \left( \frac{\ln(1 + |xy|)}{|x| + |y|}, \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} \right)$
3.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \left( (x + y) \sin \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}, \frac{\sin(x^2 + y^2)}{x^2 + y^2} \right)$

**Exercise 5.5** Let the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \left( \frac{xy - y^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, \frac{\sin x^2}{x^2 + y^2} \right) & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ (0, 0) & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

Is  $f$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  ?

**Exercise 5.6** Find the vector partial derivatives of order 1 and 2 of  $f$  at the point  $A$  :

1. Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  with  $f(x, y) = (x \cos y, x \sin y)$  at the point  $A(1, \pi)$ .
2. Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  with  $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2, 2xyz, x + y + z)$  at the point  $A(1, 2, -1)$ .

**Exercise 5.7** Find the Jacobian of the transformation  $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by

$$T(x, y) = (u(x, y), v(x, y)) = \left( \frac{x + y}{1 - xy}, \arctan x + \arctan y \right), \text{ for } xy \neq 1.$$

**Exercise 5.8** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be the function defined by

$$f(x, y) = (x^2 - y^2 - 2x \ln y, \sin x^2 + 2xy).$$

1. Show that  $f$  is of class  $C^1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
2. Determine the Jacobian matrix  $M_f$  of  $f$  at the point  $(0, 1)$ .
3. Deduce the differential  $df(0, 1)$ .
4. The directional derivative of a function  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$  at a point  $a$  in a direction  $u = (u_1, \dots, u_m)$  is given by

$$D_u f(a) = (D_u f_1(a), \dots, D_u f_m(a)) = M_f(a)u.$$

Calculate  $D_u f(0, 1)$  in the direction of  $u = \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right)$ .

**Exercise 5.9** Consider the two functions  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = (xyz, x + y + z) \quad \text{and} \quad g(u, v) = (u^2 + v^2, u^2 - v^2, uv).$$

1. Prove that  $f$  is differentiable at every point  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  and calculate its Jacobian matrix.
2. Prove that  $g$  is differentiable at every point  $(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and calculate its Jacobian matrix.
3. Give the Jacobian matrix of  $g \circ f$ .
4. Deduce the differential  $d(g \circ f)(1, -1, 1)$ .

**Exercise 5.10** If  $u = f(x, y)$ ,  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ , show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial r}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta}\right)^2.$$

**Exercise 5.11** Let  $U = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0\}$  and  $f : U \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function on  $U$  verifying

$$x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 1.$$

Let  $F$  be the function such that  $F(r, \theta) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$ , for  $r > 0$  and  $\theta \in \left]-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right[$ .

1. Find  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial r}$  and  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial \theta}$  in terms of  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ .
2. Show that  $r \frac{\partial F}{\partial r}(r, \theta) = 1$  and deduce that  $F(r, \theta) = \ln r + \varphi(\theta)$ .
3. We define  $\psi$  by  $\psi(\tan \theta) = \varphi(\theta)$ . Show that  $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + y^2) + \psi\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ .

**Exercise 5.12** Let  $U = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0 \text{ and } y > 0\}$  and  $f : U \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function on  $U$  satisfying the first order differential equation

$$x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = xyf(x, y).$$

Consider the transformation  $T : U \longrightarrow U$  defined by  $T(x, y) = (u = xy, v = \frac{x}{y})$ . Let  $F$  be the function such that  $f(x, y) = (F \circ T)(x, y) = F(u, v)$ , for  $(u, v) \in U$ .

1. Show that  $J_T(x, y) \neq 0$ , for all  $(x, y) \in U$ .
2. Find  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  in terms of  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial v}$ .
3. Show that  $2 \frac{\partial F}{\partial u}(u, v) = F(u, v)$ .
4. Determine  $F(u, v)$  and deduce  $f(x, y)$  if  $f(x, 1) = e^x$ .

**Exercise 5.13** Let  $U = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0 \text{ and } y > 0\}$  and  $f : U \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^2$  on  $U$  verifying the second order differential equation

$$x^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) = y^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y).$$

Let  $F$  be the function such that  $f(x, y) = (F \circ T)(x, y) = F(u, v)$  with  $u = xy$  and  $v = \frac{x}{y}$ .

1. Find  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$  in terms of  $\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial u^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial v^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial u \partial v}$ .
2. Show that  $2u \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial u \partial v}(u, v) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial v}(u, v)$ .
3. Determine  $F(u, v)$  and deduce  $f(x, y)$ .

## Chapter 6

# Scalar and vector fields

### 6.1 Recalls

- **Vector :** A vector  $\vec{H}$  of the space  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is written as

$$\vec{H} = X\vec{i} + Y\vec{j} + Z\vec{k} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{H}(X, Y, Z),$$

where the components  $X, Y, Z$  are the orthogonal projections of  $\vec{H}$  on the coordinates axes of the orthonormal system  $(O, \vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k})$ . Its module is

$$\|\vec{H}\| = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2}.$$

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  and  $\vec{V}(P, Q, R)$  be two vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then

- (1)  $\vec{H} + \vec{V} = (X + P)\vec{i} + (Y + Q)\vec{j} + (Z + R)\vec{k}$ ;
- (2)  $\alpha\vec{H} = \alpha X\vec{i} + \alpha Y\vec{j} + \alpha Z\vec{k}, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (3)  $\vec{H} + \vec{V} = \vec{V} + \vec{H}$ ;
- (4)  $(\vec{H} + \vec{V}) + \vec{W} = \vec{H} + (\vec{V} + \vec{W})$ , for all vector  $\vec{W}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

