

21 Higher-order partial derivatives, the Laplacian, and the multinomial theorem

Definition 21.1. (C^r and C^∞ functions)

Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open, $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $r \in \mathbb{N}$.

The standard notations for the second derivative are

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right] = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} = \partial_{x_j} \partial_{x_i} f = \partial_{j_i}^2 f = \partial_j \partial_i f = \partial_{x_i x_j} f = f_{ij}, \text{ and } \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right] = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2} = \partial_i^2 f.$$

We say that f is of **class** C^r on U

if all of its partial derivatives of order $\leq r$ exist and are continuous on U .

We say that f is of **class** C^∞ on U

if all of its partial derivatives of all orders exist and are continuous on U .

Theorem 21.2. (reordering of partial derivatives)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $a \in S$, and $1 \leq i, j \leq k$.

If $\partial_i f, \partial_j f$, and $\partial_{j_i}^2 f$ exist on S , and $\partial_{j_i}^2 f$ is continuous at a ,

then $\partial_{i_j}^2 f(a)$ exists and $\partial_{i_j}^2 f(a) = \partial_{j_i}^2 f(a)$.

For $\partial_{i_j}^2 f(a) \neq \partial_{j_i}^2 f(a)$, refer to the example $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0), \\ \frac{xy(x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Corollary 21.3. (C^r and reordering of partial derivatives)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

1. If f is C^2 on S , then $\partial_{ji}^2 f = \partial_{ij}^2 f$ on S for all $1 \leq i, j \leq k$.
2. If f is C^r on S for some $r \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\partial_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_r}^r f = \partial_{j_1 j_2 \dots j_r}^r f$ on S for all $1 \leq i_1, i_2, \dots, i_r \leq k$, where (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_r) is a reordering of (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_r) .

Proposition 21.4. (the Laplacian of f)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be open and let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^2 on S and be denoted by $(x, y) \mapsto f(x, y)$.

The **Laplacian** of f is defined to be $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$.

If $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$,

$$\text{then } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2}$$

Definition 21.5.

For a k -tuple $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ of nonnegative integers, we call it a **multi-index**

and define the sum of components $|\alpha|_c = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k$, the product of components $\alpha! = \alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!$,

$x^\alpha = x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots x_k^{\alpha_k}$, where $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$,

and $\partial^\alpha f = \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f = \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|_c} f}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \partial x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial x_k^{\alpha_k}}$, where both ∂_i^0 and ∂x_i^0 are conventionally neglected.

Notice that $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^k \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ and $|\alpha|_c \neq \|\alpha\|$ when $k \geq 2$.

Theorem 21.6 (the multinomial theorem).

For any $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\text{we have } (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_k)^n = \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^k, |\alpha|_c = n} \frac{n!}{\alpha!} x^\alpha = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = n \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq n}} \frac{n!}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!} x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots x_k^{\alpha_k}.$$

If $k = 2$, the above result is called the binomial theorem.

Theorem 21.7 (the high-dimensional binomial theorem). (exercise)

For two vectors $x = (x_1, \dots, x_k), y = (y_1, \dots, y_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and a multi-index $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k) \in \mathbb{N}_0^k$,

$$\text{we have } (x + y)^\gamma = \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}_0^k, \alpha + \beta = \gamma} \frac{\gamma!}{\alpha! \beta!} x^\alpha y^\beta = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_i + \beta_i = \gamma_i \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \leq k \\ 0 \leq \alpha_i, \beta_i \leq \gamma_i}} \frac{\gamma_1! \dots \gamma_k!}{\alpha_1! \dots \alpha_k! \beta_1! \dots \beta_k!} x_1^{\alpha_1} \dots x_k^{\alpha_k} y_1^{\beta_1} \dots y_k^{\beta_k}.$$

Proposition 21.8 (the product rule for partial derivatives). (exercise)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open, $f, g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^r differentiable on S , and $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k) \in \mathbb{N}_0^k$.

$$\text{Then } \partial^\gamma (fg) = \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}_0^k, \alpha + \beta = \gamma} \frac{\gamma!}{\alpha! \beta!} (\partial^\alpha f)(\partial^\beta g) = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_i + \beta_i = \gamma_i \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \leq k \\ 0 \leq \alpha_i, \beta_i \leq \gamma_i}} \frac{\gamma_1! \dots \gamma_k!}{\alpha_1! \dots \alpha_k! \beta_1! \dots \beta_k!} (\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f)(\partial_1^{\beta_1} \partial_2^{\beta_2} \dots \partial_k^{\beta_k} g).$$

Taylor's theorem in one variable

Theorem 22.1 (Taylor's theorem I with integral remainder).

Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^{m+1} on I and $c \in I$,

where $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is an open interval and $m \geq 0$ is an integer.

Then for any $x \in I$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^m \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n + \frac{\int_0^1 (1-t)^m f^{(m+1)}(c+t(x-c)) dt}{m!} (x-c)^{m+1};$$

here conventionally we write $f^{(0)}(c) = f(c)$.

The summation term $\sum_{n=0}^m \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$ is called

the **m th-order Taylor polynomial** for f about c on I .

The difference $f(x) - \sum_{n=0}^m \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$ is called

the **m th-order Taylor remainder** for f about c on I and is denoted by $R_{f,c,m}(x-c)$.

If, in addition, there exists $M \in [0, \infty)$ such that $|f^{(m+1)}(y)| \leq M$ for all $y \in I$,

then for any $x \in I$, we have $|R_{f,c,m}(x-c)| \leq \frac{M}{(m+1)!} |x-c|^{m+1}$.

Theorem 22.2 (Taylor's theorem II with integral remainder).

Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^m on I and $c \in I$,

where $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is an open interval and $m \geq 1$ is an integer.

Then for any $x \in I$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^m \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n + \frac{\int_0^1 (1-t)^{m-1} [f^{(m)}(c+t(x-c)) - f^{(m)}(c)] dt}{(m-1)!} (x-c)^m$$

and the m th-order Taylor remainder for f about c satisfies $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{R_{f,c,m}(x-c)}{(x-c)^m} = 0$.

Theorem 22.3 (Taylor's theorem with Lagrange's remainder and Taylor series).

Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable of order $m+1$ on I and $c \in I$,

where $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is an open interval and $m \geq 0$ is an integer.

Then for any $x \in I$, there exists z between x and c such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^m \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n + \frac{f^{(m+1)}(z)}{(m+1)!} (x-c)^{m+1}.$$

If, in addition, f is C^∞ on I , that is, f has derivatives of all orders on I

and $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{(m+1)}(z)}{(m+1)!} (x-c)^{m+1} = 0$ for all $x \in I$ and all z between x and c ,

then we call the series $\sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$ the **Taylor series** for f about c at $x \in I$;

which, in general, needs NOT converge to the function $f(x)$, refer to Example 22.6 and Corollary 69.2.

Notice that if there exists $M \in [0, \infty)$ such that $|f^{(n)}(y)| \leq M^n$ for all $y \in I$ and integers $n \geq 0$,

then $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{(m+1)}(z)}{(m+1)!} (x-c)^{m+1} = 0$ for all $x \in I$ and all z between x and c ,

Example 22.4. (the Taylor series for elementary functions)

$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^\infty x^n$ on $(-1, 1)$, $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{1}{n!} x^n$ on \mathbb{R} , $\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{(n+1)} x^{n+1}$ on $(-1, 1]$,

$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} x^{2n+1}$ on \mathbb{R} , and $\cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$ on \mathbb{R} .

Definition 22.5.

Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a C^∞ function, where $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is an open interval.

We say that f is **analytic** on I

if for any $c \in I$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $(c-\delta, c+\delta) \subseteq I$ and for any $x \in (c-\delta, c+\delta)$, one has $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$.

Example 22.6.

Define $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x}, & \text{if } x > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } x \leq 0. \end{cases}$

Then f is C^∞ on \mathbb{R} , analytic on $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, and is not analytic at the origin.

23 Taylor's theorem in several variables

Theorem 23.1 (Taylor's theorem in several variables).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be an open convex set, $c = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k) \in S$, and $m \geq 1$ be an integer.

1. If $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^m on S ,
then for any $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in S$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = n \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq n}}^m \frac{\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(c)}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!} (x_1 - c_1)^{\alpha_1} (x_2 - c_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (x_k - c_k)^{\alpha_k} + R_{f,c,m}(x - c),$$

where

$$R_{f,c,m}(x - c) = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = m \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq m}} \frac{\int_0^1 (1-t)^{m-1} [\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(c + t(x - c)) - \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(c)] dt}{\frac{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!}{m}} (x_1 - c_1)^{\alpha_1} (x_2 - c_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (x_k - c_k)^{\alpha_k}$$

and satisfies $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{R_{f,c,m}(x - c)}{\|x - c\|^m} = 0$.

