

CALCULUS 3

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Part 1. Introduction

- In calculus 1 we learnt about transformation as this form :

$$y = f(x), f : \mathbb{R}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$$

- In calculus 2 we learnt about transformation as this form :

$$y = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m), f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$$

- In calculus 3 we will learn about transformation in this form :

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ &\vdots \\ y_n &= f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \end{aligned}, f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$$

Part 2. Norms

Signs Convention

\forall for all

\exists exists

Definition. $\delta_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$ kronecker delta

Definition. column vector = $\begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ \vdots \\ x^d \end{pmatrix}$

Definition. line vector = $(x^1 \quad \dots \quad x^d)$

Definition. $y^i = \sum_j A_j^i x^j$ - is the multiplication of matrix with vector :

$$Mat_{m \times d}(\mathbb{R}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1^1 & \dots & a_d^1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_1^m & \dots & a_d^m \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^d a_j^1 x^j = a_1^1 x^1 + a_2^1 x^2 + \dots + a_d^1 x^d$$

Definition. euclidean space on \mathbb{R} is a vector space $Dim = d$ on \mathbb{R} with inner product is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and satisfies:

- (1) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0 \Rightarrow x = 0 \Leftrightarrow \langle x, x \rangle = 0$
- (2) $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- (3) $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \lambda \langle x, y \rangle$
- (4) $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

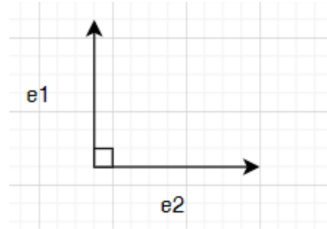
Definition. let $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^d$ base in \mathbb{R} then $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ defined as $g_{ij} = \langle e_i, e_j \rangle, \forall 1 \leq i, j \leq d$

because if , $x = \sum_{i=1}^d x^i e_i$ when $\begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ \vdots \\ x^d \end{pmatrix}$ -coordination of x on base $\{e_i\}$ and

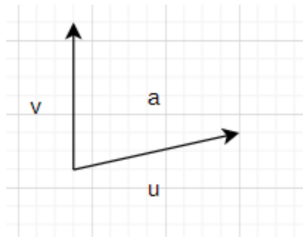
$y = \sum_{j=1}^d y^j e_j$ when $\begin{pmatrix} y^1 \\ \vdots \\ y^d \end{pmatrix}$ -coordination of y on base $\{e_i\}$.

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle \sum_{i=1}^d x^i e_i, \sum_{j=1}^d y^j e_j \rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^d x^i y^j \langle e_i, e_j \rangle = \sum_{i,j=1}^d x^i y^j g_{ij}$$

Example. $d = 2, \|e_1\| = \|e_2\| = 1, g_{ij} = \delta_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$ kroner delta, $i, j = 1, 2$.



$$\begin{aligned} \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle &= 1, g_{11} = g_{22} = 1 \\ \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle &= 1, g_{12} = g_{21} = 0 \\ \langle e_1, e_2 \rangle &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



$$\text{note : } \langle u, v \rangle = \|u\| \cdot \|v\| \cdot \cos \theta$$

Exercise. if $g_{11}, g_{12} = 1, g_{21} = -1, g_{22} = 9$ define scalar product on \mathbb{R}^2 ?

Answer : no.

Definition. the “Standrad” base on \mathbb{R}^d is a base $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^d$ is orthonormal : $g_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$. e $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle = 1, \langle e_i, e_j \rangle = 0, \forall i \neq j$ hence for

$$x = \sum x^i e_i, y = \sum y^j e_j, \langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i,j} x^i y^j g_{ij} = \sum_{i,j} x^i y^j \delta_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ \vdots \\ x^d \end{pmatrix}^t \begin{pmatrix} y^1 \\ \vdots \\ y^d \end{pmatrix}$$

(this defines a scalar product).

Definition. normal in \mathbb{R}^d is a function $\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and satisfies :

- (1) $\|x\| \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d \wedge \|x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$.
- (2) $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \cdot \|x\|$.
- (3) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$.

Definition. distance function (metrica) in \mathbb{R}^d which defined as a normal as a function

$$d(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, d(x, y) := \|x - y\|$$

Definition. euclidean normal on \mathbb{R}^d defined as $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \sqrt{(x^1)^2 + \dots + (x^d)^2}$

note: it stem from cauchy-shwartz enequality $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|$ i.e

$$|\sum_i x^i y^i| \leq \sqrt{\sum_i (x^i)^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_i (y^i)^2}$$

* exists other normals on \mathbb{R}^d for instance :

The l^∞ normal which defined as :

$$\|x\|_\infty := \max_{1 \leq i \leq d} |x^i|$$

Example. Let $\zeta(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R}^m)$ a vector space of $L.T$, if we denote bases B_i on $\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R}^m$ as $\forall T$ exists representaion matrix with respect to B_i $L_A : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, A \in Mat(m \times d)$.

$$\zeta(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R}^m) \cong \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}, \|A\|_{HS} := \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} (a_{ij}^j)^2} = \sqrt{Tr(A^t \cdot A)} (HS : Hilbert - Schmidt).$$

Example. The unit-ball **norm** is defined as :

$$\|x\|_p = (|x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Remark. The $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ norm is defined as max between the vector elements, for example in calculus-1 we showed that :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_1^p + x_2^p) = \max\{x_1, x_2\}$$

So the intiution is that we can generalize the follwing for vector with n demen-tions and not only 2 .

Fact. for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we $\exists n \in \mathbb{N} S.T :$

$$\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_1 \leq n \cdot \|x\|_\infty$$

Proof. first we notice that :

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2} \leq \sqrt{n} \cdot \max |x_i|$$

\Downarrow

$$\|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \sqrt{n} \cdot \|x\|_\infty$$

hence,

$$\frac{1}{n} \cdot \|x\|_1 \leq \|x\|_2 \leq \sqrt{n} \cdot \|x\|_1$$

We will keep the other direction for readers. □

Claim. $\|x\| = \|x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n\|$ is a continuous function in the n variables x_1, \dots, x_n .

Proof. Notice that :

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\| - \|y\| &\leq \|x - y\| = \|(x_1 - y_1)e_1 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)e_n\| \\ &\leq |x_1 - y_1| \cdot \|e_1\| + \dots + |x_n - y_n| \cdot \|e_n\| \end{aligned}$$

hence,

$$||x| - |y|| \leq |x_1 - y_1| \cdot \|e_1\| + \dots < \epsilon, \epsilon > 0$$

So $\|x\|$ is continuous function. □

Theorem. for every two norms $\|x\|, \|x\|^*$, $\exists m, M > 0$ S.T :

$$m \cdot \|x\| \leq \|x\|^* \leq M \cdot \|x\|$$

Proof. We will show the following, by using Triangle-Inequality first

$$\begin{aligned} \text{---}\mathbf{x+y}\text{---} &\leq \|x\| + \|y\| \rightarrow \|x + y\| - \|y\| \leq \|x\|: \\ \Downarrow w = x + y \rightarrow x = w - y: \\ \text{---}\mathbf{w}\text{---} &\| - \|y\| \leq \|w - y\|, \forall x, y, w \in \mathbb{R}^n: \end{aligned}$$

we will write every vector in the Standard-Base $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$

$$x = x_1e_1 + \dots + x_ne_n$$

Look at the set :

$$B = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) | x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 1\}$$

Look at the :

$$h(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\|x\|^*}{\|x\|} = \frac{\|x_1e_1 + \dots + x_ne_n\|^*}{\|x_1e_1 + \dots + x_ne_n\|}$$

On the set B $\|x\| \neq 0$ Since $\vec{0} \notin B$, Since $x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 1$ and $\vec{0}$ doesn't satisfy that.

Fact. h is a continuous function as a division of continuous functions (stem from previous claim).

Fact. h is a continuous in a compact set so it has max value by weistrass-theorem.

Corollary. by fact two we conclude the $\exists m, M > 0$ s.t :

$$0 < m \leq \frac{\|x\|^*}{\|x\|} \leq M, x \in B$$

Now we take random x (not necessarily in B), $R = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$ when

$$x = x_1e_1 + \dots + x_ne_n = R\left(\frac{x_1}{R}e_1 + \dots + \frac{x_n}{R}e_n\right)$$

But

$$\left(\frac{x_1}{R}e_1 + \dots + \frac{x_n}{R}e_n\right) \in B$$

\Downarrow

$$\frac{\|x\|^*}{\|x\|} = \frac{R\|\frac{x_1}{R}e_1 + \dots + \frac{x_n}{R}e_n\|^*}{R\|\frac{x_1}{R}e_1 + \dots + \frac{x_n}{R}e_n\|}, \frac{x_1}{R}e_1 + \dots + \frac{x_n}{R}e_n \in B$$

Hence,

$$0 < m \leq \frac{\|x\|^*}{\|x\|} \leq M, \forall x \neq 0$$

\Downarrow

$$m \cdot \|x\| \leq \|x\|^* \leq M \cdot \|x\|, \forall x$$

Q.E.D.

Exercise. show that $\forall A \in Mat_{n \times k}(\mathbb{R}), \exists M$ S.T $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\|A\vec{x}\|_{n-\mathbb{R}^k} \leq M \cdot \|x\|_{in-\mathbb{R}^n}$$

Example. he proof for $\|x\|_\infty$:

$$\|A\vec{x}\| = \max_{i=1,2,\dots,k} \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \right| \leq n \cdot \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}| \cdot \max_{j=1,2,\dots,n} |x_j|$$

when,

$$\max_{i,j} |a_{ij}| = M \in \mathbb{R}, \max_{j=1,2,\dots,n} |x_j| = \|x\|_\infty$$

Remark. we showed the exercise for $\|x\|_\infty$ **but** we also show it for every norm by the previous Theorem.

Part 3. continuous Functions

Definition. Function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is continuous in p_0 if $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta = \delta(\epsilon)$ S.T ;

$$\|F(p) - F(p_0)\|_{in-\mathbb{R}^k} < \epsilon$$

for all p $\|p - p_0\|_{in-\mathbb{R}^n} < \delta$

Remark. choosing norm doesn't change, if one good for any delta, for the other we choose works with other delta, for example $\|\cdot\|_\infty$:

$$\forall i, |F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - F_i(x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0)| < \epsilon$$

when :

$$\max_{j=1,\dots,n} |x_j - x_j^0| < \delta$$

Corollary. Function is continuous \iff every one of it k elements continuous separately in it's n variables x_1, \dots, x_n .

Part 4. Toplogy

Definition. A neighborhood of point p_0 is

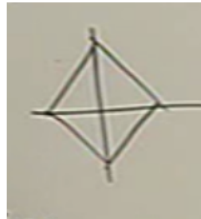
$$N = \{p : \|p - p_0\| < r\}$$

for example in the plane xy we can have different neighborhood depend on the norm :

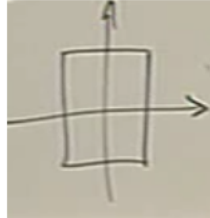
$$\|\vec{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} < r \text{ (circle),}$$



$$\|\vec{x}\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| < r$$



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



Remark. every one of those neighborhood can obtain other by taking good bounder $M \in \mathbb{R}$.

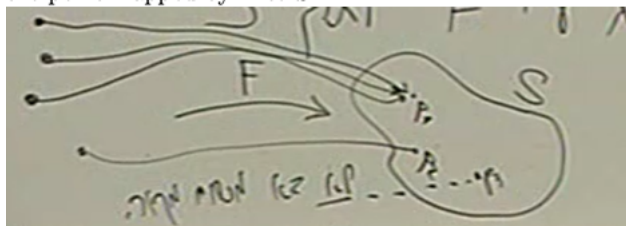
Definition. Given a set S , a point p_0 is interior point of S if $p_0 \in S$ and $\exists N$ neighborhood of p_0 S.T $N \subset S$.



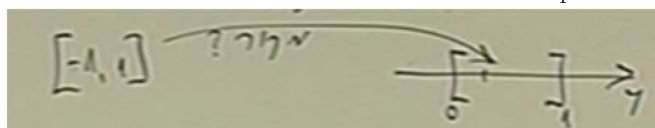
Definition. A set S is called open if $\forall p_0 \in S$, exist a neighborhood which is subset of S i.e $\forall p_0 \in S$, p_0 is interior point.

Example. $x^2 + y^2 < 1$ is open **BUT** $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ not opened since it's include the bounder.

Definition. Given a transformation F , the **source** of a set S by F (pre-image) is all the point mapped by F to S .



Example. $F : y = x^2$ what is the **source** of $y = \frac{1}{4}$?



The (pre-Image) $x = \{\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\}$

Exercise. Does continuous function map open set to open set?

Solution. **not necessarily** for example look at $F : y = x^2, (-1, 1) \rightarrow [0, 1)$
notice that $(-1, 1)$ is open set **BUT** $[0, 1)$ **is not open**.

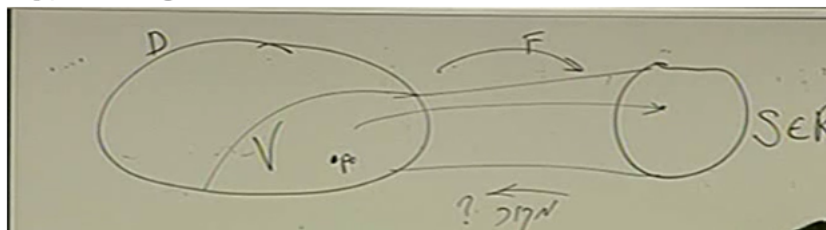
Theorem. let $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open set and a transformation $F : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ continuous.

Then **pre-image** of every open set in \mathbb{R}^k is open in \mathbb{R}^n .

proof.: let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ open set the source $V = \{p \in D | F(p) \in S\}$

We need to show that **V OPEN SOURCE** . first we take a $p_0 \in V$ we will show that p_0 has a neighborhood in V .

that p_0 has a neighborhood in V .



p_0 is in the source of S , so p_0 is mapped to $q_0 \in S$ i.e. $F(p_0) = q_0 \in S$.