- **Scalar product :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  and  $\vec{V}(P, Q, R)$  be two vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

We define the scalar product of  $\vec{H}$  and  $\vec{V}$  by

$$\vec{H} \cdot \vec{V} = XP + YQ + ZR.$$

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}, \vec{V}$  and  $\vec{W}$  be three vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then

- (1)  $\vec{H} \cdot \vec{V} = \|\vec{H}\| \|\vec{V}\| \cos(\vec{H}, \vec{V})$ ;
- (2)  $\vec{H} \cdot \vec{V} = \vec{V} \cdot \vec{H}$ ;
- (3)  $(\alpha\vec{H}) \cdot \vec{V} = \vec{H} \cdot (\alpha\vec{V}) = \alpha(\vec{H} \cdot \vec{V}), \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (4)  $\vec{H} \cdot (\vec{V} + \vec{W}) = \vec{H} \cdot \vec{V} + \vec{H} \cdot \vec{W}$ .

- **Cross product :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  and  $\vec{V}(P, Q, R)$  be two vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

We define the cross product of  $\vec{H}$  and  $\vec{V}$  by

$$\vec{H} \wedge \vec{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ X & Y & Z \\ P & Q & R \end{vmatrix} = (YR - ZQ) \vec{i} - (XR - ZP) \vec{j} + (XQ - YP) \vec{k}.$$

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}$ ,  $\vec{V}$  and  $\vec{W}$  be three vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then

- (1)  $\|\vec{H} \wedge \vec{V}\| = \|\vec{H}\| \|\vec{V}\| \sin(\angle(\vec{H}, \vec{V}))$ ;
- (2)  $\vec{H} \wedge \vec{V} = -\vec{V} \wedge \vec{H}$ ;
- (3)  $(\alpha \vec{H}) \wedge \vec{V} = \vec{H} \wedge (\alpha \vec{V}) = \alpha (\vec{H} \wedge \vec{V})$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (4)  $\vec{H} \wedge (\vec{V} + \vec{W}) = \vec{H} \wedge \vec{V} + \vec{H} \wedge \vec{W}$ .

- **Mixed product :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$ ,  $\vec{V}(P, Q, R)$  and  $\vec{W}(L, M, N)$  be three vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

We define the mixed product of  $\vec{H}$ ,  $\vec{V}$  and  $\vec{W}$  by

$$\vec{H} \cdot (\vec{V} \wedge \vec{W}) = \begin{vmatrix} X & Y & Z \\ P & Q & R \\ L & M & N \end{vmatrix}.$$

- **Double cross product :** Let  $\vec{H}$ ,  $\vec{V}$  and  $\vec{W}$  be three vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

The double cross product of  $\vec{H}$ ,  $\vec{V}$  and  $\vec{W}$  is given by

$$\vec{H} \wedge (\vec{V} \wedge \vec{W}) = (\vec{H} \cdot \vec{W}) \vec{V} - (\vec{H} \cdot \vec{V}) \vec{W}.$$

## 6.2 Scalar field - Vector field

Let  $(O, \vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k})$  be an orthonormal system and  $M$  be a point of the space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , of coordinates  $(x, y, z)$  :

$$\vec{OM} = x \vec{i} + y \vec{j} + z \vec{k}.$$

**Definition 6.1** All mapping from a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that to each point  $M \in D$  corresponds a scalar  $U(M)$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  is called scalar field. We denote

$$U(M) = U(x, y, z).$$

**Example :** The mass density at a certain point  $M$  of a domain  $D$  is a scalar field given by

$$\rho(M) = \frac{dm}{dv}$$

where  $dm$  is the elementary mass and  $dv$  is the elementary volume at  $M$ .

**Definition 6.2** All mapping from a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  to  $\mathbb{R}^3$  that to each point  $M \in D$  corresponds a vector  $\vec{H}(M)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is called vector field. We denote

$$\vec{H}(M) = X(M) \vec{i} + Y(M) \vec{j} + Z(M) \vec{k} = X(x, y, z) \vec{i} + Y(x, y, z) \vec{j} + Z(x, y, z) \vec{k},$$

of which the components  $X, Y, Z$  are scalars fields.

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}$  and  $\vec{V}$  be two vector fields of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  which are differentiable in a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ , then

- (1)  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{H} \cdot \vec{V}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{H}) \cdot \vec{V} + \vec{H} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{V})$ , etc...
- (2)  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{H} \wedge \vec{V}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{H}) \wedge \vec{V} + \vec{H} \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{V})$ , etc...

**Example :** Let  $r = \|\vec{r}\| = \|\vec{OM}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ .

$$\text{We have } r^2 = \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} \implies d(r^2) = d(\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}) \implies 2rdr = 2\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} \implies dr = \frac{\vec{r}}{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = \vec{n} \cdot d\vec{r}$$

where  $\vec{n} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r}$  is the unit vector of  $\vec{r} = \vec{OM}$ .

## 6.3 The Hamiltonian operator

### 6.3.1 Gradient of a scalar field

**Definition 6.3** The Hamiltonian differential operator (of first order) is defined, in a orthonormal system  $(Oxyz)$  of unit vectors  $\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}$ , by

$$\vec{\nabla} = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \vec{k}.$$

We call it nabla.

