Notes on Differential Calculus

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1. Differentiability

Definition 1.1: Let $f:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}^n$, and let $f_i=\pi_i\circ f$ be its components. Then, f is differentiable at $t_0\in(a,b)$ if the following limit exists.

$$f'(t_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(t_0 + h) - f(t_0)}{h}.$$

Remark: The vector $f'(t_0)$ represents the tangent to the curve f at the point $f(t_0)$. The full tangent line is the parametric curve $f(t) + f'(t_0)(t - t_0)$.

Definition 1.2: Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, and let $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$. Then, f is differentiable at $x \in U$ if there exists a linear transformation $\lambda: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ such that

$$\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x) - \lambda h}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

The derivative of f at x is denoted by $\lambda = Df(x)$.

Remark: In a neighbourhood of x, we may approximate

$$f(x+h) \approx f(x) + Df(x)(h)$$
.

Remark: The statement that this quantity goes to zero means that each of the m components must also go to zero. For each of these limits, there are n axes along which we can let $h \to 0$. As a result, we obtain $m \times n$ limits, which allow us to identify the $m \times n$ components of the matrix representing the linear transformation λ (in the standard basis). These are the partial derivatives of f, and the matrix of λ is the Jacobian matrix of f evaluated at f.

Example: Let $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear map. By choosing $\lambda = T$, we see that T is differentiable everywhere, with DT(x) = T for every choice of $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. This is made obvious by the fact

that the best linear approximation of a linear map at some point is the map itself; indeed, the 'approximation' is exact.

Lemma 1.1: If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable at $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with derivative Df(x), then

- 1. f is continuous at x.
- 2. The linear transformation Df(x) is unique.

Proof: We prove the second part. Suppose that λ , μ satisfy the requirements for Df(x); it can be shown that $\lim_{h\to 0} (\lambda - \mu)h / ||h|| = 0$. Now, if $\lambda v \neq \mu v$ for some non-zero vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$\lambda v - \mu v = \frac{\lambda(tv) - \mu(tv)}{\|tv\|} \cdot \|v\| \to 0,$$

a contradiction.

2. Chain rule

Exercise I: Let $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear transformation. Then, there exists M > 0 such that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have

$$||Tx|| \leq M||x||.$$

Solution: Set $v_i = T(e_i)$ where e_i are the standard unit basis vectors of \mathbb{R}^n . Then,

$$\|T\boldsymbol{x}\| = \left\|\sum_i x_i \boldsymbol{v}_i\right\| \leq \sum_i \|x_i \boldsymbol{v}_i\| \leq \max \|\boldsymbol{v}_i\| \sum_i |x_i|.$$

Since each $|x_i| \leq ||x||$, set $M = n \max ||v_i||$ and write

$$\|T\boldsymbol{x}\| \leq \max \|\boldsymbol{v}_i\| \sum_i |x_i| \leq \max \|\boldsymbol{v}_i\| \cdot n \|\boldsymbol{x}\| = M \|\boldsymbol{x}\|.$$

Theorem 2.1 (Chain Rule): Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, $g: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$ where f is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and g is differentiable at $f(a) \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then, $g \circ f$ is differentiable, with $D(g \circ f)(a) = Dg(f(a)) \circ Df(a)$. Note that this means that the Jacobian matrices simply multiply.

Proof: Set
$$b=f(a)\in\mathbb{R}^m,\,\lambda=Df(a),\,\mu=Dg(f(a)).$$
 Define
$$\varphi:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^m,\quad \varphi(x)=f(x)-f(a)-\lambda(x-a),$$

$$\psi:\mathbb{R}^m\to\mathbb{R}^k,\quad \psi(y)=g(y)-g(b)-\mu(y-b).$$

We claim that

$$\lim_{x\to a}\frac{g\circ f(x)-g\circ f(a)-\mu\circ\lambda(x-a)}{\|x-a\|}=0.$$

Write the numerator as

$$g \circ f(x) - g \circ f(a) - \mu \circ \lambda(x - a) = \psi(f(x)) + \mu(\varphi(x)).$$