Given that S **open** so q_0 has neighborhood $N \subset S$ when

$$N = \{q : \|q - q_0\| < \epsilon\} \subset S$$

F is continuous map, so $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta_1(\epsilon) > 0$ S.T

$$\|F(p) - F(p_0)\| < \epsilon$$

when

$$\|p - p_0\| < \delta_1, p \in D$$



Also D is open, $p_0 \in D$, there is neighborhood $\|p - p_0\| < \delta_2$ in D .

let

$$\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$$

then $\|p - p_0\| < \delta$ is a neighborhood of p_0 , hence, it's image in S , So all of it in the **SOURCE** V .

Q.E.D.

reminder.: we showed that source of open set by continuous map is open set.

Theorem. Given $F : D \subset \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, D is open set.

F continuous \iff for every open set S , the source by F is open.

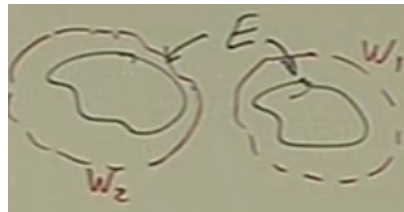
Remark. we showed the first direction, the other direction is exercise for readers.

Definition. A set E is **connected** if not possible to cover it by two open **dis-joint, open** sets W_1, W_2 , in which every set obtain points of E i.e

- (1) $W_1 \cap W_2 = \emptyset$
- (2) W_1, W_2 **open**
- (3) $E \subset W_1 \cup W_2$
- (4) $W_1 \cap E \neq \emptyset, W_2 \cap E \neq \emptyset$

Example. Our graph intuition is :

if E is not-connected :



if E is connected then :



we notice that $W_1 \cap W_2$ can't be \emptyset , since there is intersections point on the boundaries of each set.

so we can ask whether this point related to, W_1, W_2 if in both then intersection not empty, if not in both then it's not covered.

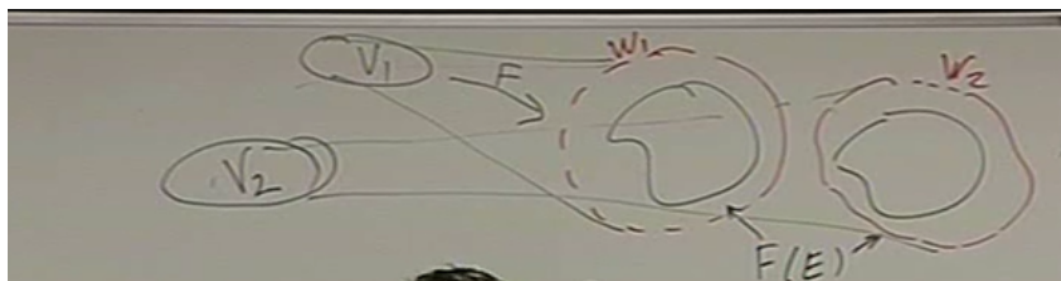
Theorem. *continuous function map connected set to connected set.*

proof.:

$E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ connected, $F : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow F(E) \subset \mathbb{R}^k$, we need to show that $F(E)$ connected.

Assume toward contradiction that $F(E)$ is not connected, then $\exists W_1, W_2$ **open, disjoint** S.T $F(E) \subset W_1 \cup W_2$ Moreover, $W_i \cap F(E) \neq \emptyset, i = 1, 2$.

graph-intiuition.:



Denote the pre-images of W_1, W_2 as V_1, V_2 a source of open set (by previous-Theorem)

Since we show that **Source** of open set by continuous function is open, So V_1, V_2 are too.

Notice that $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ (trivial-claim), **Disjoint** Since not possible common points (assume toward contradiction that it's not the case then F will map it to a common point **but** $W_1 \cap W_2 = \emptyset$ so it's contradiction).

Now, $V_1 \cup V_2$ obtain E , Since E is connected so by the definition of connected set, assume without loss of generality that $E \subset V_1$, So, V_2 disjoint to E hence, W_2 **Disjoint** to E i.e

$$E \subset V_1, F(E) \subset W_1 = F(V_1) \wedge W_2 = F(V_2) \cap E = \emptyset$$

So we got contradiction to the fact that $W_i \cap F(E) \neq \emptyset, i = 1, 2 \Rightarrow F(E)$ is connected.

Q.E.D.

Definition. A set called closed if it's obtain all its limit point. for every point sequence of the set.

Theorem. S is closed $\iff \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$ is open.

Proof. we will show both Directions.

\Rightarrow

Let S open we will show that $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$ is closed.

Take sequence $\{p_k\}$ from S and assume that there is a limit point \tilde{p} .

We will show that $\tilde{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$ **Assume toward contradiction** that $\tilde{p} \notin \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$. then $\tilde{p} \in S$. S is open set therefore, for \tilde{p} exist neighborhood

$$N = \{p : \|p - \tilde{p}\| < r\} \subset S$$

In N there is no point of $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$, explicitly, there is no point $\{p_k\}$ hence,

$$\|p_k - \tilde{p}\| > r$$

So \tilde{p} is not limit point, So we get contradiction $\Rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$ **closed**.

\Leftarrow

Assume that $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$ **closed** and we will show that S is **open**.

Take $\tilde{p} \in S$, in order to show that S **open** we need to find neighborhood N of \tilde{p} in S . **Assume toward contradiction** that any neighborhood of \tilde{p} in S . for instance take :

$$\|p - \tilde{p}\| < \frac{1}{k}$$

So in obtain at least one point $p_k \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S, p_k \neq \tilde{p}$, it's true $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$, Hence, we get sequence of points

$$p_1, p_2, \dots \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S, \|p_k - \tilde{p}\| < \frac{1}{k}$$

i.e $p_k \rightarrow \tilde{p}, p_k \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$. it's contradiction that $\tilde{p} \in S \Rightarrow S$ is **open**. \square

Remark. This Theorem require working with definitions, which make it easy.

Definition. A set S is bounded if it's obtained in a ball i.e $\|x\| \leq R, \forall x \in S$.

Example. The infinite norm which defined as :

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_{i=1,2,\dots,n} |x_i| \leq R$$

Corollary. *A set is bounded if each of its coordinates is bounded.*

Theorem. *let F continuous function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ if S closed and bounded then $F(S)$ is closed and bounded.*

Exercise. find **counter example** for the following (F continuous map) :

- (1) S closed $\Rightarrow F(S)$ is closed.
- (2) S bounded $\Rightarrow F(S)$ bounded

Solution 1. for example on \mathbb{R} , take $F(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$, F maps the natural number to a set which has 1 as limit point, **but** doesn't contain it. i.e $1 \notin F(\mathbb{N})$ so it's not closed.

Solution 2. for example in \mathbb{R} take $(0,1)$ **bounded** set and consider $F(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ notice that we have that $F((0,1)) = \mathbb{R}^+$ i.e **not bounded**.

Theorem. *let F continuous function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ if S closed and bounded then $F(S)$ is closed and bounded.*

Proof. $F : E \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow F(E) \subset \mathbb{R}^k$, E is closed. in order to show that $F(E)$ closed. take a sequence of points $F(p_n), p_n \in E$, if subsequence $F(p_{n_k})$ converges to limit point q .

We need to show that $q \in F(E)$, first $p_{n_k} \in E$, and E is closed and bounded. So by bolzano-weierstrass

p_{n_k} has a converges subsequence $p_{n_{k_l}} \rightarrow p_0 \in E$, F a continuous map then $F(p_{n_{k_l}}) \rightarrow F(p_0) \in F(E)$.

In the other hand, $F(p_{n_{k_l}}) \rightarrow q$ hence, $q \in E \Rightarrow F(E)$ is closed.

Now we need to show $F(E)$ is bounded.

Notice that F continuous $\iff F_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, F_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ continuous

$F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is continuous on a closed and bounded set, and it has *max, min* by weierstrass-Theorem hence,

$$a_i \leq F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq b_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

So $F(E)$ is obtained in a box, or a ball (since we can bound box by ball (norm-inequality))

Hence, $F(E)$ bounded by the definition. □

Part 5. Differentiability

Definition. $F(x, y)$ scalar function with 2 variables called differentiable in (x, y) if $\exists A, B \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t

$$F(x+h, y+k) = F(x, y) + Ah + Bk + R(h, k)$$

when $R(h, k)$ has order less than $\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}$ i.e

$$\lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{R(h, k)}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}} = 0$$

We can write it in other way :

$$\lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{R(h,k)}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}} = \lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{F(x+h, y+k) - F(x, y) - Ah - Bk}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}} = 0$$

Definition. $O(t)$ is the order/function with order less than t i.e when we divide it by t and let $t \rightarrow 0$ the lim is 0.

Remark. when we write $R(t) = O(t)$ we mean :

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(t)}{t} = 0$$

Remark. $O(t)$ doesn't mark only one function for example :

$$t^2 = O(t), t^3 = O(t), t^2 + t^3 = O(t), (when) t \rightarrow 0$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{t^2}{t} = 0, \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{t^3}{t} = 0, (when) t \rightarrow 0$$

$$\ln(t) = O(t), (when) t \rightarrow \infty$$

Which mean all those has order less than $O(t)$, Since when we divide them all by t we get 0 (so they have less order)

Remark. properties known from calculus-2.

if F has a continuous partial differentials in $(x, y) \Rightarrow F(x, y)$ is differentiable.

if F differentiable then **NOT NECESSARILY** F has continuous partial differentials.

if F differentiable then partial differentials in (x, y) .

if F has a partial differentials in (x, y) then **NOT NECESSARILY** F is continuous.

COUNTER EXAMPLES PROVIDED IN PREVIOUS COURSE.

Definition. $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is called **differential** in p if exist L.T L S.T :

$$F(\vec{p} + \Delta \vec{p}) = F(\vec{p}) + L \Delta \vec{p} + R(\Delta \vec{p})$$

when differential

$$\lim_{\Delta \vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{0}} \frac{\|R(\Delta \vec{p})\|}{\|\Delta \vec{p}\|} = 0$$

in matrix form we can write it as :

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} F_1(x_1 + \Delta x_1, \dots, x_n + \Delta x_n) \\ \vdots \\ F_k(x_1 + \Delta x_1, \dots, x_n + \Delta x_n) \end{pmatrix}}_{F(p + \Delta p)} = \begin{pmatrix} F_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ F_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{pmatrix} + L \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{F(\vec{p})} + O(\sqrt{\Delta x_1^2 + \dots + \Delta x_n^2})$$

when $L \in Mat_{k \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ is a matrix in this form :

$$\begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & \cdots & L_{k1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ L_{K1} & \cdots & L_{kn} \end{pmatrix}$$

Example. $n = 1, k = 1$.

$$F(x + \Delta x) = F(x) - L \cdot \Delta x + R(\Delta x)$$

$$\frac{R(\Delta x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{F(x + \Delta x) - F(x)}{\Delta x} - L \xrightarrow{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} 0$$

$$\underbrace{\quad}_{f'(x)}$$

Example. $n > 1, k = 1$.

$$F(x_1 + \Delta x_1, \dots, x_n + \Delta x_n) - F(x_1, \dots, x_n) - L_1 \Delta x_1 - \dots - L_n \Delta x_n = O(\sqrt{\Delta x_1^2 + \dots + \Delta x_n^2})$$

We will take $\Delta x_i \neq 0$ unique, and all the others $\Delta x_j = 0$ i.e

$$\frac{F(x_1 + \Delta x_1, \dots, x_i + \Delta x_i, \dots) - F(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\Delta x_i} - L_i \rightarrow 0$$

$$L_i = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_i}$$

Theorem. let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ deffrentiable in \vec{p} then

$$\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_i}(\vec{p}) = L_{ij}$$

Proof. we can show this theorem by using the previous exmple on every element F_1, \dots, F_k :

$$F_i(x_1 + \Delta x_1, \dots, x_j + \Delta x_j, \dots, x_n + \Delta x_n) - F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \sum_{j=1}^n L_{ij} \Delta x_j + O(\sqrt{\Delta x_1^2 + \dots + \Delta x_n^2})$$

We can take $\Delta x_j \neq 0$ unique, all the other = 0 and we will still with :

$$\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_i}|_p = L_{ij}$$

□

Remark. Notice that $\sum_{j=1}^n L_{ij} \Delta x_j$ when we change j we get all the function elements in the k demention as in case $k = 1, n > 1$, till we get $k = n$ (intiouition).

Definition. let $DF|_p = L$ is called the **deffrential** of F in point \vec{p} .

Theorem. if $\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}$ exist and deffrentiable in a point \vec{p} .

Remark. from now we will denote $DF(p) = L$, the $L.T$ called the deffreintial of F in \vec{p} .

property.:

if $F, G : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ and both are deffrentiable in \vec{p} then :

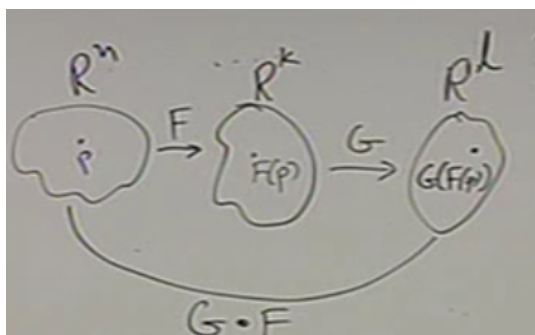
$$D(F + G)|_p = D(F)|_p + D(G)|_p$$

Remark. There is no deffreintial of multiplication since we can multiplicate every matrices.

Composition-of-differentials::

let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k, G : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ so the composition:

$$(G \circ F)(\underbrace{p}_{\in \mathbb{R}^n}) \rightarrow G(F(p)) \in \mathbb{R}^l$$



Theorem. if F differentiable in p and G differentiable in $F(p)$ then $G \circ F$ differentiable in p and :

$$D(G \circ F)|_p = DG|_{F(p)} \cdot DF|_p$$

when $DG|_{F(p)} \in Mat_{k \times l}(\mathbb{R}), DF|_p \in Mat_{n \times k}(\mathbb{R})$ a multiplication of linear operators/matrices.