**Definition 6.4** Consider a scalar field  $U$  defined and differentiable at each point  $M$  of a domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We call gradient of  $U$  at  $M$ , the vector field

$$\vec{\text{grad}}U(M) = \vec{\nabla}U(M) = \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}(M) \vec{i} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y}(M) \vec{j} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial z}(M) \vec{k}.$$

**Properties :** Let  $U$  and  $V$  be two differentiable scalar fields in  $D$ , then

- (1)  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(U + V) = \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U + \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}V$ ;
- (2)  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(\alpha U) = \alpha \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (3)  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(UV) = V \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U + U \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}V$ .

*Proof :*

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1) \quad \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(U + V) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(U + V) \vec{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(U + V) \vec{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(U + V) \vec{k} \\
 &= \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) + \left( \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) \\
 &= \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U + \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}V; \\
 (2) \quad \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(\alpha U) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\alpha U) \vec{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\alpha U) \vec{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\alpha U) \vec{k} \\
 &= \alpha \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) \\
 &= \alpha \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U; \\
 (3) \quad \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(UV) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(UV) \vec{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(UV) \vec{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(UV) \vec{k} \\
 &= V \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \vec{i} + U \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \vec{i} + V \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \vec{j} + U \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \vec{j} + V \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \vec{k} + U \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \vec{k} \\
 &= V \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) + U \left( \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) \\
 &= V \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U + U \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}V.
 \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 6.1** Let  $U$  and  $V$  be two differentiable scalar fields in an open and convex  $D$ , then

$$\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U(M) = \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}V(M) \iff \exists C \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } U(M) = V(M) + C.$$

### 6.3.2 Divergence of a vector field

**Definition 6.5** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  be a vector field that is defined and differentiable at each point  $M$  of a domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We call divergence of  $\vec{H}$  at  $M$ , the scalar field

$$\text{div } \vec{H}(M) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{H}(M) = \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial Z}{\partial z}.$$

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  and  $\vec{V}(P, Q, R)$  be two differentiable vector fields and  $U$  be a differentiable scalar field in  $D$ , then

- (1)  $\text{div}(\vec{H} + \vec{V}) = \text{div } \vec{H} + \text{div } \vec{V}$ ;
- (2)  $\text{div}(\alpha \vec{H}) = \alpha \text{div } \vec{H}, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (3)  $\text{div}(U \vec{H}) = U \text{div } \vec{H} + \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U \cdot \vec{H}$ .

*Proof :*

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1) \quad \text{div}(\vec{H} + \vec{V}) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(X + P) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(Y + Q) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(Z + R) \\
 &= \left( \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial Z}{\partial z} \right) + \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} \right) \\
 &= \text{div } \vec{H} + \text{div } \vec{V};
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(2) \quad \operatorname{div}(\alpha \vec{H}) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\alpha X) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\alpha Y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\alpha Z) \\
&= \alpha \left( \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial Z}{\partial z} \right) \\
&= \alpha \operatorname{div} \vec{H}; \\
(3) \quad \operatorname{div}(U \vec{H}) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(UX) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(UY) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(UZ) \\
&= U \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + X \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + U \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} + Y \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} + U \frac{\partial Z}{\partial z} + Z \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \\
&= U \left( \frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial Z}{\partial z} \right) + X \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + Y \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} + Z \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \\
&= U \operatorname{div} \vec{H} + \vec{H} \cdot \operatorname{grad} U.
\end{aligned}$$

### 6.3.3 Rotational of a vector field

**Definition 6.6** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  be a vector field that is defined and differentiable at each point  $M$  of a domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . We call curl of  $\vec{H}$  at  $M$ , the vector field

$$\begin{aligned}
\overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{H}(M) &= \vec{\nabla} \wedge \vec{H}(M) = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ X & Y & Z \end{vmatrix} \\
&= \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k}.
\end{aligned}$$

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  and  $\vec{V}(P, Q, R)$  be two differentiable vector fields and  $U$  be a differentiable scalar field in  $D$ , then

- (1)  $\overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}}(\vec{H} + \vec{V}) = \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{H} + \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{V}$ ;
- (2)  $\overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}}(\alpha \vec{H}) = \alpha \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{H}$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (3)  $\overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}}(U \vec{H}) = U \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{H} + \operatorname{grad} U \wedge \vec{H}$ .
- (4) If moreover  $U$  is of class  $C^2$  in  $D$ , then  $\overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}}(\operatorname{grad} U) = \vec{0}$ .
- (5) If moreover  $\vec{H}$  is of class  $C^2$  in  $D$ , then  $\operatorname{div}(\overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{H}) = 0$ .