Note that

$$\lim_{x\to a}\frac{\varphi(x)}{\|x-a\|}=0,\quad \lim_{y\to b}\frac{\psi(y)}{\|y-b\|}=0.$$

Thus, find M > 0 such that

$$\|\mu(\varphi(x))\| \le \|\varphi(x)\|$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, hence

$$\lim_{x\to a}\frac{\|\mu(\varphi(x))\|}{\|x-a\|}\leq \lim_{\{x\to a\}}\frac{M\|\varphi(x)\|}{\|x-a\|}=0.$$

Now write

$$\lim_{f(x)\to b}\frac{\psi(f(x))}{\|f(x)-b\|}=0,$$

hence for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a neighbourhood of b on which

$$\|\psi(f(x))\| \leq \varepsilon \|f(x) - b\| = \varepsilon \|\varphi(x) + \lambda(x-a)\|.$$

Apply the triangle inequality and find M' > 0 such that

$$\|\psi(f(x))\| \leq \varepsilon \|\varphi(x)\| + \varepsilon M' \|x - a\|.$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{x\to a}\frac{\|\psi(f(x))\|}{\|x-a\|}\leq \lim_{x\to a}\frac{\varepsilon\|\varphi(x)\|}{\|x-a\|}+\varepsilon M'=\varepsilon M'.$$

Since $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, this limit is zero, completing the proof.

3. Partial derivatives

Definition 3.1: Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, and let $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$. The partial derivative of f with respect to the coordinate x_i at some $a \in U$ is defined by the following limit, if it exists.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f\big(a + h e_j\big) - f(a)}{h}.$$

Lemma 3.1: If $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at a point $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then

$$Df(a)(x_1,...,x_n)=x_1, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a)+...+x_n, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a).$$

Example: Consider

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}, \quad (x,y) \mapsto \begin{cases} (xy) / (x^2 + y^2), & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0). \end{cases}$$

Note that f is not differentiable at (0,0); it is not even continuous there. However, both partial derivatives of f exist at (0,0).

Lemma 3.2: If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then the matrix representation of Df(a) in the standard basis is given by

$$[Df(a)] = \left[\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)\right]_{ij}.$$

Lemma 3.3: Let $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and let $g:\mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^k$ be differentiable at $f(a) \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then, the matrix representation of $D(g \circ f)(a)$ in the standard basis is the product

$$[D(g\circ f)(a)] = [Dg(f(a))][Df(a)] = \left[\sum_{\ell=1}^m \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_\ell} \frac{\partial f_\ell}{\partial x_j}\right]_{ij}.$$

In other words,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}(g\circ f)_{i}(a)=\sum_{\ell=1}^{m}\frac{\partial g_{i}}{\partial y_{\ell}}(f(a))\frac{\partial f_{\ell}}{\partial x_{j}}(a).$$

Example: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable, and let $\Gamma(f) = \{(x, y, f(x, y)) : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the graph of f. Now, let $\gamma: [-1, 1] \to \Gamma(f)$ be a differentiable curve, represented by

$$\gamma(t) = (g(t), h(t), f(g(t), h(t))).$$

Then, we can compute the derivative

$$\gamma'(a) = \left(g'(a), h'(a), g'(a) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + h'(a) \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{(g(a), h(a))}\right)$$

Exercise II: Consider the inner product map, $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. What is its derivative?

Solution: We treat the inner product as a map $g: \mathbb{R}^{2n} \to \mathbb{R}$, which acts as

$$\langle x, y \rangle \coloneqq g(x_1, ..., x_n, y_1, ..., y_n) = x_1 y_1 + ... + x_n y_n$$

Now, note that

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i} = y_i, \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial y_i} = x_i.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{split} Dg(\boldsymbol{a},\boldsymbol{b})(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}(\boldsymbol{a},\boldsymbol{b}) + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \frac{\partial g}{\partial y_i}(\boldsymbol{a},\boldsymbol{b}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i b_i + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i a_i \\ &= \langle \boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{b} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{a} \rangle. \end{split}$$

In other words, the matrix representation of the derivative of the inner product map at the point (a, b) is given by $\begin{bmatrix} b^{\top} a^{\top} \end{bmatrix}$.