Proof. (with no coordination)

$$(G \circ F)(p + \Delta p) = G(F(p + \Delta p)) = G(\underbrace{F(p)}_q + \underbrace{DF(p) \cdot \Delta p + R_1(\Delta p)}_L) = *$$

when

$$\frac{\|R_1(\Delta p)\|}{\|\Delta p\|} \rightarrow 0, \Delta p \rightarrow 0$$

$$* = G(q) + DG(q) \cdot \underbrace{(DF(p) \cdot \Delta p + R_1(\Delta p))}_{\Delta q} + R_2(\Delta q)$$

when

$$\frac{\|R_2(\Delta q)\|}{\|\Delta q\|} \rightarrow 0, \Delta q \rightarrow 0$$

$$(G \circ F)(p + \Delta p) = (G \circ F)(p) + \underbrace{DG(q) \cdot DF(p) \cdot \Delta p}_{L.T} + \underbrace{(DG(q) \cdot R_1(\Delta p) + R_2(\Delta q))}_{R_3}$$

In order to show that $G \circ F$ differentiable and the differential is $DG(q) \cdot DF(p)$ we need to show that :

$$\frac{\|R_3(\Delta p)\|}{\|\Delta p\|} \rightarrow 0, \Delta p \rightarrow 0$$

we will show that how small is R_3 .

$$R_3 = DG(q) \cdot R_1(\Delta p) + R_2(\Delta q), (when) \Delta p \rightarrow 0$$

EXERCISE. $\forall A$ matrix $\exists m \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. :

$$\|A\vec{v}\| \leq m\|\vec{v}\|$$

Hence, by the exercise we get that :

$$\|DG(q) \cdot R_1(\Delta \vec{p})\| \leq m\|R_1(\Delta p)\|$$

remember that :

$$\frac{\|R_1(\Delta p)\|}{\|\Delta p\|} \rightarrow 0, \Delta p \rightarrow 0$$

So we can say that :

$$\|DG(q) \cdot R_1(\Delta \vec{p})\| \leq m\|R_1(\Delta p)\| \leq m \cdot \epsilon \cdot \|\Delta \vec{p}\|, (when) \Delta p \rightarrow 0, \|\Delta \vec{p}\| < \delta_1$$

now for $R_2(\Delta q)$ we can do the same thing Since we know:

$$\frac{\|R_2(\Delta q)\|}{\|\Delta q\|} \rightarrow 0, \Delta q \rightarrow 0$$

So, we can say that :

$$\frac{\|R_2(\Delta q)\|}{\|\Delta q\|} \leq \epsilon \Rightarrow \|R_2(\Delta q)\| \leq \epsilon \|\Delta q\|, \|\Delta q\| < \delta_2$$

The relation between Δq to Δp

$$\Delta q = DF(p) \cdot \Delta p + R_1(\Delta p)$$

$$\|\Delta q\| \leq \|DF(p) \cdot \Delta p\| + \|R_1(\Delta p)\| \leq \underset{\in \mathbb{R}}{M_2} \|\Delta p\| + \epsilon \cdot \|\Delta p\| = (M_2 + \epsilon) \cdot \|\Delta p\| < \delta_2$$

in condition that $\|\Delta p\| < \delta_2$, So in total :

$$\|R_3(\Delta p)\| \leq M \cdot \epsilon \cdot \|\Delta p\| + \epsilon \cdot (M_2 + \epsilon) \cdot \|\Delta p\|$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\|R_3(\Delta p)\|}{\|\Delta p\|} \leq \epsilon \cdot m + \epsilon \cdot (M_2 + \epsilon)$$

Smaller as we want when $\Delta \vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{0}$. □

Proof. (**with coordination**) □

$$\underbrace{\left\{ \begin{array}{c} y_1 = F_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ y_n = F_k(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \end{array} \right\}}_F$$

$$\underbrace{\left\{ \begin{array}{c} z_1 = G_1(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ \vdots \\ z_n = G_k(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \end{array} \right\}}_G$$

Now notice that $G \circ F$:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} z_1 = G_1(F_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, F_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \\ \vdots \\ z_l = G_l(F_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, F_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \end{pmatrix}}_{G \circ F}$$

Assumption : G has a continuous partial deffrentials in the compatable points.
By the Chain-Rule :

$$\frac{\partial z_i}{\partial x_j} = \sum_{m=1}^k \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial y_m} \cdot \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_j} = \sum_{m=1}^k \frac{\partial G_i}{\partial y_m} \cdot \frac{\partial F_m}{\partial x_j}$$

THIS is the element (i, j) of the multiplication matrices $(\frac{\partial G_i}{\partial y_m}), (\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j})$

In this order we got element (i, j) we got $DG(q) \cdot DF(p)$.(multipliacion-of deffrentials)

Remark. we used the fact that G has a continuous partial deffrentials in order to use the Chain-Rule.

Part 6. Inverse Transformations

Introduction:

$f : (a, b) \rightarrow (\alpha, \beta)$, $f \in C^1$, The condition in order f has inversion, the condition in which $f(x)$ has inverse is $f'(x) \neq 0$ in every $x \in (a, b)$

In this case $f' > 0$ or $f' < 0$ in all the interval., in those **assumptions**, exist inverse function f^{-1}
and $f^{-1} \in C^1$.

The condition that $f' \neq 0$ is not important for the existance of f^{-1} .

Example. $y = x^3 \iff x = \sqrt[3]{y}$, **but tis function** $y'(0) = 0$ is not deffrentiable in $y = 0$.

Moreover, if $f'(x) \neq 0$ then

$$\frac{d(f^{-1})}{dy} \Big|_{y=y(x_0)} = \frac{1}{\frac{df}{dx}} \Big|_{x_0}$$

Remark. There is big difference between $f : \mathbb{R}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ to $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

if $y = f(x)$ is 1 : 1 in local neighborhood in every point in the domain, then it's a 1 : 1 in global i.e all the domain **but** in more dementions it's not true.

Example. Notice that the photo elomentrate the fact that every local neighborhood is indeed 1 : 1 but not in global.



The reason is that in \mathbb{R} there is order $x < y < z$ but in \mathbb{R}^n has no order we can't say that $\vec{V} > \vec{U}$

Theorem. let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with a continuous partial differentials in a open set $D \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ($F \in C^1(D)$)

Assume that

$$J(p) = \text{Det}(DF(p)) = \left| \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j} \right| (p) = \frac{\partial(F_1, \dots, F_n)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)}(p) \neq 0$$

i.e (the L.T $DF(p)$ is invertable) then exist neighborhood (local way) of p in which F is injective.

Proof. Notice that:

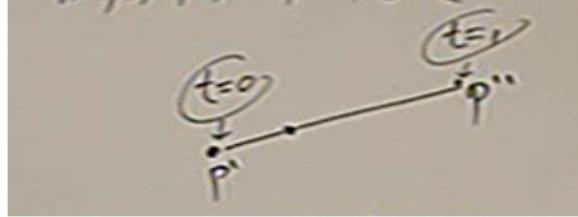


Choose a circle around p in which we choose two point $p' \neq p''$.

We need to show that $F(p') \neq F(p'')$, in condition we took a very small neighborhood.

$$F(p'') - F(p') = \begin{pmatrix} F_1(p'') - F_1(p') \\ \vdots \\ F_n(p'') - F_n(p') \end{pmatrix}$$

In every coordination we have a $F_i(p'') - F_i(p')$ Notice that :



So we can write :

$$p' + t(p'' - p') = (1 - t)p' + tp'', 0 \leq t \leq 1$$

Denote :

$$\begin{aligned} G_i(t) &= F_i(p' + t(p'' - p')) = F_i(x'_1 + t(x''_1 - x'_1), \dots, x'_n + t(x''_n - x'_n)) \\ F(p'') - F(p') &= \begin{pmatrix} F_1(p'') - F_1(p') \\ \vdots \\ F_n(p'') - F_n(p') \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} G_1(1) - G_1(0) \\ \vdots \\ G_n(1) - G_n(0) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} G'_1(t_1)(1 - 0) \\ \vdots \\ G'_n(t_n)(1 - 0) \end{pmatrix} = * \\ * * G_i(t)' &= \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{dx_j}{dt}}_{x''_j - x'_j} \end{aligned}$$

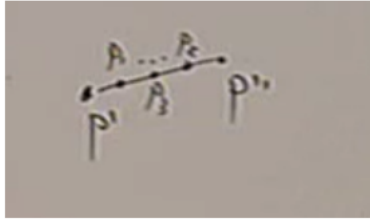
$$\begin{aligned}
 * &=_{using**} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_1}(p' + t_1(p'' + p')) \cdot (x_1'' - x_1') + \dots + \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_n}(p' + t_1(p'' + p')) \cdot (x_n'' - x_n') \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_1}(p' + t_1(p'' + p')) \cdot (x_1'' - x_1') + \dots + \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_n}(p' + t_1(p'' + p')) \cdot (x_n'' - x_n') \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_1}(p_1) & \dots & \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_n}(p_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_1}(p_n) & \dots & \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial x_n}(p_n) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1'' - x_1' \\ \vdots \\ x_n'' - x_n' \end{pmatrix} = \left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i) \right) (p'' - p')
 \end{aligned}$$

So the target we need to show that

$$F(p'') - F(p') \neq 0$$

Define function

$$h(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \det \left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i) \right)_{i,j=1,\dots,n}$$

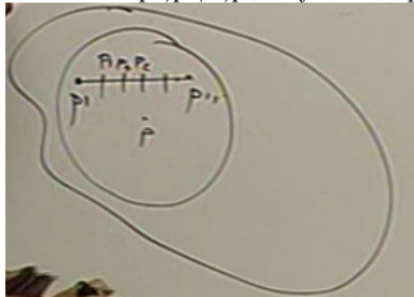


if $p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_n = p$ then :

$$h(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n) = \det \left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j} \right) \Big|_p = J(p) \neq 0$$

$h(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n)$ is continuous function (as det) if $h(p_1, \dots, p_n) \neq 0$ Since continuity $h(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n) \neq 0$

in condition p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n very close to p .



□

Corollary. $\left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i) \right)$ is invertible matrix Since $\text{Det} \neq 0$ So $\left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i) \right) (p'' - p') \neq 0$
 Since assume toward contradiction that $\left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i) \right) (p'' - p') = \vec{0}$

hence, we can multiplie by $(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i))^{-1}$ then we get that $(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i))^{-1} \cdot (\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i)) \cdot (p'' - p') = (\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}(p_i))^{-1} \cdot \vec{0} \Rightarrow I \cdot (p'' - p') = \vec{0} \Rightarrow p' = p''$

So it's contradiction to the fact the $p' \neq p''$ as required.

Theorem. given $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and continuous on a compact set S , F is 1 : 1 on S . then F^{-1} continuous on $F(S)$.

Proof. let $q \in F(S)$, and let $q_n \in F(S)$ s.t $q_n \rightarrow q$ in order to show that F^{-1} continuous, we will show

$$\underbrace{F^{-1}(q_n)}_{p_n \in S} \rightarrow \underbrace{F^{-1}(q)}_{p \in S}$$

we will show that $p_n \rightarrow p$ **ASSUME TOWARD CONTRADICTION** that $p_n \not\rightarrow p$ i.e $p_n \rightarrow L \neq p$ or $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n$ doesn't exist.

anyway, there is a subsequence coverges to point $\tilde{p} \neq p, \tilde{p} \in S$ we will recall the subsequence in p_{n_k} .

$$p_{n_k} \rightarrow \tilde{p} \in S$$

$$F(\tilde{p}) = F(\lim p_{n_k}) = \lim F(p_{n_k}) = \lim q_{n_k} = q$$

but $F(p) = q$ and $p \neq \tilde{p}$ So we get contradiction to 1 : 1 of F . □

Theorem. given $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, let $F \in C^1(D)$ continioud partial deffrentials from oorder 1. assume that $J(P) \neq 0$

in a point p of D . (hence F is 1 : 1 in a specefic neighborhood of the point p). then :

- (1) F^{-1} has a continuous deffrential partial in a neighborhood of $q = F(p)$
- (2) $DF^{-1}|_q = (DF|_p)^{-1}$

Proof. first step:

Given $J(p_0) \neq 0$, $F(p_0) = q_0$, take a adjacent point to q_0 , $q_0 + \Delta q \in F(D)$.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} F^{-1}(q_0 + \Delta q) = p_0 + \Delta p \\ F^{-1}(q_1) = p_0 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Delta p = F^{-1}(q_0 + \Delta q) - F^{-1}(q_0)$$

step 2:

Given that F IS DEFFRENTIAL in p_0 i.e

$$F(p_0 + \Delta p) - F(p_0) = DF(p_0) \cdot \Delta p + R(\Delta p)$$

when :

$$\lim_{\Delta p \rightarrow \vec{0}} \frac{\|R(\Delta p)\|}{\|\Delta p\|} \rightarrow 0$$

As known $J(p_0) \neq 0$ hence, $DF(p_0)$, multiplication by inverse give us :

$$(DF(p_0))^{-1} \cdot \Delta p = \Delta p + (DF(p_0))^{-1} \cdot R(\Delta p) \Rightarrow \Delta p = (DF(p_0))^{-1} \cdot \Delta q - (DF(p_0))^{-1} \cdot R(\Delta p)$$

but

$$\Delta p = F^{-1}(q_0 + \Delta q) - F^{-1}(q_0)$$

Conclusion.

if we show that

$$\lim_{\Delta q \rightarrow \vec{0}} \frac{\| -DF(p_0)^{-1}R(\Delta p) \|}{\| \Delta q \|} = 0$$

We can conclude that F^{-1} deffrential in q_0 and the deffrential $(DF(p_0))^{-1}$

$$DF^{-1}|_{q_0} = (DF(p_0))^{-1}$$

step 3:

$$-(DF(p_0))^{-1}R(\Delta p)$$

all the elements in the inverse matrix $(DF)^{-1}$ are continuous functions, and in a small neighborhood of p_0 they are all bounded.

