Topic 5:

Unconstrained optimization

Outline

- 1. Local optimization, first order necessary condition
- 2. Positive (negative) definite matrix
- 3. Second order sufficient conditions for local extreme points
- 4. Concavity
- 5. Quasi-concavity
- 6. Global optimization
- 7. Economic applications
- 8. Envelope Theorem

1. Local optimization, first order necessary condition

- Consider a two-variable differentiable function z = f(x, y) defined on S, (x_0, y_0) is an interior point of S
- (x_0, y_0) is said to be local maximum point of f if $f(x, y) \le f(x_0, y_0)$ for all pairs of (x, y) in S that lie close to (x_0, y_0) .
- (x_0, y_0) is said to be local minimum point of f if $f(x, y) \ge f(x_0, y_0)$ for all pairs of (x, y) in S that lie close to (x_0, y_0) .
- Let $y = y_0$, if (x_0, y_0) is a local maximum point of f, then $g(x) = f(x, y_0)$ will reach its maximum at $x = x_0$, so $g'(x_0) = f_1'(x_0, y_0) = 0$

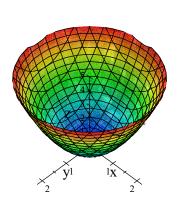
• First-order necessary condition for interior extreme point: (x_0, y_0) is a local extreme point of f, then (x_0, y_0) is a stationary point, satisfying the FOC:

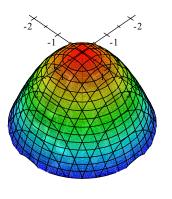
$$f_1'(x_0, y_0) = 0$$
, $f_2'(x_0, y_0) = 0$, or $f'(x_0, y_0) = 0$

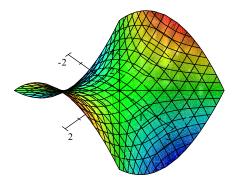
• A saddle point (x_0, y_0) is a stationary point with the property that there exist points (x, y) close to (x_0, y_0) with $f(x, y) < f(x_0, y_0)$, and there also exist such points with $f(x, y) > f(x_0, y_0)$

• **Example**: For the following functions, obviously (0,0) is the stationary point

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$
 [minimum point]
 $f(x, y) = -x^2 - y^2$ [maximum point]
 $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ [saddle point]







• Recall: for one-variable function f(x), if x_0 is a stationary point, then sufficient condition for x_0 to be extreme points is

 x_0 is local maximum $f''(x_0) < 0$

 x_0 is local minimum $f''(x_0) > 0$

• Recall justification of second derivative test: For $f \in C^2$:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(\xi)}{2}(x - x_0)^2$$

where ξ is between x and x_0 .

- If $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) < 0$, then $f''(\xi) < 0$ when x is close to x_0 , therefore $f(x) < f(x_0)$: x_0 is a local maximum.
- If $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) > 0$, then $f''(\xi) > 0$ when x is close to x_0 . therefore $f(x) > f(x_0)$: x_0 is a local minimum.

• Extension of Taylor expansion from one variable to multi-variable: for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$f'(x) = (f_{x_1}'(x), f_{x_2}'(x), \dots, f_{x_n}'(x))^T = \left(\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n}\right)^T$$

$$f''(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

note that f'(x) is a $n \times 1$ vector and f''(x) is $n \times n$ symmetric matrix.

- Taylor expansion for $f \in C^2(f)$: function of n variables): $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \cdot (x x_0) + (1/2)(x x_0)'f''(\xi)(x x_0)$ where ξ is between x and x_0
- x_0 is a stationary point if $f'(x_0) = 0$.
- whether x_0 is local maximum or minimum depends on whether $(x x_0)'f''(x_0)(x x_0)$ is > 0 or < 0.
- Let $h = x x_0$. We need to learn when f(h) = h'Ah > 0 or < 0 for a symmetric matrix A.

2. Positive (negative) definite matrix

• Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and A be symmetric matrix,

$$f(x) = x'Ax$$

is said to be of quadratic form.

• **Examples**: for symmetric matrices

$$A_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \ A_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \ A_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ A_{4} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f_{1}(x) = f_{1}(x_{1}, x_{2}) = x' A_{1}x = 2x_{1}^{2} - 2x_{1}x_{2} + 2x_{2}^{2}$$

$$f_{2}(x) = f_{2}(x_{1}, x_{2}) = x' A_{2}x = x_{1}^{2} - 2x_{1}x_{2} + x_{2}^{2}$$

$$f_{3}(x) = f_{3}(x_{1}, x_{2}) = x' A_{3}x = x_{1}x_{2}$$

$$f_{4}(x) = f_{4}(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}) = x' A_{4}x = -2x_{1}^{2} - 3x_{2}^{2} - 2x_{3}^{2} + 2x_{1}x_{3}$$

Definition of definite matrices

• A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is

Positive semi-definite ($A \ge 0$)	if	$x'Ax \ge 0$ for any $x \in R^n$
Positive definite $(A > 0)$	if	$x'Ax > 0$ for any $x \in R^n$, $x \neq 0$
Negative semi-definite ($A \leq 0$)	if	$x'Ax \leq 0$ for any $x \in R^n$
Negative definite $(A < 0)$	if	$x'Ax < 0$ for any $x \in R^n$, $x \neq 0$
Indefinite	If	x'Ax > 0 for some x and < 0 for some other x

Examples (revisit):

$$A_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \ A_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \ A_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ A_{4} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f_{1}(x) = 2x_{1}^{2} - 2x_{1}x_{2} + 2x_{2}^{2} = (x_{1} - x_{2})^{2} + x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} > 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0$$

$$f_{2}(x) = x_{1}^{2} - 2x_{1}x_{2} + x_{2}^{2} = (x_{1} - x_{2})^{2} \geq 0$$

$$f_{3}(x) = x_{1}x_{2} > 0 \text{ for some } x, \text{ and } < 0 \text{ for some other } x$$

$$f_{4}(x) = -2x_{1}^{2} - 3x_{2}^{2} - 2x_{3}^{2} + 2x_{1}x_{3} = -x_{1}^{2} - 3x_{2}^{2} - x_{3}^{2} - (x_{1} - x_{3})^{2} < 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0$$

$$A_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} > 0, \ A_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \geq 0,$$

$$A_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is indefinite, } A_{4} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} < 0$$

- Note: $A \le 0$ iff $-A \ge 0$, and A < 0 iff -A > 0
- If $A \ge 0$, then $a_{ii} \ge 0$ for all i; If A > 0, then $a_{ii} > 0$ for all i.
- If $A \leq 0$, then $a_{ii} \leq 0$ for all i; If A < 0, then $a_{ii} < 0$ for all i.