Exercise III: Let $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a differentiable curve. What is the derivative of the real map $t \mapsto \|\gamma(t)\|^2$?

Solution: We write this map as $t \mapsto \langle \gamma(t), \gamma(t) \rangle$. Consider the scheme

$$\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^{2n} \to \mathbb{R}, \quad t \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \gamma(t) \\ \gamma(t) \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \langle \gamma(t), \gamma(t) \rangle.$$

Pick a point $t \in \mathbb{R}$, whence the derivative of the map at t is

$$\left(\gamma(t)^{\top} \ \gamma(t)^{\top}\right) \left(egin{matrix} \gamma'(t) \ \gamma'(t) \end{matrix}
ight) = 2 \langle \gamma(t), \gamma'(t)
angle.$$

Remark: Consider the surface $S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, and pick an arbitrary differentiable curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \to S^{n-1}$. Now, the tangent vector $\gamma'(t)$ is tangent to the sphere S^{n-1} at any point $\gamma(t)$. We claim that this tangent drawn at $\gamma(t)$ is always perpendicular to the position vector $\gamma(t)$. This is made trivial by our exercise: the map $t \mapsto \|\gamma(t)\|^2 = 1$ is a constant map since γ is a curve on the unit sphere. This means that it has zero derivative, forcing $\langle \gamma(t), \gamma'(t) \rangle = 0$.

3.1. Directional derivatives

Definition 3.1.1: Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, and let $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$. The directional derivative of f along a direction $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ at a point $a \in U$ is defined by the following limit, if it exists.

$$\nabla_v f(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a + hv) - f(a)}{h}.$$

Example: Consider

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}, \quad (x,y) \mapsto \begin{cases} x^3 / (x^2 + y^2), & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0). \end{cases}$$

Note that f is not differentiable at (0,0). However, all directional derivatives derivatives of f exist at (0,0). Indeed, consider a direction $(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$, and examine the limit

$$\lim_{t\to 0} \frac{1}{t} [f(t\cos\theta, t\sin\theta) - f(0,0)] = \cos^3\theta.$$

Definition 3.1.2: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. The gradient of f is defined as the map

$$\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n, \quad x \mapsto \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x)\right]_i.$$

Remark: The gradient at a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is thought of as a vector. In contrast, the derivative is thought of as a linear transformation. Otherwise, we see that $\nabla f(x) = [Df(x)]$.

Definition 3.1.3: Let $C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be the set of real-valued differentiable functions on \mathbb{R}^n . Fix a point $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then fix a tangent vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, the map

$$\nabla_v : C^1(\mathbb{R}^n) \to \mathbb{R}, \quad f \mapsto Df(a)(v)$$

is a linear functional. The quantity $\nabla_v f$ is called the directional derivative of f in the direction v at the point a.

Remark: We can represent ∇_v as the operator

$$\nabla_v(\cdot) = D(\cdot)(a)(v) = \sum_i v_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \bigg|_a = v \cdot \nabla(\cdot).$$

Lemma 3.1.1: The directional derivatives ∇_v form a vector space called the tangent space, attached to the point $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$. This can be identified with the vector space \mathbb{R}^n by the natural map $\nabla_v \mapsto v$. The standard basis can be informally denoted by the vectors

$$\nabla_{e_1} \coloneqq \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \quad \dots \quad , \nabla_{e_n} \coloneqq \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}.$$

3.2. Differentiation on manifolds *

Definition 3.2.1: A homeomorphism is a continuous, bijective map whose inverse is also continuous.

Lemma 3.2.1: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Denote the graph of f as

$$\Gamma(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

Then, $\Gamma(f)$ is a smooth manifold.