If, in addition, there exists $M_1 > 0$ and $\lambda > 0$ such that for any $0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq m$ satisfying $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = m$ and for any $x, y \in S$,

$$|\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(x) - \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(y)| \leq M_1 \|x - y\|^\lambda,$$

then there exists $M_2 > 0$ such that $|R_{f,c,m}(x - c)| \leq M_2 \|x - c\|^{\lambda+m}$ for all $x \in S$.

2. If $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^{m+1} on S with $m \geq 1$,
then for any $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in S$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = n \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq n}}^m \frac{\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(c)}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!} (x_1 - c_1)^{\alpha_1} (x_2 - c_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (x_k - c_k)^{\alpha_k} + R_{f,c,m}(x - c),$$

where

$$R_{f,c,m}(x - c) = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = m+1 \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq m+1}} \frac{\int_0^1 (1-t)^m \partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(c + t(x - c)) dt}{\frac{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!}{m+1}} (x_1 - c_1)^{\alpha_1} (x_2 - c_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (x_k - c_k)^{\alpha_k}.$$

and we also have that there exists z between x and c such that

$$R_{f,c,m}(x - c) = \sum_{\substack{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = m+1 \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq m+1}} \frac{\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(z)}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!} (x_1 - c_1)^{\alpha_1} (x_2 - c_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (x_k - c_k)^{\alpha_k}.$$

If, in addition, there exists $M \in [0, \infty)$ such that $|\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(y)| \leq M$ for all $y \in S$ and all $0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq m+1$ with $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = m+1$,
then for any $x \in S$, $|R_{f,c,m}(x - c)| \leq \frac{M}{(m+1)!} (|x_1 - c_1| + \dots + |x_k - c_k|)^{m+1}$.

24 The uniqueness of the Taylor polynomial and the second derivative test in two variables

Theorem 24.1 (the uniqueness of the Taylor polynomial).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be an open convex set, $c = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k) \in S$, and $m \geq 1$ be an integer.

Let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^m on S and $f(x) = Q(x - c) + E(x - c)$ for all $x \in S$,

where $Q : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a polynomial in $x - c$ of degree $\leq m$

and $E : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function with $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{E(x - c)}{\|x - c\|^m} = 0$.

Then for any $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in S$,

$$Q(x - c) = \sum_{\substack{n=0 \\ \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_k = n \\ 0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \leq n}}^m \frac{\partial_1^{\alpha_1} \partial_2^{\alpha_2} \dots \partial_k^{\alpha_k} f(c)}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_k!} (x_1 - c_1)^{\alpha_1} (x_2 - c_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (x_k - c_k)^{\alpha_k},$$

i.e., $Q(x - c)$ is the m th-order Taylor polynomial for f about c on S .

If $k = 1$, we may only require f is C^{m-1} on S and $f^{(m)}(c)$ exists. (exercise)

Recall 24.2. (the critical point theorem in several variables)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at $c \in S$.

If f has a local maximum or a local minimum at c ,

then c is a **critical point** of f , i.e., $\nabla f(c) = 0$.

Theorem 24.3 (the second derivative test in several variables).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^2 at $c \in S$, and c is a critical point of f .

Let $H_f(c) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_{11}^2 f(c) & \dots & \partial_{1k}^2 f(c) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_{k1}^2 f(c) & \dots & \partial_{kk}^2 f(c) \end{bmatrix}$, called the **Hessian** of f at c .

1. If all eigenvalues of $H_f(c)$ are positive (resp. negative), then f has a local minimum (resp. maximum) at c .
2. If f has a local minimum (resp. maximum) at c , then all eigenvalues of $H_f(c)$ are nonnegative (resp. nonpositive).

Theorem 24.4 (the second derivative test in two variables).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be open, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^2 at $c \in S$, and c is a critical point of f .

Let $H_f(c)$ be the **Hessian** of f at c , that is, $H_f(c) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_{11}^2 f(c) & \partial_{12}^2 f(c) \\ \partial_{21}^2 f(c) & \partial_{22}^2 f(c) \end{bmatrix}$.