• **Exercise**: is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \ge 0?$$

- **Example**: Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$, then
 - $-A>0 \Leftrightarrow a>0, ac-b^2>0$
 - $-A \ge 0 \Leftrightarrow a \ge 0, c \ge 0, ac b^2 \ge 0$
 - $-A < 0 \Leftrightarrow a < 0, ac b^2 > 0$
 - $-A \le 0 \Leftrightarrow a \le 0, c \le 0, ac b^2 \ge 0$
 - A is indefinite $⇔ ac b^2 < 0$

• Given a matrix $A=(a_{ij})_{n\times n}$, for $i_1< i_2< \cdots < i_k\in\{1,2,\cdots,n\}$, define a k-dimensional principal minor as

$$d_{\{i_1,...,i_k\}} = egin{bmatrix} a_{i_1,i_1} & a_{i_1,i_2} & \cdots & a_{i_1,i_k} \ a_{i_2,i_1} & a_{i_2,i_2} & \cdots & a_{i_2,i_k} \ dots & dots & dots \ a_{i_k,i_1} & a_{i_k,i_2} & \cdots & a_{i_k,i_k} \ \end{pmatrix}$$

In particular, denote the leading principal minors as

$$d_1 = d_{\{1\}}, \ d_2 = d_{\{1,2\}}, \dots, d_n = d_{\{1,2,\dots,n\}}$$

• **Example**: Let
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

• The 1-dimensional principal minors are:

$$d_{\{1\}} = 1, d_{\{2\}} = 5, d_{\{3\}} = 9$$

The 2-dimensional principal minors are:

$$d_{\{1,2\}} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{vmatrix}, d_{\{1,3\}} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 7 & 9 \end{vmatrix}, d_{\{2,3\}} = \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix}$$

- The 3-dimensional principal minor is $d_{\{1,2,3\}} = |A|$
- The leading principal minors are

$$d_1 = d_{\{1\}} = 1, d_2 = d_{\{1,2\}} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{vmatrix}, d_3 = d_{\{1,2,3\}} = |A|$$

- **Example**: For $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$
- The 1-dimensional principal minors are $d_{\{1\}}=a$, $d_{\{2\}}=c$
- The 2-dimensional principal minors are: $d_{\{1,2\}} = |A| = ac b^2$
- The leading principal minors are $d_1=d_{\{1\}}=a$, $d_2=d_{\{1,2\}}=ac-b^2$

Compare

- 1. $A > 0 \Leftrightarrow a > 0, ac b^2 > 0$ (all leading principal minors > 0)
- 2. $A \ge 0 \Leftrightarrow a \ge 0, c \ge 0, ac b^2 \ge 0$ (all principal minors ≥ 0)
- 3. $A < 0 \Leftrightarrow a < 0$, $ac b^2 > 0$ (all leading principal minors < 0 if odd dimension, > 0 if even dimension)
- 4. $A \le 0 \Leftrightarrow a \le 0, c \le 0, ac b^2 \ge 0$ (all principal minors, ≤ 0 if odd dimension, ≥ 0 if even dimension)

• **Theorem**: For a symmetric matrix *A*

- 1. $A > 0 \Leftrightarrow d_k > 0$ for all k
- 2. $A < 0 \Leftrightarrow (-1)^k d_k > 0$ for all k
- $3. \quad A \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow d_{\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_k\}} \geq 0 \text{ for all } \{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_k\} \in \{1,2,\ldots,n\} \text{ with } i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k$
- $4. \qquad A \leq 0 \Leftrightarrow (-1)^k d_{\{i_1,i_2,\dots,i_k\}} \geq 0 \text{ for all } \{i_1,i_2,\dots,i_k\} \in \{1,2,\dots,n\} \text{ with } i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq 1, \dots \leq i_k \leq 1, \dots \leq n \}$

• **Example** (revisit): use the above theorem to verify that

$$A_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} > 0, \ A_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \ge 0,$$

$$A_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is indefinite, } A_{4} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} < 0$$

- For A_1 , $d_1 = 2 > 0$, $d_2 = |A_1| = 3 > 0$, thus $A_1 > 0$
- For A_2 , $d_{\{1\}} > 0$, $d_{\{2\}} > 0$, $d_{\{1,2\}} = 0$, thus $A_2 \ge 0$
- For A_3 , $d_{\{1,2\}} < 0$, thus A_3 is indefinite
- For A_4 , $d_1 = -2 < 0$, $d_2 = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = 6 > 0$, $d_3 = |A_4| < 0$, thus $A_4 < 0$

 Exercise: Use the above theorem to check the following matrices for definiteness

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

3. Second order sufficient conditions for local extreme points

• Example:
$$f(x,y) = -x^2 + xy - y^2 = (x,y) \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = v'Av$$
,

the matrix
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 is negative definite, therefore, $v'Av < 1$

0 if $v \neq 0$. In summary, f(0,0) = 0, and f(x,y) < 0 if $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$, the stationary point (0,0) is (unique) local (global) maximum.

• **Example**:
$$f(x,y) = -x^2 + 2xy - y^2 = (x,y) \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$
, the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ is negative semi-definite, (0,0) is a local maximum, but not the unique maximum point.