Proof: Consider the homeomorphism

$$\varphi: \Gamma(f) \to \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (x, f(x)) \mapsto x.$$

This is clearly bijective, continuous (restriction of a projection map), with a continuous inverse (from the continuity of f). Call this homeomorphism φ a coordinate map on $\Gamma(f)$.

Definition 3.2.2: Let $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$ where M is a smooth manifold, with a coordinate map $\varphi: M \to \mathbb{R}^n$. We say that f is differentiable at a point $a \in M$ if $f \circ \varphi^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $\varphi(a)$.

Definition 3.2.3: Let $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$ where M is a smooth manifold, let $\varphi: M \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a coordinate map, and let $a \in M$. Let $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \to M$ be a curve such that $\gamma(0) = a$, and further let γ be differentiable in the sense that $\varphi \circ \gamma: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable. The directional derivative of f at a along γ is defined as

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} f(\gamma(t)) \right|_{t=0} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\gamma(t+h)) - f(\gamma(t))}{h} \bigg|_{t=0}.$$

Note that we are taking the derivative of $f \circ \gamma : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ in the conventional sense.

Lemma 3.2.2: Let γ_1 and γ_2 be two curves in M such that $\gamma_1(0)=\gamma_2(0)=a$, and

$$\frac{d}{dt}\varphi\circ\gamma_1(t)\Big|_{t=0}=\frac{d}{dt}\varphi\circ\gamma_2(t)\Big|_{t=0}.$$

In other words, γ_1 and γ_2 pass through the same point a at t=0, and have the same velocities there. Then, the directional derivatives of f at a along γ_1 and γ_2 are the same.

Definition 3.2.4: Let M be a smooth manifold, and let $a \in M$. Consider the following equivalence relation on the set of all curves γ in M such that $\gamma(0) = a$.

$$\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2 \ \implies \ \frac{d}{dt} \varphi \circ \gamma_1(t) \big|_{t=0} = \frac{d}{dt} \varphi \circ \gamma_2(t) \big|_{t=0}.$$

Each resultant equivalence class of curves is called a tangent vector at $a \in M$. Note that all these curves in a particular equivalence class pass through a with the same velocity vector.

The collection of all such tangent vectors, i.e. the space of all curves through a modulo the equivalence relation which identifies curves with the same velocity vector through a, is called the tangent space to M at a, denoted T_aM .

Remark: Each tangent vector $v \in T_aM$ acts on a differentiable function $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$ yielding a (well-defined) directional derivative at a.

$$v:C^1(M)\to\mathbb{R},\quad f\mapsto \frac{d}{dt}f\big(\gamma_v(t)\big)\big|_{t=0}.$$

Thus, the tangent space represents all the directions in which taking a derivative of f makes sense.

Remark: The tangent space T_aM is a vector space. Upon fixing f, the map $Df(a):T_aM\to\mathbb{R}$, $v\mapsto vf(a)$ is a linear functional on the tangent space.

Remark: Given a tangent vector $v \in T_aM$, it can be identified with its corresponding velocity vector in \mathbb{R}^n . Thus, the tangent space T_aM can be identified with the geometric tangent plane drawn to the manifold M at the point a.

4. Mean value theorem

Consider a differentiable function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, and fix $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Define the functions

$$g_{_{\boldsymbol{i}}}:\mathbb{R}\rightarrow\mathbb{R},\quad g_{_{\boldsymbol{i}}}(x)=f\big(a_1,...,a_{i-1},x,a_{i+1},...,a_n\big).$$

Then, each g_i is differentiable, with

$$g_{i}{'}(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(a_{1},...,a_{i-1},x,a_{i+1},...,a_{n}).$$

By applying the Mean Value Theorem on some interval [c,d], we can find $\alpha \in (c,d)$ such that $g_i(d)-g_i(c)=g_i{'}(\alpha)(d-c)$. In other words,

$$f(...,d,...)-f(...,c,...)=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(...,\alpha,...)(d-c).$$

Theorem 4.1: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, f is differentiable at a if all the partial derivatives $\partial f / \partial x_i$ exist in a neighbourhood of a and are continuous at a.