*Proof :*

$$\begin{aligned}
(1) \quad \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}}(\vec{H} + \vec{V}) &= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(Z + R) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(Y + Q) \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(Z + R) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(X + P) \right) \vec{j} \\
&\quad + \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(Y + Q) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(X + P) \right) \vec{k} \\
&= \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \\
&\quad + \left( \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \\
&= \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{H} + \overrightarrow{\operatorname{curl}} \vec{V};
\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
(2) \quad \overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(\alpha \vec{H}) &= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\alpha Z) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\alpha Y) \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\alpha Z) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\alpha X) \right) \vec{j} \\
&\quad + \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\alpha Y) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\alpha X) \right) \vec{k} \\
&= \alpha \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \alpha \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \alpha \left( \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \\
&= \alpha \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{H}; \\
(3) \quad \overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(U \vec{H}) &= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(UZ) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(UY) \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(UZ) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(UX) \right) \vec{j} \\
&\quad + \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(UY) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(UX) \right) \vec{k} \\
&= \left( U \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} + Z \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} - U \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} - Y \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( U \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} + Z \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} - U \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} - X \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} \\
&\quad + \left( U \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} + Y \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} - U \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} - X \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \\
&= U \left[ \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \right] \\
&\quad + \left( Z \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} - Y \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( Z \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} - X \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \left( Y \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} - X \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \\
&= U \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{H} + \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U \wedge \vec{H}. \\
(4) \quad \overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(\overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U) &= \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) \\
&= \left( \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial z \partial y} \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial z \partial x} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \vec{k} = \vec{0}. \\
(5) \quad \text{div}(\overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{H}) &= \text{div} \left[ \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} \right) \vec{i} - \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} \right) \vec{k} \right] \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Y}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial Y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial X}{\partial y} \right) \\
&= \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial y \partial x} + \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial y \partial z} + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial z \partial x} - \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial z \partial y} = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

**Example :** Verify that  $\overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(U \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U) = \vec{0}$ .

*Solution :*  $\overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(U \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U) = U \overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(\overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U) + \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U \wedge \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} U = \vec{0}$ .

**Example :** Let  $\vec{n} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r} = \frac{1}{r} (x \vec{i} + y \vec{j} + z \vec{k})$  with  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ .

1. Find  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}} r$ ,  $\text{div} \vec{n}$  and  $\overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{n}$ .

2. Let  $\vec{H} = \vec{\omega} \wedge \vec{r}$  with  $\vec{\omega}(a, b, c)$  (cte), then  $\vec{\omega} = \frac{1}{2} \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{H}$ .

*Solution :*

1. We have  $\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = \frac{2x}{2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} = \frac{x}{r}$ ,  $\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{y}{r}$  and  $\frac{\partial r}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{r} \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} r = \frac{\vec{r}}{r} = \vec{n}$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{div} \vec{n} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{x}{r} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{y}{r} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{z}{r} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{x^2}{r^3} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{y^2}{r^3} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{z^2}{r^3} \right) \\
&= \frac{3}{r} - \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{r^3} = \frac{3}{r} - \frac{r^2}{r^3} = \frac{3}{r} - \frac{1}{r} = \frac{2}{r}.
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{n} &= \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \frac{x}{r} & \frac{y}{r} & \frac{z}{r} \end{vmatrix} = \left(-\frac{yz}{r^2} + \frac{yz}{r^2}\right) \vec{i} - \left(-\frac{xz}{r^2} + \frac{xz}{r^2}\right) \vec{j} + \left(-\frac{yz}{r^2} + \frac{yz}{r^2}\right) \vec{k} = \vec{0} \\ 2. \vec{H} &= \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ a & b & c \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix} = (bz - cy) \vec{i} - (az - cx) \vec{j} + (ay - bx) \vec{k} \\ \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{H} &= \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ bz - cy & cx - az & ay - bx \end{vmatrix} = 2a \vec{i} + 2b \vec{j} + 2c \vec{k} = 2\vec{\omega}.\end{aligned}$$

## 6.4 Laplace equation

**Definition 6.7** We define the differential operator of the second order, called Laplacian by

$$\Delta = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}.$$

**Definition 6.8** Consider a scalar field  $U$  defined and of class  $C^2$  at each point  $M$  of a domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The Laplacian of  $U$  at  $M$  is the scalar field

$$\Delta U(M) = \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x^2}(M) + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial y^2}(M) + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial z^2}(M).$$

**Properties :** Let  $\vec{H}(X, Y, Z)$  be a vector field and  $U, V$  be two scalar fields of class  $C^2$  in  $D$ , then

- (1)  $\Delta \vec{H} = \Delta X \vec{i} + \Delta Y \vec{j} + \Delta Z \vec{k}$ ;
- (2)  $\Delta U = \text{div}(\vec{\text{grad}} U)$ ;
- (3)  $\Delta(UV) = V \Delta U + U \Delta V + 2 \vec{\text{grad}} U \cdot \vec{\text{grad}} V$ .

*Proof :*

$$\begin{aligned}(1) \Delta \vec{H} &= \frac{\partial^2 \vec{H}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \vec{H}}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \vec{H}}{\partial z^2} \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial x^2} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial x^2} \vec{k} \right) + \left( \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial y^2} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial y^2} \vec{k} \right) \\ &\quad + \left( \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial z^2} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial z^2} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial z^2} \vec{k} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial z^2} \right) \vec{i} + \left( \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial z^2} \right) \vec{j} + \left( \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial z^2} \right) \vec{k} \\ &= \Delta X \vec{i} + \Delta Y \vec{j} + \Delta Z \vec{k}; \\ (2) \text{div}(\vec{\text{grad}} U) &= \text{div} \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial z^2} = \Delta U;\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(3) \quad \Delta(UV) &= \operatorname{div} \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}(UV) \\
&= \operatorname{div} \left( U \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}V + V \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}U \right) \\
&= \operatorname{div} \left( U \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}V \right) + \operatorname{div} \left( V \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}U \right) \\
&= U \operatorname{div} \left( \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}V \right) + \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}U \cdot \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}V + V \operatorname{div} \left( \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}U \right) + \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}V \cdot \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}U \\
&= \Delta(UV) = V \Delta U + U \Delta V + 2 \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}U \cdot \overrightarrow{\operatorname{grad}}V.
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 6.9** Let  $f : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^2$  in  $D$ . We say that  $f$  is harmonic if it verifies, at each point  $M$  of  $D$ , the equation of Laplace

$$\Delta f(M) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}(M) = 0.$$

**Example :** Let  $f(x, y) = \arctan \frac{y}{x}$ . Show that  $f$  is harmonic in  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \neq 0\}$ .