• Example:
$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = (x,y)A \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$
 with $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$

- If A < 0, then (0,0) is unique maximum point
- If A > 0, then (0,0) is unique minimum point
- Note: $(x_0, y_0) = (0,0)$ is the stationary point of f
- f''(x,y) = 2A
- Second-order sufficient condition for local extreme points for general function of two variables f(x, y)
 - $-(x_0,y_0)$ is a stationary point of f
 - A sufficient condition for (x_0, y_0) to be local maximum point is $f''(x^0, y^0) < 0$
 - A sufficient condition for (x_0, y_0) to be local minimum point is $f''(x^0, y^0) > 0$
 - A necessary condition for (x_0, y_0) to be local maximum point is $f''(x^0, y^0) \le 0$
 - A necessary condition for (x_0, y_0) to be local minimum point is $f''(x^0, y^0) \ge 0$
 - If $f''(x_0, y_0)$ is indefinite, then, (x_0, y_0) must is a saddle point

- **Example**: $f(x,y) = x^3 x^2 y^2 + 8$, find local extreme points
 - FOC: $\begin{cases} f_1'(x, y) = 3x^2 2x = 0 \\ f_2'(x, y) = -2y = 0 \end{cases}$
 - Stationary points: (0,0) and $(\frac{2}{3},0)$
 - Hessian matrix: $f''(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 6x 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$
 - Thus,

$$f''(0,0) = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} < 0, \ f''(\frac{2}{3},0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$
 is indefinite

- Therefore, (0,0) is local maximum point and (2/3,0) is a saddle point
- Exercise: Find local extreme point(s) of

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + y - xy - y^3$$

• Exercise: Find local extreme point(s) of

$$f(x,y) = x + 2ey - e^x - e^{2y}$$

- Extension to n-variable function: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ twice continuously differentiable
- $x^* \in R^n$ is a stationary point if it satisfies $f'(x^*) = 0$, or equivalently $\frac{\partial f(x^*)}{\partial x_i} = 0$ for i = 1, 2, ..., n
- Second-order sufficient condition for local maximum/minimum
 - A sufficient condition for x^* to be local maximum is $f''(x^*) < 0$
 - A sufficient condition for x^* to be local minimum is $f''(x^*) > 0$
 - A necessary condition for x^* to be local maximum is $f''(x^*) \le 0$
 - A necessary condition for x^* to be local minimum is $f''(x^*) \ge 0$
 - If $f''(x^*)$ is indefinite, then, x^* must is a saddle point

• **Example**: $x \in R^3$, $f(x) = x_1^3 + x_2^2 + 2x_3^2 - 2x_2x_3 - 3x_1 + 10$, find local maximum/minimum point.

FOC:
$$\begin{cases} f_1'(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = 3x_1^2 - 3 = 0 \\ f_2'(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} = 2x_2 - 2x_3 = 0 \\ f_3'(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3} = 4x_3 - 2x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Stationary points: $c_1 = (1,0,0)$ and $c_2 = (-1,0,0)$
- Hessian matrix: $f''(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 6x_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$

$$f''(c_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} > 0; \ f''(c_2) = \begin{pmatrix} -6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$
 is indefinite

• c_1 is a local minimum point. c_2 is a saddle point.

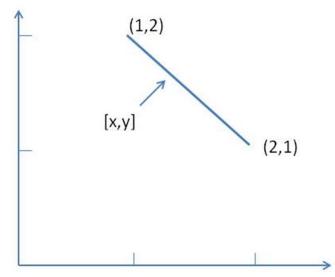
4. Concavity

- Concavity is a sufficient condition for a stationary point to be a global maximum.
- Given any two points $x, y \in R^n$, define the intervals:

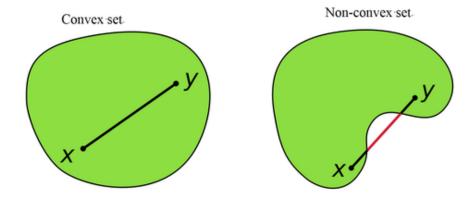
Closed interval: $[x, y] = \{z | z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y, \lambda \in [0, 1]\}$

Open interval: $(x, y) = \{z | z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y, \lambda \in (0, 1)\}$

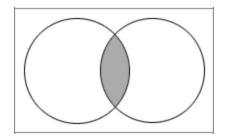
• **Example**: n=2, x=(1,2), y=(2,1), [x,y] is the line connecting the two points:

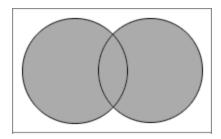


• A set $S \subset R^n$ is a convex set if $x, y \in S \Rightarrow [x, y] \subset S$



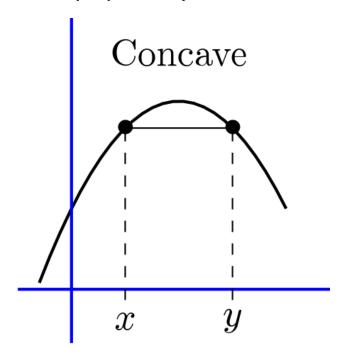
• If S and T are convex sets, then $S \cap T$ is a convex set (not true for $S \cup T$)

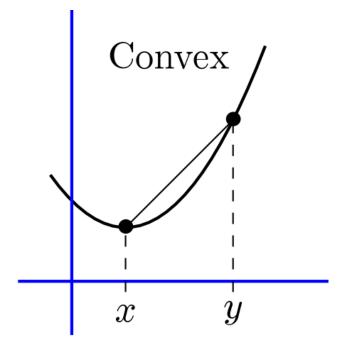




Concave/Convex functions

- Given a convex set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$
 - f is concave if $f(\lambda x + (1 \lambda)y) \ge \lambda f(x) + (1 \lambda)f(y)$, $\forall \lambda \in (0,1)$, and $x, y \in S$
 - f is strictly concave if $f(\lambda x + (1 \lambda)y) > \lambda f(x) + (1 \lambda)f(y)$, $\forall \lambda \in (0,1)$, and $x,y \in S$
 - f is convex if $f(\lambda x + (1 \lambda)y) \le \lambda f(x) + (1 \lambda)f(y)$, $\forall \lambda \in (0,1)$, and $x, y \in S$
 - f is strictly convex if $f(\lambda x + (1 \lambda)y) < \lambda f(x) + (1 \lambda)f(y)$, $\forall \lambda \in (0,1)$, and $x,y \in S$