Proof: Without loss of generality, let m = 1. We claim that

$$\lim_{h\to 0}\frac{1}{\|h\|} \left\| f(a+h) - f(a) - \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) h_i \right\| = 0.$$

Examine

$$\begin{split} f(a+h)-f(a) &= f(a_1+h_1,...,a_n+h_n)-f(a_1,...,a_n)\\ &= f(a_1+h_1,...,a_n+h_n)-f(a_1+h_1,...,a_{n-1}+h_{n-1},a_n)+\\ & f(a_1+h_1,...,a_{n-1}+h_{n-1},a_n)-f(a_1+h_1,...,a_{n-1},a_n)+\\ & ...\\ & f(a_1+h_1,a_2,...,a_n)-f(a_1,...,a_n)\\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(c_n)h_n+...+\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(c_1)h_1. \end{split}$$

The last step follows from the Mean Value Theorem. As $h \to 0$, each $c_i \to a$. Thus,

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{\|h\|} \left\| f(a+h) - f(a) - \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) h_i \right\| &= \frac{1}{\|h\|} \left\| \sum_{i=0}^n \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(c_i) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) \right) h_i \right\| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^n \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(c_i) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) \right| \frac{|h_i|}{\|h\|} \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^n \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(c_i) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) \right|. \end{split}$$

Taking the limit $h \to 0$, observe that $(\partial f / \partial x_i)(c_i) \to (\partial f / \partial x_i)(a)$ by the continuity of the partial derivatives, completing the proof.

Corollary 4.1.1: All polynomial functions on \mathbb{R}^n are differentiable.

Theorem 4.2: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable with continuous partial derivatives, and let $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be a point of local maximum. Then, Df(a) = 0.

Proof: We need only show that each

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) = 0.$$

This must be true, since a is also a local maximum of each of the restrictions g_i as defined earlier. \Box

5. Inverse and implicit function theorems

Theorem 5.1 (Inverse function theorem): Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be continuously differentiable on a neighbourhood of $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and let $\det (Df(a)) \neq 0$. Then, there exist neighbourhoods U of a and W of f(a) such that the restriction $f: U \to W$ is invertible. Furthermore, f^{-1} is continuous on U and differentiable on U.

Lemma 5.2: Consider a continuously differentiable function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, and let M denote the surface defined by the zero set of f. Then, M can be represented as the graph of a differentiable function $h: \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \to \mathbb{R}$ at those points where $Df \neq 0$.

Proof: Without loss of generality, suppose that $\partial f / \partial x_n \neq 0$ at some point $a \in M$. It can be shown that the map

$$F:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^n,\quad x\mapsto (x_1,x_2,...,x_{n-1},f(x))$$

is invertible in a neighbourhood W of a, with a continuous and differentiable inverse of the form

$$G: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n, \quad u \mapsto (u_1, u_2, ..., u_{n-1}, g(u)).$$

Since $F \circ G$ must be the identity map on W, we demand

$$(x_1,x_2,...,x_{n-1},f(x_1,x_2,...,x_{n-1},g(x)))=(x_1,x_2,...,x_{n-1},x_n).$$

Thus, the zero set of f in this neighbourhood of a satisfies $x_n=0$, hence

$$f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{n-1}, g(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{n-1}, 0)) = 0.$$

In other words, the part of the surface M in the neighbourhood of a is precisely the set of points

$$(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{n-1}, g(x_1, x_2, ..., x_{n-1}, 0)).$$

Simply set

$$h:\mathbb{R}^{n-1}\to\mathbb{R},\quad x\mapsto g(x_1,x_2,...,x_{n-1},0),$$

whence the surface M is locally represented by the graph of h.