*Solution :*  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}$ .

Then

$$\Delta f(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(x, y) = \frac{2xy}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} - \frac{2xy}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = 0.$$

## 6.5 Total differential forms

### 6.5.1 Total differential form in $\mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbb{R}^3$

Consider the differential form of two variables defined in an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  :

$$\omega = P(x, y)dx + Q(x, y)dy.$$

If  $\omega$  is the differential of some differentiable function  $f$  of class  $C^1$  in  $D$ , i.e.,

$$\omega = df(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y)dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y)dy,$$

then we must have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = P(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = Q(x, y).$$

If  $f$  is of class  $C^2$  on  $D$ , then we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y), \text{ which gives } \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y).$$

**Definition 6.10** We say that the differential form

$$\omega = P(x, y)dx + Q(x, y)dy$$

is a total (or exact) differential form if and only if

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y).$$

**Theorem 6.1** If  $\omega$  is total, then there is a function  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $df(x, y) = \omega$ .

- **Determination de  $f$  :** Suppose that  $\omega$  is total and that there exists  $f$  such that  $df(x, y) = \omega$ , then we must have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) dy = P(x, y)dx + Q(x, y)dy \iff \begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = P(x, y) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = Q(x, y) \end{cases}$$

Take  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = P(x, y)$  and integrate with respect to  $x$  considering  $y$  as constant, then we have

$$f(x, y) = \int P(x, y)dx + C,$$

where  $C$  is an independent constant of  $x$  but can depend of  $y$ , therefore we consider it as a function of  $y$  only :  $C = C(y)$ .

The equation  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = Q(x, y)$  is used to determine  $C'(y)$ , and finally we integrated  $C'(y)$  to obtain  $C(y)$ .

It is to note that the calculation can be made by first integrating  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = Q(x, y)$ .

**Example :** Let  $\omega = (2xy^2 + y \cos x)dx + (2x^2y + \sin x - 2y)dy$ .

1. Show that  $\omega$  is total.
2. Find  $f(x, y)$  such that  $df(x, y) = \omega$ .

*Solution :* 1. We have  $P(x, y) = 2xy^2 + y \cos x \implies \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) = 4xy + \cos x$

and  $Q(x, y) = 2x^2y + \sin x - 2y \implies \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y) = 4xy + \cos x$

$\implies \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y)$ , then  $\omega$  is total.

2. Since  $\omega$  is total, then  $\exists f(x, y) / df(x, y) = \omega$ .

$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = P(x, y) = 2xy^2 + y \cos x$

$\implies f(x, y) = \int P(x, y) dx = \int (2xy^2 + y \cos x)dx = x^2y^2 + y \sin x + C(y)$

$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = Q(x, y) = 2x^2y + \sin x - 2y \implies 2x^2y + \sin x + C'(y) = 2x^2y + \sin x - 2y$

$\implies C'(y) = -2y \implies C(y) = -y^2 + K$ .

Finally  $f(x, y) = x^2y^2 + y \sin x - y^2 + K$ .

**Definition 6.11** The differential form of three variables, defined in an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by

$$\omega = P(x, y, z)dx + Q(x, y, z)dy + R(x, y, z)dz$$

is total if and only if

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y, z), \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x}(x, y, z) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial R}{\partial y}(x, y, z)$$

if and only if

$$\overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \overrightarrow{V} = \overrightarrow{0} \quad \text{with} \quad \overrightarrow{V} = P \overrightarrow{i} + Q \overrightarrow{j} + R \overrightarrow{k}.$$

The determination of a function  $f : D \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $df(x, y, z) = \omega$  is made in an analogous manner as the case of two variables.

**Example :** Let  $\omega = (yz - 2x)dx + (xz + z)dy + (xy + y)dz$ .

1. Show that  $\omega$  is total.

2. Find  $f(x, y, z)$  such that  $df(x, y, z) = \omega$ .

*Solution :* 1. Take  $P(x, y, z) = yz - 2x$ ,  $Q(x, y, z) = xz + z$  and  $R(x, y, z) = xy + y$ .

Let  $\vec{V} = P\vec{i} + Q\vec{j} + R\vec{k}$ .

$$\text{curl } \vec{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ yz - 2x & xz + z & xy + y \end{vmatrix} = (x + 1 - x - 1)\vec{i} - (y - y)\vec{j} + (z - z)\vec{k} = \vec{0}$$

then  $\omega$  is total.

2. Since  $\omega$  is total, then  $\exists f(x, y, z) / df(x, y, z) = \omega$ .

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, z) = P(x, y, z) = yz - 2x$$

$$\implies f(x, y, z) = \int P(x, y, z)dx = \int (yz - 2x)dx = xyz - x^2 + C(y, z)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, z) = Q(x, y, z) = xz + z \implies xz + \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}(y, z) = xz + z \implies \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}(y, z) = z$$

$$\implies C(y, z) = \int zdy = yz + K(z) \implies f(x, y, z) = xyz - x^2 + yz + K(z)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, z) = R(x, y, z) = xy + y \implies xy + y + K'(z) = xy + y \implies K'(z) = 0 \implies K(z) = L$$

Finally  $f(x, y, z) = xyz - x^2 + yz + L$ .