we showed that :

$$\|Av\|_\infty \leq M\|v\|_\infty$$

And it's true for every normal we have that :

$$\|Av\| \leq M\|v\|$$

So we get that :

$$\| - (DF(p_0))^{-1}R(\Delta p) \| \leq M\|R(\Delta p)\|$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\frac{\| - (DF(p_0))^{-1}R(\Delta p) \|}{\| \Delta q \|} \leq \frac{M\|R(\Delta p)\|}{\| \Delta q \|} = M \cdot \underbrace{\frac{\|R(\Delta p)\|}{\| \Delta p \|}}_{< \epsilon} \cdot \frac{\| \Delta p \|}{\| \Delta q \|}$$

step 4:

we need to take care of :

$$\frac{\| \Delta p \|}{\| \Delta q \|}$$

remember that :

$$\Delta p = (DF(p_0))^{-1} \cdot \Delta q - (DF(p_0))^{-1} \cdot R(\Delta p) = (DF(p_0))^{-1}(\Delta q - R(\Delta p))$$

when :

$$\frac{\|R(\Delta p)\|}{\| \Delta p \|} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow_{when(\Delta p) \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|R(\Delta p)\|}{\| \Delta p \|} < \epsilon$$

So by the Triangle-Inequality :

$$\| \Delta p \| \leq M\| \Delta q \| + \underbrace{\epsilon \cdot \| \Delta p \|}_{\|R(\Delta p)\|}$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\| \Delta p \|(1 - \epsilon M) \leq M \cdot \| \Delta q \|$$

it's true $\forall \epsilon > 0$ in condition that Δp very small. (Let $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2M} \Rightarrow 1 - \epsilon M = 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$) . hence,

$$\frac{\|\Delta p\|}{\|\Delta q\|} \leq \frac{M}{\frac{1}{2}} = 2M$$

So we showed that bounded then step 4 is true then step 2 is true then step 1 is true and we finished. \square

Question 5.25

Given that $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, $U \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ which satisfy :

$$\|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq M \cdot \|x - y\|^2, \forall x, y \in U$$

show that f is deffrentiable:

Proof. notice that we need to show that in p there is L.T L which satisfy :

$$*f(\vec{p} + \Delta \vec{p}) = f(\vec{p}) + L\Delta \vec{p} + R(\Delta \vec{p})$$

look at small neighborhood of p assume $N = \{p_0 : \|p - p_0\| < \epsilon\} \subset U$

take $p_0 \in N \subset U$ we know that in p we have that $\|f(p) - f(p_0)\| \leq M \cdot \|p - p_0\|^2$

Now we need to show * :

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} = L_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & \cdots & L_{1d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ L_{m1} & \cdots & L_{md} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_d} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(\vec{p} + \Delta \vec{p}) = f(\vec{p}) + L\Delta \vec{p} + R(\Delta \vec{p}) \Rightarrow \frac{f(\vec{p} + \Delta \vec{p}) - f(\vec{p})}{\Delta \vec{p}} = \frac{R(\Delta \vec{p})}{\Delta \vec{p}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_d} \end{pmatrix}$$

Using defenition of partial :

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_i(h + x_j) - f_i(x_j)}{h} \Rightarrow \|(Df)_{ij}(p)\|$$

Notice that :

$$\lim_{\Delta \vec{p} \rightarrow 0} \left\| \frac{f_i(\Delta \vec{p} + \vec{p}) - f_i(\vec{p})}{\Delta \vec{p}} \right\| \leq \frac{M \|(\Delta \vec{p} + \vec{p}) - (\vec{p})\|^2}{\|(\Delta \vec{p})\|} = M \|\Delta \vec{p}\|$$

$$\forall f_i, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq d$$

hence, for $\Delta \vec{p} \rightarrow 0$ we get that :

$$M \|\Delta \vec{p}\| = \|M \Delta \vec{p}\| = 0$$

(Since norm preserve multiplication by scalar) So we get that,

$$L_{ij} = Df = 0_{m \times d}, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq d$$

Now we need to show that $Df = 0$ imply the defintion of deffrentiability,

First,

$$*f(\Delta \vec{p} + \vec{p}) = f(\vec{p}) + L\Delta \vec{p} + R(\Delta \vec{p})$$

$$\Downarrow Df = 0 = L$$

$$f(\Delta \vec{p} + \vec{p}) - f(\vec{p}) = 0 + R(\Delta \vec{p}) \Rightarrow \|R(\Delta \vec{p})\| \leq M \|(\Delta \vec{p} + \vec{p}) - \vec{p}\|^2$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\frac{\|R(\Delta \vec{p})\|}{\|\Delta \vec{p}\|} \leq M \|\Delta \vec{p}\| \xrightarrow{\Delta \vec{p} \rightarrow 0} 0$$

So it satisfy the requiered. \square

Theorem. (The open transformation Theorem).

Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and D is open set, $F \in C^1(D)$. Assuming that $0 \neq J(p) = \text{Det}(DF(p))$, $\forall p \in D$ then F map a open set D to open set $F(D)$.

Proof. We will spit that proof into steps.

Step 1:

In order to show that $F(D)$ is open set, we will take a point q_0 and we will show that it's has a nighberhood which is obtained in $F(D)$.

Notice that :

$q_0 \in F(D)$ So $q_0 = F(p_0)$, $p_0 \in D$ given that D is open, hence there is neighborhood which is obtained in D recall it $N = \{p : \|p - p_0\| < r\} \subset D$ We already saw by the assumption that F is injective in small neighborhood of p_0 then we will take N small enough S.T F will bw injective on it's boundry ∂F , the boundry of N is $\|p - p_0\| = r$, it's a closed and bounded set hence, $F(\partial N)$ is also closed and bounded Moreover, the image $F(\partial N)$ doesn't obtain q_0 , Since p_0 mapped to q_0 and F in this neighborhood is injective.

Step 2:

we will build a neighborhood of q_0 which is obtained in $F(D)$. Since $F(\partial N)$ closed and bounded eexists a minimal ditsance $\text{Dist}(q_0, F(\partial N)) = d > 0$ (showed in the toutorials.

We will show that a circle of radius $\frac{1}{3}d$ around q_0 is obtained in $F(D)$ Moreover, it will be the required neighborhood in order to show that $F(D)$ is opened.

Will we take in this circle a point q_1 S.T $\|q_1 - q_0\| < \frac{1}{3}d$ and we will show that $q_1 \in F(D)$ i.e $p_1 \in D$ S.T $q_1 = F(p_1)$.

Step 3:

We will "solve" the equation $F(p_1) = q_1$ when $p_1 \in N$ Since we have no direct solution we will use a helping method.

We will look at $N \cup \partial N = \bar{N} = \{\|p - p_0\| \leq r\}$ and we will search for

$$\min_{p \in \bar{N}} \|F(p) - q_1\|_2$$

Target.

we will show that the min value is 0 then the as a collary we conclude that there is place in which F exactly get the value q_1 .

Remark.

The existance of min stem from that fact that $\min_{p \in \bar{N}} \|F(p) - q_1\|_2 = \phi$ is closed and bounded set and F is continuous Morover, norm is continuous as well hence, we get a continuous map as a composition so it has a min by Weierstrass-Theorem recall $p_1 \in \bar{N}$.

Remark.

We took in advance the euclidean norm for a reason.

Step 4:

The min is not on the boundry of N (∂N) **Assume toward contradinction** that it's on the boundry,

$$\|F(p_1) - q_1\| = \|(F(p_1) - q_0) + (q_0 - q_1)\| \geq \underbrace{\|F(p_1) - q_0\|}_{\geq d} - \underbrace{\|q_0 - q_1\|}_{< \frac{1}{3}d} > \frac{2}{3}d$$

In other hand

$$\|F(p_0) - q_1\| = \|q_1 - q_0\| < \frac{1}{3}d$$

So we got contradinction because we find a point which is more “qualified” to be the min hence, the min is not on the boundry. therefore, $\min_N(\|F(p) - q_1\|_2)^2$ is in a interior point.

$$q_1 = (q_1, \dots, q_n), p = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

So we are searching for the min,

$$\min\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n (F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - q_i)^2\right\}$$

a condition for that that all the deffrential partials are 0.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 2(F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - q_i) \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j} = 0, j = 1, \dots, n$$

We got a system of n equation with n variables, it's a system of homogonic linear equation with a solution Moreover, the Det of the system $\det(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}) \neq 0$ (in every point) hence, the only unique solution is when,

$$F_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) - q_i = 0, \forall i = 1, \dots, n$$

So we found solution,

$$F(p) = q_1$$

Collary.

We showed that $\|q_1 - q_o\| < \frac{d}{3}$ is a img of specific p_1 is in the interiors of N so the img is open set.

Remark.

Now we know why we used that euclidean norm because it's easy to work with it derivative from other norms since it's simple. \square

Part 7. The Inverse Functions Theorem

Theorem. (*The inverse Function Theorem*).

Given $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, with a partial differentials with order 1, $F \in C^1(D)$ in a domain D , and $J(p) \neq 0, \forall p \in D$. We take $p_0 \in D$, $q_0 = F(p_0)$ then exists neighborhood N of p_0 S.T :

- F map at N as 1 : 1 to $F(N)$, $q_0 \in F(N)$.
- on $F(N)$ defined F^{-1} .
- F^{-1} have a continuous differentials with order 1 in $F(N)$.
- $D(F^{-1})|_{q_0} = (DF|_{p_0})^{-1}$.

Example. Look at :

$$F : \begin{cases} y_1 = F_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ y_n = F_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \end{cases}$$

$$G : \begin{cases} x_1 = G_1(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \\ \vdots \\ x_n = G_n(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \end{cases}$$

By property 4 of the Theorem $DF \cdot DF^{-1} = I$

$$\left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}\right)_{i,j=1,\dots,n} \left(\frac{\partial G_i}{\partial y_j}\right)_{i,j=1,\dots,n} = I$$

We know that :

$$\det\left(\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}\right) = \frac{\partial(F_1, \dots, F_n)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)}$$

$$\frac{\partial(F_1, \dots, F_n)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \cdot \frac{\partial(G_1, \dots, G_n)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_n)} = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_n)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \cdot \frac{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_n)} = 1$$

Part 8. The Implicit Functions Theorem

ABSTRACT. Look at $y^2 - x^2 = 0$ in $(1, 1)$ it's obvious that the solution is $y = x$

in neighborhood of $(2, -2)$ the solution is $y = -x$ but what in neighborhood of $(0, 0)$ we can't extract y in good way.

now look at $x^2 + y^2 + 1 = 0$ we can't extract y as well Since there is no solution y to this equation.

as collary in order to start talking about extracting a variable in function, we need to find a point which satisfy the implicit function.

Questions.

- (1) existence?
- (2) unique?
- (3) which condition there is to a function when we extract a variable?

Example. Given $f(x, y, z) = 0, f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$, for f there is continuous deffrentials partials with order 1 in $D \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.

Assuming there is point $(x_0, y_0, z_0) \in D$ S.T $f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = 0$. Moreover, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0$.

hence, in those assumption exist neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) and in this neighborhood exist a unique function $\varphi(x, y)$ S.T $f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) = 0$ in this neighborhood and $\varphi(x_0, y_0) = z_0$ in other word $z = \varphi(x, y)$.

Remark. Look at $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 = 0$ and in $(x, y) = (0, 0)$, here $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = -2y|_{(0,0)} = 0$ and the Theorem is not valid.

Example. Look at $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ How we can extracy $y = y(x)$?

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y \neq 0, \forall y \neq 0$$

and in neighborhood of $(1, 0)$ the Theorem requierments are invalid so there is no extraction/

Proof. (implicit Theorem for 3 variables) .

Define $F : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$,

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ w \end{pmatrix} \iff \begin{cases} u = x \\ v = y \\ w = f(x, y, z) \end{cases}$$

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \\ z_0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \\ f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now out target is to use the inerse function Theorem on F Since we add it two coordination to satisfy that it's a transformation $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. So we need to check the jacobian in order to use the inverse functions Theorem in (x_0, y_0, z_0)

$$J(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \frac{\partial(F_1 F_2 F_3)}{\partial(x, y, z)} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ f_x & f_y & f_z \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}|_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)} \neq 0$$

Now using the inverse function theorem, F is 1 : 1 in (x_0, y_0, z_0) neighborhood and exist F^{-1} from $(x_0, y_0, 0)$ to neighborhood (x_0, y_0, z_0) i.e

$$F^{-1} : (x_0, y_0, 0) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0, z_0)$$

$$F^{-1} : \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ w \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ g(u, v, w) \end{pmatrix}$$

Also for $g(u, v, w)$ there is continuous partial deffrentials with order 1.

$$w = f(x, y, z) = f(u, v, g(u, v, w))$$

in neighborhood of $(x_0, y_0, 0)$, it's a identity with u, v, w explicitly $(x, y, 0)$

$$0 = f(x, y, \underbrace{g(x, y, 0)}_{\varphi(x, y)})$$

So we found a function in neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) a function $\varphi(x, y) = g(x, y, 0)$ which satisfy the implicit function

$$f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) = 0$$

Moreover, $\varphi(x_0, y_0) = g(x_0, y_0, 0) = z_0$ and for φ there is continuous partial deffrentials as for g . \square

Example. $f(x, y, z) = 0$ a point $f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = 0, f_z(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ exist $z = \varphi(x, y)$ in neighborhood $(x_0, y_0), z_0 = (x_0, y_0)$.

Remember :

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ f(x, y, z) \end{pmatrix}$$

We show that $J_F = f_z \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ exist F^{-1} S.T :

$$F^{-1} : \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ g(u, v, w) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$w = f(x, y, z) = f(u, v, g(u, v, w))$$

in neighborhood of $(x, y, z) = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and in variables $(u, v, w) = (x_0, y_0, \underbrace{f(x_0, y_0, z_0)}_0)$

we will take (u, v, w) in a neighborhood $(x_0, y_0, 0)$ the point $(x, y, 0), f(x, y, g(x, y, 0)) = 0$ hence,

$$z = \varphi(x, y) = g(x, y, 0)$$

exactly satisfy that :

$$f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) = 0$$

everything is in neighborhood of (x_0, y_0)

So we extracted z from $F(x, y, z) = 0$.