1. If $\det(H_f(c)) > 0$ and $\partial_{11}^2 f(c) > 0$, then f has a local minimum at c .
2. If $\det(H_f(c)) > 0$ and $\partial_{11}^2 f(c) < 0$, then f has a local maximum at c .
3. If $\det(H_f(c)) < 0$, then c is a **saddle point** of f , that is, there are two eigenvalues of $H_f(c)$ which are of opposite signs.
4. If $\det(H_f(c)) = 0$, that is, the critical point c is said to be **degenerate**, then conclusions vary depending high-order derivatives.

Theorem 24.5 (extreme value theorem for C^r functions). (exercise)

Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a C^r function on (a, b) , where $r \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $c \in (a, b)$.

If $f^{(n)}(c) = 0$ for all $1 \leq n < r$ and $f^{(r)}(c) \neq 0$, then the followings hold.

1. If r is even and $f^{(r)}(c) > 0$, then f has a local minimum at c .
2. If r is even and $f^{(r)}(c) < 0$, then f has a local maximum at c .
3. If r is odd, then f has neither a local minimum nor a local maximum at c .

25 Extreme value problem and Lagrange's method for constraint

Theorem 25.1 (extreme value problem on a closed and unbounded region).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be closed and unbounded and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous on S .

1. If $\lim_{\substack{\|x\| \rightarrow +\infty \\ x \in S}} f(x) = +\infty$ (resp. $\lim_{\substack{\|x\| \rightarrow +\infty \\ x \in S}} f(x) = -\infty$),
then f has a global minimum but no global maximum on S
(resp. a global maximum but no global minimum on S).
2. If $\lim_{\substack{\|x\| \rightarrow +\infty \\ x \in S}} f(x) = 0$ and there is a point $a \in S$ such that $f(a) < 0$ (resp. $f(a) > 0$),
then f has a global minimum (resp. a global maximum) on S .

Theorem 25.2 (Lagrange's method for constraints).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be two C^1 functions on S

with $m < k$ and write $g = (g_1, \dots, g_m)$.

Let $T = \{x \in S : g(x) = 0\}$ and $a \in T$.

If the restriction of f on T , $f|_T$, has a local maximum or a local minimum at a
and the vectors $\nabla g_1(a), \dots, \nabla g_m(a)$ are linearly independent ($\nabla g_1(a) \neq 0$ for $m = 1$),
then there exists m real numbers $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ such that

$$\nabla f(a) + \lambda_1 \nabla g_1(a) + \dots + \lambda_m \nabla g_m(a) = 0.$$

Here the numbers $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ are called **Lagrange's multipliers**.

In practice, one solves the system of $(m + k)$ equations

$$g_i(x) = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_j} + \lambda_1 \frac{\partial g_1(x)}{\partial x_j} + \dots + \lambda_m \frac{\partial g_m(x)}{\partial x_j} = 0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq m \text{ and } 1 \leq j \leq k$$

for $(m + k)$ variables λ_i and x_j for $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq k$, where $x = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$,
which are the candidates of local extreme points on T .

26 The Fréchet derivative, Jacobian, and chain rule

Definition 26.1 (Fréchet derivative for vector-valued functions in several variables).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$.

We say that f is **differentiable** at $x \in S$

if there is a linear transformation A from \mathbb{R}^k to \mathbb{R}^m such that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0, h \in \mathbb{R}^k} \frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - Ah\|}{\|h\|} = 0$;

by linear transformation, we means that $A(c_1x + c_2y) = c_1A(x) + c_2A(y)$ for all vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and all scalars $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, and one often writes Ax instead of $A(x)$ due to linearity.

In this case, such a linear transformation is unique and

it is called the (**Fréchet**) **derivative** of f at x and is denoted by $Df(x)$ or Df_x .

One can define $Df(x)$ to be the linear transformation such that $f(x+h) = f(x) + Df(x)h + o(h)$,

where $o(h)$ is a vector-valued function such that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0, h \in \mathbb{R}^k} \frac{o(h)}{\|h\|} = 0$, called in **Landau notation**.

Once when we fix bases of \mathbb{R}^k and \mathbb{R}^m and write vectors in column form,

the linear transformation $Df(x)$ can be represented by a unique $m \times k$ matrix, denoted by $Df(x)$ without ambiguity,

the value $Df(x)h$ of the linear transformation becomes the matrix $Df(x)$ acting on the column vector h ,

moreover, the column vector $h \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is regarded as an $k \times 1$ matrix,

and the action $Df(x)h$ can also be treated as a multiplication of matrices;

we call $Df(x)$ the **Jacobian matrix** of f at x (depending on the given bases).