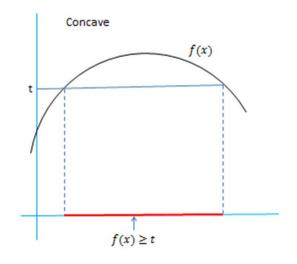
Example

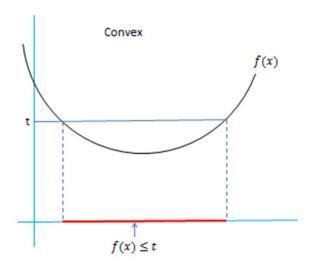
Use definition to argue that $f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$ defined on R^2 is a convex function

• Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $\lambda \in (0,1)$ $f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) = (\lambda x_1 + (1-\lambda)y_1)^2 + (\lambda x_2 + (1-\lambda)y_2)^2$ $= \lambda^2 (x_1^2 + x_2^2) + 2\lambda (1-\lambda)(x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2) + (1-\lambda)^2 (y_1^2 + y_2^2)$ $= \lambda^2 f(x) + 2\lambda (1-\lambda)(x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2) + (1-\lambda)^2 f(y)$ $\leq \lambda^2 f(x) + \lambda (1-\lambda)(x_1^2 + y_1^2 + x_2^2 + y_2^2) + (1-\lambda)^2 f(y)$ $= (\lambda^2 + \lambda (1-\lambda)) f(x) + (\lambda (1-\lambda) + (1-\lambda)^2) f(y)$ $= \lambda f(x) + (1-\lambda) f(y)$

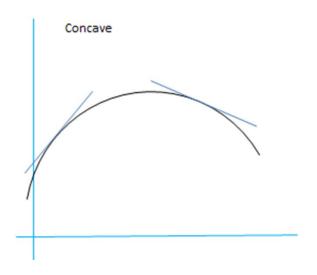
Properties

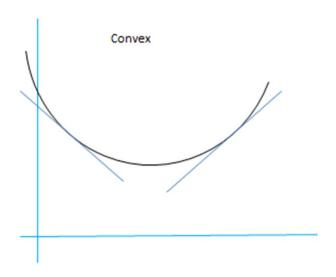
- f is concave iff -f is convex;
- f is strictly concave iff -f is strictly convex.
- A linear function is both concave and convex
- $f: S \to R$ is concave, then the upper level set $\{x \in S | f(x) \ge t\}$ is convex, $\forall t \in R$
- $f: S \to R$ is convex, then the lower level set $\{x \in S | f(x) \le t\}$ is convex, $\forall t \in R$





- Theorem (First-order characterization of concave(convex) functions): Let $f: S \to R$ be C^1 function defined on an open, convex set S, then
 - 1. f is concave $\Leftrightarrow f(v) \leq f(u) + \nabla f(u) \cdot (v u)$ for all $u, v \in S$. In other words, the curve is always below any tangent plane
 - 2. f is strictly concave $\Leftrightarrow f(v) < f(u) + \nabla f(u) \cdot (v u)$ for all $u, v \in S$ and $u \neq v$.
 - 3. f is convex $\Leftrightarrow f(v) \ge f(u) + \nabla f(u) \cdot (v u)$ for all $u, v \in S$. In other words, the curve is always above any tangent plane
 - 4. f is strictly convex $\Leftrightarrow f(v) > f(u) + \nabla f(u) \cdot (v u)$ for all $u, v \in S$ and $u \neq v$.





Example

• Consider the function f defined on R^2

$$f(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$$

• For $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\nabla f(u) = (2u_1, 2u_2)^T$$

$$[f(v) - f(u)] - \nabla f(u) \cdot (v - u)$$

$$= [(v_1^2 + v_2^2) - (u_1^2 + u_2^2)] - (2u_1, 2u_2) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 - u_1 \\ v_2 - u_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= v_1^2 + v_2^2 - u_1^2 - u_2^2 - (2u_1v_1 - 2u_1^2 + 2u_2v_2 - 2u_2^2)$$

$$= (u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 = ||u - v||^2 > 0 \text{ for } u \neq v$$
thus f is strictly convex

- **Theorem**: Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a convex set, and $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ is twice differentiable $(f \in \mathbb{C}^2)$, then
 - 1. f is convex \Leftrightarrow $f''(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in S$
 - 2. f is concave $\Leftrightarrow f''(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in S$
 - 3. f''(x) > 0 for all $x \in S \Rightarrow f$ is strictly convex
 - 4. f''(x) < 0 for all $x \in S \Rightarrow f$ is strictly concave
- Note, "f is strictly convex" does not necessarily imply that f''(x) > 0. Example: $f(x) = x^4$
- **Example:** function f(x, y) = xy

$$f''(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

is indefinite and f is neither concave nor convex

• **Example**: Discuss the concavity of $f(x,y) = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$

- Note
$$f''(x,y) = 2\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$$

1.
$$f$$
 is convex \Leftrightarrow $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} \ge 0 \Leftrightarrow a \ge 0, c \ge 0, ac - b^2 \ge 0$

2.
$$f$$
 is concave $\Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} \le 0 \Leftrightarrow a \le 0, c \le 0, ac - b^2 \ge 0$

3.
$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} > 0 \Leftrightarrow a > 0, ac - b^2 > 0 \Rightarrow f$$
 is strictly convex