Unique

we defined

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ f(x, y, z) \end{pmatrix}$$

explicitly,

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ \varphi(x, y) \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

if there was other function $\tilde{\varphi}(x, y)$ which satisfy also $f(x, y, \tilde{\varphi}(x, y)) = 0$ we will reset F on $\tilde{\varphi}$:

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ \tilde{\varphi}(x, y) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ f(x, y, \tilde{\varphi}(x, y)) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

But F is injective in the neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) hence,

$$\tilde{\varphi}(x, y) = \varphi(x, y)$$

Since F is C^1 , stem also that $\varphi(x, y) = g(x, y, 0)$ in neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) .

$$f(x, y, \varphi(x, y)) = 0$$

the equality satisfied in neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) , $(\varphi, f \in C^1)$ So by the chain rule

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} : \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot 1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot 0 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x} &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} : \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot 0 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot 1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial y} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

hence, we get that :

$$\frac{\partial \varphi(x, y)}{\partial x} = - \frac{\frac{\partial f(x, y, \varphi(x, y))}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial f(x, y, \varphi(x, y))}{\partial z}}$$

in (x_0, y_0) we have that :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \varphi(x, y)}{\partial x} &= - \frac{f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{\underbrace{f_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)}_{x_0}} \\ \frac{\partial \varphi(x, y)}{\partial y} &= - \frac{f_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{\underbrace{f_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)}_{y_0}} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem. (the implicit functions Theorem).

given k functions in $k + n$ variables, $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, $f_i : \mathbb{R}^{k+n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ i.e $f : \mathbb{R}^{k+n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$.

$$k - \text{variables} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_k) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ f_k(\underbrace{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_k}_{n+k = \text{variables}}) = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Given a point $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_k) = (a_1, a_2, \dots, x_n, b_1, \dots, b_k)$ which satisfy all the k variables.

Assuming that :

$$\frac{\partial(f_1, \dots, f_k)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_k)} \Big|_{(a_1, a_2, \dots, x_n, b_1, \dots, b_k)} \neq 0$$

Then exist $(\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_k) = \varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$,

$$\begin{cases} y_1 = \varphi_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ y_k = \varphi_k(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \end{cases}$$

in neighborhood $(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ which satisfy the system.

$i = 1, \dots, k, f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, \varphi_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, \varphi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = 0$
and implies,

$$i = 1, \dots, k, \varphi_i(a_1, \dots, a_n) = b_i$$

Proof. Define F a map $\mathbb{R}^{n+k} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 = x_1 \\ u_2 = x_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n = x_n \\ u_{n+1} = f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_k) \\ \vdots \\ u_{n+k} = f_k(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_k) \end{pmatrix}$$

i.e for $(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ F on it give us,

$$F(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_k) = (a_1, \dots, a_n, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{k \text{ - times}})$$

$$J = \det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \dots \\ 0 & \ddots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{k \times k} \\ \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}_{k \times n} & \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial y_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial y_k} \end{bmatrix}_{k \times k} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial(f_1, \dots, f_k)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_k)} \Big|_{(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_k)} \neq 0$$

By the given F is injective in neighborhood of $(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_k)$ and exist F^{-1} ,

$$F^{-1} : (a_1, \dots, a_n, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{k \text{ - times}}) \rightarrow (a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_k)$$

Moreover $F^{-1} \in C^1$.

$$F^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 = u_1 \\ x_2 = u_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n = u_n \\ y_1 = g_1(u_1, \dots, u_{n+k}) \\ \vdots \\ y_k = g_k(u_1, \dots, u_{n+k}) \end{pmatrix}$$

All in neighborhood of $(a_1, \dots, a_n, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{k \text{ times}})$.

Now we plugin into $F \circ F^{-1} = I$ i.e

$$(1.23). u_{n+i} = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_k) = f_i(u_1, \dots, u_n, g_1(u_1, \dots, u_{n+k}), \dots, g_k(u_1, \dots, u_{n+k})) = 0$$

$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

Explicitly we choose in neighborhood if $(a_1, \dots, a_n, 0, \dots, 0)$ points in form of $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0)$.

$$0 = f_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, g_1(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, g_k(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0)) = 0$$

$$\forall i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

for (x_1, \dots, x_n) in neighborhood of (a_1, \dots, a_n) hence,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_1 = \varphi_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g_1(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0) \\ \vdots \\ y_k = \varphi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g_k(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0) \end{array} \right\}$$

Moreover,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \varphi_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) = b_1 \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_k(a_1, \dots, a_n) = b_k \end{array} \right\}$$

So we success to extract $y_i = \varphi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n), i = 1, \dots, k$ from the given sytem of k equations and $n+k$ variables in the given point neighborhood, we said that $F \in C^1$ hence, $F^{-1} \in C^1$ so $\varphi_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g_i(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots, 0)$ is also in C^1 .

as before ,

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_k(x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Explicitly,

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ \varphi_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We have zero by 1.23. now assuming that there is

$$(\varphi_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, \varphi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \neq (\tilde{\varphi}_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, \tilde{\varphi}_k(x_1, \dots, x_n))$$

which satisfy the required system i.e

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ \tilde{\varphi}_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{\varphi}_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since F is injective in the local neighborhood we have $\tilde{\varphi}_i = \varphi_i, \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.
We will calculate $\frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial x_j}$:

$$f_i(x_1, \dots, x_m, \varphi_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, \varphi_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)), i = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

We will deffrentiate by $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_1} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial x_j}}_0 + \dots + \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{\partial x_j}{\partial x_j}}_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_1} \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi_1}{\partial x_j} + \dots + \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_k} \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi_k}{\partial x_j} = 0$$

hence,

$$\sum_{l=1}^k \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_l} \cdot \frac{\partial \varphi_l}{\partial x_j} = -\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$$

So it's a matrices multiplication,

$$\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_l}\right)_{k \times k} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \varphi_l}{\partial x_j}\right)_{k \times n} = -\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right)_{k \times n}$$

We know that there is inverse to $\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_l}\right)_{k \times k}$ so,

$$D\varphi = \left(\frac{\partial \varphi_l}{\partial x_j}\right)_{k \times n} = -\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_l}\right)_{k \times n}^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right)_{k \times n}$$

So we found all $\frac{\partial \varphi_l}{\partial x_j}$.

Cramer Rule:

Solution for $A\vec{v} = b$ is given by

$$v_l = \frac{\det \left(\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{pmatrix} \quad \dots \quad \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \vec{b} \end{pmatrix}}_{v_l} \quad \begin{pmatrix} a_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \right)}{\det \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}}$$

In our case,

$$\frac{\partial \varphi_l}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial y_2} \end{pmatrix} & \cdots & \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_j} \\ \vdots \\ -\frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_j} \end{pmatrix}}_l & \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_k} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial y_{k1}} \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}}{\det(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_i})} = \frac{\frac{\partial(f_1, \dots, f_k)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, x_j, y_{l+1}, \dots, y_k)}}{\frac{\partial(f_1, \dots, f_k)}{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_k)}}$$

□

A tangent space to a surface $z = f(x, y)$ if f deffrentiable in (x_0, y_0) then,

$$\Delta z = f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0) = A(x - x_0) + B(y - y_0) + R$$

when

$$A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0), B = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0), \Delta z = z - z_0$$

Definition. $z - z_0 = f_x(x_0, y_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0) \cdot (y - y_0)$ is called then tangent space to $z = f(x, y)$ in (x_0, y_0) .

The surface which is written as implicit funtion $F(x, y, z) = 0$ E.g unit ball in \mathbb{R}^3 $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - r^2 = 0$ and there is point on it $F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$, and we assume the assumption of the implicit function Theorem i.e $F \in C^1$, $F(x_0, y_0, z_0) = 0$ and at least one og the deffrential partials $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \neq 0$ in (x_0, y_0, z_0) for instance $\frac{\partial F}{\partial z}|_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)} \neq 0 \Rightarrow z = \varphi(x, y)$ in (x_0, y_0) neighborhood and we know that

$$\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x}|_{(x_0, y_0)} = -\frac{\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial F}{\partial z}}|_{(x_0, y_0)}, \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial y}|_{(x_0, y_0)} = -\frac{\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}}{\frac{\partial F}{\partial z}}|_{(x_0, y_0)}$$

So now we can write the tangent space equation

$$z - z_0 = \varphi_x(x_0, y_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + \varphi_y(x_0, y_0) \cdot (y - y_0)$$

⇓

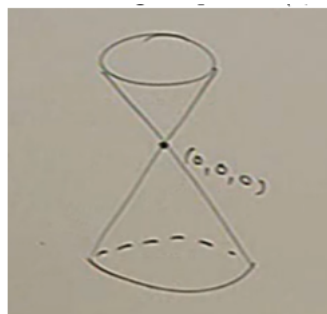
$$z - z_0 = \frac{F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)} \cdot (x - x_0) + \frac{F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)} \cdot (y - y_0)$$

when we know that $F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0$ hence,

$$F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot (y - y_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot (z - z_0) = 0$$

Symmetric in (x, y, z) .

Example. $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 0 \Rightarrow z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ if we intersact it with the plane $y = 0$ we get a cone and on it we have the point $(0, 0, 0)$, here $\{F_x, F_y, F_z\} = \{2x, 2y, -2z\}$ in point $(0, 0, 0)$ which are all 0 in $(0, 0, 0)$ hence, there is no tangent space in $(0, 0, 0)$.



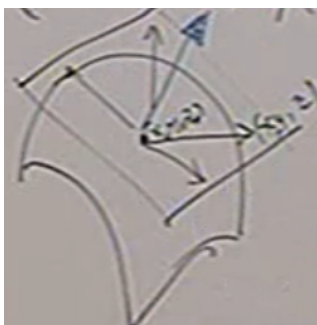
we notice that in $(0,0,0)$ we can't pass tangent space.

In the other hand we can see that for $F = x + y + z = 0$ in $(0,0,0)$ it has a tangent plane "itself" and indeed $\{F_x, F_y, F_z\} = \{1, 1, 1\} \neq 0$ but $G = (x + y + z)^7 = 0$ is the same plane and on it $(0,0,0)$ we have that $\{G_x, G_y, G_z\} = \{0, 0, 0\}$ but we do have a tangent space i.e the condition that at least one of the differential partials $\neq 0$ is not necessarily but it's a enough condition.

Given implicit function $F(x, y, z) = 0$ and point on it (x_0, y_0, z_0) so the equation of tangent plane in (x_0, y_0, z_0) is

$$F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)(x - x_0) + F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)(y - y_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)(z - z_0) = 0$$

$$(F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0), F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0))(x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0) = 0$$



So we can see that the vector $(F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0), F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0), F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0))$ is normal to the surface. So now we can define what gradient is (the vector which is normal to surface).

Definition. $(\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}) = \text{Gradient of the function } F(x, y, z) \text{ marked by } \vec{\nabla} F, \vec{grad}(F).$

Example. Given two surfaces

$$\begin{cases} F(x, y, z) = 0 \\ G(x, y, z) = 0 \end{cases}$$

We will find the tangent direction to the surface intersection curve.



Assumption: $F, G \in C^1$, (x_0, y_0, z_0) satisfy the system, assuming that $\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,y)}|_{(x_0,y_0,z_0)} \neq 0$ we can extract x, y in neighborhood of z_0 i.e

$$\begin{cases} x = x(z) \\ y = y(z) \end{cases}$$

now look at

$$\begin{cases} x = x(z) \\ y = y(z) \\ z = z \end{cases}$$

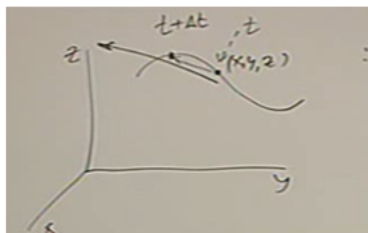
This remind as to the parametric discription of curve,

$$\begin{cases} x = x(t) \\ y = y(t) \\ z = z(t) \end{cases}, a \leq t \leq b$$

The tangent vector to the following curve in specific point t_0 ,

$$T = \left(\frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dz}{dt} \right) |_{t_0}$$

Reminder:



$$(x(t+\Delta t), y(t+\Delta t), z(t+\Delta t)) - (x(t), y(t), z(t)) = (x(t+\Delta t) - x(t), y(t+\Delta t) - y(t), z(t+\Delta t) - z(t))$$

Deviding by Δt ,

$$\left(\frac{x(t+\Delta t) - x(t)}{\Delta t}, \frac{y(t+\Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t}, \frac{z(t+\Delta t) - z(t)}{\Delta t} \right)$$

The limit of the following vector is called the direction of the tangent vector.

Now in our case, we know that z is the parameter,

$$\begin{cases} x = x(z) \\ y = y(z) \\ z = z \end{cases}$$

Here the direction of tangent vector is

$$\left(\frac{dx}{dz}, \frac{dy}{dz}, 1 \right)$$

when

$$\frac{dx}{dz} = -\frac{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(z,y)}}{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,y)}}|_{(x_0,y_0,z_0)} \frac{dy}{dz} = -\frac{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,z)}}{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,y)}}|_{(x_0,y_0,z_0)}$$

So the tangent vector in the example is,

$$\left(\frac{dx}{dz}, \frac{dy}{dz}, 1\right) = \left(-\frac{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(z,y)}}{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,y)}}, \frac{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,z)}}{\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,y)}}, 1\right)$$

Now we can multiplie by $\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(x,y)}$ but we still has $-$ So we can fix it by subsituted rows in Jacaobian i.e $\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(z,y)} = -\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(y,z)}$ hence the tangent vector is given by the following formula,

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(y,z)}, \frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(z,x)}, \frac{\partial(F,G)}{\partial(z,y)}\right) &= \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ F_x & F_y & F_z \\ G_x & G_y & G_z \end{vmatrix} = i \cdot \begin{vmatrix} F_y & F_z \\ G_y & G_z \end{vmatrix} + j \cdot \begin{vmatrix} F_z & F_x \\ G_z & G_x \end{vmatrix} + k \cdot \begin{vmatrix} F_x & F_y \\ G_x & G_y \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (F_x, F_y, F_z)X(G_x, G_y, G_z) = \vec{\nabla}F \cdot \vec{\nabla}G = \vec{N}_1x\vec{N}_2 \end{aligned}$$

Part 9. The open map Theorem

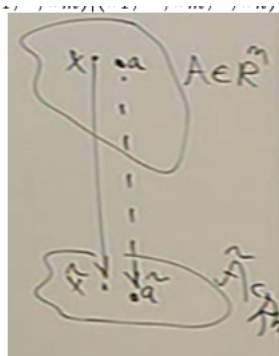
Theorem. (*The open maps Theorem*).