Remark: Note that by using

$$f(x_1, ..., x_{n-1}, h(x_1, ..., x_{n-1})) = 0$$

on the surface, we can use the chain rule to conclude that for all $1 \le i < n$, we have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a) \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i}(a_1,...,a_{n-1}) = 0.$$

Theorem 5.3 (Implicit function theorem): Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be continuously differentiable in an open set containing (a,b), with f(a,b)=0. Let $\det\left(\partial f^j / \partial x_{n+k}(a,b)\right) \neq 0$. Then, there exists an open set $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ containing a, an open set $V \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ containing b, and a differentiable function $g: U \to V$ such that f(x,g(x))=0.

Remark: The condition on the determinant can be rephrased as rank Df(a,b) = m.

Theorem 5.4: Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuously differentiable, and let M be the surface defined by its zero set. Furthermore, let $\nabla f(a) \neq 0$ for some $a \in M$; thus, M can be locally represented by a graph on \mathbb{R}^{n-1} . Then, $\nabla f(a)$ is normal to the tangent vectors drawn at a to M; in fact, the perpendicular space of $\nabla f(a)$ is precisely the tangent space T_aM .

Proof: Consider a tangent vector drawn at a to M, represented by the differentiable curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \to M, \gamma(0) = a$; note that we use the identification $\gamma'(0) = v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, calculate

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(\gamma(t))\big|_{t=0} = Df(\gamma(0))(\gamma'(0)) = Df(a)(v).$$

On the other hand, we have $f(\gamma(t)) = 0$ identically. Thus,

$$v \cdot \nabla f(a) = Df(a)(v) = 0$$

as claimed.

6. Taylor's theorem

Theorem 6.1 (Clairaut): Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ have continuous second order partial derivatives. Then,

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}.$$

Theorem 6.2 (Taylor): Let $f:\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ have continuous second order partial derivatives, and let $\left(x_0,y_0\right)\in\mathbb{R}^2$. Then, there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that for all $\left\|\left(x-x_0,y-y_0\right)\right\|<\varepsilon$,

$$\begin{split} f(x,y) &= f\Big(x_0,y_0\Big) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x-x_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\Big(y-y_0\Big) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x-x_0)^2 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}\Big(y-y_0\Big)^2 \\ &+ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x-x_0)(y-x_0) + R(x,y), \end{split}$$

where as $(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)$, the remainder term vanishes as

$$\frac{|R(x,y)|}{\left\|\left(x-x_0,y-y_0\right)\right\|^2}\to 0.$$

All partial derivatives here are evaluated at (x_0, y_0) .

Proof: This follows from applying the Taylor's Theorem in one variable to the real function $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, t \mapsto f \big((1-t) \big(x_0, y_0 \big) + t(x,y) \big).$

7. Critical points and extrema

Definition 7.1: We say that $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a critical point of $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ if all $\partial f / \partial x^j = 0$ there.

Lemma 7.1: All points of extrema of a differentiable function are critical points.

Proof: We already know that Df(a)=0 where a is either a point of maximum or minimum. \square *Example*: In order to find a point of extrema of a C^2 -smooth function $f:\mathbb{R}^2\to\mathbb{R}$, we first identify a critical point $\left(x_0,y_0\right)$. Next, we must find a neighbourhood of $\left(x_0,y_0\right)$ which contains no other critical points – to do this, apply Taylor's Theorem. Indeed, we see that

$$f(x,y) = f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) + A(x-x_{0})^{2} + 2B(x-x_{0})\left(y-y_{0}\right) + C\left(y-y_{0}\right)^{2} + R_{2}.$$

For non-degeneracy of solutions, we demand $AC-B^2 \neq 0$, i.e. at $\left(x_0,y_0\right)$, we want

$$\left[\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right]^2 \neq \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}.$$

If $AC-B^2>0$ and $\partial^2 f/\partial x^2>0$, then we have found a point of minima; if $\partial^2 f/\partial x^2<0$, then we have found a point of maximum. If $AC-B^2<0$, then we have found a saddle point.

Example: Suppose that we wish to maximize the function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$, given an equation of constraint g=0, where $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$. Using the method of Lagrange multipliers, we look for solutions of the system

$$\begin{cases} \nabla f(x,y) + \lambda \nabla g(x,y) = 0 \\ g(x,y) = 0. \end{cases}$$