4.
$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} < 0 \Leftrightarrow a < 0, ac - b^2 > 0 \Rightarrow f$$
 is strictly concave

• **Example**: For $f(x,y) = x^{\alpha} + y^{\beta}$ defined on $R_{++}^{2}(x > 0, y > 0)$ for $\alpha, \beta \ge 0$

$$f_{x} = \alpha x^{\alpha - 1}, \ f_{y} = \beta y^{\beta - 1}$$

$$f_{xx} = \alpha (\alpha - 1) x^{\alpha - 2}, \ f_{xy} = 0, \ f_{yy} = \beta (\beta - 1) y^{\beta - 2}$$

$$f''(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha (\alpha - 1) x^{\alpha - 2} & 0\\ 0 & \beta (\beta - 1) y^{\beta - 2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{concave} & \text{if } 0 \le \alpha, \beta \le 1\\ \text{strictly concave} & \text{if } 0 < \alpha, \beta < 1 \end{cases}$$

• **Example**: For Cobb-Douglas function $f(x,y) = x^{\alpha}y^{\beta}$ defined on R_{++}^2 for $\alpha, \beta \geq 0$ Since

$$\begin{split} f_{x} &= \alpha x^{\alpha - 1} y^{\beta}, \ f_{y} = \beta x^{\alpha} y^{\beta - 1} \\ f_{xx} &= \alpha (\alpha - 1) x^{\alpha - 2} y^{\beta}, \ f_{xy} = \alpha \beta x^{\alpha - 1} y^{\beta - 1}, \ f_{yy} = \beta (\beta - 1) x^{\alpha} y^{\beta - 2} \\ f''(x, y) &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha (\alpha - 1) x^{\alpha - 2} y^{\beta} & \alpha \beta x^{\alpha - 1} y^{\beta - 1} \\ \alpha \beta x^{\alpha - 1} y^{\beta - 1} & \beta (\beta - 1) x^{\alpha} y^{\beta - 2} \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

$$f \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{concave} & \text{if } \alpha, \beta \ge 0, \alpha + \beta \le 1 \\ \text{strictly concave} & \text{if } \alpha, \beta > 0, \alpha + \beta < 1 \end{cases}$$

• **Example**: Let $f(x, y) = -x^2 - y^2$,

$$f''(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} < 0$$

- f(x, y) is strictly concave on R^2 .
- Let $g(x, y) = e^{-x^2 y^2} = e^{f(x, y)}$ then

$$g''(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} 2(2x^2 - 1)g & 4xyg \\ 4xyg & 2(2y^2 - 1)g \end{pmatrix} \le 0 \text{ only when } x^2 + y^2 \le \frac{1}{2}$$

- g(x, y) is not concave on R^2
- Concavity is not preserved under monotone transformation

5. Quasi-concavity

- One problem with concavity and convexity is that a monotone transformation of a concave (or convex) function need not be a concave (convex).
- A weaker condition to describe a function is quasiconcavity (quasiconvexity)
- Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a convex set, $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$

```
- f is quasi-concave if f(y) \ge f(x) f(z) \ge f(x), for all x, y \in S, z \in (x, y)

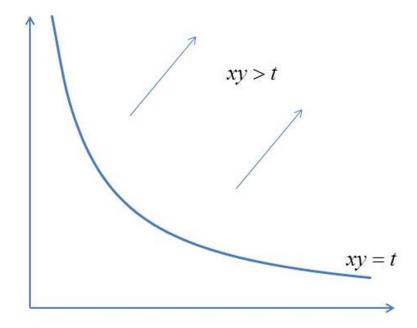
- f is strictly quasi-concave if f(y) \ge f(x) f(z) > f(x), for all x, y \in S, z \in (x, y)

- f is quasi-convex if f(y) \le f(x) f(z) \le f(x), for all x, y \in S, z \in (x, y)

- f is strictly quasi-convex if f(y) \le f(x) f(z) < f(x), for all x, y \in S, z \in (x, y)
```

- f is quasi-convex (strictly quasi-convex) if -f is quasi-concave (strictly quasi-concave)
- $f: S \to R$ is quasi-concave iff the upper level set $L_f(t) = \{x \in S | f(x) \ge t\}$ is convex, $\forall t \in R$
- $f: S \to R$ is quasi-convex iff lower level set $L_f(t) = \{x \in S | f(x) \le t\} \text{ is convex, } \forall t \in R$

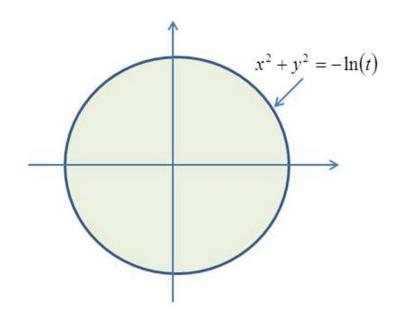
- **Example**: Show that f(x, y) = xy is quasi-concave on R_+^2 .
 - $\forall t \in R$, if t > 0, then the upper level set is a convex set



– If $t \le 0$, then the upper level set is R_+^2 , obviously it is convex.