### 6.5.2 Gradient field

**Definition 6.12** Let  $\vec{V}$  a vector field defined in an open  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that  $\vec{V}$  is a gradient field if there is a scalar field  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\vec{V} = \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} f.$$

$f$  is called scalar potential. We say  $\vec{V}$  derives from a potential.

In  $\mathbb{R}^3$  the vector field  $\vec{V}(M) = P(M)\vec{i} + Q(M)\vec{j} + R(M)\vec{k}$ , is a gradient field if there is a scalar field  $f : D \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f$  is a solution of the system :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, z) = P(x, y, z) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, z) = Q(x, y, z) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, z) = R(x, y, z) \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 6.2** Let  $\vec{V}$  be a vector field defined in an open and connected domain  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  by

$$\vec{V}(M) = P(M)\vec{i} + Q(M)\vec{j} + R(M)\vec{k}.$$

$\vec{V}$  is a gradient field if and only if  $\text{curl } \vec{V} = \vec{0}$ .

**Example :** Let  $\vec{V} = \left(x + \frac{z}{x^2y}\right) \vec{i} + \left(y + \frac{z}{xy^2}\right) \vec{j} + \left(z - \frac{1}{xy}\right) \vec{k}$ .

1. Show that  $\vec{V}$  is a gradient field.

2. Find  $f$  such that  $\vec{V} = \overrightarrow{\text{grad}} f$ .

*Solution :* 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \vec{V} &= \begin{vmatrix} \vec{i} & \vec{j} & \vec{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x + \frac{z}{x^2y} & y + \frac{z}{xy^2} & z - \frac{1}{xy} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{xy^2} - \frac{1}{xy^2}\right) \vec{i} - \left(\frac{1}{x^2y} - \frac{1}{x^2y}\right) \vec{j} + \left(-\frac{z}{x^2y^2} + \frac{z}{x^2y^2}\right) \vec{k} = \vec{0} \end{aligned}$$

$\vec{V}$  is a gradient field, and then  $\exists f(x, y, z) / df(x, y, z) = \omega$ .

$$2. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, z) = x + \frac{z}{x^2y} \implies f(x, y, z) = \int \left(x + \frac{z}{x^2y}\right) dx = \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{z}{xy} + C(y, z)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, z) = y + \frac{z}{xy^2} \implies \frac{z}{xy^2} + \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}(y, z) = y + \frac{z}{xy^2} \implies \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}(y, z) = y$$

$$\implies C(y, z) = \int y dy = \frac{y^2}{2} + K(z) \implies f(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{z}{xy} + \frac{y^2}{2} + K(z)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x, y, z) = z - \frac{1}{xy} \implies -\frac{1}{xy} + K'(z) = z - \frac{1}{xy} \implies K'(z) = z \implies K(z) = \frac{z^2}{2} + L$$

$$\text{Finally } f(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z}{xy} + L.$$

**Remark :** In the case of a vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  :

$$\vec{V}(M) = P(M) \vec{i} + Q(M) \vec{j}$$

$\vec{V}$  is a gradient field if and only if  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$ .

### 6.5.3 Integrating factors

• **Integrating factor in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :** Consider a differential form

$$\omega = P(x, y)dx + Q(x, y)dy$$

who is not total. If there exists a scalar function  $\mu = \mu(x, y)$  such that

$$\mu\omega = \mu P(x, y)dx + \mu Q(x, y)dy$$

is a total differential of a certain function  $f$ , i.e.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\mu P) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\mu Q),$$

the function  $\mu$  is called integrating factor of the differential form  $\omega$ .

**Example :** Let  $\omega = y(1 + xy)dx - xdy$ .

1. Find an integrating factor of the form  $\mu = \mu(y)$  for  $\mu\omega$  to be total.
2. Find  $f(x, y)$  such that  $df(x, y) = \mu(y)\omega$ .

*Solution :* 1. We have  $P(x, y) = y + xy^2 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) = 1 + 2xy$

and  $Q(x, y) = -x \Rightarrow \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y) = -1$

$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y) \neq \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}(x, y)$ , then  $\omega$  is not total.

$\mu\omega = \mu(y + xy^2)dx - \mu xdy$  is total if  $\frac{\partial(\mu P)}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial(\mu Q)}{\partial x} \Rightarrow P \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial y} + \mu \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = Q \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x} + \mu \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$

$\Rightarrow y(1 + xy)\mu'(y) + 2(1 + xy)\mu = 0 \Rightarrow y\mu'(y) + 2\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\mu'(y)}{\mu(y)} = -\frac{2}{y}$

$\Rightarrow \int \frac{\mu'(y)}{\mu(y)} dy = -\int \frac{2}{y} dy \Rightarrow \ln \mu(y) = -2 \ln y + k = \ln \frac{C}{y^2} \Rightarrow \mu(y) = \frac{C}{y^2}$ .