$F : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ A is open set, $F \in C^1$ and $\text{rank}(dF) = \text{rank}\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right) \begin{matrix} i = 1, \dots, m \\ j = 1, \dots, n \end{matrix} = m$, for each point of the set then $F(A)$ opened in \mathbb{R}^m .

Proof. if $m = n$ then it's trivial. Since we have matrix $n \times n$ which is invertible hence, it's $\det \neq 0$ then we finished. now we look at $m < n$. every point in $F(A)$ is in form $F(a)$ and we will show that for every point $F(a)$ there is neighborhood which is obtained in $F(A)$. By the given there is minor $m \times m \neq 0$ and without loose of generality we assume that $\det\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}\right)_{i,j=1,\dots,m} \neq 0$

$$\begin{matrix} x_1 \rightarrow \\ \vdots \\ x_n \rightarrow \end{matrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} f_1 & \cdots \\ & \\ & \end{bmatrix} \quad f_n \right)$$

now take a point $a = (a_1, \dots, a_m, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ now we look at the first m cooordination and we denote it by $\tilde{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_m)$, now every vector $x = (x_1, \dots, x_m, \dots, x_n)$ and we denote $\tilde{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$ so we can do the same for A we can define $\tilde{A} = \{\tilde{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m) | (x_1, \dots, x_m, \dots, x_n) \in A\}$



In neighborhood of \tilde{a} in \mathbb{R}^m we define $G : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ when,

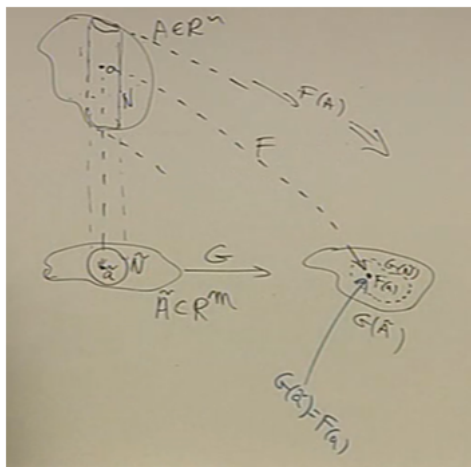
$$G(x_1, \dots, x_m) = F(x_1, \dots, x_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n)$$

explicitly,

$$G(\tilde{a}) = G(a_1, \dots, a_n) = F(a_1, \dots, a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n) = F(a)$$

$$DG|_{\tilde{a}} = \left(\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_j} \right)_{i,j=1,\dots,m} \Big|_{\tilde{a}} = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right)_{i,j=1,\dots,m} \Big|_{\tilde{a}} \neq 0$$

So we conclude that G is 1 : 1 hence, for $\tilde{a} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ there is open neighborhood $\tilde{N} \subset \tilde{A}$ in which G is invertible.



Now define

$$N = \{x | (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \tilde{N} \mid (x_1, \dots, x_m, \dots, x_n) \in A\}$$

$$F(A) \supseteq F(N) = \{F(x_1, \dots, x_m, \dots, x_n) | x \in N\} \supseteq \{F(x_1, \dots, x_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n) | \tilde{x} \in \tilde{N}\}$$

Notice that

$$\{F(x_1, \dots, x_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n) | \tilde{x} \in \tilde{N}\} = \{G(\tilde{x}) | \tilde{x} \in \tilde{N}\} = G(\tilde{N})$$

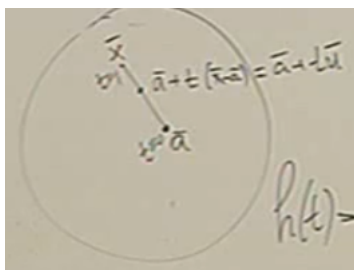
So we are finished. \square

Part 10. Taylor Formula

let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, f has a continuous differential partial with order $k + 1$ in neighborhood of

$$a = (a_1, \dots, a_n), x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$u = x - a = (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n), u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$$



$$h(t) = f(a + tu) = f(a_1 + tu_1, \dots, a_n + tu_n)$$

As in one variable we know that;

$$h(t) = h(0) + \frac{h'(0)}{1!}t^1 + \dots + \frac{h^{(k)}(0)}{k!}t^k + R_k$$

(a_

$$R_k = \frac{h^{(k+1)}(c)}{(k+1)!}t^{k+1}, 0 < c < t$$

Now notice that

$$h(0) = a$$

$$h'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + tu) \underbrace{\frac{dx_i}{dt}}_{u_i} = \sum_{i=1}^n f_{x_i}(a + tu) u_i = \vec{\nabla} f|_{a+tu} \cdot u$$

$$h'(0) = \sum \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}|_a \cdot u_i = \vec{\nabla} f(a) \cdot u$$

$$h''(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n f_{x_i}(a + tu) \cdot u_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} u_j u_i$$

$$h''(0) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a) u_i u_j = u^t H u$$

This matrix is a quatar form i.e

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

Since

$$f_{x_i x_j} = f_{x_j x_i}$$

We conclude the matrix is symmetric.

$$\begin{aligned} h^{(r)}(t) &= \sum_{1 \leq i_1, \dots, i_r \leq n} \frac{\partial^t f(a + tu)}{\partial x_{i_1} \partial x_{i_2} \dots \partial x_{i_r}} u_{i_1} u_{i_2} \dots u_{i_r} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n = r \\ 0 \leq r_i}} \frac{r!}{r_1! r_2! \dots r_n!} \frac{\partial^t f(a + tu)}{\partial x_1^{r_1} \partial x_2^{r_2} \dots \partial x_n^{r_n}} u_1^{r_1} \dots u_n^{r_n} \end{aligned}$$

using the multibinomial formula which is,

$$(u_1 + \dots + u_n)^r = \sum_{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n = r} \frac{r!}{r_1! r_2! \dots r_n!} u_1^{r_1} \dots u_n^{r_n}$$

$$(u_1 + u_2)^r = \sum_{0 \leq r_2 \leq r_1} \frac{r!}{r_1! (r - r_1)!} u_1^{r_1} u_2^{r - r_1}$$

So now we can use that and get

$$\sum_{\substack{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n = r \\ 0 \leq r_i}} \frac{r!}{r_1! r_2! \dots r_n!} \frac{\partial^t f(a + tu)}{\partial x_1^{r_1} \partial x_2^{r_2} \dots \partial x_n^{r_n}} u_1^{r_1} \dots u_n^{r_n} = (u_1 \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + u_2 \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} + \dots + u_n \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n})^r f|_{(a+tu)}$$

Now we will back to f :

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{1}{1!} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f(a)}{\partial x_i} (x_i - a_i) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f(a)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} (x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) + \dots$$

Example. Multivariable function,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= f(a, b) + \left[\frac{\partial f(a, b)}{\partial x} (x - a) + \frac{\partial f(a, b)}{\partial y} (y - b) \right] + \frac{1}{2!} [f_{x,x}(a, b)(x - a)^2 + 2f_{x,y}(a, b)(x - a)(y - b) \\ &\quad + f_{y,y}(a, b)(y - b)^2] + \frac{1}{3!} [\dots] \dots \end{aligned}$$

Part 11. Extremum Problems

$f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ for f there is local maximum $\tilde{x} \in A$ if for \tilde{x} there is neighborhood which obtained in A S.T, $f(\tilde{x}) \geq f(x), \forall x \in U$. if $\tilde{x} \in A$ but not interior i.e $x \in \partial A$ then similar but $\forall x \in U \cap A$.

Theorem. (A important condition for extremum).

if $f \in C^1$ in set A and it has a Maxima Or minima in \tilde{x} (interior point) then a necessary condition that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\tilde{x}) = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ i.e $\vec{\nabla} f(\tilde{x}) = (f_{x_1}, \dots, f_{x_n})(\tilde{x}) = \vec{0}$.

Proof. recall $\tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$, $g(x_1) = f(x_1, \underbrace{\tilde{x}_2, \dots, \tilde{x}_n}_{\text{parameters}})$ then for $g(x_1)$ there is extremum for $x_1 = \tilde{x}_1$ and from calculus 1 for a function with single variable, a necessary condition to extremum is $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1}|_{\tilde{x}_1} = 0$ and the same for x_2, \dots, x_n . \square

Remark. a necessary condition is not enough E.g $f(x, y, z) = x \cdot y \cdot z$ $f_x = yz$ $f_y = xz$ $f_z = xy$ now,

$$0 = f_x(0, 0, 0) = f_y(0, 0, 0) = f_z(0, 0, 0)$$

But in $(0, 0, 0)$ there is no extremum.

Definition. a point \tilde{x} in which $\vec{\nabla} f(\tilde{x}) = 0$ is called stationary.

Theorem. (a enough condition for extremum for maps $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$).

let $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, A is open set, $\tilde{x} \in A$, f has a continuous deffreintial partials withb order 2, $\nabla f(\tilde{x}) = \vec{0}$.

$$A = f_{x_1 x_1}(\tilde{x}), B = f_{x_1 x_2}(\tilde{x}). C = f_{x_2 x_2}(\tilde{x})$$

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{vmatrix} = AC - B^2$$

Then

$$H = \begin{vmatrix} f_{x_1 x_1} & f_{x_1 x_2} \\ f_{x_2 x_1} & f_{x_2 x_2} \end{vmatrix}(\tilde{x})$$

in those assumption,

- (1) if $\Delta > 0$ then for \tilde{x} there is local extremum. 1.1. if $A > 0$ then local minimum. 1.2. if $A < 0$ then local maximum. ($A = 0$ not possible Since, $AC - B^2 > 0$).
- (2) $\Delta < 0$ for f there is no extremum in \tilde{x} . (saddle point).
- (3) $\Delta = 0$ we can't decide in those points.

Proof. Taylor formula for $f \in C^2$,

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{1}{1!} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f(a)}{\partial x_i} (x_i - a_i) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f(a)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} (x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j)$$

Now using the Taylor formula we get,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = f(\tilde{x}) + \frac{1}{1!} \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\tilde{x})(x_1 - \tilde{x}_1) \right]}_0 + \frac{1}{1!} \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(\tilde{x})(x_2 - \tilde{x}_2) \right]}_0 + \frac{1}{2!} [f_{x_1 x_1}(c)(x_1 - \tilde{x}_1)^2 \\ + 2f_{x_1 x_2}(c)(x_1 - \tilde{x}_1)(x_2 - \tilde{x}_2) + f_{x_2 x_2}(c)(x_2 - \tilde{x}_2)^2] \end{aligned}$$

when c is between x and \tilde{x} .

Now in case 1, 2 we have that,

$$\Delta = f_{x_1 x_1} \cdot f_{x_1 x_2} - f_{x_1 x_2}^2|_{\tilde{x}} \neq 0$$

by taking a small neighborhood U of \tilde{x} in which,

$$\text{sign}(f_{x_1 x_1} \cdot f_{x_1 x_2} - f_{x_1 x_2}^2) = \text{sign}(AC - B^2) \neq 0$$

Moreover,

$$\text{sign}(f_{x_1 x_1}) - \text{sign}(A) \neq 0$$

$$f(x) - f(\tilde{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \left[\underbrace{\alpha}_{f_{x_1 x_1}(c)} \underbrace{u^2}_{x_1 - \tilde{x}_1} + 2\beta uv + \gamma v^2 \right]$$

Now in order to show that we have maxima or minima we need to show that $f(x) > f(\tilde{x})$ i.e we need to determine the sign of the Quartar Linear form $\left[\underbrace{\alpha}_{f_{x_1 x_1}(c)} \underbrace{u^2}_{x_1 - \tilde{x}_1} + 2\beta uv + \gamma v^2 \right]$.

$$[\alpha u^2 + 2\beta uv + \gamma v^2] = \alpha \left[u^2 + 2\frac{\beta}{\alpha} uv + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha} v^2 \right]$$

when $f_{x_1 x_1}(c)$ sign is the same as A , $\neq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} [\alpha u^2 + 2\beta uv + \gamma v^2] &= \alpha \left[u^2 + 2\frac{\beta}{\alpha} uv + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha} v^2 \right] = \alpha \left[\left(u + \frac{\beta}{\alpha} v \right)^2 - \frac{\beta^2}{\alpha^2} v^2 + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha} v^2 \right] \\ &= \alpha \left[\left(u + \frac{\beta}{\alpha} v \right)^2 - \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha \gamma}{\alpha^2} v^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

if $AC - B^2 > 0$ then $\alpha\gamma - \beta^2 > 0$ and,

CASE 1:

$A > 0 \Rightarrow \alpha > 0 \Rightarrow f(x) - f(\tilde{x}) > 0$ in neighborhood hence, we have minimum. if $\alpha < 0$ we have maximim since, $f(x) < f(\tilde{x})$.