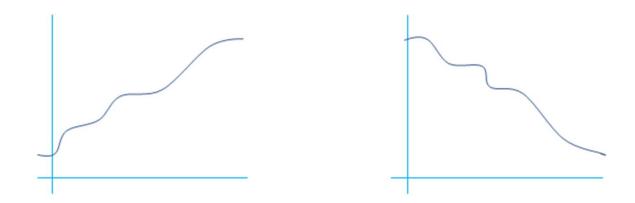
- **Example**: Show that $f(x, y) = e^{-x^2 y^2}$ is quasi-concave on R^2
 - ∀ $t \in R$, if $0 < t \le 1$, then the upper level set is a convex set

$$\{(x,y): f(x,y) \ge t\} = \{(x,y): e^{-x^2 - y^2} \ge t\}$$
$$= \{(x,y): x^2 + y^2 \le \ln(t)\}$$

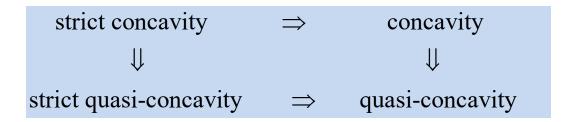


- if $t \le 0$, then the upper level set = R^2 , obviously it is convex
- If t > 1, then the upper level set = \emptyset (empty set, ignore)

• Monotone functions defined on ${\it R}$ are both quasi-concave and quasi-convex



- Concave functions are quasi-concave; convex functions are quasi-convex
- Strictly Concave functions are strictly quasi-concave; strictly convex functions are strictly quasi-convex
- Summary:



• Quasi-concavity does not necessarily imply concavity, an example: $f(x) = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$

- (Quasiconcavity is preserved under monotone transformation) If f is quasi-concave (quasi-convex) and H is strictly increasing, then $H(f(\cdot))$ is quasi-concave (quasi-convex)
- **Example** (revisit): Show that $g(x, y) = e^{-x^2 y^2}$ is quasi-concave on R^2
 - The function $f(x,y) = -(x^2 + y^2)$ is concave (thus quasi-concave) on R^2 , and $H(z) = e^z$ is strictly increasing, thus g(x,y) = H(f(x,y)) is quasi-concave

• Theorem: Given second order differentiable $f: S \to R$, the bordered Hessian matrix

$$B_{f}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f_{1} & \cdots & f_{n} \\ f_{1} & f_{11} & \cdots & f_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ f_{n} & f_{n1} & \cdots & f_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } f_{ij} = \frac{\partial^{2} f(x)}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}$$

for i, j = 1, 2, ..., n, and its leading principal minors are $b_1(x), b_2(x), ..., b_{n+1}(x)$, then

- 1. f is quasi-convex $\Rightarrow b_k(x) \le 0$ for $\forall k \ge 2$ and $\forall x \in S$
- 2. f is quasi-concave $\Rightarrow (-1)^k b_k(x) \le 0$ for $\forall k \ge 2$ and $\forall x \in S$
- 3. $b_k(x) < 0$ for $\forall k \ge 2$ and $\forall x \in S \Rightarrow f$ is strictly quasi-convex
- 4. $\Rightarrow (-1)^k b_k(x) < 0$ for $\forall k \ge 2$ and $\forall x \in S \Rightarrow f$ is strictly quasi-concave

- **Example**: Apply the theorem to how that f(x, y) = xy is strictly quasiconcave on R_{++}^2 .
 - Bordered Hessian matrix:

$$B_f(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & y & x \\ y & 0 & 1 \\ x & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$- (-1)^2 b_2(x, y) = -y^2 < 0;$$

$$(-1)^{3}b_{3}(x,y) = -\begin{vmatrix} 0 & y & x \\ y & 0 & 1 \\ x & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -2xy < 0$$

- therefore, f(x,y) is strictly quasi-concave on R_{++}^2

- **Exercise**: $f(x,y) = x^{\alpha} + y^{\beta}$ defined on $R_{++}^2(x>0,y>0)$ for $\alpha,\beta\geq 0$ is strictly quasi-concave if $0<\alpha,\beta\leq 1$ and $\alpha\neq 1$ or $\beta\neq 1$
 - Recall: f is strictly concave if $0 < \alpha, \beta < 1$
- **Exercise**: Cobb-Douglas function $f(x,y) = x^{\alpha}y^{\beta}$ defined on R_{++}^2 for $\alpha, \beta \geq 0$ is strictly quasi-concave if $\alpha, \beta > 0$
 - Recall: f is strictly concave if $\alpha, \beta > 0$, $\alpha + \beta < 1$

6. Global optimization

- Recall: A set $A \subset R^n$ is a compact set if it is closed and bounded.
- (Existence of global maximum: Optimal Value Theorem). Given function $f: X \to R$, where $X \subset R^n$, if f is continuous and X is compact, then f has at least one minimum point and one maximum point
 - If f is not continuous, e.g.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x+1 & \text{if } x < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1\\ x-1 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

does not have a minimum or maximum on [0,2] (compact set).

- If X is not compact, e.g., f(x) = x for $x \in (0,1)$, f does not have minimum or maximum.

Sufficient conditions for global maximum

- Let $f: X \to R$, where $X \subset R^n$ is convex set, consider problem $\max_{x \in X} f(x)$
 - 1. Sufficient condition #1: If f is concave on X, any stationary point $x^* \in X$ is a global maximum point
 - 2. Sufficient condition #2.1: If f is quasi-concave, a local maximum x^* satisfing $f''(x^*) < 0$ is a global maximum
 - 3. Sufficient condition #2.2: If f is strictly quasi-concave, a local maximum x^* is a global maximum

Sufficient conditions for global minimum

- Let $f: X \to R$, where $X \subset R^n$ is convex set, consider problem $min_{x \in X} f(x)$
 - 1. Sufficient condition #1: If f is convex on X, any stationary point $x^* \in X$ is a global minimum point
 - 2. Sufficient condition #2.1: If f is quasi-convex, a local minimum x^* satisfing $f''(x^*) > 0$ is a global minimum
 - 3. Sufficient condition #2.2: If f is strictly quasi-convex, a local minimum x^* is a global minimum

Notes:

- When x^* is a corner solution, it may not satisfy FOC. (consider f(x) = x, and X = [0,1])
- FOC and strict quasi-concavity together are not sufficient to ensure optimality (consider $f(x) = x^3$)
- A quasi-concave can go up and down, but it can go up and down at most once. i.e., a quasi-concave function can have at most one hump, therefore, a local maximum must be a global maximum.

• **Example**: Quadratic function with non-zero stationary point:

$$f(x,y) = -2x^2 - 2xy - 2y^2 + 36x + 42y - 158$$

find extreme points.