If $m = k$, then the Jacobian matrix $Df(x)$ is a $k \times k$ matrix,

the function $J_f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $x \mapsto \det(Df(x))$ is called the **Jacobian** of f ,

which dose not depend on the bases used to construct the Jacobian matrix.

Proposition 26.2.

Let us fix bases of \mathbb{R}^k and \mathbb{R}^m , and

let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)^T$ written as a column in \mathbb{R}^m , and $a \in S$.

Then f is differentiable at $a \iff$ each of its components f_1, \dots, f_m is differentiable at a .

In this case, $Df(a) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_1(a) \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_m(a) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_1 f_1(a) & \cdots & \partial_k f_1(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_1 f_m(a) & \cdots & \partial_k f_m(a) \end{bmatrix}$.

If $m = 1$, then $Df(a) = \nabla f(a)$ and $Df(a)h^T = \nabla f(a) \cdot h$, while ∇f and h were written in row form before.

in some textbook, vectors and gradients are written in column form then $Df(a)^T = \nabla f(a)$ and $Df(a)h = \nabla f(a) \cdot h$.

Theorem 26.3 (chain rule for vector-valued functions).

Let $g : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and let $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be differentiable at $g(a)$.

Then the composition $f \circ g : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable at a and $D(f \circ g)(a) = Df(g(a))Dg(a)$.

Definition 26.4. (directional derivative of a vector-valued function)

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function and $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$ be a point.

Let u be a **unit vector** in \mathbb{R}^k , that is, $\|u\| = 1$.

The (**two-sided**) **directional derivative**, or **Gâteaux derivative**, of f at a , in the direction of u is defined to be

$$\partial_u f(a) = \frac{d}{dt} f(a + tu) \Big|_{t=0} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + tu) - f(a)}{t} \text{ provided the limit exists (as a vector in } \mathbb{R}^m \text{).}$$

If $k = 1$, then the one-sided directional derivative with fit well with one-side derivative.

Theorem 26.5.

Differentiability of implies the existence of all directional derivatives and $Df(a)u = \partial_u f(a)$,

where $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable at $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is a unit vector written as a column vector.

Remark 26.6.

Let $L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ be the set of all linear transformation from the vector space \mathbb{R}^k to the vector space \mathbb{R}^m .

For $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$, define $\|A\| = \sup\{\frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} : x \in \mathbb{R}^k, x \neq 0\}$, called the **operator norm** or **induced norm** on $L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$

and for $A, B \in L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$, define $d(A, B) = \|A - B\|$.

Then $L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ with d is a metric space.

If S is a metric space, a_{ij} is a real-valued continuous function on S for all $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq k$, and

for each $z \in S$, $A(z) \in L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ has a matrix representation with entries $a_{ij}(z)$ while the bases of \mathbb{R}^k and \mathbb{R}^m are fixed, then the function $z \mapsto A(z)$ is a continuous function from S to $L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$.

Theorem 26.7. (C^1 functions)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$.

Then the partial derivatives $\partial_j f_i$ all exist and are continuous on S

\iff f is **continuously differentiable** on S ,

that is, f is differentiable on S and $Df : S \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ is continuous on S

(in this case we say that f is C^1 on S or $f \in C^1(S)$). (advanced exercise)

27 The mean value theorem and the implicit function theorem

Theorem 27.1 (the mean value theorem for vector-valued functions).

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ a function.

1. If $a, b \in S$ such that $L := \{a + t(b - a) : 0 \leq t \leq 1\} \subseteq S$,
and if f is continuous on L and is differentiable on $L \setminus \{a, b\}$,
then for any vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$ written as a column vector,
there exists $c \in L$ such that $u \cdot (f(b) - f(a)) = u \cdot (Df(c)(b - a))$, where $b - a$ is written as a column vector in \mathbb{R}^k .
In particular, if $m = 1$, then there exists $c \in L$ such that $f(b) - f(a) = \nabla f(c) \cdot (b - a)^T$,
where $\nabla f(c) := (\partial_1 f(c), \dots, \partial_k f(c))$ and $(b - a)^T$ is rewritten as a row vector, identical to Theorem 19.1.
2. If S is convex, f is differentiable on S ,
and there exists $M \in [0, \infty)$ such that $\|Df(x)\| \leq M$ for all $x \in S$,
where $\|Df(x)\| := \max\{\|Df(x)y\| : y \in \mathbb{R}^k, \|y\| = 1\} = \sup\{\frac{\|Df(x)y\|}{\|y\|} : y \in \mathbb{R}^k, y \neq 0\}$, called the **norm** of $Df(x)$,
then $\|f(b) - f(a)\| \leq M\|b - a\|$ for all $a, b \in S$.
(Note that the usual mean value theorem does not hold, e.g., the function $t \mapsto (\cos(t), \sin(t))$ on $[0, 2\pi]$.)