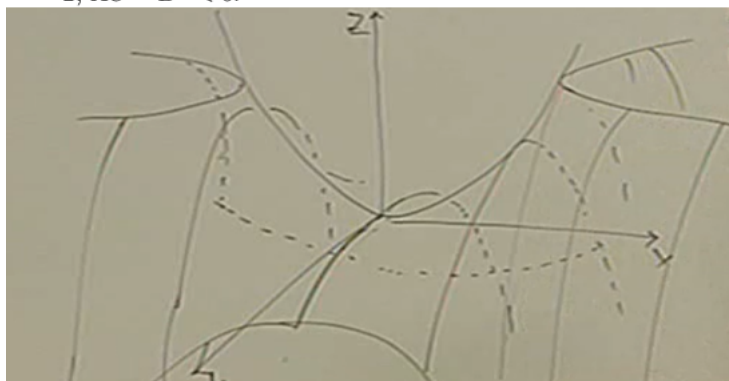
CASE 2:

$$AC - B^2 < 0, \alpha\gamma - \beta^2 < 0 \text{ i.e}$$

$$(u + \frac{\beta}{\alpha}v)^2 - \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha\gamma^2}{\alpha^2}v^2$$

in this case, we can determine the sign. Since, *E.g* for the line $v = 0$ we still we $(u + \frac{\beta}{\alpha}v)^2 > 0$ and we can take the line $u = -\frac{\beta}{\alpha}v$, we still with $(\text{negative-term}) \cdot v^2 < 0$. So the collary is that we can't decide if it's maximum or minimum. \square

Example. look at $z = f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ $(0, 0)$ is a stationary point, $A = 2, B = 0, C = -2, AC - B^2 < 0$.



This is a saddle point nor maximum or minimum.

Example. $f(x, y) = x^2y^7$ now notice that $(0, 0)$ is a stationarty point $A = 0, B = 0, C = 0$ then $AC - B^2 = 0$ **BUT** $(0, 0)$ is not extremum, now $f(x, y) = x^2y^8$ and $AC - B^2 = 0$ and $(0, 0)$ is minimum.

in n variables:

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$$

$$f(x) = f(\tilde{x}) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (x - \tilde{x}) + \underbrace{\sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(z)(x_i - \tilde{x}_i) \cdot (x_j - \tilde{x}_j)}_{R_2}$$

when z is a point between \tilde{x} and x . if \tilde{x} is a stationarty point then $\vec{\nabla} f|_{\tilde{x}} = 0$ hence,

$$f(x) - f(\tilde{x}) = Hu \cdot u = u^T H u$$

When H is the Hessian matrix calculated in a point z , Moreover, $\vec{u} = (x - \tilde{x})$.

Corollary. f has minimum in the stationarty point \tilde{x} if $u^T H u$ positive $\forall \vec{u}$ i.e

$$H = (\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j})(z)$$

H is symmertic matrix, and those conditions are equivalent:

- (1) $\vec{u}^T H \vec{u} > 0 \forall \vec{u} \neq 0$.
- (2) $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are positive eigenvalues.
- (3) Selvester: All possible minors are positive i.e

$$h_{11} > 0, \left| \begin{array}{cc} h_{11} & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} \end{array} \right| > 0, \dots, \left| \begin{array}{cccc} h_{11} & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & h_{nn} & \end{array} \right| > 0$$

Remark. Max: H is defined negative $\iff -H$ defined positive. Since, f has maximum $\iff -f$ has minimum.

Part 12. Extremum With Restrections

Find a critical points for $f(x, y)$ on the curve point $g(x, y) = 0$.

Example. Find a point on the surface $z = x^2 - y^2$ which is the most close to the point $(3, 4, 5)$.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (x-3)^2 + (y-4)^2 + (z-5)^2 \stackrel{?}{=} \min(\text{target} - \text{function}). \\ x^2 - y^2 - z = 0(\text{restriction}). \end{array} \right\}$$

In general,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{extr}, f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Example. find $\max\{x^2 + y^3 - 7xy\}$ in the set $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$.

Solution. in the interior $x^2 + y^2 < 1$ we will search for a local maximum by,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (x^2 + y^2 - 7xy)_x = 0 \\ (x^2 + y^2 - 7xy)_y = 0 \end{array} \right\} \text{Stationary - points, and - etc..}$$

On the boundry,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \max(x^2 + y^2 - 7xy) \\ x^2 + y^2 = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

..

Part 13. Lagrange Multipliers Method

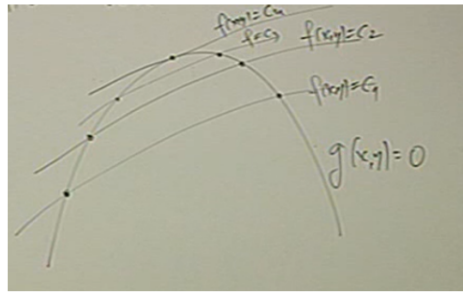
Theorem. Given functions $f, g : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, A is open set, $f, g \in C^1$ if to the following problem:

$$\begin{cases} \text{extr}, f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \end{cases}$$

There is extremum Maxima or Minima in $\tilde{x} \in A$ and if $\vec{\nabla}g(\tilde{x}) \neq 0$, the $\exists \lambda$ S.T

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(f - \lambda g)(\tilde{x}) = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n \\ g(\tilde{x}) = 0 \end{cases}$$

“Geometric Motivation”:



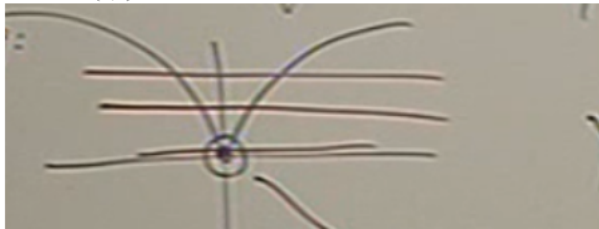
Now notice that we can use the Implicit Function Theorem hence, $g(x, y) = 0$ and we can extract $y = y(x) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{g_x}{g_y}$, $f(x, y) - C = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y}$ Notice that they are tangent in the tangent point which is specious to be max or min i.e $-\frac{f_x}{f_y} = -\frac{g_x}{g_y}$ in the tangent point Denote $\lambda = \frac{f_x}{g_x} = \frac{f_y}{g_y}|_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})}$ So,

$$\begin{cases} (f - \lambda g)_x = 0 \\ (f - \lambda g)_y = 0 \end{cases}$$

Remark. Without the assumption $\vec{\nabla}g(\tilde{x}) \neq 0$ it's not true. for counter example:

$$\begin{cases} f(x, y) = y \\ g(x, y) = x^2 - y^3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Our restriction is that $y = \sqrt[3]{x^2}$ as in the photo we can see that y get the minimal value in $(0, 0)$ but the method of lagrange multipliers is not working $\nabla g = (2x, -3y^2)|_{(0,0)} = (0, 0)$ and for the curve $g(x, y) = 0$ there is no tangent in $(0, 0)$.



Proof. Assuming that $\text{extr} f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is in $\tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n)$ Moreover, $\vec{\nabla}g|_{\tilde{x}} \neq \vec{0}$.

Assuming without loose of generality that $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}|_{\tilde{x}} \neq 0$ So we can extract x_n By the Implicit Function Theorem, we extract it from $g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$ the variable

Moreover, $x_n = h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$ in the neighborhood of the following point i.e $g(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) = 0$ in neighborhood of $(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_{n-1})$, now the target function, $u(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, h(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) \stackrel{?}{=} \text{extr}$ by the assumption for this there is extrmum in $(\tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_{n-1})$ hence,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} u(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} |_{\tilde{x}} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} |_{\tilde{x}} = 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} = - \frac{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}}{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}}$$

Now we plug in the first equation and get that:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \cdot \left(- \frac{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i}}{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}} \right) |_{\tilde{x}} = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1 \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n} \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} |_{\tilde{x}} = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Now denote $\lambda = - \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}}{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}}$ hence,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} - \underbrace{\left(\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}}{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}} \right)}_{\lambda} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i} |_{\tilde{x}} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (f - \lambda g)(\tilde{x}) = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

Notice that in case $i = n$ it's trivial and still working Since everything vanish

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} - \underbrace{\left(\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}}{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n}} \right)}_{\lambda} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_n} |_{\tilde{x}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} = 0$$

□

Example. find extr $Q(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} x_i x_j$ when $(a_{ij} = a_{ji})$ symmetric) under the restriction $x_1^2 + \dots x_n^2 = 1$ i.e on the unit ball boundry.

Solution. Denote $g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 1 = 0$ Notice that Q continuous Since, by Weierstrass Theorem there is maxima and minima hence, we can find them by lagrange multipliers.

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} a_{ij} x_i x_j$$

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x_k} = 2a_{kk} x_k + \sum (a_{kj} x_j + a_{ik} x_i) = 2[a_{kk} x_k + \sum_{j \neq k} a_{ij} x_j] = 2 \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ji} x_j$$

$$\left[\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x_k} - \lambda g\right] = 2\left[\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ji}x_j - \lambda x_k\right] = 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ji}x_j = \lambda x_k, k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

it's identical to:

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}, \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_k \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

hence $\lambda = \text{eigenvalue}$, $(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \text{eigenvector}$, $\sum x_i^2 = 1$ i.e it's not only a eigenvector also it's a unit vector. in the following point, the value of $Q(\dots)$ is

$$Q(\tilde{x}) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}x_ix_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\left(\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j\right)}_{\lambda x_i} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda x_i^2 = \lambda \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2\right)}_1 = \lambda$$

So the minima of Q defined as $\min Q = \min(\lambda_i)_{i=1}^k$ when $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^k$ is the set of eigenvalues of A and the max defined in identical way i.e $\max Q = \max(\lambda_i)_{i=1}^k$.

Part 14. Some Inequalities

Young Inequality: Given that $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1, \forall x, y \geq 0, p, q > 1$ Show that:

$$\frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q} \geq xy$$

Proof. We need to find $\min\left(\frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q}\right)$ under the restriction $xy = k$ $x, y > 0$. from Geometric propistion i'ts obvious the there is minimum on the line $xy = k$, we will search for it using the Lagrange Multipliers:

$$f - \lambda g = \left(\frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q}\right) - \lambda(xy - k)$$

In extremum point:

$$\begin{cases} x^{p-1} - \lambda y = 0 \\ y^{q-1} - \lambda x = 0 \\ xy = k \end{cases}$$

Hence,

$$x^p = \lambda xy, y^q = \lambda xy, x^p = y^q = \lambda xy = \lambda k \Rightarrow x = (\lambda k)^{\frac{1}{p}}, y = (\lambda k)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

So the point $(x, y) = ((\lambda k)^{\frac{1}{p}}, (\lambda k)^{\frac{1}{q}})$ should be minimum and we got that:

$$k = xy = (\lambda k)^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot (\lambda k)^{\frac{1}{q}} = \lambda^{\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}} \cdot k^{\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}} \Rightarrow \lambda = 1$$

$$\frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q} \geq \min\left(\frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q}\right) = \frac{k}{p} + \frac{k}{q} = k\left(\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q}\right) = k = xy$$

□

Remark. We should the folloing only in specefic line xy which is quartar of the plane since xy cover it, So notice that we required that $x, y > 0$ so indeed we should the following on the required part of the plane Moreover, for $x, y = 0$ it's trivial.

Holder Inequality: let $0 \leq u_1, \dots, u_n, v_1, \dots, v_n$ and define $x = \frac{u_i}{(\sum_{j=1}^n u_j^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}}, y = \frac{v_i}{(\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}}$

and we plug in into $\frac{x^p}{p} + \frac{y^q}{q} \geq xy$ hence we get that:

$$\frac{u_i}{(\sum_{j=1}^n u_j^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}} \cdot \frac{v_i}{(\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}} \leq \frac{1}{p} \cdot \frac{u_i^p}{(\sum_{j=1}^n u_j^p)} + \frac{1}{q} \cdot \frac{v_i^q}{(\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^q)}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{x^p} \qquad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{y^q}$

Now we sum $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\frac{\sum u_i v_i}{(\sum_{j=1}^n u_j^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}} \leq \frac{1}{p} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{q} \cdot 1 = 1 \Rightarrow \sum u_i v_i \leq (\sum_{j=1}^n u_j^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

Claim. Given $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ $p, q > 0$ then:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i \leq (\sum_{j=1}^n u_j^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum_{j=1}^n v_j^q)^{\frac{1}{q}}, u_i, v_i \geq 0$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} \leq \|\vec{u}\|_p \|\vec{v}\|_q, \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

Notice that for $p = 2, q = 2$ we get that Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality.

Minkowski Inequality: Given $p > 1$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i + b_i|^p \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (|a_i| + |b_i|) |a_i + b_i|^{p-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{|a_i|}_{u_i} \cdot \underbrace{|a_i + b_i|^{p-1}}_{v_i} + \sum_{i=1}^n |b_i| \cdot |a_i + b_i|^{p-1}$$

$$\leq_{**} (\sum |a_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum (|a_i + b_i|^{p-1})^{\frac{p-1}{p-1}})^{\frac{p-1}{p}} + (\sum |b_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum (|a_i + b_i|^{p-1})^{\frac{p-1}{p-1}})^{\frac{p-1}{p}}$$

Notice that :

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{q} = 1 - \frac{1}{p} = \frac{p-1}{p}$$

hence,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |a_i + b_i|^p \leq_* (\sum |a_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum (|a_i + b_i|^p)^{1-\frac{1}{p}}) + (\sum |b_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} (\sum (|a_i + b_i|^p)^{1-\frac{1}{p}})$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum (|a_i + b_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq (\sum |a_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}} + (\sum |b_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

where in * we used the triangle Inequality Moreover, in ** we used the holder Inequality.

Corollary. *We conclude that:*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|\vec{a} + \vec{b}\|_p \leq \|\vec{a}\|_p + \|\vec{b}\|_p \\ p > 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

Example. Find $\max\{x^2 + y^2 - 12x + 16y\}$ into the set, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x^2 + y^2 \leq 1 \\ 3x + y \geq 0 \end{array} \right\}$.

Solution. We will search in steps:

Step 1:

We will find into the interior of the set,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f_x : 2x - 12 = 0 \\ f_y : 2y + 16 = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

So $(6, -8)$ is not in the our domain hence, there is no local extremum.