• FOC:
$$\begin{cases} f_1' = -4x - 2y + 36 = 0 \\ f_2' = -2x - 4y + 42 = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Stationary point: $(x_0, y_0) = (5.8)$
- Hessian matrix $f''(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -2 \\ -2 & -4 \end{pmatrix} < 0$, f is strictly concave function
- Thus (5,8) is the unique maximum point of f.

• **Example**: Find the extreme point(s) of

$$f(x,y) = x + 2ey - e^x - e^{2y}$$

• FOC:
$$\begin{cases} f_x = 1 - e^x = 0 \\ f_y = 2e - 2e^{2y} = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Stationary point $(0, \frac{1}{2})$
- Hessian matrix: $f''(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} -e^x & 0 \\ 0 & -4e^{2y} \end{pmatrix} < 0$
- *f* is strictly concave
- (0,1/2) is a (unique) global maximum point.

• **Example**: Find extreme point(s) of

$$f(x,y) = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$$

• FOC:
$$\begin{cases} f_x = -2xe^{-x^2 - y^2} = 0\\ f_y = -2ye^{-x^2 - y^2} = 0 \end{cases}$$

- stationary point: (0,0).
- (0,0) is a unique maximum point.
- Is *f* concave?
- Is *f* quasi-concave?

7. Economic applications

- Example: (problem of a multiproduct firm, P331 Example 1)
 - A two-product firm under circumstances of pure competition, prices of two products: p_1 and p_2 are given.
 - Revenue of firm: $R=p_1Q_1+p_2Q_2$ where Q_1,Q_2 are the output level of the two products
 - Cost function: $C = 2Q_1^2 + Q_1Q_2 + 2Q_2^2$
 - Profit: $\pi(Q_1, Q_2) = p_1Q_1 + p_2Q_2 (2Q_1^2 + Q_1Q_2 + 2Q_2^2)$

- FOC:
$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial Q_1} = p_1 - 4Q_1 - Q_2 = 0\\ \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial Q_2} = p_2 - Q_1 - 4Q_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

- stationary point: $({Q_1}^*, {Q_2}^*) = (\frac{4p_1 p_2}{15}, \frac{4p_2 p_1}{15})$
- Hessian matrix: $\begin{pmatrix} -4 & -1 \\ -1 & -4 \end{pmatrix} < 0$, $\pi(Q_1, Q_2)$ is strictly concave
- $-({Q_1}^*,{Q_2}^*)$ is unique maximum point.

• Example: (Monopoly price discrimination, P336 Example 4)

- A monopoly sells its product in three separable markets.
- Inverse market demands: $p_1 = 63 4Q_1$, $p_2 = 105 5Q_2$, $p_3 = 75 6Q_3$
- Cost function: C(Q) = 20 + 15Q where $Q = Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3$
- Profit function:

$$\pi(Q_1, Q_2, Q_3) = p_1 Q_1 + p_2 Q_2 + p_3 Q_3 - C(Q)$$

$$= (63 - 4Q_1)Q_1 + (105 - 5Q_2)Q_2 + (75 - 6Q_3)Q_3 - [20 + 15(Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3)]$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial Q_1} = 63 - 8Q_1 - 15 = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial Q_2} = 105 - 10Q_2 - 15 = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial Q_3} = 75 - 12Q_3 - 15 = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Stationary point:
$$({Q_1}^*, {Q_2}^*, {Q_2}^*) = (6,9,5)$$

- Hessian matrix:
$$\begin{pmatrix} -8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -12 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $\pi(\cdot)$ is concave function

- therefore, $({Q_1}^*, {Q_2}^*, {Q_2}^*)$ is a unique maximum of $\pi(Q_1, Q_2, Q_3)$
- The maximum profit: $\pi({Q_1}^*, {Q_2}^*, {Q_2}^*) = 679$
- From inverse demands, the price that the firm charges in the three markets are:

$$p_1^* = 63 - 4Q_1^* = 39$$
, $p_2^* = 105 - 5Q_2^* = 60$, $p_3^* = 75 - 6Q_3^* = 45$

- Example: (input decisions of a firm, P337 Example 5)
 - A competitive firm has the following profit function: $\pi=R-\mathcal{C}=pQ-wL-rK$
 - where

$$p =$$
price (exogenous variable due to competitive market)

L = labor

K = capital

$$Q = \text{output} = Q(K, L) = K^{\alpha}L^{\alpha} \text{ where } 0 < \alpha < 1/2$$

w, r = prices for labor and capital respectively, exogenous variables

- Profit function: $\pi(K, L) = pK^{\alpha}L^{\alpha} - rK - wL$

- FOC
$$\begin{cases} \pi_{K} = \alpha p K^{\alpha - 1} L^{\alpha} - r = 0 \\ \pi_{L} = \alpha p K^{\alpha} L^{\alpha - 1} - w = 0 \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{cases} \alpha p K^{\alpha - 1} L^{\alpha} = r \\ \alpha p K^{\alpha} L^{\alpha - 1} = w \end{cases} \Rightarrow \frac{K}{L} = \frac{w}{r}$$

- Stationary points:
$$(K^*, L^*) = \left((p\alpha r^{\alpha-1} w^{-\alpha})^{\frac{1}{1-2\alpha}}, (p\alpha w^{\alpha-1} r^{-\alpha})^{\frac{1}{1-2\alpha}} \right)$$

Hessian matrix:

$$\pi''(K,L) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 \pi}{\partial K^2} & \frac{\partial^2 \pi}{\partial K \partial L} \\ \frac{\partial^2 \pi}{\partial L \partial K} & \frac{\partial^2 \pi}{\partial L^2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p\alpha(\alpha - 1)K^{\alpha - 2}L^{\alpha} & p\alpha^2 K^{\alpha - 1}L^{\alpha - 1} \\ p\alpha^2 K^{\alpha - 1}L^{\alpha - 1} & p\alpha(\alpha - 1)K^{\alpha}L^{\alpha - 2} \end{pmatrix}$$

since
$$p\alpha(\alpha-1)K^{\alpha-2}L^{\alpha} < 0$$

$$|\pi''(K,L)| = p^2\alpha^2(\alpha-1)^2K^{2\alpha-2}L^{2\alpha-2} - (p\alpha^2K^{\alpha-1}L^{\alpha-1})^2$$

$$= p^2\alpha^2(1-2\alpha)K^{2\alpha-2}L^{2\alpha-2} > 0$$

 $-\pi(K,L)$ is negative definite for all $K>0, L>0, (K^*,L^*)$ is the unique maximum point.