Theorem 27.2 (the implicit function theorem in one variable).

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 on some neighborhood of $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}$

and write $(x, y) \mapsto f(x, y)$.

If $f(a, b) = 0$ and $\partial_{k+1}f(a, b) \neq 0$,

then there exist $r_0 > 0$ and $r_1 > 0$ such that

for any $x \in B_{r_0}(a)$ there exists a unique $y \in B_{r_1}(b)$ such that $f(x, y) = 0$,

where $B_{r_0}(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k : \|x - a\| < r_0\}$ and $B_{r_1}(b) = \{y \in \mathbb{R} : |y - b| < r_1\}$;

denote this y by $g(x)$, then $g : B_{r_0}(a) \rightarrow B_{r_1}(b)$ is a C^1 function on $B_{r_0}(a)$ with $g(a) = b$

and for all $x \in B_{r_0}(a)$, $f(x, g(x)) = 0$ and $\partial_i g(x) = -\frac{\partial_i f(x, g(x))}{\partial_{k+1}f(x, g(x))}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Corollary 27.3.

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 on \mathbb{R}^k and let $\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k : f(x) = 0\}$.

If $a \in \gamma$ with $\nabla f(a) \neq 0$,

then there exists a neighborhood U of a in \mathbb{R}^k such that $\gamma \cap U$ is the graph of a C^1 function.

Theorem 27.4 (the implicit function theorem in several variables).

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be C^1 on some neighborhood of $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^m$

and write $(x, y) \mapsto f(x, y)$ and $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)$.

If $f(a, b) = 0$ and $\det(A) \neq 0$, where $A = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_{k+1}f_1 & \cdots & \partial_{k+m}f_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_{k+1}f_m & \cdots & \partial_{k+m}f_m \end{bmatrix} (a, b)$,

then there exist $r_0 > 0$ and $r_1 > 0$ such that

for any $x \in B_{r_0}(a)$ there exists a unique $y \in B_{r_1}(b)$ such that $f(x, y) = 0$,

where $B_{r_0}(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k : \|x - a\| < r_0\}$ and $B_{r_1}(b) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : \|y - b\| < r_1\}$;

denote this y by $g(x)$, then $g : B_{r_0}(a) \rightarrow B_{r_1}(b)$ is a C^1 function on $B_{r_0}(a)$ with $g(a) = b$

and for all $x \in B_{r_0}(a)$, $f(x, g(x)) = 0$ and $\partial_i g(x)$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ can be computed

by differentiating $f(x, g(x)) = 0$ with respect to x_i

and solving the resulting linear system of equations for $\partial_i g_1, \dots, \partial_i g_m$, where $g = (g_1, \dots, g_m)$ as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \partial_1 f_1 & \cdots & \partial_k f_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_1 f_m & \cdots & \partial_k f_m \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \partial_{k+1} f_1 & \cdots & \partial_{k+m} f_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_{k+1} f_m & \cdots & \partial_{k+m} f_m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \partial_1 g_1 & \cdots & \partial_k g_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_1 g_m & \cdots & \partial_k g_m \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

28 Curves in the plane and surfaces in the space

Definition 28.1 (C^1 curve and surface).

1. A set $\gamma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is called a C^1 **curve** if every $a \in \gamma$ has a neighborhood U such that $\gamma \cap U$ is the graph of a C^1 function g (either $y = g(x)$ or $x = g(y)$).
2. A set $\gamma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ is called a C^1 **surface** if every $a \in \gamma$ has a neighborhood U such that $\gamma \cap U$ is the graph of a C^1 function g (either $z = g(x, y)$, $y = g(x, z)$, or $x = g(y, z)$).

Theorem 28.2 (sufficient conditions for C^1 curves in \mathbb{R}^2).