2.  $\mu\omega$  is total, then  $\exists f(x, y) / df(x, y) = \mu(y)\omega = \frac{C}{y^2} [y(1 + xy)dx - xdy] = C \left[ \frac{ydx - xdy}{y^2} + xdx \right]$

$\Rightarrow df = C \left[ d\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) + d\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right) \right] = Cd \left( \frac{x}{y} + \frac{x^2}{2} \right)$

Finally  $f(x, y) = C \left( \frac{x}{y} + \frac{x^2}{2} \right) + K$ .

• **Integrating factor in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  :** For a differential form of three variables

$$\omega = P(x, y, z)dx + Q(x, y, z)dy + R(x, y, z)dz$$

who is not total, if there exists a scalar function  $\mu = \mu(x, y, z)$  such that

$$\mu\omega = \mu P(x, y, z)dx + \mu Q(x, y, z)dy + \mu R(x, y, z)dz$$

is a total differential of a certain function  $f$ , i.e.

$$\overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(\mu \overrightarrow{V}) = \overrightarrow{0} \quad \text{with} \quad \overrightarrow{V} = P \overrightarrow{i} + Q \overrightarrow{j} + R \overrightarrow{k},$$

the function  $\mu$  is called integrating factor of  $\omega$ .

**Remarks :**

(1) In case of the differential forms of two variables, there exists always an integrating factor.

(2)  $\overrightarrow{\text{curl}}(\mu \overrightarrow{V}) = \overrightarrow{0}$  is equivalent to  $\overrightarrow{V} \cdot \overrightarrow{\text{curl}} \overrightarrow{V} = 0$ , which is a necessary condition for the existence of an integrating factor in case of the differential forms of three variables.

## 6.6 Exercises

**Exercise 6.1** Consider the vector fields

$$\overrightarrow{H} = 8t^2 \overrightarrow{i} + t \overrightarrow{j} - t^3 \overrightarrow{k} \quad \text{and} \quad \overrightarrow{V} = \sin t \overrightarrow{i} - \cos t \overrightarrow{j}.$$

where  $t$  is a parameter. Calculate  $\frac{d}{dt}(\overrightarrow{H} \cdot \overrightarrow{V})$ ,  $\frac{d}{dt}(\overrightarrow{H} \wedge \overrightarrow{V})$  and  $\frac{d}{dt}(\overrightarrow{H} \cdot \overrightarrow{H})$ .

**Exercise 6.2** 1. Let the scalar field

$$U(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} x^2 \tanh \frac{y+z^2}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Calculate  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U(0, 1, 1)$ .

2. Let the vector field

$$\vec{H}(x, y, z) = x^3 y z \vec{i} + x z \vec{j} + (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \vec{k}$$

Calculate  $\text{div } \vec{H}(1, 0, 1)$  and  $\text{curl } \vec{H}(1, 0, 1)$ .

**Exercise 6.3** 1. If

$$\vec{H} = 2yz \vec{i} - x^2 y \vec{j} + xz^2 \vec{k}, \quad \vec{V} = x^2 \vec{i} + yz \vec{j} - xy \vec{k} \quad \text{and} \quad U = 2x^2 y z^3.$$

Calculate  $\vec{H} \cdot \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U$ ,  $\vec{H} \wedge \overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U$ ,  $\vec{V} \cdot \text{curl } \vec{H}$ ,  $\vec{V} \wedge \text{curl } \vec{H}$  and  $\text{curl}(U\vec{H})$ .

2. Let  $\vec{H}$  be a vector field of class  $C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and let  $\vec{V}(a, b, c)$  be a fixed vector.

Show that  $\text{div}(\vec{H} \wedge \vec{V}) = \vec{V} \cdot \text{curl } \vec{H}$ .

3. Let

$$\vec{V} = x^2 \vec{i} + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + 1} \vec{j} + z \vec{k}.$$

Calculate  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}\left(\|\vec{V}\|_2^2\right)$  then deduce  $\text{div}\left(\|\vec{V}\|_2^2 \vec{V}\right)$ .

**Exercise 6.4** Let  $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : xy > 1 \text{ and } x > 0\}$  and

$$U(x, y) = \arctan x + \arctan y - \arctan \frac{x+y}{1-xy}.$$

1. Identify  $D$ .

2. Calculate  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U(x, y)$ .

3. Deduce that  $U$  is equal to a constant on  $D$  that will be determined.

(hint : we can calculate the limit of  $D$  when  $x \rightarrow \infty$  on the path  $y = x$ ).

**Exercise 6.5** Let  $\vec{n} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r} = \frac{1}{r}(x \vec{i} + y \vec{j} + z \vec{k})$  with  $r = \|\vec{r}\|_2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ .

1. Let  $U = U(r)$  be a differentiable scalar field. Show that  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}U = \frac{\partial U}{\partial r} \vec{n}$ .

2. Calculate  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(r^s)$  and  $\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}(\ln r)$ .

3. Consider the vector field  $\vec{F} = \frac{\ln r}{r} \vec{r}$ . Determine, if it exists, a potential  $\varphi(r)$  such that

$$\overrightarrow{\text{grad}}\varphi = \vec{F} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \varphi(r) = 1.$$

4. Let  $u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real function of class  $C^2$ . Find the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x, y, z) = u(r)$  verifying  $\Delta f = 0$ .