8. Envelope Theorem

- Example: (problem of a one-product firm under pure competition):
 - The price of product p is given and the cost function $C(Q) = Q^2$, where Q is the output level of the product. The profit function with parameter p is $f(Q,p) = pQ Q^2$ find Q that maximizes the profit function.
 - FOC: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial o} = p 2Q = 0$
 - Stationary point: $Q^* = p/2$
 - SOC: $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial Q^2} = -2 < 0$, f is strictly concave, Q^* maximizes the π for a given p
 - Note in this example the optimal value of the choice variable Q*(p) = p/2 is a function of the parameter problem (p)
 - Once the optimal value of the choice variable has been substituted into the profit function, the objective function indirectly becomes a function of the parameter.

$$f^*(p) = pQ^*(p) - [Q^*(p)]^2 = \frac{p^2}{4}$$

- The maximum value function $f^*(p)$ is referred to as the indirect profit function; f(p,Q) is referred to as the direct profit function
- We can easily work out $\frac{d}{dp}f^*(p) = \frac{p}{2}$

- Note that evaluating $f^*(p)$ requires a two-step procedure for general objective function f(x,p) with parameter p
 - First, given p, find the value of $x^*(p)$ that solves the problem
 - Second, substitute this value of $x^*(p)$ into the objective function to obtain $f^*(p) = f(x^*(p), p)$
 - We want to take the derivative of f^* with respect to p

• Envelop Theorem for maximization problem without constraints: Given a differentiable function $f(x,a): X \times A \to R$, where $X \subset R^n$ and $A \subset R^k$, if $x^*(a)$ is an interior optimal point of

then
$$f^*(a) = \max_{x \in X} f(x, a)$$
$$\frac{\partial f^*(a)}{\partial a_i} = \frac{\partial f(x, a)}{\partial a_i} \bigg|_{x = x^*(a)}$$

for
$$i = 1, 2, ..., k$$

• Note the key advantage of the Envelope Theorem is that we can find the derivative of $f^*(p)$ without actually solving for $f^*(p)$.

- **Example** (revisit): (problem of a one-product firm under pure competition): Objective function $f(Q,p) = pQ Q^2$
- Recall: $Q^*(p) = \frac{p}{2}$
- $\bullet \quad \frac{\partial f(Q,p)}{\partial p} = Q$
- Apply the envelop theorem (for the case n = k = 1)

$$\left. \frac{df^*(p)}{dp} = \frac{\partial f(Q, p)}{\partial p} \right|_{Q = Q^*(p)} = Q^*(p) = \frac{p}{2}$$

- Example: (problem of a two-product firm, P331 Example 1, revisit)
 - Profit: $\pi(Q_1, Q_2, p_1, p_2) = p_1Q_1 + p_2Q_2 (2Q_1^2 + Q_1Q_2 + 2Q_2^2)$
 - Recall: for given p_1, p_2 , unique maximum point:

$$(Q_1^*(p_1, p_2), Q_2^*(p_1, p_2)) = \left(\frac{4p_1 - p_2}{15}, \frac{4p_2 - p_1}{15}\right)$$

- Maximum profit as function of p_1 , p_2 :

$$\pi^*(p_1, p_2) = \pi(Q_1^*(p_1, p_2), Q_2^*(p_1, p_2), p_1, p_2)$$

- Since
$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial p_1} = Q_1$$
, $\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial p_2} = Q_2$

From the envelop theorem

$$\frac{\partial \pi^*(p_1, p_2)}{\partial p_1} = Q_1^*(p_1, p_2) = \frac{4p_1 - p_2}{15}$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi^*(p_1, p_2)}{\partial p_2} = Q_2^*(p_1, p_2) = \frac{4p_2 - p_1}{15}$$

- Example: (revisit, input decisions of a firm, P337 Example 5)
 - Profit function:

$$\pi(K, L, p, r, w) = pQ(K, L) - rK - wL = pK^{\alpha}L^{\alpha} - rK - wL$$

Where p, r, w are parameters

- K, L that maximizes profit: $(K^*, L^*) = \left((p\alpha r^{\alpha-1} w^{-\alpha})^{\frac{1}{1-2\alpha}}, (p\alpha w^{\alpha-1} r^{-\alpha})^{\frac{1}{1-2\alpha}} \right)$
- Maximized profit: $\pi^*(p,r,w) = \pi(K^*,L^*,p,r,w)$

- Since
$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial p} = K^{\alpha} L^{\alpha}$$
, $\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial r} = -K$, $\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial w} = -L$

Apply the envelop theorem gives the following Hotelling's lemma:

$$\frac{\partial \pi^*(p,r,w)}{\partial p} = (K^*)^{\alpha} (K^*)^{\alpha} = Q(K^*,L^*)$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi^*(p,r,w)}{\partial r} = -K^*, \ \frac{\partial \pi^*(p,r,w)}{\partial w} = -L^*$$

- Note it is extremely tedious to work out $\pi^*(p,r,w)$ and then take partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial \pi^*}{\partial p}, \frac{\partial \pi^*}{\partial r}$$
 and $\frac{\partial \pi^*}{\partial w}$