1. (a non-parametric form)
Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be open, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 on S , and $\gamma = \{(x, y) \in S : f(x, y) = 0\}$.
If $a \in \gamma$ and $\nabla f(a) \neq 0$,
then there exists a neighborhood U of a in \mathbb{R}^2
such that $\gamma \cap U$ is the graph of a C^1 function g (either $y = g(x)$ or $x = g(y)$).
2. (a parametric form)
Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be C^1 on (a, b) .
If $t_0 \in (a, b)$ and $Df(t_0) = f'(t_0) \neq 0$,
then there exists an open interval I of t_0 in (a, b)
such that the set $\{f(t) : t \in I\}$ is the graph of a C^1 function g
(either $y = g(x)$ or $x = g(y)$).

Theorem 28.3 (sufficient conditions for C^1 surface in \mathbb{R}^3).

1. (a non-parametric form)
Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ be open, $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 on S
which is denoted by $(x, y, z) \mapsto f(x, y, z)$, and let $\gamma = \{(x, y, z) \in S : f(x, y, z) = 0\}$.
If $a \in \gamma$ and $\nabla f(a) \neq 0$,
then there exists a neighborhood U of a in \mathbb{R}^3
such that $\gamma \cap U$ is the graph of a C^1 function g
(either $z = g(x, y)$, $y = g(x, z)$, or $x = g(y, z)$).
2. (a parametric form)
Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be open and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be C^1 on S , denoted by $(s, t) \mapsto f(s, t)$.
If $(s_0, t_0) \in S$ and the vectors $\frac{\partial f}{\partial s}(s_0, t_0)$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(s_0, t_0)$ are linearly independent
(equivalently, if $(s_0, t_0) \in S$ and the cross product $\frac{\partial f}{\partial s}(s_0, t_0) \times \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(s_0, t_0) \neq 0$),
then there exists a neighborhood U of (s_0, t_0) in S
such that the set $\{f(s, t) : (s, t) \in U\}$ is the graph of a C^1 function g
(either $z = g(x, y)$, $y = g(x, z)$, or $x = g(y, z)$).

29 Curves in \mathbb{R}^3 and n -dimensional manifolds in \mathbb{R}^k

Definition 29.1. (*curves in \mathbb{R}^3*)

A C^1 **curve** γ in \mathbb{R}^3 is defined to be one of the following:

1. (the non-parametric form) the set $\gamma = \{x \in U : f(x) = 0\}$,
where $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ be open and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is a C^1 function with $f = (f_1, f_2)$
such that the vectors $\nabla f_1(x)$ and $\nabla f_2(x)$ are **linearly independent** at each $x \in \gamma$,
or equivalently, the matrix $Df(x)$ has rank 2 at every $x \in \gamma$.
2. (the parametric form) the set $\gamma = \{f(t) : t \in V\}$,
where $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is open and $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a C^1 function
such that $f'(t) \neq 0$ at each $t \in V$.

Definition 29.2. (*manifold in \mathbb{R}^k*)

A C^1 **n -dimensional manifold** γ in \mathbb{R}^k with $n < k$ is defined to be one of the following:

1. (the non-parametric form) the set $\gamma = \{x \in U : f(x) = 0\}$,
where $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k-n}$ is a C^1 function with $f = (f_1, \dots, f_{k-n})$
such that the vectors $\nabla f_1(x), \dots, \nabla f_{k-n}(x)$ are **linearly independent** at each $x \in \gamma$,
or equivalently, the matrix $Df(x)$ has rank $k - n$ at every $x \in \gamma$.
2. (the parametric form) the set $\gamma = \{f(t) : t \in V\}$,
where $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is open and $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is a C^1 function
such that $\frac{\partial f(t)}{\partial t_i}, i = 1, \dots, n$, are **linearly independent** at each $t \in V$,
or equivalently, the matrix $Df(t)$ has rank n at each $t \in V$.

In fact, in the theory of Differential Geometry,

we define a C^1 **n -dimensional manifold** γ by using local charts so that γ is locally like \mathbb{R}^n ,
then the above becomes sufficient conditions for γ being a C^1 n -dimensional manifold
and the tangent space of γ at each point on it is well defined.

30 The inverse function theorem and the higher order Fréchet derivative

Theorem 30.1 (the inverse function theorem).

Let $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open and $f : U \rightarrow V$ be C^1 on U .