Step 2:

We need to search for extremum on the boundy $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ i.e

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \max\{x^2 + y^2 - 12x + 16y\} \\ g = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

We will solve it using Lagrange multipliers:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2x - 12 - \lambda \cdot 2x = 0 \\ 2y + 16 - \lambda \cdot 2y = 0 \\ x^2 + y^2 = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

Step 3:

maybe the max is on the line $3x + y = 0$ So it's again Lagrange multipliers problem.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2x - 12 - \lambda \cdot 3 = 0 \\ 2y + 16 - \lambda \cdot 1 = 0 \\ 3x + y = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Step 4:

We will search of non deffrentiable points on the bounrdy (i.e the end) the values of the function, and between them we can identefy the global extremum.

Part 15. integration in n variables.

let D bounded set obtained in a box

$$B = \left\{ (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid \begin{array}{c} a_1 \leq x_1 \leq b_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \leq x_n \leq b_n \end{array} \right\}$$

we can divide the box into small boxes i.e

$$B_{ijk\dots} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} x_{1,i} \leq x_1 \leq x_{1,i+1} \\ x_{2,j} \leq x_2 \leq x_{2,j+1} \\ \vdots \end{array} \right\}$$

- (1) there is boxes which obtain interior point of D .
- (2) there is boxes which obtain the interior point of $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus D$.
- (3) all the other point are a boundary point i.e in the ∂D .

Definition. we will define some terms.

- (1) $\underline{S}(P, D)$ = sum of the boxes volume which are obtained in D .
- (2) $\bar{S}(P, D)$ = sum of boxes volume which obtain D .

Remark. $\bar{S} \geq \underline{S}$ and we look into the $\bar{S} = \inf_P \bar{S}(P, D), \underline{S} = \sup_P \underline{S}(P, D)$.

Definition. if $\bar{S} = \underline{S}$ we will say the D has volume. and this constant is the volume of D , $V(D)$.

Definition. a set is called “volume 0” if $\forall \epsilon > 0$ exist a finite set of boxes which cover that set and the sum of volumes $< \epsilon$.

Mark : ∂D is the boundary of the set D .

$$\bar{S}(P, \partial D) = \bar{S}(P, D) - \underline{S}(P, D)$$

$$\inf \bar{S}(P, \partial D) = \inf (\bar{S} - \underline{S}) \geq \inf \bar{S}(P, D) - \sup \underline{S}(P, D) = \bar{V}(D) - \underline{V}(D)$$

Corollary. if ∂D has a volume 0 then $\bar{V}(D) = \underline{V}(D)$ therefore, D has volume.

other direction we assume that D has volume, $\bar{V}(D) = \underline{V}(D)$, $\bar{V} = \inf_P \bar{S}(P, D)$
i.e $\forall \epsilon > 0$ there is P_1 S.T:

$$\bar{V}(P_1, D) + \epsilon > \bar{S}(P_1, D) \geq \bar{V}(P_1, D)$$

$\underline{V} = \sup_P \underline{S}$ i.e $\forall \epsilon > 0$ there is P_2 S.T $\underline{V}(D) \geq \underline{S}(P_2, D) > \underline{V}(D) - \epsilon$ for a partition $P_1 \cup P_2$:

$$\bar{V}(D) + \epsilon > \bar{S}(P_1 \cup P_2, D) \geq \bar{V}(D) = \underline{V}(D) \geq \underline{S}(P_1 \cup P_2, D) > \underline{V}(D) - \epsilon$$

hence,

$$2\epsilon > \bar{S}(P_1 \cup P_2) - \underline{S}(P_1 \cup P_2, D) \geq 0$$

$$2\epsilon > \bar{S}(P_1 \cup P_2, \partial D) \geq 0, \forall \epsilon > 0$$

hence, ∂D has volume 0.

Theorem. D is bounded with volume \iff it's boundary has volume 0 .

Example. a continuous curve $y = f(x), a \leq x \leq b$ in \mathbb{R}^2 "volume 0".

Proof. f continuous in $[a, b] \Rightarrow f$ is a uniformly continuous i.e $\forall \epsilon > 0$ there is $\delta(\epsilon)$ S.T $|u-v| < \delta$ then $|f(u)-f(v)| < \epsilon$. we will divide $[a, b]$ to $a = x_1 < x_2 \dots < x_n = b$ S.T $x_{i+1} - x_i < \delta$:

$$\bar{S} = \sum (x_{i+1} - x_i) \underbrace{(\max f - \min f)}_{< \epsilon} < \epsilon \cdot \sum (x_{i+1} - x_i) = \epsilon \cdot (b - a) ..$$

it's small as we want..

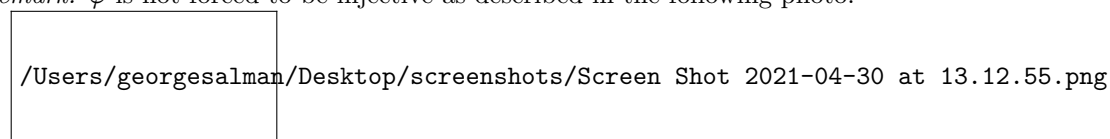
□

Changing variables in n variables:

Reminder: changing variable in 1 dimension. $\int_a^b f(t)dt, f$ continuous. a plug in $t = \varphi(x), \varphi : [\alpha, \beta] \rightarrow [a, b], a = \varphi(\alpha), b = \varphi(\beta)$ then :

$$\left(\int_{\varphi(\alpha)}^{\varphi(\beta)} f(t)dt \right) = \int_a^b f(t)dt = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(\varphi(x)) \cdot \varphi'(x)dx$$

Remark. φ is not forced to be injective as described in the following photo.



Theorem. given a open set $G \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and a transformation $\varphi : G \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ S.T :

$$\varphi : (x_1, .., x_n) \rightarrow (t_1, .., t_n)$$

$$t_i = \varphi_i(x_1, .., x_n), i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

With the following assumptions:

- (1) φ has a differential partials with order 1 in G .
- (2) φ is injective when in one dimension it's not a necessary condition.
- (3) $J_{\varphi}(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in G$.

let D be a closed set with a volume in G . and let $f(t) = f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ be a continuous function on the image $\varphi(t)$ then:

$$\int_{\varphi(D)} f(t_1, \dots, t_n) dt_1 \dots dt_n = \int_D f(\varphi(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \left| \frac{\partial(\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \right| dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

A PRIVATE CASE:

$$f(t_1, \dots, t_n) = 1 ,$$

$$V(\varphi|D|) = \int_{\varphi(D)} dt_1, \dots, dt_n = \int_D |J_\varphi(x)| dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

THE SIMPLEST CASE:

let $\varphi = L$ linear, $\varphi(x) = Lx$ then:

$$J_\varphi = J_L = \left| \left(\frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial x_j} \right) \right| = |(l_{ij})| = \text{Det}(L)$$

$$V(L(D)) = \int_D |\text{Det}(L)| dx_1 \dots dx_n = |\text{Det}(L)| \cdot V(D)$$

Lemma. for every transformation invertible L and for every box $B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ exists, $V(L(B)) = |\text{Det}(L)| \cdot V(B)$.

Proof. first remember that box volume = multipliacion of the edges.

Now by linear algebra we can write evely linear transformation L as elementary multipliacion L_1, \dots, L_n of elementart matrices of different types: \square

- (1) multiplication of the first coordinate by constant i.e $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (\lambda x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

by the matrix
$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

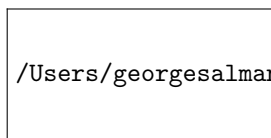
- (2) adding coordinate to other i.e $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (x_1 + x_2, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ by the fol-

lowing matrix
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- (3) Changing coordinate order i.e $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (x_2, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ by the matrix

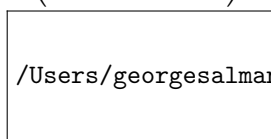
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In a matrix reduction $L \cdot (L_1 \cdot L_2 \dots L_n) = I$ now we need to know what all of those following operations affect the box volume.

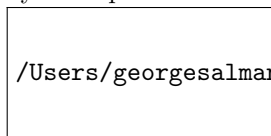


this operation multiply the volume by λ Moreover,

$$\text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda.$$



by this operation the Volume preserve, and $\det(\dots) = 1$.



The volume preserved Moreover, $|\det(\dots)| = +1$.

Now we will summarize:

$$V(L(B)) = V(L_1(L_2(\dots L_n(B)\dots))) = |\text{Det}(L_1)|V(L_2\dots L_n(B))$$

$$= \dots = |\text{Det}(L_1)| \cdot |\text{Det}(L_2)| \dots |\text{Det}(L_n)| \cdot V(B) =_* \text{Det}(L_1 \cdots L_n) \cdot V(B)$$

$$= |\text{Det}(L)| \cdot V(B)$$

Where in $*$ we use determinant property of transformation multiplication.

Remark. we already saw that if B is a box and L is $L.T$ then $V(L(B)) = |\text{Det}(L)| \cdot V(B)$. now if D a graph with volume and φ is a s map as mentioned then our target to show that if D has volume $\Rightarrow \varphi(D)$ has volume too.

Remark. if a set D has volume then ∂D has to be with volume 0.

Lemma. G a open set in \mathbb{R}^n , $\varphi \in C^1(G)$, E is a closed and bounded set, then if for E there is "volume 0" then for $\varphi(E)$ there is volume 0.

Proof. By the definition $\forall \epsilon > 0$ there is finite number of boxes $E.g B_1, B_2, \dots$ which cover E and it's volume sum $< \epsilon$, now we take in a box B_k from those boxes two point x, y and we connect them by a slope i.e $(1-t)x + ty, 0 \leq t \leq 1$ and denote $h(t) = \varphi((1-t)x + ty)$ hence,

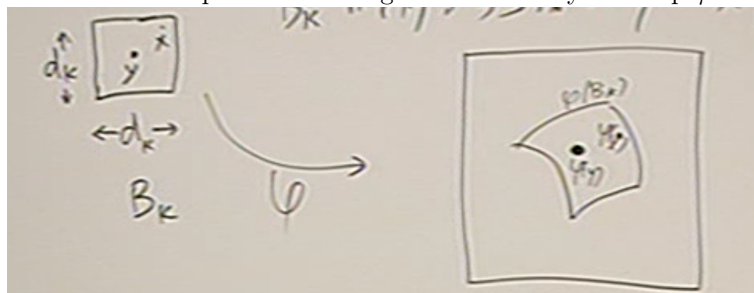
$$\varphi(y) - \varphi(x) = h(1) - h(0) = h'(c^*)(1 - 0)$$

$$h(t) = \varphi((1-t)x_1 + ty_1, (1-t)x_2 + ty_2, \dots)$$

$$h'(c^*) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial x_j} \Big|_{t=c^*} (y_j - x_j)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\varphi(y) - \varphi(x)\|_\infty &= \max_i |\varphi_i(y) - \varphi_i(x)| = \max \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial x_j} \Big|_{t=c^*} (y_j - x_j) \\ &\leq n \cdot \max_{\cup B_k} \left| \frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial x_j} \right| \cdot \max |y_j - x_j| = M \cdot \|y - x\|_\infty \end{aligned}$$

Now we take the center of box B_k assuming y and x is a point in the box, as described in the picture the image is distorted by the map φ



hence, the image of B_k is obtained in a box with edge Md_k so the volume of all the new boxes imply,

$$\sum (Md_k)^n = M^n \underbrace{\sum d_k^n}_{< \epsilon} \leq M^n \epsilon$$

hence, $\varphi(E)$ has a “volume 0” as required \square

Lemma. G open set in \mathbb{R}^n , $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $\varphi \in C^1$, φ is 1 : 1 on G and $J_\varphi \neq 0$ in every point, if D is a closed and bounded set with a volume which is obtained in G , then $\varphi(D)$ has volume.

Proof. D has volume $\iff \partial D$ has volume 0 $\Rightarrow \varphi(\partial D)$ has volume 0. In our assumptions the open maps Theorem is valid Since, the interior of D is mapped to the interior of $\varphi(D)$ and the boundary ∂D is mapped to the boundary of $\varphi(D)$ (look at φ^{-1}) hence, $\varphi(\partial D) = \partial(\varphi(D))$ those are with volume 0 therefore, $\varphi(D)$ has volume. \square

Remark. if we assume toward contradiction that one point x assuming without loss of generality interior point then it should be mapped to interior in $\varphi(D)$ otherwise, we can look at $\varphi^{-1}(x)$ this is interior point by the Theorem of open maps, so the interior of D forced to be mapped $\varphi(D)$.

Lemma. D is a set with volume. and it satisfy all the previous assumptions, L is L.T then $V(L(D)) = |\text{Det}(L)| \cdot V(D)$.

Proof. we already show it when D is a box, now we want to prove it for D which is not a box, if D has volume then we can find union of boxes which obtain and obtained in D i.e

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{B} \subset D \subset \bar{B} \\ V(\underline{B}) \subset V(D) \subset V(\bar{B}) \\ 0 \leq V(\bar{B}) - V(\underline{B}) < \epsilon \end{array} \right\}$$

Now we look at :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} L(\underline{B}) \subset L(D) \subset L(\bar{B}) \\ |detL| \cdot V(\underline{B}) = V(L(\underline{B})) \subset V(L(D)) \subset V(L(\bar{B})) = |detL| \cdot V(B) \end{array} \right\}$$

Hence,

$$V(\underline{B}) \leq \frac{V(L(D))}{|detL|} \leq V(\bar{B})$$

$$V(\underline{B}) \subset V(D) \subset V(\bar{B})$$

$$0 \leq V(\bar{B}) - V(\underline{B}) < \epsilon$$

therefore,

□

Lemma.

$$\left| \frac{V(L(D))}{|detL|} - V(D) \right| \leq V(\bar{B}) - V(\underline{B}) < \epsilon, \forall \epsilon > 0$$

Proof. So we conclude that:

$$\frac{V(L(D))}{|detL|} = V(D) \Rightarrow V(L(D)) = |detL| \cdot V(D)$$

□