**Exercise 6.6** Let  $U(x, y) = \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ . Show that  $U(x, y)$  is solution of the problem

$$\begin{cases} \Delta U(x, y) = 0 & \text{for } 1 < x^2 + y^2 < 4 \\ U(x, y) = 0 & \text{for } x^2 + y^2 = 1 \\ U(x, y) = \ln 2 & \text{for } x^2 + y^2 = 4 \end{cases}$$

**Exercise 6.7** 1. Let  $U : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a scalar function. Show that, if  $U$  and  $U^2$  are harmonic, then  $U$  is constant on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

2. Let  $U = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x \neq 0\}$ . Find all the mappings  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of class  $C^2$  such that the mapping  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x, y) = \varphi\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$  is harmonic.

**Exercise 6.8** Determine  $f(y)$  that verifies  $f(0) = 0$  so that the vector field

$$\vec{V} = (1 - x^2) \vec{i} + f(y) \vec{j} + (2x - y)z \vec{k}$$

is solenoidal (i.e.  $\text{div } \vec{H} = 0$ ).

**Exercise 6.9** Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  and consider the vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  defined by

$$\vec{V} = (x + 2y + az) \vec{i} + (bx - 3y - z) \vec{j} + (4x + cy + 2z) \vec{k}.$$

1. Find the constants  $a, b, c$  so that  $\vec{V}$  is a gradient field (i.e.  $\text{curl } \vec{V} = \vec{0}$ ).
2. Express  $\vec{V}$  as the gradient of a scalar potential.

**Exercise 6.10** Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^1$  and consider the vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  defined by

$$\vec{V} = (yz + x^2y^3) \vec{i} + (xz + x^3y^2) \vec{j} + g(x, y) \vec{k}.$$

1. Find the expression of  $g(x, y)$  verifying  $g(0, 0) = 0$  for  $\vec{V}$  to be a gradient field.
2. Find then  $f$  such that  $\text{grad } f = \vec{V}$  verifying  $f(1, 0, 1) = 0$ .

**Exercise 6.11** Let  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^1$  and consider the vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  defined by

$$\vec{V} = 2xzg(z) \vec{i} - 2yzg(z) \vec{j} + (y^2 - x^2)g(z) \vec{k}.$$

1. Determine  $g(z)$  verifying  $g(0) = 0$  for  $\vec{V}$  to be a gradient field.
2. Determine then the potential  $f$  of  $\vec{V}$ .

**Exercise 6.12** In what follows, prove that the differential form is total and determine  $f(x, y)$  such that  $df(x, y) = \omega$  :

1.  $\omega = (\sin y - y \cos x)dx + (x \cos y - \sin x)dy$ , with  $f(0, 0) = 0$
2.  $\omega = (2x - y)e^x dx + xe^x dy$ , for  $x > 0$

**Exercise 6.13** In what follows, prove that the differential form is total and determine  $f(x, y, z)$  such that  $df(x, y, z) = \omega$  :

1.  $\omega = 6xzdxdy + 6yzdydz + 3(x^2 + y^2 - 2z^2)dz$ , with  $f(0, 0, 0) = 0$
2.  $\omega = (-2 \arctan x + y \ln z)dx + x \ln z dy + \frac{xy}{z} dz$ , for  $z > 0$

**Exercise 6.14** Consider the following differential form

$$\omega = \frac{x-y}{x}dx + dy, \text{ for } x > 0.$$

1. Show that  $\omega$  is not total.
2. Find an integrating factor  $\mu = \mu(x)$  verifying  $\mu(1) = 1$  such that  $\mu\omega$  is total.
3. Integrate  $\mu\omega$ .

**Exercise 6.15** Consider the differential form

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}dx + \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x}{y\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}dy.$$

1. Set  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ . Express  $\omega$  in terms of  $r$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $dr$  and  $d\theta$ .
2. Find a function  $F(r, \theta)$  such that  $dF(r, \theta) = \omega$  and deduce the solution of the differential equation  $\omega = 0$ .

**Exercise 6.16** Consider the following differential form

$$\omega = y(y - x - 1)dx + xdy.$$

1. Show that  $\omega$  is not total.
2. Show that  $\omega$  has an integrating factor of the form  $\mu(x, y) = \frac{f(x)}{y^2}$ .
3. Integrate the differential equation  $y(y - x - 1) + xy' = 0$ .

**Exercise 6.17** Consider the following differential form

$$\omega = -dx - xdy + 2ze^{-y}dz.$$

1. Show that  $\omega$  is not total.
2. Show that  $\omega$  has an integrating factor.
3. Find an integrating factor  $\mu = \mu(y)$  such that  $\mu(0) = 1$ .
4. Deduce the solutions of the differential equation  $\omega = 0$ .

**Exercise 6.18** Consider the following differential form

$$\omega = yzdx - xzdy + (x^2 + xy)dz.$$

1. Show that  $\omega$  is not total.
2. Show that  $\omega$  has an integrating factor.
3. Find the constant  $\alpha$  so that  $\mu(x, y) = (x + y)^\alpha$  is an integrating factor of  $\omega$ .
4. Deduce the solutions of the differential equation  $\omega = 0$ .

**Exercise 6.19** Consider the following differential form

$$\omega = ydx + 2xdy + 3xydz.$$

1. Show that  $\omega$  is not total.
2. Show that  $\omega$  has an integrating factor.
3. Find the constant  $m$  so that  $\mu(y, z) = ye^{mz}$  is an integrating factor of  $\omega$ .
4. Find the function  $f(x, y, z)$  that verifies  $df(x, y, z) = \mu(y, z)\omega$  with  $f(0, 0, 0) = 0$ .