If $a \in U$ and the Jacobian $\det(Df(a)) \neq 0$,

then there exist open neighborhoods $U_1 \subseteq U$ of a and $V_1 \subseteq V$ of $f(a)$

such that f is one-to-one from U_1 onto V_1 ,

the inverse function $f^{-1} : V_1 \rightarrow U_1$ is C^1 ,

and $Df^{-1}(f(x)) = [Df(x)]^{-1}$ for all $x \in U_1$.

Remark 30.2. (globally one-to-one)

Let $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ be open. Suppose $f : U \rightarrow V$ is C^1 and $\det(Df(x)) \neq 0$ for all $x \in U$.

Is f one-to-one on U ?

1. If $k = 1$, the answer is YES.

2. If $k > 1$, the answer is NO.

Problem 30.3 (Jacobian conjecture).

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ be a map whose component functions are all polynomials.

Suppose $\det(Df(x)) = 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$.

Is f one-to-one on \mathbb{R}^k ?

(If yes, then one can prove that the inverse of f is a map defined on \mathbb{R}^k whose component functions are also all polynomials.)

The conjecture that the answer is yes is called **Jacobian conjecture**; this is a famous unsolved problem.

Remark 30.4. (higher order Fréchet derivative)

The Fréchet derivative of a function $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ gives a function $Df : U \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$,

that is, $Df(x) \in L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ such that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - Df(x)h\|_{\mathbb{R}^m}}{\|h\|_{\mathbb{R}^k}} = 0$,

where $L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ is the set of all linear transformations from \mathbb{R}^k to \mathbb{R}^m with the metric induced from the operator norm, which is isomorphic to the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^{km} .

Similarly, the Fréchet derivative of the function Df gives a function $D(Df) : U \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^k, L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m))$,

called the **second derivation** of f , denoted by $x \mapsto D^2 f_x := D(Df)(x)$, that is, $D(Df(x)) \in L(\mathbb{R}^k, L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m))$ such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|Df(x+h) - Df(x) - D(Df)(x)(h)\|_{L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)}}{\|h\|_{\mathbb{R}^k}} = 0,$$

where $L(\mathbb{R}^k, L(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m))$ is isomorphic to the set of maps in $L(\mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$ which are linear in each factor of \mathbb{R}^k separately, called the set of all **bilinear maps** from \mathbb{R}^k to \mathbb{R}^m and denote by $L^2(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$, and so we write $D^2 f_x(h, v) = D^2 f_x(h)(v)$.

Assume that f is C^2 on U . Then $\partial_{ij}^2 f(x) = \partial_{ji}^2 f(x)$ for all $1 \leq i, j \leq k$, which is a vector in \mathbb{R}^m .

Let $\{e^i : 1 \leq i \leq k\}$ denote the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^k . Then for vectors $h = \sum_{i=1}^k h_i e^i$ and $v = \sum_{i=1}^k v_i e^i$, we have

$$D^2 f_x(h, v) = \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq k} \partial_{ij}^2 f(x) h_i v_j = \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq k} \partial_{ji}^2 f(x) v_j h_i = D^2 f_x(v, h)$$

, which makes $D^2 f_x$ a **symmetric bilinear** function from $\mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^k$ to \mathbb{R}^m .

Similarly, one can define **the r -derivative of f at x** , which is a symmetric r -linear form, $D^r f_x \in L^r(\mathbb{R}^k, \mathbb{R}^m)$.

Moreover, one has **the chain rule**

$$D^2(g \circ f)_x(h, v) = D^2 g_{f(x)}(Df_x h, Df_x v) + Dg_{f(x)} D^2 f_x(h, v),$$

and **the Taylor theorem** for C^r function $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^r \frac{D^n f_c(x-c, \dots, x-c)}{n!} + R_{f,c,r}(x-c),$$

satisfying $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{R_{f,c,r}(x-c)}{\|x-c\|^r} = 0$.

Assume that $m = 1$, that is, the codomain is the base field.

Then $D^2 f_x$ is a symmetric bilinear form with the $k \times k$ matrix $(\partial_{ji}^2 f(x))_{1 \leq i, j \leq k}$, that is, the Hessian matrix of f at x ,

and it gives a quadratic form $D^2 f_c(x-c, x-c) = (x-c)^T D^2 f_c(x-c) = \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq k} \partial_{ji}^2 f(x)(x_j - c_j)(x_i - c_i)$.